

The Strategy Development of Cultural Heritage in Belt and Silk Road Initiatives: Literature Review

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Abstract—The world is plagued by a severe infrastructure deficit, which impedes commerce, opens up less business opportunities, and threatens future prosperity. Within the context of the tertiary sector, the cultural industry carries a large amount of weight. A scholarly discussion on the developmental characteristics of the tertiary sector has been prompted as a result of an investigation into the evolutionary patterns of industrial organization. China is now in the top spot worldwide for the installation of ultra-high voltage lines. China is also quite far along in the development of 5G internet, which is anticipated to play a significant role in the use of big data as well as the building of smart grids and cities, as well as other projects. China is also quite far along in the development of 5G internet. Nevertheless, other nations have a big part to play in the aforementioned industries and increasing the level of transparency in the procurement processes, in addition to generally improving the investment climate, may be advantageous in achieving the results with the lowest possible cost. The potential of the cultural sector to continually expand the breadth of the markets it operates in is the primary subject of this article. The ability to keep costs under control and to regulate them. The majority of the time, this concept refers to the capacity of organizations to implement cost-cutting methods in order to gain a competitive advantage in the market. the potential for sustained growth and development. In its most basic sense, the phrase refers to the mutually beneficial relationship that exists between the cultural industry and numerous facets of society, mankind, and the natural world.

Keywords— Strategy; Development; Cultural Heritage; Belt and Silk Road Initiatives.

I. INTRODUCTION

The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) is a development plan being implemented by China with the intention of increasing connectivity and collaboration between China and the following nations and regions: Mongolia and Russia; countries located in Eurasia; countries located in Central and West Asia; Pakistan; other countries located on the Indian subcontinent; and Indochina. According to the (Asian Development Bank, 2017), by the year 2030, Asia would require infrastructure investments totaling USD 26 trillion. There is little doubt that China can contribute to this. The nations who are affected positively benefit from it because of the investments it makes

in their infrastructure. The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) includes a component known as mutual benefit, which will, over the long term, assist in the development of new markets for Chinese goods and, over the short term, help alleviate industrial surplus capacity. Hardware (infrastructure) and financial matters receive the majority of the focus in the BRI.

There is a substantial infrastructure deficit throughout the world, which impedes commerce, opens up less business opportunities, and threatens future development. The multilateral development banks (MDBs) are exerting significant effort in order to close the financing gap. Recently, China initiated what is being referred to as the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), which is a vast international effort to encourage this trend. China and the economies that have signed cooperation agreements with China over the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) have expanded their proportion of the world economy. The "Leading Group" for promoting the Belt and Road Initiative is managed by the National Development and Reform Commission (NDRC), which also manages and coordinates all BRI projects, including those that are carried out in collaboration with the Ministry of Commerce (MOFCOM), the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (MFA), and the State Council Development Research Centre (DRC). The BRI is managed by the "Leading Group" for promoting its work, which is hosted by the NDRC. It is anticipated that the Belt and Road Initiative investment projects would provide more over one trillion dollars in additional outbound finance for foreign infrastructure over a period of ten years commencing in 2017. Even while new financial organizations have been formed, such as the Silk Road Fund, the majority of the cash that China will provide for these projects will come from commercial and state-directed development banks. Additionally, China backs a multilateral investment structure that incorporates multilateral development banks (MDBs) and public-private partnerships.

While the Belt and Road initiative may have geopolitical aspirations pertaining to the economic integration of China's neighboring countries, this article only focuses on the economic dimensions of the initiative. This analysis examines

the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) within the broader framework of global infrastructure requirements, while also considering China's long-term economic agenda for itself and other involved economies in Asia, Africa, Europe, Australasia, and Latin America. The OECD (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development) in 2018 examined the potential of OECD instruments and rules to effectively support China and nations participating in the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) in achieving greater integration into the global economy. This integration is expected to enhance the benefits derived from the BRI process.

Investments in transportation and energy infrastructure are the most pressing requirements in the world. Over 60% of global investment needs are projected to be in energy and transportation infrastructure (GI Hub, 2017; OECD, 2017; McKinsey, 2016). Infrastructure for water supply, rail transit, and telecommunications. Underinvestment is expected to be greatest in the transportation and power sectors. GI Hub (2017) estimates that in the future decades, a deficit of approximately USD 0.4 trillion per year would be experienced in global investments in road infrastructure, with an annual shortfall of roughly USD 0.15 trillion being experienced in investments in energy infrastructure. For instance, annual investment needs of USD 0.44 trillion are not expected to be reached (see Miyamoto, K., and Y. Wu, forthcoming, 2018).

The Asian Development Bank (ADB, 2017) forecasts that investment needs in Asia will be roughly USD 26 trillion by 2030 (including climate-related demands). This is corroborated by GI Hub (2017) and McKinsey (2016), which estimate that the Asian area will account for around half of their respective investment needs. Spending under the BRI makes a significant contribution to financing Asia's infrastructure requirements. Nonetheless, a cumulative shortfall of around USD 4.6 trillion, or more than four times the estimated USD 1 trillion for BRI related projects, is expected to emerge by 2040 (GI Hub, 2017). Investments in sustainable and high-quality infrastructure in the region, in particular, are required to allow Asia to retain its growth pace, appropriately address climate change, and reduce persistent poverty levels.

The development of the cultural industry is considered a crucial endeavor in the construction of a contemporary and robust cultural landscape (Zeng & Yang, 2022). The Silk Road possesses many cultural resources and exhibits a notable degree of economic development, hence creating a distinctive environment conducive to the growth and advancement of cultural enterprises (Wang, 2020). Nevertheless, the progress of the cultural industry along the Silk Road region is comparatively slower in comparison to other regions within the country. This research focuses on analyzing the cultural industry competitiveness of the Silk Road. It aims to assess the current state of cultural industry competitiveness in the Silk Road region using the diamond model. Additionally, it proposes a comprehensive framework for understanding cultural industry competitiveness and explores the factors that influence and contribute to its growth in the Silk Road.

The cultural industry holds significant importance within the tertiary sector. The examination of the evolutionary

patterns of industrial structure has prompted scholarly discourse on the developmental attributes of the tertiary sector (Li, 2021). In the 17th century, British economist William Petty observed a correlation between variations in national income across different regions and their respective stages of development (Sivado, 2019). The ongoing progress of the economy will lead to a gradual transition in the focal point of industry, shifting from the manufacturing of tangible assets to the provision of intangible services. This shift is driven by the significantly higher profitability of the industrial sector compared to agriculture and commerce. Consequently, there will be an inevitable migration of the labor force from agriculture to industry, and subsequently from industry to commerce (Zhang & Chen, 2021). Based on distribution research, Clark conducted a comparative analysis of the evolving employment-population distribution structure across three industries at varying income levels. He observed that as the economy develops and per capita national income improves, there is an initial shift of the labor force from the first industry to the second industry. Furthermore, as the per capita national income level continues to rise, the labor force undergoes a subsequent transfer to the third industry (Nuvolari & Russo, 2019). The phenomenon of industrial transfer is commonly referred to as the Petty-Clark law, which has emerged as a seminal hypothesis in the field of industrial structure transfer (Huang et al., 2021). Kuznets (1961) extended the scope of application of his research to encompass agricultural products, industrial products, and services. By analyzing global transnational economic structure changes, Kuznets observed that as economies develop, the relative share of agriculture diminishes, while the proportions of industry and services increase. According to Wang et al. (2019), the theory of industrial structure development suggests that a key factor contributing to the upgrading of industrial structure is the persistent growth in residents' income. The cultural industry has emerged as a significant component of the service sector, also known as the tertiary industry. It is widely recognized in the field of global economic development that the share of the cultural industry in the national economy tends to increase during the post-industrial era, in tandem with ongoing advancements in economic progress (Xiong et al., 2019).

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

The cultural industry distinguishes itself from other industries, including as the steel, automobile, and equipment industries. Culture is considered an integral component of a nation's soft power, while the cultural industry has emerged as a fundamental sector within a country's economy (Wei & Lin, 2021). During that era, when capitalist nations were undergoing rapid industrialisation, there was a greater emphasis on fulfilling material desires rather than prioritizing spiritual contentment. The relative significance of spiritual output in the national economy is considerably lower compared to that of material production. Since the 1990s, there has been an increased focus by national and regional governments on cultural and creative economic activities. This attention can be seen as a response to the challenges posed by

post-industrialization and land scarcity. The integration of cultural industries into government economic development agendas and planning schemes was motivated by the anticipation of identifying a viable tool to alleviate economic stagnation, stimulate employment, facilitate industrial advancement, and enhance regional and national competitiveness (Zhang & Chen, 2021).

Since the 1970s, cultural industries have emerged as a significant driver of economic growth in industrialized nations, offering various advantages including reduced energy consumption, minimized environmental pollution, substantial economic returns, fostering creative thinking, and facilitating sustainable development (Raimo et al., 2021). The rise of the cultural industry has led to a shift in focus within economic research, prompting scholars to examine the development of this industry via an economic lens, while also minimizing the influence of political factors (Martin & Grodach, 2022). As scholarly inquiry progresses, the meaning and scope of the cultural industry have undergone continuous enrichment. The definition of cultural industry varies among countries and locations, depending on the specific scope being considered. The industry concerned with intellectual property protection and the creation of artistic and cultural products is referred to as United States' copyright sector, British and Australian creative sectors, Spanish cultural leisure sector, Chinese culture sector, Germany, the Netherlands, South Korea, and various other countries, and the creative cultural industry in Taiwan, China (Galloway & Dunlop, 2007).

Throsby (1999, 2004, 2008), a prominent scholar and former president of the International Society of Cultural Economy, provided his own perspective on the definition of the cultural economy. The author delineated the cultural industry category using a methodology known as the concentric circles model, which consists of four levels or circles arranged in a concentric manner. The concentric circle model consists of a central core representing creative arts, followed by layers that progressively stretch outward to encompass other core cultural industries, wider cultural industries, and allied industries. Culture products and services fall under the several circles, each of which is distinct from the others. Core creative arts include writing, singing, acting, and painting, among others. Filmmaking, gallery and museum exhibitions, library services, and photography are also vital components of the cultural economy. In addition to legacy services, publishing and print media, sound recording, television and radio, and video and computer games all fall under the umbrella of the cultural industries. Finally, advertising, architecture, design, and the fashion industry are all connected fields.

According to Hua (2017), the cultural industry should prioritize the provision of cultural products and services in the market format. Furthermore, the cultural industry's production is mostly focused on profit maximization by enterprises. In the pursuit of augmenting the competitiveness of enterprises, the advantages of cultural production and management are continuously enhanced, resulting in the generation of a substantial amount of cultural riches. An imperative for the cultural industry is the establishment of an integrated

collaboration chain that effectively links cultural innovators, cultural producers, and cultural sellers. According to Hu (2022), culture can be understood as a manifestation of creative and civilized behavior, while the cultural industry encompasses a wide range of aspects within culture. The creation of civilization is a complex and multifaceted process. Hence, the cultural industry exhibits a propensity for creativity and exhibits ongoing development along its creative trajectory.

Furthermore, the cultural sector has been delineated by international organizations, governmental bodies, and various institutions. As per the report published by the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization (UNESCO, 2006), the notion of cultural industry encompasses a diverse array of activities that pertain to the creation, replication, preservation, and dissemination of cultural goods and services in accordance with established industrial conventions and benchmarks. As to the definition provided by UNESCO, the cultural industry encompasses many sectors such as the cinema and television industry, audio and video industry, advertising industry, network industry, publishing industry, culture, and entertainment industry, among others. The United States government designates the cultural industry as the copyright industry.

The Creative Industry Development Report was produced by the British government in 2001. Based on the report, the creative industry predominantly stems from individual endeavors in innovation and skill development, with intellectual property protection assuming a significant role within this sector. The creative industry in Britain encompasses a diverse range of sectors, consisting of thirteen key industries. These include advertising, art and cultural relics trafficking, handicrafts, fashion design, film, interactive leisure software, performing arts, music, publishing, software, architecture, television, and radio. Moreover, it maintains strong economic connections with sectors like tourism, museums, art galleries, and cultural assets. According to the British government's definition, the cultural sector can be categorized into two primary levels: the cultural industry itself and the cultural-related and supporting businesses.

In her study, Centárová (2020) conducted an examination of the cultural industry in Slovakia, focusing on the economic value derived from individual creative effort and artistic talent. The author expounded upon the prospective potential of the industry in question and highlighted Slovakia's advantageous position in the advancement of the creative sector, particularly in light of its limited natural mineral resources. Scholars have also conducted investigations to determine the factors that influence the cultural business. In their empirical study, Hikmah et al. (2021) conducted an analysis of the various elements that influence the business performance of the creative industry in Semarang, Indonesia. This study aimed to examine the impact of entrepreneurship orientation, creative product advantages, and social network quality on company performance, with the objective of helping enterprises maintain competitiveness. The study employed a quantitative methodology and convenience sampling technique to examine a sample of 126 creative industry owners. The findings of the

study indicate a statistically significant association between entrepreneurial orientation, innovative product advantage, social network, and the business performance of the creative industry in Semarang City, located in Central Java, Indonesia. Therefore, companies possessing superior resources possess a competitive edge and are capable of attaining long-term company sustainability.

Zhou et al. (2020) conducted research whereby the Guangxi Zhuang Autonomous Region in China was chosen as the sample for investigation. The researcher's analyzed data collected throughout the period of 2010 to 2018, employing the coupling coordination theory as their analytical framework. The objective of this study was to develop an index for the evaluation of the tourist and cultural sectors in an ethnic minority region. Additionally, the study sought to empirically analyze the level of coupling and coordination within these businesses. The results indicated a high level of coupling between the area culture industry and tourist sector, and the complete development assessment index of both businesses demonstrated a constantly increasing trend over time. This study illustrates the potential for reciprocal complementarity between the cultural sector and the tourist industry, wherein the merger of these two industries may generate a positive synergy effect that provides advantages for both the economy and the environment. The diamond model was utilized in the investigation that was carried out by Li (2021) to investigate the connection between the cultural sector and the expansion of the economy. The present study employed the grey relational degree approach to develop an evaluative model aimed at examining the impact of the cultural industry on economic growth. This investigation focused on three distinct levels, including the core layer, out layer, and related layer. The findings indicate that the impact of cultural sector innovation on economic growth is more significant compared to capital investment and labor. This influence is particularly pronounced in the tertiary industry, followed by the first and second industries.

The examination of competitiveness encompasses various disciplines within the fields of business, economics, and management, among others. Over the course of several years, a relatively comprehensive logical analysis framework has been gradually established (Falciola et al., 2020). The existing theoretical and empirical body of literature commonly categorizes competitiveness into three distinct levels, namely business competitiveness, industry competitiveness, and national competitiveness. Each of the three levels possesses distinct areas of focus. This part will primarily concentrate on the industrial competitiveness aspect of the research, which examines the competitive dynamics within the cultural industry. Nevertheless, it is important to note that the three levels of competitiveness, namely industrial competitiveness, national competitiveness, and company competitiveness, are intricately interconnected. The examination of industrial competitiveness is strongly linked to both national competitiveness and firm competitiveness in terms of their underlying meaning and scope (Falciola et al., 2020). Hence, the literature review in this section will concentrate on the

examination of industrial competitiveness, encompassing both the competitiveness of countries and firms.

The concept of competitiveness can be historically linked to Adam Smith's thesis of absolute advantage (Uysal, 2019). The theoretical foundation of the theory of rivalry between countries may be traced back to Adam Smith's thesis of absolute advantage. According to Bellino and Fratini (2022), Smith underscored the significance of cost advantage in determining a country's competitiveness in product manufacturing relative to international nations. David Ricardo (1817) inherited and further refined Adam Smith's idea of absolute advantage, afterwards introducing the theory of comparative advantage. The author posited that the occurrence of trade between two nations, or the international division of labor, is not contingent upon the absolute disparity in productivity in the production of a particular good, but rather on the relative discrepancy in productivity (Findlay, 1991; Grossman G M & Helpman E, 1989). According to the theoretical framework, it is posited that a nation or an economic system has inherent advantages in relation to the efficiency of its workforce, hence enabling it to engage in international trade with other nations. The essential tenet of his thesis does not lie in the absolute productivity advantage of certain items, but rather in the country's inclination to prioritize the production of products that exhibit comparatively better productivity (Shen et al., 2022).

Consequently, an international division of labor arises wherein a country or economy possessing a comparative advantage engages in the production of items that exhibit the greatest relative productivity. According to Grossman and Helpman (1989), the disparity between countries or regions may be attributed solely to variations in labor productivity. This assertion is based on the assumption that labor is the sole determinant of output. Nevertheless, it is important to note that there exist multiple elements of production. The economic landscape, characterized by multiple causes, has prompted extensive discussions within the economic community over the development of comparative advantage and the implementation of international division of labor (Brondino, 2021).

According to the idea, the phenomenon of division of labor persists within the global economy, even in the absence of Ricardo's concept of comparative advantage based on commodity production. The manufacturing of goods necessitates the utilization of input factors, and variations in factor endowments among countries lead to the division of labor, hence enhancing overall efficiency. According to Martínez-Caro et al. (2020), each economy creates products that are characterized by a reasonably abundant and high-factor endowment. The theory of factor endowment challenges the perspectives of Smith and Ricardo, who primarily focus on labor input when analyzing productivity. Instead, it explores the underlying causes of international division of labor by considering a wider range of production input components (Myint, 1977). Firms that possess a favorable factor endowment often exhibit a competitive advantage within a specific domain of production (Brondino, 2021). The cost of production exhibits significant variation among locations as a

consequence of disparities in natural resource endowment. According to Koch and Fessler (2020), individuals with a specific level of income consistently opt for regions characterized by lower production costs when making investment decisions.

III. METHODOLOGY

In the methodology section, we describe how various techniques were used to implement this study and how data were collected, organized, and evaluated to meet the study objectives and address the research questions. This study includes several subsections on research design, ways of collecting secondary data from the literature reviews, and official reports. This study contains discussion related to the belt and road initiatives and strategies to enhance Belt and Road cultural tourism initiatives, and ways and strategies to boost the market using different cultural models and supporting theories.

IV. FINDINGS

According to the Asian Development Bank's report in 2017, the Pacific area exhibits the highest investment requirements, accounting for 9.1% of its gross domestic product (GDP). This is closely followed by the South region, which has investment needs equivalent to 8.8% of its GDP, and the Central Asia region, with investment requirements amounting to 7.8% of its GDP. In comparison, the percentage of GDP allocated to this aspect is 5.7% in Southeast Asia and 5.2% in East Asian nations. According to the Asian Development Bank (ADB) in 2017, it is projected that if the current investment patterns persist, the annual infrastructure investment deficit in Asia would increase to USD 459 billion by the year 2020.

This amount is comparable to approximately 2.4% of the estimated gross domestic product (GDP) of the area. The South Asian region, characterized by lower-income economies, experiences more significant disparities in terms of GDP gaps compared to the relatively more developed Southeast Asian nations. On average, these gaps amount to 5.7% of the projected GDP for South Asia, whereas Southeast Asian states have an average GDP gap of 4.1%. According to the Asian Development Bank (ADB, 2017), China is forecast to have an internal infrastructure deficit of around 1.2% of its anticipated GDP through 2020, setting it apart from the majority of its neighboring Asian countries. Asia requires a lot more money for infrastructure than what the BRI is planning to invest. Therefore, meeting these needs will remain a high priority on the global agenda for development. To maintain economic growth and prevent geographical disparities from widening, regions beyond the present six BRI corridors will require more infrastructure investment. These nations may fail to adequately fund critical infrastructure projects in areas like water and sanitation. Maintenance, rehabilitation, and upgrading of existing infrastructure are also crucial, as are investments in low-carbon, sustainable, and high-quality infrastructure, a goal of the BRI. We will circle back to this point at the end of the study, but doing so will require the involvement of many investors, including China, other

government organizations, and international development institutions. There is no question, however, that the BRI provides the single largest single contribution to fulfilling these requirements.

The key aims of the BRI, the overall goal, and a list of the economies included for the purposes of this research were provided in an action plan by China in March 2015. More than half of the world's people and more than a third of the world's GDP are located in BRI economies. While infrastructure investment is essential to the BRI's success, China insists that its ambitions go much beyond that, encompassing all aspects of sustainable growth for itself, including more even regional development, industrial upgrading, and environmentally friendly expansion. The World Trade Organization and the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development are among the international organizations that have called attention to the problems associated with excess capacity in specific goods. For the BRI to be successful, China must ensure that it does not only relocate inefficient infrastructure and energy sources with negative environmental impacts to other nations. Therefore, the BRI may contribute significantly to the SDGs by the year 2030.

From China's standpoint, the approach of expanding markets for its goods by means of hardware connectivity within the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), coupled with investments in technology transfer to enhance value-added production, aligns with the objective of addressing domestic industrial overcapacity in the near term. Additionally, this strategy aims to establish a worldwide platform that fosters trade and investment with participating nations in the Initiative, with China assuming a central position. Several economies participating in the Belt and Road Initiative (BRI), such as China, recognize the advantages of a robust governmental presence and business engagements that align with the ideals established at the Bandung Conference. The establishment of connectivity between energy suppliers and electrical grids along the Belt and Road is an essential element of the strategy that prioritizes the development of physical infrastructure.

The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) encompasses a wide array of energy sources, and the task of effectively integrating and determining their economic value is a significant obstacle. China is widely recognized as the global frontrunner in the field of ultra-high voltage (UHV) transmission lines. China has made significant progress in the field of 5G internet technology, positioning itself as a leading nation in this domain. This advancement is expected to have a significant impact on the effective utilization of big data, as well as the advancement of smart grids and cities, remote transportation, and various other projects. However, it is important to acknowledge that other nations have a substantial contribution to make in these industries. In order to get the most cost-effective results, it is advisable to enhance openness in procurement techniques and improve the overall investment environment (Ang et al., 2017).

Cooperation The OECD is in a prime position to help countries enhance their investment climates. Markets have historically played a larger role in allocating resources as

incomes rise. Strong governance based on voice and responsibility, protection of property rights, free markets, and a fair playing field have all contributed to more orderly transitions. This is something that will inevitably be required in BRI economies; therefore, any steps made in this direction will likely get additional backing from developed nations and international financial institutions. The OECD's regional initiatives are having a positive impact. The goal of the Central Asia Competitiveness Initiative is to help nations in the region boost their output by fostering an environment conducive to business innovation, private sector growth, social cohesion, and the creation of effective knowledge-based economies. Similar goals are pursued by the OECD's South-East Asia Regional Programme. Corporate governance, FDI, competition, bribery and corruption, pensions, the environment, social policy, and taxes are only few of the areas where countries work together with OECD Committees.

Nevertheless, Porter is credited with pioneering the systematic examination of national competitiveness. Porter (1980, 1985, 1990) conducted a comprehensive analysis of national competitiveness, drawing upon the idea of comparative advantage as a framework for his research. The author has authored three seminal publications pertaining to global competitiveness, namely *Competitive Strategy* (1980), *Competitive Advantage* (1985), and *National Competitive Advantage* (1990). The individual presented a set of concepts, methodologies, and procedures for doing competitive analysis through the application of creative thinking. Additionally, they introduced the renowned diamond approach. According to Porter (1990), the progression of industrial global rivalry can be categorized into four distinct phases. The initial phase is characterized as the factor-driven stage, wherein the emphasis is placed on the significance of natural resources in the context of competition. This phase typically manifests during the initial stages of a nation's economic development. The subsequent phase pertains to the investment-oriented stage, wherein emphasis is placed on the significance of capital in the context of national rivalry. The size of investment frequently emerges as a significant factor influencing the competitiveness of a nation's economy during the process of industrialization. The third stage is characterized by a focus on innovation, particularly during the post-industrial era, where knowledge innovation emerges as a significant catalyst for economic advancement. The growing economic growth theory of the 1990s places significant emphasis on the pivotal role of information and human capital in the process of economic development, aligning with Porter's thesis. The fourth stage can be characterized as the wealth-driven stage. The initial three stages primarily delineate the ascent of an economy's global competitiveness, whereas the fourth stage predominantly characterizes the descent of an economy's global competitiveness. Furthermore, Porter (year) posited that the analysis of an economy's industrial competitiveness should encompass four key elements: firm growth strategy, demand conditions, industrial clusters, and factor conditions (Falcicola et al., 2020; Korkmaz & Topcu, 2021).

The theory proposed by Porter, known as the diamond model, served as a pioneering framework in the realm of

competitiveness research. Its primary contributions can be succinctly outlined as follows. Firstly, this study introduces a significant analytical technique to facilitate a more systematic and extensive quantified investigation of the competitiveness of this abstract idea. Additionally, it highlights the significance of dynamic competitive advantage as proposed by Porter (1990). Porter's theory of competitive advantage provides a more comprehensive explanation for the ability of countries with limited natural resources, such as Japan and South Korea, to achieve national competitiveness, in contrast to certain countries endowed with abundant natural resources that struggle to attain appropriate levels of competitiveness. Porter's thesis posits that the competitiveness of an economy is not a fixed attribute, but rather a dynamic characteristic that evolves alongside the economic development of that economy. Certain nations possess the ability to consistently enhance their competitive edge by means of ongoing technical advancements. This dynamic component endowment advantage is anticipated to have a more enduring impact compared to the static factor endowment advantage. Thirdly, the argument underscores the significance of domestic demand by asserting that the establishment of a thriving local cultural consumption market should have precedence, followed by the subsequent expansion of a diverse foreign cultural consumption market. Furthermore, scholarly literature has underscored the significant influence of the nation in shaping the competitiveness of businesses (Grant, 1991; Krugman, 1994; Porter, 1990, 1998). The determination of company competitiveness costs and the establishment of a conducive environment for the flow of diverse elements are contingent upon the system and policy framework of a country or region (Fang et al., 2018).

The issue of industrial competitiveness in conjunction with China's unique national circumstances has been a subject of discourse among Chinese researchers as well. In his study, Jin (2003) examined the concept of competitiveness by constructing an analytical framework that encompasses both the consequences and factors of competitiveness. Jin's research is mostly on the examination of competitiveness through worldwide comparisons. The individual held the belief that the fundamental basis of a nation's industrial competitiveness resides in its capacity to offer increasingly efficient services and products to foreign nations via unrestricted commerce. According to Cai (2003), the notion of industrial competitiveness should not be regarded as a fixed idea but rather necessitates an analysis from a dynamic standpoint. The individual held the belief that the level of industrial competitiveness can be gauged by the ability of an economy to efficiently allocate resources in accordance with its factor endowment. In Zhao's (2009) scholarly work, a comprehensive examination was conducted on China's industrial competitiveness. The author proposed a diamond model to conceptualize China's industrial competitiveness and further conducted an empirical analysis specifically focusing on the competitiveness of the cultural sector. Zhao's scholarship epitomizes the pinnacle of pertinent scholarly inquiry within the Chinese academic landscape.

According to Hua (2017), the competitiveness of the cultural industry is characterized by four distinct connotations that set it apart from other industries. These connotations can be defined as four abilities, the first of which is the overall innovation capacity. The fundamental essence of the cultural sector lies in the production of unique cultural material. It is imperative to recognize that the absence of innovative cultural content renders any quantity of products devoid of value. Industries with lower levels of knowledge tend to lay less emphasis on the vitality of innovation. The capacity for market expansion. The primary focus pertains to the capacity of the cultural industry to consistently broaden its market scope. The capacity to manage and regulate costs. The term mostly pertains to the ability of businesses to engage in cost-reduction strategies in order to get a competitive edge in the market. The capacity for sustainable development. The term primarily denotes the symbiotic connection between the cultural industry and many aspects of society, mankind, and the ecological environment.

V. CONCLUSION

The Belt and Road Initiative (BRI) includes a component known as a mutual benefit, which will, over the long term, assist in the development of new markets for Chinese goods and, over the short term, help alleviate industrial surplus capacity. Hardware (infrastructure) and financial matters receive the majority of the focus in the BRI. There is a substantial infrastructure deficit throughout the world, which impedes commerce, opens up less business opportunities, and threatens future development. The cultural industry holds significant importance within the tertiary sector. The examination of the evolutionary patterns of industrial structure has prompted scholarly discourse on the developmental attributes of the tertiary sector. The literature study in this work led to the conclusion that China has the most ultra-high voltage lines in the world. China is also very far along in the creation of 5G internet, which is expected to play a big role in using big data and building smart grids, towns, remote transportation, and other projects. Still, other countries have a big part to play in these areas, and a stronger business environment and more openness about how things are bought could help get the best results for the least amount of money. The primary focus pertains to the capacity of the cultural industry to consistently broaden its market scope. The capacity to manage and regulate costs. The term mostly pertains to the ability of businesses to engage in cost-reduction strategies in order to get a competitive edge in the market. The capacity for sustainable development. The term primarily denotes the symbiotic connection between the cultural industry and many aspects of society, mankind, and the ecological environment.

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