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Forord

Denne mastergradsavhandlingen er den avsluttende oppgaven på studiet Siviløkonom/Master of Science in Business ved HHN, Nord Universitet. Oppgaven utgjøre 30 studiepoeng og er skrevet på grunnlag av min profilering International Business and Marketing.

Arbeidet med denne oppgaven har vært en krevende men lærerik prosess. Det er ikke til å unngå å nevne pandemien COVID-19 som vår verden ble berørt av denne våren, som har ført til vanskeligheter med å både få gjennomført intervjuer til oppgaven, samt et stengt universitet som har ført til at denne oppgaven er blitt skrevet hjemme ved spisebordet. Prosessen har gitt meg verdifull erfaring som jeg tar med meg videre, og det har vært inspirerende å skrive om både tema som interesserer meg, men også et emne som det er blitt skrevet svært lite om.

Jeg ønsker først å fremst å takke min veileder Christel Elvestad for hennes veiledning, inspirasjon og tålmodighet. Hun har vært til stor hjelp med sin faglige kunnskap og konstruktive tilbakemeldinger gjennom hele prosessen. Videre ønsker jeg å takke universitetslektor Rune Opdahl for sine ideer om emnet tidlig i prosessen og veiledning underveis, men også for hans inspirerende forelesninger som delvis bidro til min interesse for Internasjonal Markedsføring. Jeg ønsker også å takke de to informantene John Anders Lifjell ved Arctic Rein og Vilt AS og Are Smuk Figved ved Finnmark Rein AS som har deltatt med sin informasjon, erfaring og kunnskap til denne oppgaven. Til slutt ønsker jeg å takke førstekonsulent Irene Bursvik ved Campus Helgeland som de siste 2 år har tilrettelagt et eget kontor slik at vi masterstudentene i Rana hadde et arbeidssted å gå til.

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Mo i Rana, 01.juni 2020

Ida Kristine Evensen

Sammendrag

Denne masteroppgaven har som hensikt å kartlegge og redegjøre for hvilke eksportbarrierer norske reinkjøttprodusenter opplever. Interne eksportbarrierer er hindringer innad i bedriften, mens eksterne eksportbarrierer innebærer de hindringene som finner sted utenfor bedriften (Leonidou, 2004).

Oppgavens tilnærming er basert på et ønske om å finne ut hvorfor det ikke eksporteres reinkjøtt fra Norge per dags dato. Den overordnede problemstillingen for oppgaven er derfor å redegjøre for *“What barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?”*.

Oppgaven er oppbygd på en slik måte at den først presenterer et teoretisk rammeverk som skal kunne forklare motivasjon og trigger for internasjonalisering, export og barrierer, og globale verdikjeder. Videre presenteres det metode og hvordan innsamling av data er gjennomført. Til slutt presenteres data som er innhentet til oppgavens formål, og oppgave avsluttes med en analyse/diskusjon.

Temaet for oppgaven var utfordrende å skrive om fordi eksport av norsk reinkjøtt ikke er blitt gjort før. Det var derfor vanskelig å finne relevant informasjon da en slik type eksport og handel ikke eksisterer fra før.

Resultatet i denne oppgaven viser at den primære barrieren som norske reinkjøttprodusenter møter på er eksterne, og politiske. Analysen forklarer at norske og utenlandske myndigheter ikke har tilrettelagt for eksport av reinkjøtt, hvor Norske myndigheter lenge har vært negative til ideen om eksport.

Preface

The purpose of this master thesis is to explain what export barriers Norwegian reindeer meat producers experience. Internal barriers are barriers within the company, while external barriers involve the obstacles that takes place outside the company (Leonidou, 2004).

The assignment's approach is based on a desire to find out why no reindeer meat is exported from Norway. The overall research problem for the thesis is therefore to explain "what barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?".

The thesis is structured in such a way that it first presents a theoretical framework that can explain motivation and triggers for internationalization, export and barriers, and global value chains. Furthermore, the method and how data collection is carried out are presented. Finally, data collected for the purpose of the thesis is presented and the thesis concludes with an analysis/discussion.

The topic of the assignment was challenging to examine because export of Norwegian reindeer meat have not been done before. It was therefore difficult to find relevant information since such a type of export and trade does not exist. The result of this paper shows that the primary barrier encountered by Norwegian reindeer meat producers is external and a political barrier. The analysis explains that Norwegian and foreign authorities have not arranged for export of reindeer meat, and the main problem has been that no declaration of goods has been prepared on the animal.

Key terms: export barriers, value chain, Norwegian reindeer meat industry

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1.0 Introduction

Meat is one of the most important sectors of European agriculture, and the government's policies for meat is to stimulate production of safe, nutritious and affordable meat. In 2014, The Heinrich Böll Stiftung and Friends of the Earth Europe published the “Meat Atlas” where they conclude that the consumption of meat is increasing, which leads to new opportunities for export. The business opportunities, especially for new meat, is to be found in other parts of the world such as Asia (Becheva and Chemnitz, 2014).

Reindeer meat is a delicacy with an origin from the northern countries. For this kind of specialties, it exists an international market, but export of Norwegian reindeer meat has for a long time been a very unrealistic alternative. A relatively small volume of reindeer meat is produced in Norway, which corresponds to a annual consumption in 2010 of only 0,3 kg per person (Steine, Nordskog & Kjuus, 2010). The industry find it labor intensive selling meat to Norwegian grocery chains, and want to look into the possibilities for joint distributions with better coordination, and increase expertise to sales and marketing. A survey conducted by OEK (Opplysningskontoret for Egg og Kjøtt) shows that reindeer meat has good potential in the international market. It is therefore important that possible measures are taken to improve the market situation (Steine, Nordskog & Kjuus, 2010).

When entering an international market, the Uppsala Internationalization Model is a reasonable model to illustrate the different positions of a firm's internationalization. The model analyzes the firm and the basic assumptions about the firm's behavior, where the firm is gradually learning by doing in the process from step 1 to step 4. When exporting, the firm chooses an entry mode with few risks and markets with small psychic distances from the domestic market (Hollensen, 2014). The model is divided into four stages, where the stages represents higher degrees of international involvement.

1. No regular export activities
2. Export via independent representatives
3. Establishment of a foreign sales subsidiary
4. Foreign production/manufacturing units

(Hollensen, 2014).

Initially, the industry has a desire to export, but no one has ever taken that step. The reindeer industry is currently at stage 1 in the Uppsala model. Both theories and data information indicates that reindeer export would nothing but a successful trade between the nordic countries, and central Europe and Asia. Export activities would benefit the reindeer industry to increase their profits. How can the companies get from stage 1 to stage 2 in the Uppsala model? What are the obstacles? Is it the internal or external barriers? Or both?

1.1 Research question

The purpose of the assignment is to map the value chain for the reindeer industry, and to determine why there is no export activities regarding reindeer meat. In order to determine why, it is necessary to look into what barriers are preventing export. Export barriers is defined by Leonidou (1995) as *“the attitudinal, structural, operational and other problems that hinder a business from developing or maintaining international activities”*. It is also defined as export problems, trade barriers, and disincentives to export (Leonidou, 1995).

The purpose of this master thesis is to to examine what internal and external barriers prevents the Norwegian reindeer meat producers from export. The main research question is therefore to determine;

“What barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?”

The research question is divided into a few following research questions;

- In which part of the value chain are the barriers?
- Which of the internal or external barriers are the main barrier(s)?

1.2 Structure

In chapter 1 I have explained the choice of topic, presented the research question and some following research questions.

In chapter 2 I present the theoretical framework, and the theories related to value chains, internationalization and export barriers.

In chapter 3 I describe my methodological choices and the methodical conduct of the research.

In chapter 4 I present the empirical findings.

In chapter 5 I conclude the thesis with a summary, using the empiri from chapter 4 against the theoretical framework from chapter 2. There is also suggestions for further research.

2.0 Theoretical framework

2.1 Introduction

The purpose of this master thesis is to map the value chain of the reindeer industry and determine the barriers for reindeer meat export.

This chapter first present value chain for small scaled foods, global value chains and value chain lengths. Since exports are about internationalizing, I will then present a definition of internationalization, and why a firm would want to internationalize, and then the chapter finishes off with export barriers.

2.2 Value chain

A value chain can be described as a set of interdependent companies or organizations, involved in making a product or service available for consumption (Supphellen et al., 2014). Hollensen (2014) describes the value chain as a “categorization of the firm's activities providing value for the customers and profit for the company”. A value chain is “the sequence of value-adding activities the firm performs in the course of developing, producing, marketing, and servicing a product” (Cavusgil, et al., 2017, p. 68). Porter's Value Chain, or value chain, has become the classic model for analyzing value creation in all businesses, and it is especially valuable to companies in manufacturing. The value for the customer is linked to the quality and properties of the product, as well as distribution and service (Cavusgil, 2017).

Hollensen (2014) claims that at every stage of the chain, it exists an opportunity to contribute positively to the competitive strategy of the firm. Here, the firm perform activities or processes that are better or different from what their competitors can offer, and therefore provide unique products (Hollensen, 2014). “If a firm attains such a competitive advantage, which is sustainable, defensible, profitable and valued by the market, then it may earn high rates of return, even though the industry structure may be unfavorable and the average profitability of the industry modest” (Hollensen, 2014). Every industry has its own specific value chain. Although there are common features in the food chain, there will also be large variations here. A generalized value chain for food production is presented in figure 2.

2.2.1 Value chain for small-scale production

For small-scale production or niche production of short-lived food, the value chain is usually different in shape and size. It is not necessarily a straight line, and is often characterized by the deletion of certain parts or the same actor or body fulfilling several roles. Often this is the contractor himself. The result is normally that the distance between the contractor and the customer is shortened compared to industrial production. A shorter value chain with fewer links can have obvious benefits since fewer agencies should have “their share of the cake”. In practice, this means that the profits of the contractor are increasing, or at least should increase. There are also disadvantages in that, where a lot of work often falls on one and the same person, namely the contractor (Matkjedeutvalget, 2011). An intended value chain for small-scale production of short-lived food is shown in figure 1.

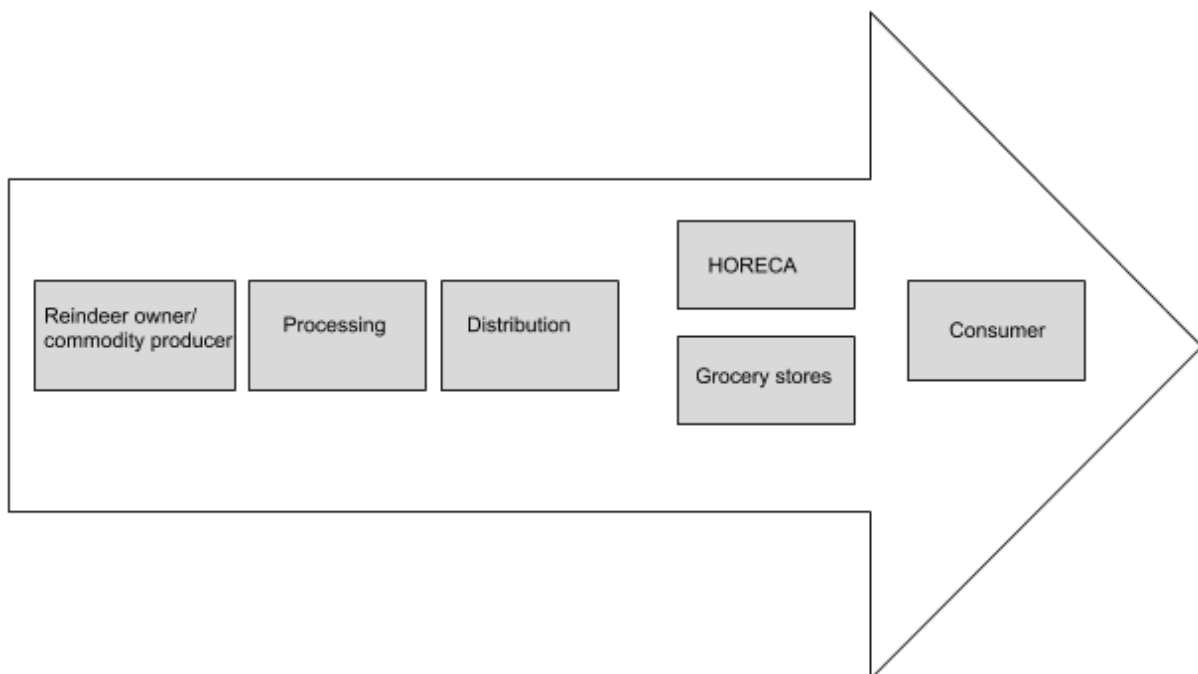


Figure 1: Value chain for small scale production (Matkjedeutvalget, 2011).

This value chain is typical of industrially manufactured goods. It is structured and linear, and contains links with clear responsibilities. For small-scale production of short-lived food, the value chain is usually different in shape and size. It is not necessarily a straight line, and is often characterized by the deletion of certain parts or the same actor of body fulfilling several roles. Often this is the contractor himself. The result is normally that the distance between the contractor and the customer is shortened compared to industrial production. The wholesale link with its purchasing and distribution links is often absent, or it may be a combined

distribution and wholesale link. In addition, it is worth noting that it is often the contractor himself who is both a commodity producer, commodity recipient, processor and distributor. If he has his own farm shop he will also be able to take care of this link. The value chain does not necessarily become as linear and streamlined as in traditional industrial food production, and the various links often flow into each other (Matkjedeutvalget, 2011).

2.2.2 Global value chains

The development of global value chains in different industries has had a major impact on the global trade and production, as well as how companies, producers and employees in many developing countries is being integrated into the global economy (Gereffi & Fernandez-Stark, 2016). The global value chain framework determines how global industries are organized by mapping the structure and dynamics of the different parts that are involved in the given industry. The GVC framework is useful as a tool to trace the patterns and to focus on the sequences of value added, from conception to production and to end use (Gereffi & Fernandez-Stark, 2016).

2.2.3 Value chain length

Supphellen et al. (2014) states that a company's value decisions are about which values are defined, developed and delivered to the customer - and that its value chain decisions are first and foremost about the latter, namely what values are delivered. Supphellen (2014) illustrate that the number of links in value chains can vary in length, width and in value chain integration. The shortest value chain is a situation where value is delivered directly from producer to customer, while longer value chains may have one intermediary (retailer), two intermediary (wholesaler and retailer) or three intermediary (agent, wholesaler and retailer) between the manufacturer and the customer. Intermediaries in a value chain should reduce costs associated with delivery (transaction costs), by reducing the number of transactions, as well as simplifying the purchasing process.

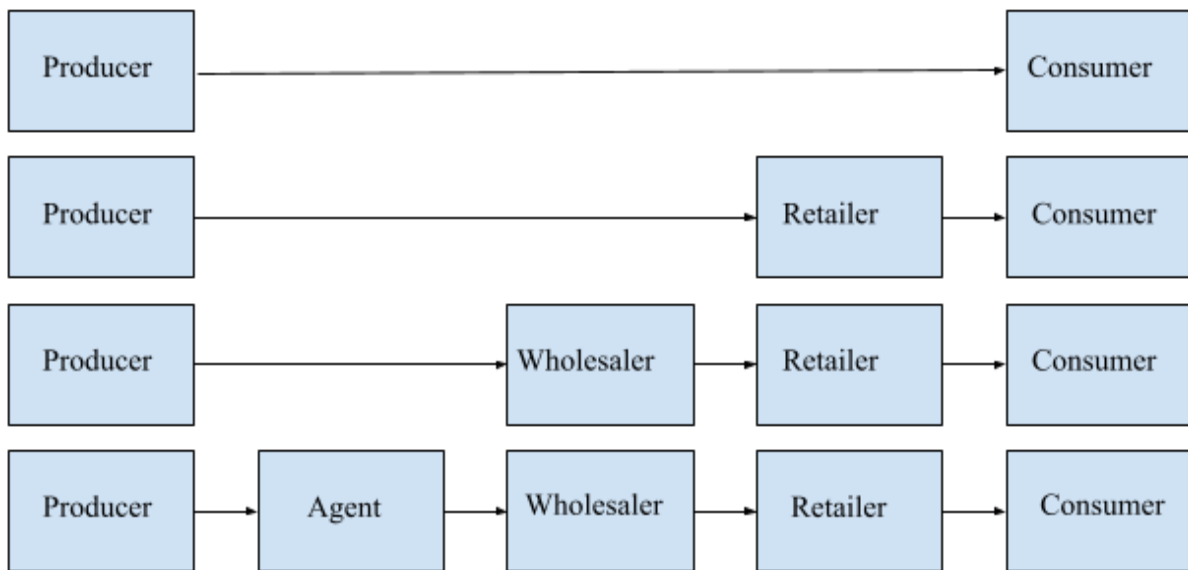


Figure 2: Value chain lengths (Supphellen et al., 2014 p. 498).

Firms that launches internationally has to consider whether to internationalize some of the functions in their value chain, and move some of the responsibilities to export markets if there is a possibility that it would create a greater value than being handled form the head office in the home country. Any function in the value chain should always be carried out where the competences are the highest and the most cost-effectiveness (Hollensen, 2014). Common for the downstream activities, the functions are often located close to the buyer (Hollensen, 2014).

2.3 Internationalization

2.3.1 Definition of internationalization

According to both Chetty and Campbell-Hunt (2003) and Welch and Luostarinen (1988), internationalization is viewed and defined as the process of increasing involvement in international markets. The process has its origin back in the 1960s, where internationalization first was considered as the way to achieve successful exports (McAuley, 2001). Ruzzier et al., (2006) defines internationalization as a synonym for geographical expansion of economic activities beyond its own borders. The progress of economic internationalization continued after World War II until the term globalization took over in the 70s, which means that companies' operations extent to many countries and not just a few selected.

Better technologies for communication has led companies to become more aware of international opportunities. A constant reduction of trade barriers and deregulations leads to greater opportunities for international trade, and has made markets more even through economic restructuring in Russia and eastern central Europe, as well as economic expansion in Asia (Ruzzier et al., 2006). Internationalization creates multinational companies through transnational transactions (Ruzzier et al., 2006).

2.3.2 Why internationalize?

There may be several reasons why a company want to expand abroad, including factors such as a saturated or low domestic market, greater opportunities abroad, resources and unique expertise within the company, following new customers, growth and international ambitions, integration to increase control and reduce costs (Bradley, 2005). Fletcher (2001) argues that one of the reasons for the increased internationalization and change in the business world is that land borders are becoming increasingly irrelevant.

2.3.3 Motivation for internationalization

There are several motives for internationalization. The main motive for most firms to start internationalization is profit, but in general, the factor alone cannot lead to the decision about international business activities. It is usually a composition of several reasons. Such factors is for instance technology or research and development, among others (Hollensen, 2014). The motivation according to Cavusgil et al., (2017) is various trends that have occurred in the recent years with a worldwide reduction in barriers to trade and investment, market liberalization and adoption of free markets, industrialization, economic development and modernization, integration of world financial markets, and advances in technology (Cavusgil et al., 2017). Looking into the firm itself and their reason to internationalize, Cavusgil et al., (2017) describes it to enhance competitive advantage, to gain growth and profit opportunities. To summarize, the international expansion is one or more of these following motives:

- To seek opportunities for growth through market diversification
- The ability to earn higher margins and profits
- Gaining new ideas about their products
- To be able to serve key customers located abroad better
- Being closer to supply sources

- To gain access to lower-cost or better-value factors of production
- To develop economies of scale in sourcing, production, marketing, and R&D
- To confront international competitors more effectively or thwart the growth of competition
- To invest in a potentially rewarding relationship with a foreign partner

(Cavusgil et al., 2017).

2.3.3.1 Triggers

For internationalization to occur, the process must be triggered by people or events inside or outside the company. These triggers that are included in the firm for implementation can be internal or external in nature (Hollensen, 2014). The triggers is for instance external or internal events, network partners, competing firms, presence in other parts of the world (markets), financing, and trade associations. It is more common for several factors to influence the company, than just one, to initiate export activities (Hollensen, 2014). The triggers are divided into two groups;

Internal triggers	External triggers
Perceptive management	Market demand
Specific internal event	Network partners
Inward/outward internationalization	Competing firms
	Trade associations and outside experts
	Financing

Table 1: Triggers for internationalization (Hollensen, 2014)

The factors that trigger for internationalization can also be divided into proactive and reactive stimuli (Stewart and McAuley, 1999). As mentioned earlier, internationalization occurs when a firm expands its selling, production, R&D and other business activities into international markets. However, internationalization for SMEs is often a relatively discrete process. That is, ones in which management regards each internationalization venture as distinct and individual (Hollensen, 2014). Managers use relevant information to achieve knowledge to start their internationalization process in the pre-internationalization stages. Hollensen (2014) has divided motives for internationalization into proactive and reactive motives;

Proactive motives	Reactive motives
Profit and growth goals	Competitive pressures
Managerial urge	Domestic market: small and saturated
Technology and competence/unique product	Overproduction/excess capacity
Foreign market opportunities/market information	Unsolicited foreign orders
Economies of scale	Extended sales of seasonal products
Tax benefits	Proximity to international customers/psychological distance

Table 2: Major motives for starting export (adopted from Hollensen 2014)

Proactive stimuli describe a company's choice to internationalize is influenced by its desire to utilize its unique competence, such as superior quality (Steward and McAuley, 1999), or other market opportunities (Hollensen, 2014). Reactive stimuli indicate that the company responds to threats or pressures from the domestic or foreign markets, and adapt passively by changing activities over time (Hollensen, 2014). Examples of reactive stimuli may be that domestic market is reduced or there may be unused capacity in the company (Steward and McAuley, 1999). Campbell (1996) states that firms tend to be either reactive or proactive. Hollensen (2014) calls these stimuli motives for internationalization.

2.3.4 Entering international markets

When a company has experienced great success in the home market, it is natural that the company will try to take advantage of the competitive advantages abroad by export. Companies with narrow product lines generally stick to limited and clearly defined markets in order to stay ahead. The limitations that the market brings mean that the focus on quality becomes high, and protecting and preventing their technology from being revealed in addition to a tight control over the products' marketing strategy becomes important. Companies usually enter the market through direct investment (Bradley, 2005).

2.3.5 Identifying the right market

Cavusgil et al. (2017) consider screening for target markets as an essential task when finding the right country or market to enter, and is especially important in the early stages of the

internationalization process. It is important to choose the right market so that the firm can grow financially, increase opportunities and tying up resources.

Exporting requires a certain set of screening criteria, where such as population, income, demographic characteristics, government stability, and the general business environment in the chosen particular country or region is being well examined. Here, annual statistics that span several years will be useful to determine which of the regions or countries are growing markets (Cavusgil et al., 2017). Most firms starts off by targeting countries that are close to them, physical, where the similarities are many, such as culture and legal environment (Cavusgil et al., 2017). Common for some firms, they choose a geographical region to expand to, such as the EU where the similarities are significant.

When a firm's experience and knowledge grows, firms tend to want to develop their market, and choose to expand into more complex markets where culture and political environments are different, such as Asia. (Cavusgil et al., 2017). It is common that firms choose regional hubs as entry points when entering foreign national or regional markets, and these targets is called “gateway countries”. These regional hubs, or gateway countries, are excellent entry points to their nearby markets, for example Singapore, which is the gateway to the Southeast Asian market, Hong Kong to Chinese market, and Turkey for the central Asian republics (Cavusgil et al., 2017).

2.4 Export

2.4.1 Basic export models and entry strategies

Entry strategies are different ways in which the company has access to a foreign market with its goods and/or services, and are different from one another in terms of the level of resources invested in the specific market and the extent to which the company is engaged in this market (Johnson, Whittington and Scholes, 2011). Root (1987) explains entry strategies as an institutional arrangement for organizing and executing international business transactions.

Root (1994) argues that there are three rules for how a company should choose its entry strategy; (1) naive rule, (2) pragmatic rule, and (3) strategic rule. By naive rule, the company uses the same entry strategy for all markets, regardless of any differences in the foreign

markets. Characteristics of the pragmatic rule are that the company uses an appropriate entry strategy for each market. The company often starts with low-risk entry strategies, such as exports. Changes are only made if the entry strategy is not profitable or if they lose money. This means that all alternatives are not explored and thus the input strategy used may not be the most appropriate one. The strategic rule indicates that the company chooses an input strategy based on comparisons and evaluations of alternatives. Profit goals based on available resources, risk and other objectives can be a starting point for assessment (Hollensen, 2014).

2.4.2 Export barriers

One of the most important decisions a company makes is choosing the marketing strategy for export. Obviously, the purpose of the strategy is to overcome the export barriers. Different perceptions of export barriers will determine the choice of export strategy, and regardless of whether a barrier is considered important or not, it will still affect the exporter (Jensen and Davis, 1998). Export barriers is defined by Leonidou (1995) as “*the attitudinal, structural, operational and other problems that hinder a business from developing or maintaining international activities*”. It is also defined as export problems, trade barriers, and disincentives to export (Leonidou, 1995). In this paper, the definitions of export barriers and trade barriers are most relevant to discuss.

As previously mentioned, most new studies categorize export barriers as internal and external barriers (Leonidou, 2004). However, some studies categorize export barriers into four different groups: export experience, limitation of internal resources, procedural barriers, and external variables (Abassi et al., 2012). Other studies categorize export barriers into four other groups: external barriers, operational barriers, internal barriers, and informational barriers (Ozkanli et al., 2006). For this thesis, the four export barriers by Ozkanli is relevant and will be used further in this research.

External export barriers are often the cause of many failures and financial losses in export activities. Such failures negatively affect current and potential exporters in international trade (Leonidou, 1995). A large number of SMEs therefore do not dare to cross national borders for export activities. Cross-border trade barriers have much more to blame for many exporters looking at export with great skepticism (Leonidou, 2004). The profound effect of export barriers on current and potential exporters makes export barriers an attractive study for many

researchers (Leonidou, 1995). However, identification of export barriers is important for several reasons. An overview of export barriers give exporters and public authorities an advantage in planning proactive measures. Export problems are identified and assistance is then arranged. Export researchers can use the knowledge to create new theory about export barriers, and special education programs can be developed and implemented to meet the export barriers (Leonidou, 2004).

2.4.3 Classification of export barriers

Below is a figure of Leonidou's classification of export barriers. The figure shows an overview of the classification of internal and external barriers.

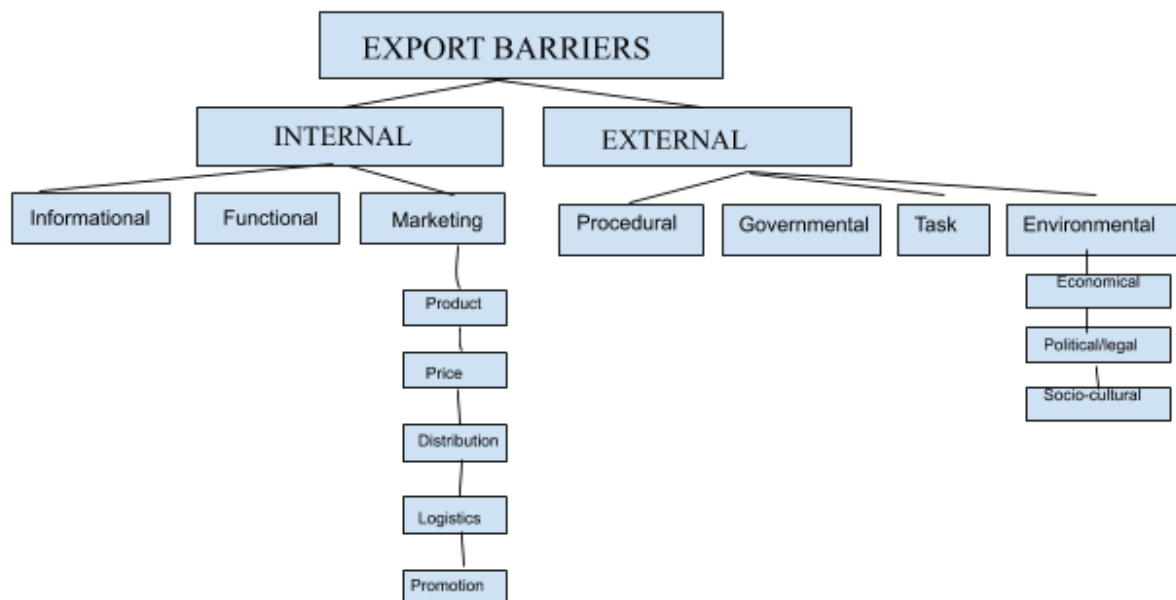


Figure 3: Leonidou's classification of export barriers (Leonidou, 2004).

The external export barriers are macro-level export barriers that can be extremely hostile to exports and make international trade complicated (Katsikeas & Morgan, 1994). The various external export barriers are responsible for many small and medium-sized enterprises looking at exports with great skepticism and not wanting to participate in international trade (Leonidou, 2004).

Shohan & Albaum (1995), found that the number of barriers to trade can be ranked between as few as 5 to as many as 49 different barriers. Of these, however, only 39 barriers have been considered as common and meaningful barriers to trade by exporters, and external barriers

only comprise between 10 and 20 barriers (Shoham & Albaum, 1995). Other studies indicate that a significant amount of trade barriers consist of external barriers (Uner et al., 2013). In percentage terms, the external barriers to trade comprise 32% of the trade barriers (Jamshed et al., 2011). The main external barriers to trade vary between studies, depending on the exporter's experience in foreign markets, organizational size, export destination, export involvement and the stage of the internationalization process (Leonidou, 1995). However, past research also indicates that potential exporters, current exporters and former exporters should not be hampered by export barriers. They should look for opportunities to avoid existing and potential export problems in international trade (Leondiou, 2004).

Furthermore, it is relevant to look into the theoretical aspects of internal and external barriers, specifically managerial, functional, political and governmental barriers for export.

2.4.4 Internal barriers

Export knowledge

Lack of export knowledge is defined as an internal barrier under the category functional, where there is a lack of international experience managers and thus the firm (Hollensen, 2014). Experience is explained how a company has been involved with operating internationally. To gain experience, one can either operate in a particular foreign market or country, or general in the international environment. The more international experience a manager or company has, the more they can reduce costs and uncertainty in serving a market. This can also increase the chances of a company committing resources in the foreign market and doing direct investment in the form of wholly owned subsidiaries (Hollensen, 2014).

When exporting, it is important to understand that one can not only examine the capacities of a company. Appropriate knowledge is a critical factor when choosing to do international activities. Appropriate knowledge applies to knowledge about the foreign market, techniques of operation in foreign markets, business strategies, among others. This kind of information is not something a business or a manager can maintain overnight. Research reveals that the learning by-doing process is often a success in the evolutionary patterns of internationalization (Welch and Luostarinen, 1988).

Functional barriers

Leonidou (2004) defines functional barriers as weaknesses in the company's function regarding export, such as human resources, production and finance. In this context it is necessary to mention the functional barrier "unavailable production capacity". Many small companies look at export as a business activity that can be performed only if there is an availability of resources for production (Leonidou, 2004). *"However, this is a short sighted approach, because it is very likely that these resources could be used more effectively and efficiently in serving a foreign rather than the home market. Hence, small firms should adopt a more global perspective and should treat exporting as one of the strategic opinions"* (Kamath et al. 1987; Leonidou, 2004).

2.4.5 External barriers

Political barriers

When exporting, a manager of a firm must continually monitor and follow the government's policies to determine any changes that could happen and further on affect the firm export operations. Political risks occur in any country but will vary in severity (Hollensen, 2014). Usually political risks is a result of governmental actions, but it can also be events outside of their control. Actions that can affect the export activities is; import restrictions, local-content laws, and exchange controls (Hollensen, 2014).

Governmental barriers

Governmental barriers apply to actions that are often absent from the government of the exporter's home country. If the government has a limited interest in assisting and creating incentives for current and potential exporters, this is seen as a major obstacle to exports. In some countries, exporters are complaining about the lack of assistance or inadequate assistance. However, in some cases assistance is provided, but exporters are not aware of how to use the assistance (Leonidou, 2004). Government aid in the form of export subsidies can help companies enter foreign markets, especially when the foreign market has regulations to protect their own industry (Craig & Zafar, 2005). Some studies conclude that the lack of government assistance is one of the most important barriers to trade, but incentives and assistance from the state do not always meet the requirements of the exporter (Leonidou, 2000). However, the requirements of the exporter will vary depending on the stage of the internationalization process of the company is in. Thus, the state must not only provide

incentives and assistance to exporters, but they must also create export programs to the various export stages (Craig & Zafar, 2005). Government initiatives such as export assistance and export programs must therefore be organized for exporters (Katsikeas & Morgan, 1994). Unfavorable government regulations and controls are seen as important barriers. This includes, for examples, restrictions on exports to some hostile countries, preventing the export of certain components. This causes the exporter to lose some sales components in countries where national security of foreign policy importance has been established (Leonidou, 2004).

2.6 Definition of analysis model

The theory that now has been reviewed aims to provide a framework for the analysis. The purpose of the following figure is to structure the theory against the analysis.

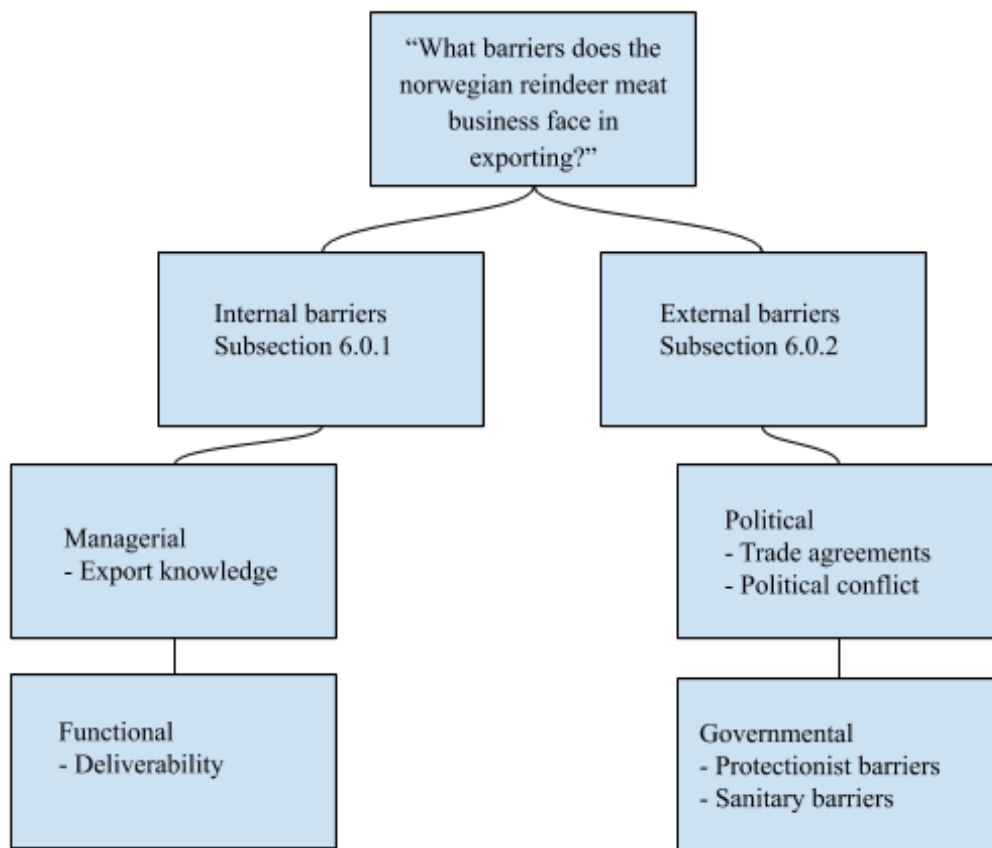


Figure 4: Analysis model

3.0 Methodology

This chapter describes the methodological choices related to the thesis. According to Johannessen et al., (2011), methodology is about how we can go as far as possible to investigate whether our assumptions are in line with reality or not. Using a chosen method, by the Greek term “methodos”, means following a particular path toward a goal (Johannessen, 2011). The choice of method must take into consideration what is desired to be achieved and at the same time what is most appropriate for the research. The research question for this thesis is to determine “*What barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?*”

To answer the research problem, I have collected both primary and secondary data. The primary data are the interviews I did with the informants, while the secondary data is published documents with relevant information to provide relevant information to this study.

Primary data

Informant	
John Anders Lifjell	CEO of Arctic Rein og Vilt AS Head of the market committee for reindeer meat
Are Smuk Figved	CEO of Finnmark Rein AS

Table 3: Primary data collection

Secondary data

Informant	
Landbruksdepartementet, 2004	Situation analysis: “Power to increase sales of reindeer meat”
Steine, Nordskog & Kjuus, 2010	“Market situation for reindeer meat”
Aslaksen for NRK.no, 2011	“Lavere kjøttpris i Russland. Landbruksdepartementet er skeptisk til forslaget om eksport av norsk reinkjøtt til Russland”
Yle, 2013	“Demand for reindeer meat up, export markets look tempting”
Regjeringen, 2017	“Fra vidde til bord - Verdikjeden i reindriften”

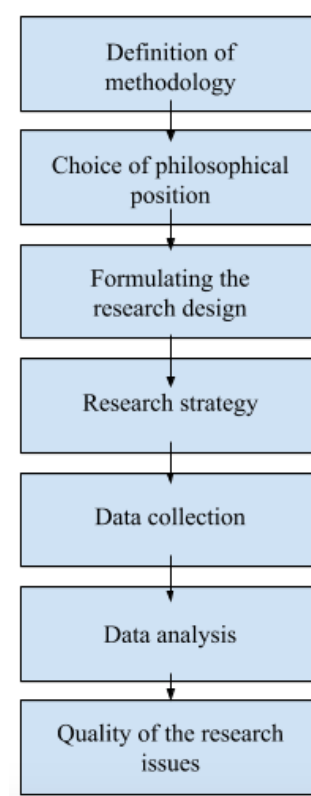
Regjeringen, 2017	“Tilråding fra Landbruks- og matdepartementet”
Norsk Utenrikspolitisk Institutt, 2017	“Norge - Kina: Fra isfront til tøvær”
Markedsutvalget for reinkjøtt	“Rein - helten på vidda”

Table 4: Secondary data collection

3.1 The research process

In a research, the study of social science is a process that happens over several different phases. The illustration below is based on Johannessens et al., (2011) description of a research process;

A research process is described as a cumulative process, which means that when an investigation is to be conducted, it is a prerequisite that one is orientated in current research. Preparation and data is a selective observation or records, while data analysis and conclusion is the selective interpretation (Johannessen, 2011). The figure illustrates the phases of the research process.



A social science study is a process that goes over several different phases. The phases are as follows;

1. Preparation, which involves the theme, planning, and formulation of research question
2. Data collection and transcription
3. Data analysis and verification
4. Reporting

(Johannessen, 2011).

3.1.1 Preparation, theme and research question

Common for all research, curiosity is the starting point (Johannessen, 2011). The whole process starts with a researcher’s desire to have one or more problems answered. In the work on preparing the research question, the researcher is introduced to relevant theory on the

topic, and determines the purpose of the research, and thus what the study should contribute (Johannessen, 2011).

According to the research question, this study is within the frames of the social constructionism paradigm. The social constructionism approach focuses on “*the ways that people make sense of the world through sharing their experiences with others via the medium of language*” Easterby-Smith et.al (2008, p.58). The major precondition of this approach includes the idea that “*reality is determined by people rather than by objective and external factors*” (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008, p.59). This means that the researcher should evaluate the different meanings which are based on different people's experiences. The goal of the observer is thus to increase the general understanding of the situation by becoming a part of what is being observed (Easterby-Smith, 2012). Once the research question is formulated, it becomes a lead in the choice of research design and method.

3.1.2 Methodical directions

In the social sciences methodology, one distinguishes between two methodological main directions; qualitative and quantitative methods. Data generated and recorded in quantitative methods can be said to be in the form of numbers, while data generated by qualitative methods are in the form of words, sounds and images. The difference between the methods is thus in how to record and analyze data (Johannessen et al., 2011). Qualitative methods have special static procedures for collection and analysis, while within the qualitative method there are several different and somewhat freer approaches. Which method to choose is the nature and form of the problem that determines (Johannessen et al., 2011).

The qualitative method is particularly well suited when the purpose of the study is to go into the depth of a topic and when you want to be able to say something about special characteristics or characteristics of the study phenomenon. It is also useful when the topic of the study is a subject of which we do not have much knowledge and for which little research exists (Johannessen et al., 2011). A qualitative interview aims to provide detailed descriptions for one or more informants' world and everyday life in order to interpret the meaning(s) of phenomena described. It is also most suitable when the researcher has a need to give the

informant a freedom to express himself, to let the informant reconstruct events, to present complexity and nuances, or simply to answer problems or to see them from a different point of view when qualitative interviews are well suited as a complementary method (Johannessen et al., 2011). Further I will explain the research design I have chosen for my thesis.

3.2 Research design

Research design is the logical order that links the empirical data with the study's original research questions and, ultimately, its conclusions (Yin, 2014). Yin (2014) explains research design as a plan that guides the researcher through collecting, analyzing and interpreting observations. Choosing a research design is about giving the research a form, which in turn says something about how the study should be conducted (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Anything related to a study is referred to as research design. Key criteria for how the study is conducted are the type of data to be generated, the size of the study sample or population, and the time dimension (Johannessen et al., 2011). The researcher emphasizes that the main purpose of the research design is to make sure that the evidence collected answers the research question (Yin, 2014). The types of research is divided into three;

1. Exploratory; the main intention is to define research questions and hypotheses (Yin, 2009).
2. Descriptive; to get a full description of a single phenomenon within its context (Yin, 2009).
3. Explanatory; explains casual relationships between cause and effect (Yin, 2009).

According to this thesis' research problem, I have found descriptive research as useful in a thesis because the main purpose of the research is to provide a better understanding of the barriers a firm experiences when having an ambition to export. Descriptive research will answer the questions "who", "what", "when" and "how" (Mitchell and Jolley, 2007), and the research question for this project paper is to examine "what barriers does the norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?".

3.3 Research strategy

Saunders et al. (2012) defines research strategy as a plan for how the researcher should proceed to answer the research question. The authors argue that the choice of research strategy will depend on several factors, such as research questions and objectives, the contexts that link these to philosophy, the approach to research and its purpose, the scope of existing knowledge, the amount of time and other resources available, and access to participants and data sources. In other words, it is the methodological link between philosophy and the subsequent choice of methods for collecting and analyzing data (Denzin and Lincoln, 2005).

There are many different research strategies, each of which has its advantages and disadvantages. According to Saunders et al. (2012), the key is to choose a strategy to achieve coherence throughout the research design that will make it possible to answer the research question and achieve the objectives of the study. Yin (2014) highlights five of the most important; 1) experiment, 2) survey, 3) archive analysis, 4) history, and 5) case study. The choice of strategy depends on three conditions; 1) research question, 2) control over behavioural events, and 3) degree of present or historical events (Yin, 2014).

As mentioned above, the structure of research is also categorized by Yin (2014), as “who”, “what”, “where”, “how” and “why”, in relation to the objects of the survey. The research question of this project paper is to examine “What barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?” and will therefore be categorized in the “what” category but will be answered under “how” category because the thesis will seek to answer “how” the to succeed in export. The research question can also be understood as how factors such as motives, triggers or barriers have influenced the company to initiate international business, and thus fall under the “how” category (Yin, 2014).

3.4 Data collection

Data collection is described as a series of continuous activities intended to gather relevant information to answer research questions (Creswell, 2013). The process consists of gaining access to object and location, implementing one good qualitative sampling strategy, determine aids for recording information, storage of data as well as predicting potential ethical issues.

The collected data can be divided into primary and secondary data. Primary data is collected directly from the researchers, and may lead to new insights on the topic being researched (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012). Secondary data includes both raw data and published summaries, and can be further analyzed to provide additional or different knowledge, interpretations, conclusions, contexts or patterns (Easterby-Smith et al, 2012).

3.4.1 Selection of informants

The purpose of the qualitative study is rather to gain as much knowledge of the phenomenon as possible (full descriptions) and not to make statistical generalizations. The recruitment of informants in qualitative surveys has a clear goal. In the method literature, this is called “purposeful sampling” (Patton 1990, in Johannessen et al., 2011) or strategic selection of informants. Strategic selection means that the researcher first thinks through which target group must participate in order for him to obtain the necessary data, while the next step is to select people from the target group to participate in the study (Johannessen et al., 2011).

In other words, the starting point for the selection of informants in qualitative surveys is not representativeness, but expediency (Johannessen et al., 2011). Johannessen et al., (2011) highlight various ways of putting together strategic selection from Patton 1990; Miles and Huberman 1994: Extreme and/or aberrant selection, intensive selection, maximum variation selection, homogenous selection, typical cases, snowball method, criterion-based selection, theory-based selection, typology-based selection, and affirmative/rejective selection to name a few.

In the tactical selection, I chose who from the selected target group to participate. I did this in a criterion-based selection where the informants had to fulfill specific criteria according to the phenomenon that I were to elucidate (Johannessen et al., 2011). The main criteria were for the firm itself, not so much the person and its position in the firm. It was natural to talk to the firm's CEO in order to get the information I needed.

Criteria for choice of firm;

1. The firm has to be a producer of reindeer meat
2. The firm has to be Norway-based
3. The firm has to have a desire to export

Using these criteria as a basis, I selected a few relevant firms, and the recruitment of the informants were first done by sending an email asking if they had the interest and opportunity to participate in this thesis. There were no responses on the e-mails, so I tried calling, and I managed to get all of the information I needed through phone interviews. My selection eventually consisted of 2 informants from 2 different firms.

The interviews natural structure of questions and answers made it a flexible method, which is characterized by dialogue. Me, as the interviewer, had the opportunity to follow up the answers from the informants, and this enabled me to get full and detailed descriptions from the informants. The form of the interview may be more or less determined. Johannessen et al., (2011) distinguish between three different degrees of structuring;

- Unstructured interview: An informal and open interview, in which the researcher has given the topic only in advance. The questions are adapted to each situation.
- Semi-structured interview: This type of interview has an interview guide as its script, but the order of topics and questions can be varied. This gives room and opportunity for variation in the individual interview.
- Structured interview: A form that has defined themes and questions, and it is ticked off for answer alternatives, and an interview that is characterized by very little degree of flexibility.

(Johannessen et al., 2011).

I have chosen semi-structured interview to collect data because I believe that this will give me the opportunity to get the informants' own descriptions and experience of the topic, while at the same time give them the opportunity to follow up on the information they conveyed and thus obtain and generate more complementary data. The semi-structured interview is considered appropriate as it allows for variation in each interview, which I believe my research problem requires. Each experience and problem for the firm is unique and thus much

information could be lost with a more structured interview with predefined questions. I also believe that an unstructured interview would have been difficult to conduct due to lack of experience in such situations. The interviews were documented by me taking notes on my computer during the phone call.

3.5 Data analysis

The challenge of a qualitative research is to get something make sense out of large amounts of unstructured data, handle this amount, identify patterns and create a framework so that one can disseminate the data (Johannessen, 2009). Data analysis is the most difficult and the least systemized part of the process, in one qualitative study, and that one cannot usually follow how a researcher has gone from thousands of pages to a final conclusion (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Before the researcher can begin the process of analyzing and interpreting the material, he must reduce the amount of data. The terms analysis and interpretation are somewhat different in qualitative studies, but there are some differences. Analyzing means dividing something into smaller pieces where the goal is to find meaning or reveal a message or pattern in the data material, while interpreting means putting something into a larger context. The starting point for the interpretation is to look at the findings in relation to relevant theory, and try to understand and explain the findings that have been made in the analysis.

Analysis and interpretation of text is a matter of caution, as words can easily change their meaning according to the context in which they are put, as well as depending on the researcher's background and understanding of reality. The purpose of the data analysis is mainly to organize the data according to different themes and then analyze and interpret the data. The intentions are somewhat different, but the researcher is advised to stand by organizing and creating systems in the data material before going into the actual analysis and interpretation process (Johannessen et al., 2011).

3.6 Quality of research issue

It can be difficult to evaluate and estimate the quality of a research, especially about case study research. There are a lot of aspects that should be taken into account, and these aspects are called validity and reliability.

In the qualitative research method, it can be difficult to assess the quality of the research. In quantitative research, reliability and various forms of validity are used as criteria for quality (Johannessen et al., 2011). According to Guba and Lincoln (1989) in Johannessen et al., (2011), qualitative studies can be evaluated in a different way from quantitative studies. They therefore operate with the concepts of reliability, credibility, transferability and verifiability as a measure of quality in qualitative research designs.

3.6.1 Transferability (external validity)

Transferability, or external validity, is about the extent to which the results of a research project can be transferred to other similar sentences and phenomena. The information presented in the survey must be systematically analyzed so that it ends up as something more than just a collection of information. In the context of qualitative research, the aim is not necessarily that the results can be generalized from a sample to an entire population, but rather to transfer knowledge from a group of informants to a broader context (Johannessen et al., 2011). The transferability of the study is therefore defined on the basis of how well they succeed in establishing descriptions, concepts, interpretations and explanations that are useful in other contexts (Johannessen et al., 2011).

This thesis is a survey based on information from business executives from two different companies. My selection was chosen on the basis of given criteria based on my understanding of how I could best answer my problem. The selection is thus characterized by the expectations I had of what would come up in the survey. This way, I have indirectly contributed to influencing the results that I have come up with. Nevertheless, I believe that the limitations were necessary in order to focus on companies with relatively similar and comparable conditions. This way, I can draw conclusions that can be transferred to similar companies to a greater extent.

3.6.2 Reliability

Reliability refers to the extent to which the data collection or analysis will yield consistent findings (Easterby-Smith et al, 2008). Reliability is explain as showing that the study method, such as the data collection, can be repeated with the same results (Yin, 2014). If a new researcher follows the same procedure as the original researcher, and thus conducting the same study, the new researcher would experience the same findings and conclusions as the original study. This means that the researcher should be sure that the information given, is reliable (Yin, 2014).

Reliability relates to survey data: what data is used, how it is collected, and how it is processed. Reliability is about what data is analyzed in the survey and how it is generated. In the context of qualitative data, this is about words. Words are not easy to relate to, they can know different meaning in different contexts. The data collection and analysis will be colored by the researcher. The words can be given by different meanings on the basis of the researcher's prior knowledge and attitude towards the research project. The result depends to a great extent on the interpretation of the individual researcher, and even with the same data, the result may be different. It is thus virtually impossible for different qualitative researchers to reproduce each other's research. To enhance the reliability of a qualitative study, the researcher can provide the reader with an in-depth description of the cases being studied, the context in which they are being studied and provide a detailed description of how the research process has been conducted (Johannessen et al., 2011).

Since I took full notes during the phone interviews, I now had access to a lot of data. By quoting the informants in my empiricism directly, the subjects that the informants emphasized in relation to each question, are highlighted. This will then enable the background of my interpretations in the analysis to be more easily tested by the reader who will have direct access to the basis of the interpretation which will in turn help to increase the reliability of the study. As previously mentioned, I have used semi-structured interviews as a method of collecting empirical data in my thesis. This form of interview allows for the conscious and unconscious influence of the informants, and the informant can be guided in a specific direction through follow-up questions and other disturbances and the database can thus be affected by this. This is called the interview effect (Johannessen et al., 2011). I have not

consciously acted to influence the informants' responses beyond asking for in-depth information or exemplification in relation to topics that were particularly concerned about.

3.6.3 Credibility (conceptual validity)

It is common in quantitative research to assess validity through the question; "Do we measure what we think we measure?". However, we cannot consider qualitative studies as valid on the basis of this definition, since the data are not quantitatively measurable (Johannessen et al., 2011). In qualitative research, however, validity, or credibility, may be about "whether a method examines what it intends to investigate" (Johannessen et al., 2011). Credibility is simply about the methodology used and the findings made, reflects reality, and whether it meets the intention behind the study and provides a good answer to the overall problem (Johannessen et al., 2011).

A conceptual validity, seen as a credibility, is about whether the findings are really about what they appear to be about (Sanders et al., 2009). Validity acts to identify the right operational measurement methods for the concepts being researched (Yin, 2014). It is about where research results are found on the right new reflects from studying and representing reality (Johannessen et al., 2009). Researchers who conduct case studies have been criticized for failing to develop good measurements that subjective opinions are used to collect data (Yin, 2014).

Yin (2014) recommends three tactics for increasing concept validity for case studies. These are;

1. Using many sources as evidence
2. Establishing a chain of evidence
3. Getting the draft case study investigated by key informants

In the further work on this master thesis, sources such as annual report, articles, websites and interviews with important people, and people with knowledge of internationalization will be used. It is important that an effort is being made continuously to maintain a chain of evidence and information so that one can trace the link between the research question and the conclusion.

As I conducted my interviews, I found that the informants had many reflections and informations about their challenges and experience in exporting reindeer meat. Therefore, I believe that my informants' view on this illustrate my research problem in a good way.

3.6.4 Confirmability

As it is expected that qualitative researchers make unique contributions by virtue of their subjective assessment in a research project, the findings also must not appear as a result of the researcher's own beliefs. Confirmability is a key concept in this context. In quantitative research, this corresponds to the criterion of objectivity. Confirmability in a qualitative study can be ensured by the researcher emphasizing an accurate description of the decisions made throughout the research process, giving the reader an insight into the assessment that are made and the opportunity to evaluate them. The description may usefully include critical reflection on one's own choices and interpretations made through the research process and the validity is enhanced by the researcher evaluation one's own interpretations against other literature or survey informants (Johannessen et al., 2011).

3.7 Summary

Through this methodological chapter, I have explained what assessments and balances I have made through the research process. Furthermore, my analysis is based on the findings and the theoretical framework so that my interpretations can be assessed against this and do not stand as unfounded statements.

In this chapter I have outlined the methodological execution of my thesis, and to generate data I have chosen to use in-depth interviews with 2 informants. The following chapter presents information about the reindeer industry in Norway.

4. Empirical work

4.1 Introduction

The purpose of this research study is to find out what barriers Norwegian companies producing reindeer meat experience when they want to expand to international markets. In order to determine the barriers, I have talked to two CEOs of two different companies. Each of these companies will be presented in this chapter. Furthermore, in this chapter, the collected data will be presented, analyzed and discussed.

While the global trade in meat has grown in the recent decades, a lot of meat producing- and consuming countries are still not linked by trade. There are also no trade of all types of meat either, and one of them is reindeer meat. In some cases, there is no trade because neither supply nor demand factors make trade profitable, but in some other cases the trade is being prevented by import or export barriers.

This chapter contains both the empirical work where I present my findings and data, and I will then use the data to prepare an analysis.

4.1.2 Presentation of the companies

The presentation of the findings is made by first giving an introduction to the company. Therefore, because data viewing can help the researcher to see the pattern (Miles & Huberman, 1994), important information and details of the company are made for each of them. Then, the company's triggers and barriers for that may have affected the company in relation to export choices. The background of the data is mainly information obtained from the interviews, but some of the data has also been obtained through the company's own websites or news articles regarding the company, and other relevant sources.

The companies are presented in relation to their respective segments; small- and medium enterprises. The EU's specifications characterized the segments as: small businesses are characterized as enterprises with less than 50 employees, and enterprises with more than 250 employees are characterized as large companies. Therefore, companies with between 50 and 250 employees are characterized as medium-sized employees (Hollensen, 2014).

Company 1 - Arctic Rein og Vilt AS

The first company I interviewed for this thesis is defined as a small business, with 8 employees. The company is Norway-based and was established in 2013. Since the start in 2013, their revenue has had a stable increase over the last years.



Figure 6: Arctic Rein og Vilt AS, Proff.no, 2020.

Company 2 - Finnmark Rein AS

The medium business in this research is Scandinavia's largest producer of reindeer meat, employs 75 people in season, and is located in 5 municipalities in Northern Norway.



Figure 7: Finnmark Rein AS, Proff.no, 2020

4.2 Primary data

4.2.1 Arctic Rein og Vilt AS

Why internationalize?

“Norway is one of the most pay willing markets in the world, but we also know that there is a market out there that pays just as well, if not better than Norway”.

“We have products that give us good earnings as well, and we may be able to live off this in the future and tone down what we do today. We are dependent on the market we have on reindeer today and dependent on having a foundation in the company as we build the new market. We think it will be 2-3 years before we reach that goal”.

Export to which markets?

“Asia is an exciting market for reindeer meat, because there is a lot of people there. Also Germany, there is about 80 million people, and a couple of these millions are high-end people with high ability to pay for exclusive products”.

“I think the Nordic countries is smart to launch in, but also Germany is open to reindeer products, including Iceland. I believe in this if we were able to concentrate on these countries. There is a study that has been done by someone else on a supplier who delivered goods for 35 million NOK in Germany last year.

What export barriers are you experiencing?

“One problem that has been experienced is the scab of reindeer in Norway, where the only way out for the animals was death. When the disease was detected in Norway, China closed all imports of reindeer from Norway even though we did not import clover animals there. It is very vulnerable and we cannot get any diseases even if no one has been detected in recent times. China will then impose restrictions”.

“There is a market in Norway but also internationally. But then there are these barriers with enough raw materials. Our solution to that is to buy slaughter from Sweden, transport it to Norway and process it, then sell it abroad. The market exists, but we have to find it.”

“We need to have wholesalers abroad who distribute to for example restaurants. If one can find these wholesalers, then there is the opportunity to succeed with reindeer meat export.”

He also explains another internal barrier in found in the first step of the value chain, where the raw materials come from;

“The best time to slaughter is in the months October and November, right before the first snow”.

When he explains the reason for why one slaughter in the late fall, it is because the composition of the animal changes during the winter.

“The bone mass in the animal increases which affects the meat. As the winter arrives, the meat in the animal decreases before the calves manages to adapt to the winter and dig for their food. Cold temperatures also change the animal”.

Winter is the biggest challenge for the farming. Not only must one calculate an expected loss of 20% of the calves, but *“when going towards late winter, the reindeer has survived on saved resources and will not be beneficial to slaughter this season by natural grazing”.*

4.2.2 Finnmark Rein AS

Why internationalize?

“It all started with the Asians begin interested in the reindeer penis, testicles and kidney, and they had such a soaring ability to pay, that I wouldn't believe that is was true. I then flew to Hong Kong and worked my way through a few days there. There is a very large market there, and they look at the reindeer as medicine.”

“We are unable to raise the price of the meat in Norway because the authorities are only going to push the number of animals down, and the only way to increase our turnover is to increase the price of the meat. It's a given amount every year, and then we have to think “okay, how are we going to raise the price”. The only way to increase sales is to increase demand, and one of the solutions is to leave Norway. If we increase demand, the price will follow”.

Where? Which markets?

“We started to work towards Asia, and aimed for that market because Asia has a high willingness to pay for what is natural and special. There exists reindeer in China as well, but reindeer in China is number 2 on the list of endangered animals, just like the Panda.”

What export barriers did you experience?

“We discovered that there didn't exist any product declaration on reindeer, and no research has ever been done to look this up in the food register, and to determine what the animal contains.”

“The Norwegian, Hong Kong, Malaysian and Chinese authorities and ministries had to agree on a trade agreement on reindeer meat. I then had to go to the authorities and the ministry to get a goods declaration. This took almost 2 years to get through.”

“Once approved, we then had to begin the process of getting the authorities in Asia to agree with the authorities in Norway on reindeer export. This was not easy to achieve because the contact with Norway and China was not very good at this point (because of the Nobel Peace Prize Award-conflict). That's why we were a bit rude and said with a humorous tone; “We are Sami and have nothing to do with the Norwegian authorities, do not interfere us with this conflict”. This was well received because China is used to different cultures. We then achieved good contact with the Chinese authorities, and the Norwegian authorities saw this as an opportunity to regain political contact with China”.

“After this, the process started with the Norwegian and Chinese Food Authority (Mattilsynet) agreeing. From the start of the process in 2016, we finally got all approvals in place in the summer of 2019”.

But the approval only applies to this specific company;

“We are now approved. What is also special is that the approval is only against the company and the company's location. Hong Kong has visited us here and approved us, because they think it is very important with traceability, and we are perhaps the best in Norway on this. The Chinese was concerned precisely because of many food scandals in China lately”.

They can now also export to the EU;

“We have also obtained EU approval and can export to the EU, but Norway has such a high import duty, on for example cheese, and when we export food we are subject to the same export duties as we have on imports. This means that the meat

will be twice as expensive, so the prices for the products will be insane because the Norwegian government wants to protect and preserve Norwegian agriculture”.

This company was contacted by an European wholesaler who was interested in distributing their products;

“In October 2019, I was contacted by Longino & Cardenal in Italy, that distribute products to the largest Italian gourmet restaurants in Hong Kong, Dubai, China and Italy among others, where they supply around 2,500 restaurants. Their policy is to deliver within 24 hours to any restaurant. They saw us as distinctive.”

The owner of the company explains their competitive advantages that made the Italian wholesaler interested in their products;

“We stand out from other reindeer producers in Norway. We are the largest in Norway, but also just large enough to supply such a wholesaler. No one but us has been able to deliver. We are the largest producer in Scandinavia, so if it is to be exported it is only us, or there is no one”.

“In February 2020 we finally got an agreement with the Italian wholesaler, then COVID-19 happened, and this is where we stand today”.

The company claimed that they did not experience any internal barriers regarding export;

“There were no internal barriers. In order to be an exporter of reindeer meat, it was all about being able to deliver, and to be big enough. Delivery ability is crucial, and we are able to fulfill that”.

Export to Asia or Europe?

“The Italian wholesaler will be our introduction to Asia because of their 2500 restaurants, among them Hong Kong. Hong Kong is the entrance to Asia. If you are approved there then all of China wants you, because the Chinese trust Hong Kong”.

The informant also mentioned how the price on reindeer meat will increase in Norway the same way that salmon did when Norway exported the fish to Asia;

“When Norway started exporting salmon to Asia, the salmon became popular in Asia and the prices at home increased dramatically”.

4.3 Secondary data

This subchapter is data collected from different sources online such as Stortinget, Regjeringen and different news articles, which summarizes the outlines of the subject the political regarding export, where the reindeer industry and the Norwegian government has worked against each other for years.

In Steine, Nordskog & Kjuus' "Market situation for reindeer meat" from 2010, it is stated that reindeer meat is not being exported that much. The main reason is that the price for Norwegian reindeer is too high compared to other wild meat in Europe. In late 2009, several slaughterhouses experienced failing turnover of reindeer meat, which led to some looking for new markets and opportunities for the meat (Steine, Nordskog & Kjuus, 2010).

In the situational analysis "Power to increase sales of reindeer meat", Henriksen (2004) received input from Norwegian wholesalers and their perception of the situation. Of the 5 wholesalers, only 1 had experience with export. 2 wholesalers believed that export could be possible, while 4 of the wholesalers meant that there were too small margins on reindeer meat as on other meat, such as beef or pork (Henriksen, 2004). Retailers were also asked, where 4 major retailers believed that export could be possible (Henriksen, 2004).

In 2004, the Norwegian Parliament was negative about exporting reindeer meat, mainly due to high prices and low access to raw materials;

"The Norwegian agriculture market is protected through tariff rates and quotas, and this is why reindeer meat in Norway can maintain a much higher price level both for consumers and for the reindeer industry, than in our neighbouring countries and in Europe as a whole. For the same reason, it is difficult to imagine a significant export of Norwegian reindeer meat, without a significant reduction in the price level. (...) All experience indicates that investing in the Norwegian market is an easier, faster and more affordable way to go than to focus on exports as the main strategy. For specialities, there is always an international market, but exports of large parts of Norwegian reindeer meat production seem to be a very unrealistic alternative".

(Henriksen, for Landbruksdepartementet, 2004).

Minister of agriculture and food, Lars Peder Brekk stated in 2010 that *“reindeer meat is priced too high, therefore the industry has ruined their opportunities”*. Brekk also stated the following; *“There is not enough reindeer meat in Norway than only the domestic market being big enough”*. (Stortinget.no, 2010).

The Norwegian authorities threatened in 2010 with forced slaughter if the Sami did not reduce the number of reindeers, and therefore they went in with 10 million NOK to buy 330 tonnes of reindeer meat from private slaughterhouses, and at the same time there were no discussions or interests from the government to export reindeer meat and receive a good price for the meat (Stortinget.no, 2010).

In 2011, there was a suggestion of exporting reindeer meat to Russia. The Norwegian Ministry of Agriculture was skeptical to this proposal. The Deputy Chief in the Ministry at the time, Leif Forsell said that *“This can be a demanding project, because no Norwegian slaughterhouses has been approved by the Russian veterinary authorities for export”*. Back in 2011, the opinions regarding reindeer export were still divided between the reindeer industry and the government;

“Odd Erling Smuk, president of the World Union of Reindeer Husbandry believes that export can benefit the Norwegian practitioners. He believes that there is a pay willing market, and has asked for help from Agriculture Minister Lars Peder Brekk to assess export and marketing in Russia. He believes that there is a big market. The Ministry of Agriculture is working on a response to the World Union. Leif Forsell, expresses some doubts about the price. - The price of reindeer meat in Russia is very low compared to Norway. (...) Norway also has no export quotas for reindeer meat. According to Forsell, it is of little relevance to study the possibilities for export. Nils Henrik Sara, the leader of the Norwegian Husbandry Association believes that export is a good idea. - For us, it is most important to get provisions for the meat. Whether is exported to Russia or other countries. Parliament representative Frank Bakke-Jensen likes the proposal for export. - Creating a larger market is beneficial. This also increases the opportunity to have a greater diversity in the products and better payment”.

(Aslaksen, for NRK.no, 2011).

In 2017, the Norwegian Ministry of Agriculture and Food demanded in their letter to the Norwegian Parliament, that;

“Although some by-products of reindeer have little or no interest in the Norwegian market, some by-products may have great value in some markets outside the country. It is therefore important that arrangements are made so that bi-products can be more easily exported”

(Regjeringen.no, 2017).

The timeline after 2017 is when Figved in Finnmark Rein started their work towards a successful reindeer export.

Over a longer period of time, the main problem in the norwegian reindeer meat industry, experienced by the slaughterhouses, has been the supply of raw materials which has necessitated the import of raw materials. This situation has changed from the autumn of 2002 to the current situation with turnover problems for the industry, where reindeer owners in Finnmark have had problems with delivery of reindeer slaughter (Henriksen, 2004).

Processing companies experiences that the supply of reindeer meat products in general is too scarce, uneven and unpredictable throughout the year (Henriksen, 2004).

Several sources talks about the idea of launching bi-products of the reindeer. Although some bi-products of reindeer have little or no interest in the Norwegian market, some bi-products may have great value in some markets outside the country. It is important that arrangements are made so that bi-products can be more easily exported to willing markets (Landbruks- og matdepartementet, 2017).

Finnish reindeer producers have experienced the same challenges of having too little access to raw materials in order to be able to deliver. In a finnish article from 2013, the finnish reindeer producers had to turn down an order form Germany on approximately 100,000 reindeers, and the reason was too few animals in Finland to be slaughtered. The finnish market had also received orders from France and Spain, but had to decline in order to fulfill the demand in the home market (Yle, 2013).

“The domestic market takes all of the meat that is being produced, and would take more, if it were available. This means that a sharp rise in price is expected”.

(Yle, 2013).

In order to produce enough products, the Swedish-Finnish company Polarica imported 10,000 - 15,000 slaughtered animals from Russia to fulfill the demand (Yle, 2013). The growth in import from Russia could push down the prices on the Finnish market (Yle, 2013).

Anne Ollila, CEO of Paliskuntain Yhdistys, explains that Finnish producers could reach out to export markets and achieve direct access to EU consumers.

“Direct access combined with growing interest outside the traditional Nordic market could keep the business viable”.

(Anne Ollila, Yle, 2013).

The Free Trade Agreement (FTA) between EFTA and Hong Kong has existed since 2012 (Toll.no, 2020). The main objective of the Free trade agreement (FTA) is to stimulate increased trade and economic cooperation between the parties. The FTA includes trade in goods and services, investment, public procurement, intellectual property, dispute resolution and competition, trade facilitation, technical barriers to trade (TBT), plant and veterinary rules (SPS), trade measures (anti-dumping, etc.) and trade and the environment. The FTA ensures Norwegian exporters and investors increased predictability and better framework conditions. The Hong Kong SAR already offers duty-free market access for all types of goods, and the FTA ensures that this practice is continued (Stortinget.no, 2012). Although it exists a FTA between Norway and Hong Kong, there was no declaration of goods on reindeers.

The conflict between Norway and China that the informant from Finnmark Rein mentioned as their political barrier, is the incident from 2010 when the Nobel Peace Prize Award triggered a diplomatic conflict between China and Norway. A Chinese political boycott of Norway was decided and immediately noticeable. At the end of 2016, Norwegian Prime Minister Erna Solberg was invited to visit China and the free trade negotiations between the two countries were resumed (Sverdrup-Thygeson, for Norsk Utenrikspolitisk Institutt, 2017).

Governmental barriers apply to actions or inactions by the home or foreign government. Leonidou (2004) determined two main problem areas; (1) the limited interest shown by the authorities to assist current and potential exporter, and (2) the restrictive role of export management regulations (Leonidou, 2004). The Economic Research Service's Structure of the Global Markets for Meat Report by Dyck and Nelson (2003), have discussed and determined two different barriers that are crucial for meat trade; sanitary standards and protectionist barriers.

Sanitary standards is an extremely important factor for meat trade. The distinction between countries where foot-and-mouth disease (FMD) has been detected, and those countries that were judged as free, largely defines the world trade of meat (Dyck and Nelson, 2003). The FMD-free zones over the last 50 years is United States, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, Japan, South Korea, Taiwan, and Denmark. Most of the trade of uncooked meat (beef and pork) took place between these areas, and ignored the trade within the EU (Dyck and Nelson, 2003).

An example of how significant this factor is, was when Argentina's export of beef expanded in 1999 when they received their FMD-free status, but contracted in 2000 because FMD was discovered. Also in Taiwan, when their export of pork vanished in 1997 when there was discovered an outbreak of FMD (Dyck and Nelson, 2003). Although diseases can prevent meat trade flows, sanitary standards are effective in preventing the spread of serious diseases that can destroy future animal production. The risk of infection is always a factor, and the potential cost of disease outbreak can be too much to handle (Dyck and Nelson, 2003). Actions were taken in the 1990s to exterminate diseases in important FMD areas, such as South America, Mexico and Europe. New channels for trade opened up when the areas was classified as FMD-free (Dyck and Nelson, 2003). However, permanent health was proven to be difficult, as FMD outbreaks in 2000 and 2001 had bad consequences for the trade of meat from previously healthy countries such as Britain and Argentina (Dyck and Nelson, 2003).

The fear and danger of transmitting the diseases to humans has also led to segmentation on the trade of meat. The primary fear was that the virus had an ability to infect humans. The consequences for companies that export or import meat could be devastating. An alternative for the companies is to take the risk of purchasing meat from more than one country, because if one supply source is being closed by an outbreak, another source may be unaffected. This

way, the company will still be able to continue to supply its customers. The risk will also be further reduced if the supply countries are located in regions far away from each other, so in case of an outbreak, the spread of disease is less likely (Dyck and Nelson, 2003).

Another barrier to trade is provided by governments, which comes in form of tariffs, tariff-rate quotas, and nontariff barriers (Dyck and Nelson, 2003). Protectionist barriers prevents trade just like sanitary standards. While the sanitary is to protect for diseases and these barriers is possible to remove by better health, high tariffs and other non-sanitary barriers is to prevent imported meat from competing with domestic products (Dyck and Nelson, 2003).

5.4 Summary

In Leonidou's (2004) "Analysis of the Barriers to Small Business Export Development Barriers", it is clear that small businesses way to internationalization is not problem free. The barriers they meet is many obstacles with varying degrees of significance. Some of the barriers are associated with internal barriers, while others experience external barriers. Furthermore, there are also problems that arise in the exporter's domestic sphere, such as lack of governmental support and other barriers that arise in the foreign market where the company operates or have a plan to operate in. For example, competition in the market. The internal barriers for the company are more controllable and easier to handle in contrast to the external barriers. Leonidou's (2004) analysis also determine that the frequency, intensity and importance of the export barriers may vary according to different contexts. This highlights the fact that the impact of export barriers is situation-specific, and largely depends on the managerial, organizational and environmental background of the company (Leonidou, 2004).

6. Analysis and discussions

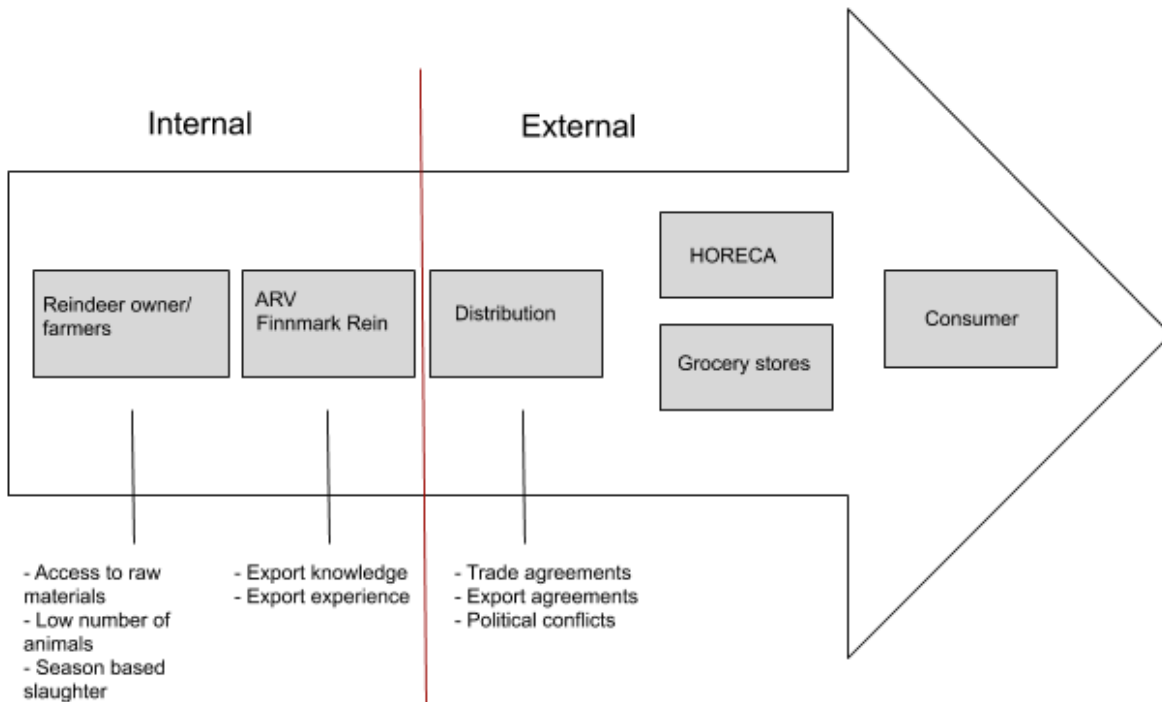
In this chapter, the empirical findings are presented and discussed. The purpose of the study is to find out why there has not been any export of reindeer meat from Norway, and to determine the barriers. The defining research question is “*What barriers does the Norwegian reindeer meat business face in exporting?*”. A comprehensive literature review helped to propose hypotheses to check the research question. The hypotheses included the following export barriers: managerial, functional, political and governmental barriers.

The main conclusions of the study are as follows:

- The main reason for wanting to export is to increase profits
- The main barriers for Norwegian reindeer export is external
- The barriers are managerial, functional, political and governmental barriers
- The internal and external barriers have something common; they are both controlled by the government and authorities (Low number of animals (internal) and lack of good declarations and trade agreement on reindeer meat (external))
- Arctic Rein og Vilt AS is still at an early stage, meaning that their barriers mainly is internal, where they have lack of raw materials and lack of export knowledge
- Finnmark Rein AS is at a stage where they are ready to export. Their barriers are external, meaning that they had to do all the work getting the legal documents, in order to start the export

Value chain

Here is an extension of the value chain from the theoretical chapter. This value chain shows which and where the barriers for reindeer export are based. The red line represents the distinction between internal and external barriers, but also domestic and international activities, where the red line indicates when it is most suitable for the reindeer business to go abroad, leaving the distribution to international wholesalers.



For the companies producing reindeer meat products, their main motives for internationalization is profits. Both Arctic Rein og Vilt (ARV) and Finnmark Rein (FR) states the same; 1) there is a high-end pay willing market out there who is interested in rare and gourmet products such as reindeer meat, and the price could be placed at a higher number than the current prices in Norway, and 2) they are unable to raise the prices in Norway, meaning that they are facing challenges in the future with no abilities to increase production nor increase prices to gain profit. Finnmark Rein says that the only way to increase sales is to increase demand, and the solution to this is to leave the Norwegian market. If international demand increases, the prices will follow. An example of this is when Norway first started to export salmon to Asia. As soon as the demand increased in Asia and the markets started to compete, the price on salmon increased drastically in Norway. Both ARV and FR hopes that this will happen to reindeer meat.

The international triggers are also both proactive and reactive motives. Profit and growth goals, and foreign market opportunities are considered as proactive, but FR experienced a request from Hong Kong and Italy, considering this as a reactive motive.

Both ARV and FR believe that Asia and central Europe (EU) is exciting markets for reindeer meat. One reason is because since there is a lot of people there, it must be a large proportion

of high-end customers with a willingness to pay. The informant from ARV means that the whole Nordic is a potential market, but confirms his lack of export knowledge with “The market exists, but we have to find it.” FR tells me that they initially started to work towards the Asian market because of their high willingness to pay for what is natural and special. Furthermore, FR had an early intention to export to Hong Kong because it is considered as a “gateway country”. FR stated that “what is accepted in Hong Kong, will also be in China because China trusts Hong Kong”. By using an international wholesaler, Finnmark Rein will enter each country the same way as the other they enter.

6.0.1 Internal barriers

It is difficult to conclude what or how much knowledge the two companies already have, but my study indicated that FR is a few steps ahead of ARV when it comes to internationalization. FR had found themselves an Italian wholesaler, while ARV says that it is necessary for them to find a wholesaler in order to go international. ARV and FR are equal here with the strategy of going through a wholesaler, but as mentioned, FR is a step ahead because they have already found one.

In order to be able to export, one must ensure that one is able to deliver the goods. This is a significant challenge in the reindeer industry. Reindeer is being slaughtered between September and March, which means that the meat is a seasonal product. This can be both a strength and a challenge; a strength where the meat is seen as exclusive and not available at all times, but also a challenge if the wholesalers and market demands access throughout the year. ARV explains that slaughter in the summer is challenging because the quality of the animal is poorer. The solution for FR here with the Italian wholesaler, is to export frozen meat outside of the slaughter season.

6.0.2 External barriers

The conflict between Norway and China shows that non-trade issues affect trade. For years, the reindeer industry and the government in Norway have worked against each other regarding reindeer meat export. As the data in the previous chapter shows, the Norwegian Parliament was negative to reindeer meat export all the way back to 2004. Their reasoning was that they thought that the price was too high, therefore, export would be a unrealistic alternative. Furthermore, in 2010, Minister of Agriculture still argued that the meat had ruined

their opportunities to internationalize due to their high prices. The minister also argued against export with the fact that it was not enough reindeer meat within the country in order to fulfill the domestic market.

Norwegian reindeer meat is significantly more expensive than for example Swedish meat, before you add the custom duties. This excludes export as an alternative if the government does not offer any contributions. However, the Norwegian reindeer meat is now trying to be seen as an exclusive product although several claim that it does not really distinguish from Swedish meat that much. The informant from FR claims that nothing is as good as Norwegian reindeer meat.

Both ARV and FR, although they are different in size and at different export stages, they mention that export is a solution to increase profit in the future. Today, they both are able to saturate the Norwegian market, but the government wants to decrease the number of reindeer. This means that the companies will have less animals to slaughter, gradually in the future. The informant from FR, mentioned that they want to experience the same in the reindeer industry, as what happened in the Norwegian salmon industry when it first started to export salmon to Asia. When Norway started exporting salmon and the interest and market demand on salmon increased in Asia, the price and demand also increased in Norway meaning the whole salmon business in Norway increased their profits. The informants both believe that the same could happen to the market price and demand on reindeer meat in Norway, if the export to Asia gains success. While Norwegian salmon is sold for record prices on the continent, there is no actual export of reindeer meat.

In 2017, the Norwegian government claimed that by-products of reindeer have great value in some international markets. Therefore, it was important for the government that arrangements would be made so that the by-products could be easily exported. The development and use of by-products was also confirmed as a business idea with the potential to export by both ARV and FR.

6.1 Conclusion

It is clear that the reindeer industry for years has tried to get help and support from Norwegian authorities to start export. Creating a larger market is beneficial, and will increase the opportunities to have a greater diversity in the product and receive better payments. This barrier is without doubt the major barrier that the Norwegian reindeer industry has experienced.

FR has with their desire to export, done a lot of the political and practical work that needed to be done in order to go abroad. FR is partially to blame for the political conflict between Norway and China to cool off. They also did the work in order to get all the necessary legal documents, i.e. the declaration of goods that never existed on reindeers.

6.2 Further research suggestions

- The markets that import Norwegian reindeer meat, do they accept the fact that reindeer meat is a season based food? Is it acceptable to receive frozen meat several months of the year?
- Why does the government decide a limit of number of reindeers?
- Why did the Norwegian government work against the reindeer industry and their wish to export, for several years?

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Attachment 1: Transcribed interviews

Interview 1

Telefonintervju med John Anders Lifjell tirsdag 24.mars

Vi hadde avklart tema på forhånd gjennom e-post.

Hvilke tanker har du om eksport av varene?

Norge har et av de best betalte markeder i verden, men vi vet også det finnes et marked der ute som betaler like bra, om ikke bedre enn Norge. Asia er et spennende for rein, fordi det er enormt mange mennesker der. I Norge er det 5 millioner mennesker, og vi beregner ca 300 gr kjøtt per person. Mens i Tyskland er det 80 millioner, og et par av disse millionene er high-end mennesker med god betalingsevne. Det finnes et marked der ute.

Et problem som er opplevd er skrantesyke på rein i Norge, på dyrene i fjellene mot Lærdal, hvor den eneste utveien for dyrene var døden. Da den ble påvist i Norge stengte Jina all import av rein fra Norge selv om vi ikke importerte dit (kløvdyr). Det er veldig sårbart, vi må ikke få noen sykdommer selv om det ikke er blitt påvist noen i senere tid. Blir satt restriksjoner. Andre restriksjoner (i nordland) becquerel (sitter igjen fra 80-tallet).

70% av rein i Norge skaffes fra Finnmark, og der er det ingen problemer med sykdom. Når det gjelder eksport, så er det ikke sikkert at markedet kun er interessert i kjøttet, men mer i innmat, tarm, andre ting av interesse. Det finnes gode næringsstoffer som gjør det interessant for legemidler. Det er ikke blitt gjort en skikkelig jobb på det. Noen må ta det løpet med nye produkter.

Markedet finnes men det må jobbes med å finne det. Vi jobber med nye produkter nå som er moden for eksport. Vi må finne ut av hva folk er interesserte i.

Hvis du skal bruke ressurser på å skaffe markeder utlandet, sende lavt volum langt, vedlikeholde markedet, bygge opp kunder, så kreves det veldig mye. JHL tror det er fullt mulig fordi han har snakket med bedrifter som eksporterer/selger i utlandet fra Sverige. De får utrolig bra betalt for reinkjøtt, produkter der gir bedre betaling der enn utlandet. Casen for å lykkes i utlandet; handler om mindre forpakninger, produkter som har lang holdbarhet, en del sånne verdier som JHA har trur på.

Hva med å selge til eksklusive restauranter i Europa?

Eksklusive restauranter i europa, det er et marked jeg ikke kjenner til. Vil de ha kjøttet ferskt eller frossent? Det har veldig mye å si. Sesongen for slakt er september-januar, noen ganger til mars. Kort sesong gjør det eksklusivt for mange av restaurantene. Restauranter i norge ønsker å kjøpe inn etter behov. Vi må ha grossister i utlandet som distribuerer til restaurantene. Hvis man klarer å finne disse, så er det mulighet for å lykkes med reinkjøtt.

De dyreste innsatsfaktor i dag er råvarene. Varekostnad 80%. Sitter igjen med 22% til å dekke lønn/lokaler. Du er egentlig på en volumvare, må ha store volum for å dekke kostnader. Det skal vi klare. Me da er neste utfordring, vi har ikke begrensninger på å øke volum i dag. Problemet er en knapphet på råvaren. Da må du begynne å se på en del alternative løsninger; få noen produkter som gjør det at du klarer å løfte/senke varekostnaden for å få bedre inntjening. Sammensetningen av dagens produkter er ikke god nok for å møte fremtidens marked. For å vedlikeholde markedet, og å være en god leverandør i markedet må man ha råvarer. Den som har kontroll på markedet, kundene, kan også betale mer for råvaren.

De som kun har HORECA har ingen leveranser i dag grunnet corona. ARV har ingen problem med å handle mer råvarer til høsten igjen, så lenge det er salg ut i andre enden så går det bra. Hvis vi hadde klart å få noen andre produkter for å bære det økonomiske lasset, så vil vi kunne ha mulighet til å betale rein enda bedre, gjør at konkurransekraft på råvaren blir enda sterkere. Bedriftene vil finne de gode råvarene som gjør at konkurransekraften blir sterkere. Har funnet noen produkter som mener vi skal løfte oss dit. Finnes et marked i norge men også i utlandet. MEN så er de disse barrierene. Ta råvarer fra sverige, inn i norge og bearbeide, så til utlandet.

Hvilke markeder mener du er fornuftige å satse med eksport i?

Tenker på norden, tyskland er åpen for reinsdyrprodukter. Hvis vi hadde klart å få til disse landene, island her jeg tro på, hvis vi hadde klart å konsentrere oss om de landene, har gjort studie på en elverandør som leverte varer for 35 mill i tyskland i fjor. Har stor tro på å få til noe. Produkter som gir oss en god inntjening også. Kan hende vi kan leve av dette i fremtiden, tone ned det vi gjør i dag. Avhengig av markedet vi har på rein i dag. Avhengig av å ha en grunnmur i bedriften mens vi bygger opp det nye markedet. Vi tror det kommer til å gå 2-3 år før vi er der.

Man må se på plussprodukter (slakteavfall), innmat, vom, tarmer, vil være en god ressurs for reinkjøtt fremover. Utfordring: råvaren begynner å bli så dyr, at hvis bedriftene skal ha råd/at forbrukeren skal betale for det, så må man få på plass en del produkter som gjør det spennende for forbrukeren som han er villig til å betale for. En del produkter man er villig til å betale for. Neste stikkord: størrelse. Ikke vits i å klaske et stykke kjøtt i bordet å si det koster 2000 kr kilo. Er villig til å kjøpe 100gr til 200. Men du får ikke kunder til å kjøpe et helt kg. Kapp i størrelser.

Vanskelig å komme inn i nye markeder. Derfor må man komme med nye produkter, dreininger at man da heller har mindre forpakninger.

Hvis du tenker på reinkjøtt, andre produkter som du kan sammenligne. Går det an å gjøre noen paralleller? Der man benytter samme verdikjede i. Er det mulig å samarbeide på tvers av produkter? Så kan man hive seg rundt å sammen kanskje få noen distribusjonskanaler som kan gjøre at kostnadene med eksporten blir billigere. Samme utgangspunkt som fisk; er det mulig? Pga lukt, vakuum, går det an å gjøre noe der? En trailer med fisk, kan man da pakke inn en palle med reinkjøtt, bruke samme distribusjon som kal til samme målet. Det handler om at det skal være mulig å, må sam-transportere, da har man låst seg til fersk kjøtt.

Mail: oppfølgingsspørsmål 25.mai 2020

Jeg har forstått det slik at det hovedsakelig er kalver som slaktes på høsten. De voksne dyrene går til videre produksjon. Jeg lurer på hvilket dyr som går an å slakte på vår- og sommerhalvåret? Er løsningen at noen av kalvene holdes igjen og slaktes utpå våren?

I Norge slaktes det 82% kalv og 18% voksne dyr årlig. Med kalv menes det dyr som er født i mai og som slaktes før mai året etter. Slaktesesongen er i utgangspunktet fra 1. september til 31. mars. Den beste tiden å slakte på er i oktober/november før den første snøen legger seg.

Utfordringen med slakt her er at kjøttfyllden på dyret stagnerer en periode. Beinmassen i dyret utvikler seg som igjen går utover kjøttfyllden. Et reinslakt har 30% bein og 70% kjøtt og fett. Når snøen legger seg ser vi at kjøttfyllden kan gå noe ned før kalvene har klart å tilpasse seg vinteren og grave etter mat. Kaldere temperaturer endrer også dyret.

Den største utfordringen er vinterbeiter. Ved en flokk på 500, med 450 simler og resten okser, har man ved en 100% tilgang på kalv 450 kalver. Men det må påregnes noe tap, slik at man sitter igjen med 80% kalv, altså 360. Når man går mot seinvinteren har reinen levd på oppsparte ressurser og det vil ved naturlig beite ikke være gunstig å slakte på denne årstiden.

Interview 2

Telefonintervju med Are Smuk Figved, 6.mai 2020

Hei! Det her e Ida Evensen som ringer. Jeg holder på å skrive en masteroppgave om eksport av reinkjøtt, og har lest en del artikler om dere på nett om deres planer om eksport i 2018.

Har du litt tid til å prate med meg om det?

Jeg har lest litt artikler på nett ang deres planer om eksport i 2018, men finner ingen informasjon etter dette. Hva skjedde?

Vi hadde startet å jobbe mot Asia, og hadde siktet på det fordi det asiatiske markedet har høy betalingsvilje for det som er naturlig og spesielt. Det finnes rein i Kina også, men rein i Kina er urørlig på samme måte som panda, og reinen er nr 2 på lista over dyr som ikke er lov å ta, pga utrydningstruet art.

Det hele begynte med at asiatene var interessert i penis, testikler og nyrene på reinsdyret, og de hadde en så skyhøy betalingsevne at jeg trodde ikke det var sant. Derfor fløy jeg (Are Smuk Figved) til Hong Kong og jobbet meg gjennom noen dager der. Det er et veldig stort marked der, og de ser på reinsdyret som medisin, fordi i østens mat er reinen et dyr som har en medisinsk effekt og ting som er blodfortynnende, som igjen vil øke varmen i kroppen. Asiaterne har forsket på reinkjøtt, og ved blodfortynnende vil kroppstemperaturen til et menneske øke.

Men det vi oppdaget var at det ikke finnes noen varedeklarasjon på rein, og det var ikke blitt forsket på slik at dette kunne slås opp i matvareregisteret slik at man ser hva et dyr inneholder. Dette fantes ikke på rein og det var ingen som hadde forsket på hele dyret. Da sa markedet i Kina, Asia og Hong Kong at “dere må søke”, slik at det norske, hong kong, malaysiske og kinesiske myndigheter og departementer måtte bli enige om en handelsavtale

på rein. Jeg (ASM) måtte da gå til myndighetene og departementet for å få en varedeklarasjon. Til å begynne med søkte jeg på deklarasjon på hele dyret, nettopp på grunn av denne interessen av kjønnsdelen hos kineserne. Fordi det er en EU-regel at det ikke er lov å handle med kjønnsdeler hos dyr. Det var ikke primært penis vi skulle satse på, men hele dyret inkludert penis. Og dette fikk vi lov til. Det ble tatt prøver, på hvor mye mineraler og proteiner dyret inneholder.

Dette tok nesten 2 år å få gjennom. Når dette var godkjent så var det å starte prosessen med å få myndighetene i Asia til å bli enige med myndighetene i Norge om eksport. Dette var ikke så enkelt å få til, fordi kontakten mellom Kina var ikke veldig god. Derfor var vi da litt frekke og sa med en humoristisk tone; “Vi er samer og har ikke noe med de norske myndighetene å gjøre, ikke blande oss inn i dette”. Dette ble godt tatt i mot fordi Kina er vant til forskjellige folk og kulturer. Vi fikk da god kontakt med kinesiske myndigheter, og de norske myndighetene så på dette som en gylden mulighet til å få politisk kontakt igjen.

Og så begynte denne prosessen med det norske mattilsynet da, hvor Norske, Hong Kong, Kinesiske og Malaysiske mattilsynet måtte bli enige om hva det skulle inneholde. Det handlet om kjøp og salg, og de ville da ha en mulighet til å få eksportere kylling til Norge etc, men dette er politisk. Men mattilsynene måtte bli enige. Så etter 3,5 år, fra vi startet prosessen i 2016, fikk vi sommeren 2019 alle godkjennelser på plass. Så nå er vi godkjente. Det som også er spesielt, er at godkjenningen er godkjent mot selskapet og selskapets lokasjon (Finnmark Rein). Hong Kong har vært på besøk her og godkjent, fordi de er veldig opptatte av sporbarhet, og vi er kanskje de råeste i Norge på dette. Dette var kineserne opptatte av nettopp på grunn av mange matskandaler i Kina i det siste.

Vi har også fått EU-godkjennelse og kan eksportere til EU, men Norge har så høy importtoll, på for eksempel ost, at når vi får eksportere så blir vi pålagt de samme eksportavgiftene som vi har på import. Dette gjør at at kjøttet vil bli dobbelt så dyrt, så det blir da vanvittige priser for at Norge skal beskytte og bevare det norske landbruk. Vi har prøvd å jobbe oss rundt dette og si at “det finnes ikke en erstatning på vårt produkt”, og da har myndighetene i Norge sagt at “Joda det finnes i Sverige og Finland”, men forskjellen her at vi driver kun med nødfôring.

Vår rein er et 100% naturlig produkt. Vi har nødfôret de ca 100 gram per rein, men de er i utgangspunktet ville dyr.

I oktober 2019 ble jeg (ASM) kontaktet av Longino & Cardenal i Italia, de største på Italienske gourmetrestauranter i Hong Kong, Dubai, New York og Italia, hvor de leverer til om lag 2500 restauranter. De har en policy på å levere innen 24 timer til hvilken som helst restaurant. De ser på Finnmark Rein som egenartet, og på norsk laks som søppel. Italia var veldig interessert, og vi hadde et møte hvor blant annet jeg (ASM), en leverandør av klippfisk fra vesterålen, en leverandør på alger og tang, og én til (totalt 4) som var nede i Italia som representanter, og den eneste som fikk en avtale var Finnmark Rein. Men de synes prisen var alt for høy, fordi jeg doblet fastprisen for å kunne tjene på det. Her var Innovasjon Norge inne å ødela, fordi de satte priser fra Arctic Rein og Vilt til Italienerne. Det er en stor forskjell på ARV og Finnmark Rein. Oppkjøpere av eksport skal, og Finnmark Rein er akkurat store nok, vi er størst i Norge men også akkurat nok store til å levere til en slik type grossist. Ingen andre enn oss har klart å være leveringsdyktig. Finnmark Rein er den største produsenten i Skandinavia, så hvis det skal eksporteres er det kun oss, eller så er det ingen. Og vi er også de eneste som kan garantere for å ikke ha fôret dyrene.

Hva skjedde med den Italienske grossisten?

De synes prisen var for høy. Jeg (ASM) forklarte at vi er spesielle, og skal det gjøres så må grossisten ta godt betalt. Det er forskjell på Finnmark Rein og rein fra Sverige. Vi ble sammenlignet med andre viltprodukter, som for eksempel hare. Etter denne forhandlingen kuttet vi kontakten, og det gikk da 2 - 3 mnd, fordi jeg tenkte at her er det bare å sitte i ro og stå på sitt. I Februar tok den italienske grossisten opp kontakten og ønsker å gjøre en avtale. I Februar 2020 reiste jeg (ASM) ned til Italia og satt der og diskuterte, og sa "ok greit, vi vil ikke gi en lavere pris, men dere skal få en introduksjonsrabatt fordi jeg er så overbevist på at vi leverer så bra på kvalitet". Vi ble da enige om en rabatt på 20% into. Jeg fløy tilbake til Norge, og så kom korona. Og det er her vi står i dag.

Sier du da at Italia er først ut?

Ja, altså en italiensk grossist som leverer til 2500 restauranter over hele verden. De distribuerer også maldonsalt og russisk kaviar, altså kjente high-end produkter. Det er en ære

å bli plukket ut. Den Italienske grossisten blir vår introduksjon i Asia. Hong Kong er inngangen i Asia, er du approved der så vil hele Kina ha deg, fordi kineserne stoler på Hong Kong.

Har dere planer om å selge ferskt eller frossent kjøtt?

Begge deler. Vi sender først til Asko sitt lager sør for Oslo, og deretter har de biler som frakter varene ned til Milano. Derfra fraktes det med fly over hele verden. Kjøttet har en ekstrem holdbarhet dersom det er vakuumpakket, opp til 6 - 8 uker uten problem.

Så deres eksportutfordringer lå ikke internt i bedriften, men altså eksterne handelsbarrierer?

Det var ikke interne barrierer. For å være eksportør av reinkjøtt så handlet det om leveringsdyktighet, å være store nok. Leveringsdyktighet er helt avgjørende. Ellers blir du veldig sesongbasert. Det går an å kun levere i sesong, men det blir veldig utfordrende hvis du skal eksportere til hele verden. Eksport er dobbelt så godt betalt, og dersom det blir en suksess så behøver jeg ikke å tenke på leveringsdyktighet.

Når man begynte med laks i Asia, Arne Hjeltnes, han bør du forresten snakke med. Det som var utfordringen var at når laks tok av i Asia så økte også prisen i Norge. Det norske markedet sluker alt av reinkjøtt, vi trenger ikke, i veldig mange år, så lenge John Anders (Lifjell) har drevet så lå reinkjøtt som frosne klumper i frysedisken på butikken, mens Finnmark Rein startet å selge det ferskt i 2016. Det som er vanskelig med ferskt kjøtt er å være leveringsdyktig. Vi gikk til butikkjeden å sa "hvis dere betaler 25% bedre for ferskt kjøtt, så skal dere få ferskt." Vi får i dag 15% bedre for fersk fordi alt det andre har kommet etter.

Vi klarer ikke å få prisen på kjøttet opp fordi myndighetene skal bare presse tallet på dyr ned, og den eneste måten å øke vår omsetning på er å øke prisen på kjøttet. Det er en gitt mengde hvert år, og da må vi tenke "okei, hvordan skal vi øke prisen". Den eneste måten å øke omsetning på er å øke etterspørselen, og en av måtene er da å gå ut av Norge, og øke etterspørselen slik at prisen også vil følge etter.

De interne barrierene er å få produsere, få anlegg godkjent, slik som når asiatene måtte hit for å godkjenne anlegget, følge sporbarheten, hele verdikjeden måtte registreres og godkjennes for eksport fordi det er så ukjent det vi driver med. Vi fikk det godkjent, og da startet vi med å få til en avtale. Det som stoppet opp var de 3,5 årene det tok for å få godkjent rein som eksportvare. Det fantes ikke, det fantes kun dispensasjoner. For eksempel en i Trondheim har sendt noe til Dubai, små partier hit og dit.