Journal of International Studies

Centre of Sociological

Research

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Measuring national economic resilience through industrial portfolios

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Abstract. Even though the importance of economic resilience has increased as economic shocks have become more frequent in the world, there is still a knowledge gap on how to measure it. In search for effective ways to measure national resilience, this article identifies and mathematically proves the existence of direct correlation between resilience and competitiveness through time-specific global correlation rate. This research proposes an economic performance evaluation method that measures the competitiveness of countries facing economic shocks and recovering from them. A quantified method for identification of global economic shocks through industrial portfolio is proposed as well. The holistic approach internalises most externalities and a nation's

Received: June, 2023 1st Revision: January, 2024 Accepted: March, 2024

DOI: 10.14254/2071-8330.2024/17-1/8 resilience is pared down to its ability to compete in the international trade, linking the main determinants of resilience to the basics of human behaviour. The proposed methodology can be used effectively for national and global economic performance estimations. It also opens a range of new possibilities for economic resilience studies.

Keywords: economic turbulence, economic shock, resilience, industrial portfolio, Inter-Country Input-Output tables, National Accounts

JEL Classification: D62, E01, E21, F4, F52, G01, O4

1. INTRODUCTION

Modern economic history is also a history of shock-induced disturbances and recessions (Hundt & Grün, 2022). Resilience has become a popular word in economics, especially since the 2007 economic shock (Martini, 2020). The onset of COVID-19 has sparked renewed attention to the relevance of developing tools and frameworks that would inform coordinated policymaking across different countries (Mascaretti et al., 2022). Economic resilience is highly complex and multifaceted issue (Martin, 2012; Martin & Sunley, 2014). Martini (2020) noted that it is shock-dependent: a region resilient during one period could be non-resilient during the next. There is a growing body of literature on this concept, yet there is no consensus on an appropriate methodology for measuring it (Martin & Gardiner, 2019).

Geographically, resilience studies usually cover the regional level. Martin (2012) and Martin and Gardiner (2019) have studied British cities and regions, and many other researchers (Di Pietro et al., 2020; Martini, 2020; Oprea et al., 2020; Hundt & Grün, 2022) have investigated the resilience of regions at the NUTS2 level (nomenclature of territorial units; EUROSTAT, 2021). Economies in Europe are still characterised by unequal economic resilience (Cuadrado-Roura & Maroto, 2016), and researchers have paid little attention to Eastern European countries so far (Oprea et al., 2020).

Economic resilience is often quantified using two main properties: resistance and recovery/recoverability (Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Martini, 2020; Oprea et al., 2020; Hundt & Grün, 2022). Changes in GDP per capita (Picek & Schröder, 2018; Oprea et al., 2020; Hundt & Grün, 2022) or output at basic prices (Martin, 2012; Martin & Gardiner, 2019) are used as proxies for these properties. Employment statistics are taken into account as well, mainly when researchers attempt to find correlations between resistance or recoverability and industrial specialisation (Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Hundt & Grün, 2022), although there are debates regarding the reliability of using employment statistics in this way (Gregg & Wadsworth, 2010; Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Oprea et al., 2020).

Recent studies have employed the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)'s Input-output tables (IOTs), which describe the sale and purchase relationships between producers and consumers within an economy, or Inter-Country IOTs (ICIOTs; OECD, 2023), which capture the effects of distinct industries on national economies through the demand side of economic performance (Picek & Schröder, 2018; Pamucar et al., 2023). Lewis et al. (2021) used the ICIO Tables for a comparison of growth between aggregate values of goods and services worldwide.

The applicability of measuring economic resilience at the national level through industrial portfolios for large and small economies of the European Union (EU) was highlighted in Montrimas et al. (2023). Accordingly, this study addresses the lack of a unified resilience measuring methodology and proposes an effective way to evaluate resilience at the national level for any country in the global economy. The national accounts (NAs) of a sample of 77 economies worldwide are analysed (Eurostat, 2023). The sample countries' economic performance information is harmonised in the ICIOTs for the period between 1995 and 2020.

Resistance and recoverability, the two main components of resilience, are calculated following the methodology of Martin and Gardiner (2019) by lifting them to the national level, as proposed by Montrimas et al. (2023). In this research, national competitiveness denotes a country's aggregated gains or losses in the value of intermediate consumption (IC) during the defined period. The term IC refers to the goods and services consumed as inputs by the production process (Eurostat, 2013). Thus, IC can be viewed as the aggregate value of completed trading actions within industries in the context of the general economic equilibrium, because it consists of nation's goods and services that are either transformed or used up by the production process (Leontief, 1936). IC may reflect the decreased availability of certain resources for consumers in periods of increased scarcity, caused by disrupted production chains. Or the opposite. IC may also reveal the decreased demand for some products. Gains in the value of IC in one industry can cover the losses in another industry within a country, or internationally. In this study, competitiveness between countries herein includes minor and major changes within industrial portfolios. Hundt and Grün (2022) refer to the major ones as structural shifts.

The holistic approach of this research includes employment shifts, political initiatives and many other interconnected elements (Dicken, 2003) in determining the economic performance of a single global market. Undesired external economic disturbances of regional economies (Di Pietro et al., 2020; Ženka et al., 2021), deriving from any other regions of interaction (Martin, 2012), are included in the evaluation, along with the other regions of interaction, as the internal components of the global economy.

In its search for effective ways to measure national resilience, the research compares two methods for measuring national economic performance in the context of the global economic performance – resilience and competitiveness. A direct correlation between the results of the two methods through a time-specific global correlation rate is statistically identified and mathematically proven. Both calculation methods are capable of providing similar inter-country comparison results, although the competitiveness is identified as a more practical and convenient method.

Martin and Gardiner (2019) proposed the concept of 'relative resilience', denoting the economic performance of cities and regions, benchmarked to their national (macro-aggregate) economic performance, during the observed periods of the national recessionary shocks and recoveries. This research suggests a quantified way to identify periods of shocks and recoveries at the global (macro-aggregate) level to benchmark countries and compare their resilience. The level of detail in the data panel allows for a comparison of resilience and competitiveness, iterated to the national industry level. Industrial resilience and competitiveness results, viewed from a global perspective, enable the identification of disrupted economies in various regions of the world. as well as the disrupted global production chains throughout the observed time frame. Periods of global recessionary disruptions can be identified through the quantification of the data in the ICIOTs, and the results correspond to global economic recessionary events, as highlighted in the literature.

The findings of this research create a range of new possibilities for future resilience studies by exploiting the statistics of competitiveness. The proposed method enables the decision-making bodies anywhere in the world to adapt their economic performance measuring practices effectively and conveniently for national or even global economic performance estimations.

The rest of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 provides an overview of the relevant literature. Section 3 describes the steps taken to obtain the results. Section 4 consolidates the results, proves the identified direct correlation, explains the applicability of the competitiveness method, details the significance and relevance of this research to science and outlines the potential for the research to be extended in future economic resilience studies. Section 5 concludes the research with essential findings and possibilities for future elaborations on the topic.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The world has been facing economic security issues for decades as globalisation has evolved (Kahler, 2004). Scientific literature on 'resilience' has highlighted the different ways in which various regions have tried to deal with these challenges. In the literature, term 'resilience' denotes a dynamic and multifaceted process with constantly changing characteristics of a regional or local economy (Martin & Sunley, 2014), although there is no consensus on the definition of resilience (Di Pietro et al., 2020; Oprea et al., 2020). Briguglio et al. (2009) described 'resilience' as a set of actions of socio-economic systems to help a region to recover from a negative shock or to help benefit from a positive shock. Regional resilience is usually seen as a highly complex concept that consists of many variables. Martin (2012) identified 'resistance', 'recovery', 're-orientation' and 'renewal' as the four properties of regional resilience that are most frequently used for economic interpretation (Martin & Sunley, 2014; Martin et al., 2016; Di Pietro et al., 2020; Oprea et al., 2020). Later works elaborated on additional properties of resilience, defining regions' sensitivity, robustness, responsiveness, and adaptiveness to different types of recessionary shocks (Martin & Sunley, 2014; Martin et al., 2016; Giannakis & Bruggeman, 2017; Athief et al., 2024; Hidayati et al., 2024). In practice, regional resilience is analysed mainly through two main elements – resistance and recovery (Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Oprea et al., 2020; Di Pietro et al., 2020; Alhanatleh et al., 2024). Most of the resilience measuring attempts in the literature have concentrated on particular regions by considering the time periods encompassing the occurrence of two or more shocks (Navarro-Espigares et al., 2012; Martini, 2020; Oprea et al., 2020).

Ženka et al. (2021) defined an economic shock as an unplanned change, an event or a phenomenon affecting the conditions of the economic, political, social and/or natural environment of national and/or regional economies and/or the international economy, which, if it is not addressed or if the current developmental strategy is not maintained, will have a sudden and serious harmful and/or beneficial impact on the regional economic development.

Resilience is usually considered as the ability to recover from a shock or to reach the pre-shock level. Martin and Gardiner (2019) highlighted the hysteretic behaviour of economies in the general literature, with this behaviour acting as the counterpart of resilience. While resilience refers to an the economy's bounce-back to its pre-shock level, hysteretic models allow for the possibility that a recession or similar disturbance can have permanent effects on the growth path and growth rate of an economy (Hamilton, 1989; Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Mishchuk et al., 2023; Tjahjanto et al., 2023).

Despite the lack of consensus on a unified methodology for measuring resilience, Martin and Gardiner (2019) note that it is generally agreed that some critical components, such as a counterfactual reference or an expected economic performance position, are necessary for calculating regional resistance and recoverability. Regional resilience is usually evaluated through the gross domestic product (GDP) per capita within a region (Martin & Sunley, 2014; Oprea et al., 2020; Hundt & Grün, 2022). Regional output and employment fluctuations are considered to better reflect market reactions to shocks (Martin & Sunley, 2014; Martin et al., 2016; Kudej et al., 2021). Others follow Martin et al. (2016) in using employment data to quantify resilience (Martini, 2020).

The relative resilience measuring methodology of Martin and Gardiner (2019) for cities (regions) uses annual output data in constant prices by benchmarking them to the economy of Great Britain. Montrimas et al. (2023) adapted this methodology to the national level of the Southern and Eastern European Union (EU) countries. Martin and Gardiner (2019) used resistance and recoverability (recovery) variables for measuring relative resilience by employing output data, while Montrimas et al. (2023) used the annual results of IC from the ICIOTs.

Mascaretti et al. (2022) underlined the OECD's IOTs as powerful instruments for representing and analysing the production structure of an economy, performing impact analyses or estimating the effect of

various shocks at different geographic levels. Pamucar et al. (2023) employed the IOTs to model the industrial interdependencies through the product inputs. IC consists of a country's goods and services that are either consumed or transformed during the production process (Eurostat, 2013). Within the data sets of NAs, IC can thus be considered as the annual aggregate value of completed trading actions within each industry in the context of the general economic equilibrium (Leontief, 1936). The ICIOTs were effectively applied in the research of Picek and Schröder (2018) to capture the effects of Germany's final demand spillovers on Southern European countries through the consumption perspective and in the research of Lewis et al. (2021) to capture the global expenditure shift from goods to services.

In periods of increased scarcity, caused by disrupted production chains, IC may reflect the decreased availability of certain resources for consumers or the decreased demand for certain products (Montrimas et al., 2023). Minor changes within national industrial portfolio are captured within IC changes (Montrimas et al., 2023), while the major changes – structural shifts (Hundt & Grün, 2022) – are captured during the processes of reorientation (Martin, 2012).

The industrial portfolio (or industrial structure) of an economy is one of the main determinants of resilience at both the theoretical and empirical levels (Delgado-Bello et al., 2023). The studies of Martini (2020), Oprea et al. (2020), Hundt and Grün (2022) and Delgado-Bello et al. (2023) focused on identifying the most or least resilient industries, but this research produced mixed results. Conroy (1975) and Martin (2012) noted that a regional industrial mix (or portfolio) acts as one input to resilience. However, in scientific discussions on economic resilience context-dependency dominates, producing mixed results and no unified opinion (Montrimas et al., 2023). Industrial specialisation (Krugman index) is widely used across regional resilience modelling (Martin et al., 2016; Martin & Gardiner, 2019; Martini, 2020; Hundt & Grün, 2022), but it is evaluated using employment data, which may be subject to data availability constraints (Martin & Gardiner, 2019). Oprea et al. (2020) also noted that unemployment statistics depend on GDP, which may distort the findings.

Scientists have extensively discussed human behavioural issues, related to securing the commodities and natural resources, is extensively discussed among scientists (Ross, 2004; Ron, 2005; Dunne & Tian, 2015; Musayev, 2016). Gat (2006) highlighted the possession and protection of scarce resources as the main objective of civil or international conflicts. An economy is a system of interconnected elements, consisting of interactions between the economies of all regional and local entities within globalising processes (Dicken, 2003). Adam Smith defined a nation's wealth as its per capita national product for any given mix of natural resources that the country might possess, with the self-interested actions of individuals (invisible hand theory) managing to somehow maintain a functioning social order within an economy (Manis, 2005; Butler, 2011). Productive population and the availability of natural resources in the economy are therefore the two essential elements of an economy (Milgrom, 2017). The research of Montrimas et al. (2023) showed an increase in structural shifts within industries across countries during recovery periods, implying that countries strive to explore their own advantages in distinct industries to compensate for the losses in production chains that are disrupted by shocks. This suggests that there is a link between economic resilience of a country and its ability to compete against the other countries.

These insights from the scientific literature indicate that the competitiveness of industrial sectors within countries, stemming from behavioural trends, is the determinant of national resistance during the shocks and the driver of the recovery of national economies as countries adapt, compensate, and otherwise explore their comparative advantages in the international market within specific industries.

3. STATISTICAL SOURCES AND METHODOLOGY

The harmonised data of the ICIOTs include the annual statistics of 45 industries per country, retrieved from the NAs of 76 countries (38 OECD and 38 non-OECD economies; OECD, 2023) of the world (referred to as the 'Countries' hereafter) during the analysed period between 1995 and 2020. The shortest period is one year in ICIOTs; consequently, the dynamics of variable changes in the data panel are captured in one-year iterations. Following the data format of the ICIOTs, the rest of the world (ROW) inputs are included in this research as well in the form of a separate (the 77-th) country.

In this research, IC is an aggregate input value of domestic and foreign products within an industry in the ICIOTs (OECD, 2023). 'Intermediate' denotes the relationships in the IOTs that emerge from the interindustry input matrix, where row entries represent outputs from an industry and column entries represent inputs to an industry (Mascaretti et al., 2022). A set of inputs of all industries represents the industrial portfolio of a country as defined by Martin (2012). The values of IC, retrieved from the ICIOTs, are adjusted to a basic price level of 1994, as described in Montrimas et al. (2023). Montrimas et al. (2023) also provided a justification for examining IC rather than national output.

Two methods are applied to identify the economic behaviour of the Countries when they face turbulent periods in terms of global economic development. The goal is to identify the volatility of national industrial portfolios in the world market that suggest the presence of significant recessionary events in the global economy. This notion is consistent with the concept of an 'economic shock' (Ženka et al., 2021) highlighting any sudden and serious negative or positive impact on regional or macro-aggregate economic development.

3.1. Relative resilience calculation method

The first method follows the 'relative resilience' concept of Martin and Gardiner (2019). The expectation is that the economies within a region should react in the same way as the macro-aggregate economy, given that a shock is considered to be an economy-wide event. In this research, regions are denoted by Countries, and the global economy is considered the macro-aggregate level. Two approaches are possible:

National resilience, measured through the two main components – resistance and recoverability.
 Both components are calculated in the same way by evaluating the derivation of a region's performance from the macro-aggregate economic development (Martin & Gardiner, 2019). Resistance is measured during the periods of economy-wide recessionary shocks, while recoverability is measured during the periods of recovery from shocks:

$$R_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{\left(\Delta I C_c^{t,t-x} - \Delta E \left(I C_c^{t,t-x}\right)\right|}{\left|\Delta E \left(I C_c^{t,t-x}\right)\right|}, \qquad (1)$$

where:

 $R_C^{t,t-x}$ is either the resistance of Country ε during the period between the beginning of a shock (t-x) and the end of the shock t, or the recoverability of Country ε during the period between the beginning of a recovery (t-x) and the end of the recovery t.

 $\Delta IC_c^{t,t-x}$ (or $IC_c^{t,} - IC_c^{t-x}$) denotes the change in the IC value of Country ℓ during the period between (t-x) and t.

 $\Delta E(IC_c^{t,t-x})$ is the 'expected' change (Martin & Gardiner, 2019) in the IC value of Country c during the period between (t-x) and t, obtained by applying the following calculation:

$$\Delta E(IC_c^{t,t-x}) = \left(\frac{IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}}{IC_w^{t-x}}\right) * IC_c^{t-x}, \qquad (2)$$

where:

 IC_w^t and IC_w^{t-x} are the macro-aggregate IC values of the world w during the period that starts in year (t-x) and ends in year t. Equation (1) can be simplified, keeping in mind that the values of IC_w^{t-x} and IC_c^{t-x} are always positive in the data panel:

$$R_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{\left(\Delta I C_c^{t,t-x} - \left(\frac{I C_w^t - I C_w^{t-x}}{I C_w^{t-x}}\right) * I C_c^{t-x}\right)}{\left|\left(\frac{I C_w^t - I C_w^{t-x}}{I C_w^{t-x}}\right) * I C_c^{t-x}\right|}$$

$$R_{c}^{t,t-x} = \frac{\frac{(IC_{c}^{t} - IC_{c}^{t-x}) * IC_{w}^{t-x} - (IC_{w}^{t} - IC_{w}^{t-x}) * IC_{c}^{t-x}}{IC_{w}^{t-x}}}{\frac{|IC_{w}^{t} - IC_{w}^{t-x}| * IC_{c}^{t-x}}{IC_{w}^{t-x}}}$$

$$R_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{IC_c^t * IC_w^{t-x} - IC_c^{t-x} * IC_w^{t-x} - IC_w^t * IC_c^{t-x} + IC_w^{t-x} * IC_c^{t-x}}{|IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}| * IC_c^{t-x}}$$

$$R_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{IC_c^t * IC_w^{t-x} - IC_w^t * IC_c^{t-x}}{|IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}| * IC_c^{t-x}},$$
 (3)

• Industrial resilience in terms of the extent to which the industries of a Country lost or gained their comparative advantages during shocks or recovery periods. The calculation is similar to the above, except national industrial portfolios are iterated to the industry level:

$$R_{ci}^{t,t-x} = \frac{\left(\Delta I C_{ci}^{t,t-x} - \Delta E \left(I C_{ci}^{t,t-x}\right)\right|}{\left|\Delta E \left(I C_{ci}^{t,t-x}\right)\right|},\tag{4}$$

where:

 $R_{ci}^{t,t-x}$ is the resistance or recoverability of industry *i* in Country *c* during the period between (t-x) and *t*.

 $\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}$ denotes the change in the IC value of industry i in Country v during the period between (t-x) and t.

 $\Delta E(IC_{ci}^{t,t-x})$ is the 'expected' change in the IC value of industry i in Country c during the period between (t-x) and t, obtained by applying the following calculation:

$$\Delta E(IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}) = \left(\frac{IC_{wi}^{t} - IC_{wi}^{t-x}}{IC_{wi}^{t-x}}\right) * IC_{ci}^{t-x},$$
 (5)

where:

 IC_{wi}^t and IC_{wi}^{t-x} are the macro-aggregate IC values of industry i in the world w during the period that starts in year (t-x) and ends in year t.

This formula can be simplified like the national resilience formula (Equation 3), keeping in mind that the values of IC_{wi}^{t-x} and IC_{ci}^{t-x} are always positive in the data panel:

$$R_{ci}^{t,t-x} = \frac{IC_{ci}^{t} * IC_{wi}^{t-x} - IC_{wi}^{t} * IC_{ci}^{t-x}}{|IC_{wi}^{t} - IC_{wi}^{t-x}| * IC_{ci}^{t-x}},$$
 (6)

When one examines resistance or recoverability in relation to macro-aggregate economy trends, it is necessary to consider several important properties of national industrial portfolios, as explained in Montrimas et al. (2023). First, a country may be viewed as resistant to shocks or able to rapidly recover from them if significant losses in the IC values of its disrupted industries are compensated by similar or higher gains in the IC values of the remaining industries. Second, significant IC value losses or gains across countries are identifiable within the industries associated with specific economic shocks at the macroaggregate level. Thus, industrial resistance from a Country's perspective (Equation 7) and from a macroaggregate industry perspective (Equation 8) can be considered as follows:

$$RI_c^{t,t-x} = \sum_{i=1}^{45} (R_{ci}^{t,t-x}),$$
 (7)

$$RI_i^{t,t-x} = \sum_{c=1}^{77} (R_{ci}^{t,t-x}),$$
 (8)

where:

 $RI_c^{t,t-x}$ - denotes the resistance or recoverability of the industrial portfolio of Country c in the period between year (t-x) and t,

 $RI_i^{t,t-x}$ - denotes the resistance or recoverability of the global industry *i* in the period between year (*t*-x) and *t*,

 $R_{ci}^{t,t-x}$ denotes the resistance or recoverability of industry *i* in Country *c* in the period between year (*t*-*x*) and *t*.

3.2. COMPETITIVENESS CALCULATION METHOD

The second method allows the periods of volatility in industrial portfolios across Countries to be quantified by measuring the proportions of industry losses or gains within countries, independently from market fluctuations at macro-aggregate level. As stipulated in Montrimas et al. (2023), a decreased annual IC value in a national industry marks a country's lost market position in the international trade, while an increased IC value indicates a country's gains in the international market. Following this logic, a country's losses or gains in IC values within industries reflect the country's ability to compete in the industries internationally. Thus, 'competitiveness' denotes the proportion of annual IC value gains or losses of every industry in each Country throughout the analysed period. Two approaches are applicable:

• National competitiveness, measured by the level of changes in the IC values of industries, including every industry's level of contribution to the national industrial portfolios:

$$COMP_{c}^{t,t-x} = \sum_{i=1}^{45} \left(\frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_{ci}^{t-x}} * S_{ci}^{t-x} \right), \qquad (9)$$

where:

 $COMP_c^{t,t-x}$ denotes the competitiveness of Country e during the period between (t-x) and t. IC_{ci}^{t-x} denotes the IC value of industry e in Country e in year (t-x).

 $\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}$ denotes the change in the IC value of industry *i* in Country *c* during the period between (t-x) and *t*.

 S_{ci}^{t-x} denotes the share of the IC value of industry *i* in the industrial portfolio of Country *c* $(IC_{ci}^{t-x}/IC_{c}^{t-x})$ at the beginning of the observed period (t-x).

Equation (9) can be simplified as follows:

$$COMP_{c}^{t,t-x} = \sum_{i=1}^{45} \left(\frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_{ci}^{t-x}} * \frac{IC_{ci}^{t-x}}{IC_{c}^{t-x}} \right)$$

$$COMP_c^{t,t-x} = \sum_{i=1}^{45} \left(\frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_c^{t-x}} \right)$$

$$COMP_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{45} (\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x})}{IC_c^{t-x}}$$

National competitiveness includes the performance of the full industrial portfolio. Changes in the IC values of all industries in a Country are expressed as $\sum_{i=1}^{45} (\Delta I C_{ci}^{t,t-x})$, which is equal to $\Delta I C_c^{t,t-x}$. Consequently, national competitiveness does not depend on the performance of individual industries and can be expressed as:

$$COMP_c^{t,t-x} = \frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_c^{t-x}}, \qquad (10)$$

• Industrial competitiveness, measured from a Country (Equation 11) and from an industry perspective (Equation 12) at the macro-aggregate level. This approach does not include industries' level of contribution to the national industrial portfolio:

$$COMPI_c^{t,t-x} = \sum_{i=1}^{45} \left(\frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_{ci}^{t-x}} \right), \qquad (11)$$

$$COMPI_i^{t,t-x} = \sum_{c=1}^{77} \left(\frac{\Delta IC_{ci}^{t,t-x}}{IC_{ci}^{t-x}} \right), \qquad (12)$$

where:

 $COMPI_c^{t,t-x}$ denotes the industrial competitiveness of Country c during the period between (t-x) and t.

 $COMPI_i^{t,t-x}$ denotes the industrial competitiveness of the global industry *i* during the period between (t-x) and *t*.

Other variables are the same as in Equation (9).

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

4.1. Correlation between national resilience and competitiveness

National resilience results, obtained by applying Equation (3) are shown in Figure 1 (in the Annex), and national competitiveness results, obtained by Equation (10), are shown in Figure 2 (in the Annex).

Despite the different methods used, empirical evidence suggests that Figures 1 and 2 both highlight the most volatile economic performances of Countries every year throughout the observed period. Besides the empirical evidence, several different methods of analysis confirm the interrelatedness of national resilience and competitiveness.

Table 1 RC correlation factors for each year during the observed period.

Year					
	RC factor	Intercept	Year	RC factor	Intercept
1996	78.53463	1.001385	2009	9.800069	1.000000
1997	37.93098	1.000000	2010	12.49728	-1.000000
1998	32.12798	1.000000	2011	8.620326	-1.000000
1999	32.12399	-1.000000	2012	142.6010	-1.000000
2000	31.91616	-1.000000	2013	119.3116	-1.000000
2001	26.99438	1.000000	2014	61.96660	-1.000000
2002	198.2384	-1.000000	2015	16.71819	1.000000
2003	8.908966	-0.999999	2016	36.51744	1.000000
2004	8.280913	-1.000000	2017	29.70208	-1.000000
2005	12.71500	-0,999851	2018	16.70872	-0.999987
2006	13.49531	-1.000000	2019	107.7009	1.000000
2007	8.861319	-1.000000	2020	29.82958	1.000000
2008	14.60194	-1.000000			

Source: Authors' results.

The variables denoting national resilience $(R_c^{t,t-x})$ and national competitiveness $(COMP_c^{t,t-x})$ initially appear to be independent from one another, especially when looking at their constructs. $R_c^{t,t-x}$ includes global economic performance variables (Equation 3), while $COMP_c^{t,t-x}$ uses the variables at the national level only (Equation 10). However, a linear regression exercise reveals that the national resilience and national competitiveness are directly correlated (Cambridge Dictionary) through a year-specific Resilience-Competitiveness (RC) factor. RC factor values are listed in Table 1, and the distribution of the resilience and competitiveness correlation results from a Country and a time perspective is shown respectively in Figures 9 and 10 respectively.

The results shown in Table 1 suggest the existence of a mathematical equality between $R_c^{t,t-x}$ and $COMP_c^{t,t-x}$ through a time-specific RC factor, which can be expressed as follows:

$$R_c^{t,t-x} = Intercept^{t,t-x} + RCfactor^{t,t-x} * COMP_c^{t,t-x},$$
(13)

The regression results in Table 1 show that *Intercept* in this formula is either 1, or -1. It minimally derives from the unitary value due to rounding errors in the calculations. A positive *Intercept* value corresponds to a negative change in the global IC value during the considered period $((IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}) < 0)$, while a negative value of *Intercept* corresponds to a positive change in the global IC value $(IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}) > 0$). The insertion of the Equations (3) and (10) in the places of $R_c^{t,t-x}$ and $COMP_c^{t,t-x}$ into Equation (13)

allows for a mathematical calculation of the RC factor results, as shown in Table 1, for every period under consideration (in this case, annual periods).

When Intercept = -1:

$$RCfactor^{t,t-x} * COMP_c^{t,t-x} = R_c^{t,t-x} - (Intercept^{t,t-x})$$

$$RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{R_c^{t,t-x} - (-1)}{COMP_c^{t,t-x}}$$

After inserting Equations (3) and (10):

$$RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{\left(\frac{IC_{c}^{t}*IC_{w}^{t-x}-IC_{w}^{t}*IC_{c}^{t-x}}{|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t}*IC_{c}^{t-x}} + 1\right) / \left(\frac{IC_{c}^{t}-IC_{c}^{t-x}}{|IC_{c}^{t-x}}\right)}{|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x}|*IC_{c}^{t-x}} + 1 / \left(\frac{IC_{c}^{t}-IC_{c}^{t-x}}{|IC_{c}^{t-x}}\right)$$

$$RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{\left(\frac{IC_{c}^{t}*IC_{w}^{t-x}-IC_{w}^{t}*IC_{c}^{t-x}+|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x}|*IC_{c}^{t-x}}{|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x}|*IC_{c}^{t-x}}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{IC_{c}^{t-x}}{IC_{c}^{t-x}}\right)$$

$$\left\{RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{IC_{c}^{t}*IC_{w}^{t-x}-IC_{w}^{t}*IC_{c}^{t-x}+|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x}|*IC_{c}^{t-x}}{|IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x}|*(IC_{c}^{t}-IC_{c}^{t-x})}\right\}, \quad (14)$$

$$IC_{w}^{t}-IC_{w}^{t-x} < 0$$

Alternatively, when Intercept = 1:

$$RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{R_c^{t,t-x} - (1)}{COMP_c^{t,t-x}}$$

$$\begin{cases}
RCfactor^{t,t-x} = \frac{IC_c^t * IC_w^{t-x} - IC_w^t * IC_c^{t-x} - |IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}| * IC_c^{t-x}}{|IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x}| * (IC_c^t - IC_c^{t-x})}, & (15) \\
IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x} > 0
\end{cases}$$

The same RC factor values (with insignificant rounding errors in the calculations) are obtained for one-year periods by applying Equations (14) and (15), as those shown in Table 1. The distribution of these values is plotted in Figures 9 and 10 in the Annex.

The presence of a direct correlation between the two methods at the national level, when accounting for time-specifics, enables the national resilience to be measured in an easier way: it can be measured by calculating the competitiveness of a Country's industrial portfolio, independently from the macro-aggregate economic performance intervention.

Empirical insights suggest that the most volatile economies overwhelm the accumulated Country results at the global level, making this approach limited in effect when identifying global economic turbulence.

4.2. Identification of shock and recovery periods

The industrial resilience approach, accumulated at the Country level (Figure 3 in the Annex), produces more significant volatility results than in the national resilience approach (Figure 1 in the Annex). However, the industrial resilience approach reduces the importance of the most volatile economies at the global level by balancing them out. National competitiveness results (Figure 2 in the Annex) are not suitable for aggregation to measure global economic performance, because they include Country-specific industrial contribution factors that distort the results at the macro-aggregate level. The periods of global economic shocks and recoveries from them can thus be identified by iterating the industrial portfolio performances of all the contributing Countries and balancing the industry performance statistics at the international level.

Relative resilience, measured through industrial portfolio elements (industrial performance, as denoted before), enables the global economic performance results to be analysed from both a Country (using Equation (7) – Figure 3 in the Annex) and an industry perspective (using Equation (8) – Figure 4 in the Annex).

The application of the competitiveness calculation method enables the industrial portfolio volatility to be measured from two perspectives as well. Competitiveness results from a Country perspective, obtained using Equation (11), are shown in Figure 5 (in the Annex). The results from a global industry perspective, obtained using Equation (12) are shown in Figure 6 (in the Annex).

Despite their differences, both calculation methods indicate the same periods of economic downturns in the global economy. Periods, with the negative total values in Figures 3 and 5 (in the Annex) indicate economic downturns (or troughs), as denoted by Martin and Gardiner (2019). The last years with positive total values in these figures could be denoted as the onsets of the shocks worldwide (Figure 7 in the Annex).

The industrial performance and industrial competitiveness data allows the accumulation of results into a global industry perspective as well (Figures 4 and 6), producing total yearly values that are identical to those of the Country perspective (Figures 3 and 5). The negative total values in these figures correspond to some large-scale global economic recessionary events that are identified and described in the literature as follows:

- The Asian financial crisis of 1997 (Haggard, 2000).
- The NASDAQ crash following the dot-com bubble burst in March 2000 (Tseng, 2004).
- The Global financial crisis in September 2008 (Kok et al., 2022).
- The Euro area sovereign debt crisis from May 2010 to the second half of 2013 (Kok et al., 2022). Figures 3 and 5 show the most significant negative results for economic performance in Europe in 2012, revealing a regional recessionary shock in Europe. However, most industries worldwide can be identified as having negative results in 2012 in Figures 4 and 6. A number of economies on continents other than Europe (India, Pakistan, Brazil, Indonesia, Hong Kong, South Africa) are identified as having significant negative results in 2012 as well. China, Vietnam, Laos, Ukraine, Peru, and Nigeria were among the gainers of IC value in 2012 and thus compensated for the losses of the others in terms of global economic performance during this period. This case is somewhat misleading as it shows a small number of countries being compensating for the losses of the others, resulting in positive global aggregate economic growth (see year 2012 in Figure 7 in the Annex). Figures 4 and 6 indicate disruptions in the performance of nearly all industries along the production chain in 2012, and the aggregate results suggest that the economic turbulence in 2012 was as significant as during the other shocks in the analysed period.
- The energy market crisis and the Ukraine crisis of 2014 (Van de Graaf & Colgan, 2017) as well as to the European migrant crisis 2015-2016 (Scipioni, 2018). Figures 3 and 5 show that the majority of economies recorded a negative performance in 2015.
 - The COVID-19 pandemic from 2020 onwards (Kok et al., 2022).

In the literature, recovery from a shock is considered in literature as completed when an economy reaches its pre-shock performance level, although in cases of hysteretic recessions, the growth path and growth rate may be different after recovery (Martin, 2012; Martin & Gardiner, 2019). In line with this notion, Figure 8 shows the observed peak-to-peak performance (Martin & Gardiner, 2019) of the global aggregate IC value throughout the observed period, indicating the changes in the growth path and growth rate of the global economy. As the onsets and troughs of the shocks remain as in Figure 7, the recoveries can be considered completed empirically as soon as the IC value returns to the pre-shock level (years 2000 and 2017 in Figure 8) or exceeds it (years 2003, 2011, and 2014).

Steep growth in the global economy occurred from 2003 through 2008, between the two turbulent periods (Figure 8 in the Annex). The positive IC value development statistics of the industries along the production chain, as shown in Figures 4 and 6, indicate that there is no need to include this period in further analyses of economic resilience.

4.3. Applicability of the competitiveness method

The identified shock and recovery periods allow for the conventional evaluation of resistance and recoverability (the evaluation approach used by Martin (2012), Martin and Gardiner (2019) and Hundt and Grün (2022)) – the two main components of national resilience – when the recessionary events and recoveries from them last one or more years in the global economy. This approach can be applied in two ways:

- 1. When the national resilience calculation method is used, resistance and recoverability values for each Country are obtained from Equation (3). This method requires data on IC value fluctuations at the Country level of detail. However, the data panel has to be sufficient to represent the IC value fluctuations at the global level as well, so the volatility in each Country's IC values can be benchmarked against the global IC value fluctuations during either a shock or a recovery period.
- 2. When the competitiveness calculation method is used (Equation 10), it is sufficient to have data on IC values at the Country level. The calculations can be completed even if one has the data panel of just one Country, independently from the global IC value fluctuation dynamics. For inter-country comparisons, several Countries of interest could be included in the analysis independently from their locations. The values of a Country's resilience components can be obtained by using Equations (14) and (15) to produce the national competitiveness results along with the global RC factor value for the respective period (Table 2).

Table 2 RC factors during the identified shocks and recovery periods

	8	Global		Resilience
Period	RC factor	IC change*	Intercept**	component
1997 – 1998	17.646	-1.363	1	Resistance
1999 – 2000	15.764	1.440	-1	Recoverability
2001	26.994	-0.894	1	Resistance
2002 - 2003	8.485	2.739	-1	Recoverability
2009	9.800	-4.093	1	Resistance
2010 - 2011	4.871	7.394	-1	Recoverability
2012	142.601	0.304	-1	Resistance
2013 - 2014	40.561	1.078	-1	Recoverability
2015	16.718	-2.679	1	Resistance
2016 - 2018	15.260	2.760	-1	Recoverability
2020	29.830	-1.490	1	Resistance

Source: Authors' results.

Figures 3, 5 and 8 (in the Annex) indicate a positive economic performance of some Countries in the first year of a shock or recovery period and a negative economic performance in the second year, or vice versa. These differences in consecutive years produce unique RC factor values of two- or three-year resistance and recovery periods (in Table 2), which do not correspond to the sum of yearly RC factor values in the respective periods, as shown in Table 1.

^{*} Global IC change, \$ million, $(IC_w^t - IC_w^{t-x})$

^{**} Intercept has the opposite sign to the global IC change value

The direct correlation between national resilience and competitiveness variables means that both calculation methods are capable of providing similar inter-country comparison results but at different scales of measurement. For example, when the goal is to compare the resilience of several countries, this research shows that it is sufficient to evaluate the countries' competitiveness by applying the Equation (10). This comparison is as effective as using the relative resilience calculation method by applying Equation (3), except the latter demands a significantly larger data panel that contains the global economic performance results to be used as benchmarks.

The difference in scales of measurement between the national resilience and competitiveness is captured in the RC factor value, which is time-specific, but the same for all the observed Countries. Depending on the period-specifics of the global economy, when the RC factors are applied, there is a direct correlation between the resistance and competitiveness of all Countries during the recessionary shocks, as well as between recoverability and competitiveness during the recoveries (Figure 10 in the Annex). Each period is associated with a different RC factor, which is calculated by applying Equations (14) or (15).

4.4. Discussion

Scientists face the challenge of studying the same global economic problems in different environments, beginning with the 'economic geography' of Krugman (1992) through to the regional resilience theory and models of Martin and Sunley (2014), Martin et al. (2016), Di Pietro et al. (2020) and Oprea et al. (2020). Scientific research has highlighted the uniqueness of economies as well as the varying development patterns in every region. When looking at the regional level, resilience is a highly complex multidimensional property of regional economic systems (Martini, 2020) that consists of many variables and is a dynamic and multifaceted process with constantly changing characteristics (Martin, 2012; Martin & Sunley, 2014). Di Pietro et al. (2020) and Ženka et al. (2021) defined resilience as the ability of economies to respond to undesired external disturbances. In the presence of externalities that significantly affect the development of regional economies, there is a tendency to focus on industrial specialisation rather than diversification (Martin et al., 2016; Picek & Schröder, 2018; Hundt & Grün, 2022), which offers limited possibilities to obtain robust results. Furthermore, the diverse industries of an economy can be linked to various networks of external relations, resulting in different degrees of resilience (Martin, 2012), which makes the resilience problem more difficult to solve.

This research invites one to look at the issue of resilience from a global perspective in which all the external economic relations become internal and all different industrial networks become internal, in line with the Lewis et al.'s (2021) idea of quantifying of the global economic performance. The data in the ICIOTs are sufficient to capture the economic environment and specifics of the majority of the world's economies and identify the global economic development trends. The chosen holistic approach considers the global economy to be a united system of interconnected elements, consisting of interactions between all economies (Dicken, 2003), assuming that most externalities are internalised into the variables within the data panel. According to Martin (2012), external disturbances of a regional economy come from the economic performances of other regions of common business relations. However, when all other regions are evaluated along within the global context, the empirical evidence of this research implies that all economic sectors (industries) within all economies are self-interested competitors for a better position in trade. This implication complies with the Adam Smith's invisible hand theory (Manis, 2005; Butler, 2011).

Conroy (1975) and Martin (2012) argued that a regional industrial mix (or portfolio) acts as one input to resilience. This research proves that there is a relationship between relative resilience, as defined by Martin and Gardiner (2019) and competitiveness, expressed through a Country's proportional losses or gains in IC

value, independently of the contents of it. Production portfolio contents may influence a Country's ability to compete in the international market, but this should be analysed in the future studies.

The findings of this study also show that all industries within the Countries contribute to the international market performance as their competitiveness helps in bypassing or redeveloping disrupted production chains faster and more effectively.

The relative resilience concept of Martin and Gardiner (2019) is designed to compare regions by their ability to resist to recessionary shocks or to recover from them. This research shows that a comparison of Countries' competitiveness reflects a comparison of their resilience (resistance and recoverability). Accordingly, the resilience of Countries can be compared through their competitiveness, without including the RC factor in the calculations. However, the RC factor may be an important target of future studies. When the periods of shocks are analysed, Figures 11 and 12 (in the Annex) highlight similar correlation rates (or RC factors) between national resilience and competitiveness during different shocks, except for the shock in 2012. Similar correlation rates imply similar behaviour of the contributors to the performance of the global economy. For the periods of recoveries, Figures 13 and 14 (in the Annex) show different correlation rates between national resilience and competitiveness, suggesting differing behaviour of the contributors to the global economy during most of the recovery periods, except for the recoveries of 1999 to 2000 and 2015 to 2018. The designation and applicability of these correlation rates (RC factors) could be investigated in further in-depth analyses, potentially leading to the quantification of recessionary period specifics.

This research employs linear regression analysis in parallel with the mathematical equation calculations to cross-check and confirm the reliability of the direct correlation results between national resilience and competitiveness through a period-specific RC factor.

5. CONCLUSION

This study's holistic approach internalises most externalities. In this respect, the resilience of a country becomes its ability to compete in the international market when the world faces increased resource scarcity. Consequently, the main determinants of resilience, are linked to the basics of human behaviour.

The proposed statistical methods of evaluating the resilience and competitiveness of a country are mathematically proved to be directly correlated through a global rate (the RC factor) that is applicable to all countries. Both calculation methods are capable of providing similar inter-country comparison results, yet the competitiveness evaluation (calculating a country's proportional losses or gains in IC value during a defined period) is more practical and convenient.

The production portfolio specifics of a country are not found to be a deciding factor, as long as the country is able to compensate for losses in IC values in some industries through gains in other ones. Future studies could consider the implication that production portfolio contents could influence a nation's ability to compete in the international market.

The RC factor is a period-specific global rate that links the results of the two national performance evaluation methods (resilience and competitiveness). This research highlights the more effective applicability of evaluating national economic performance, which produces the same inter-country comparison results as the resilience method. The RC factor could be the subject of further in-depth research as it could potentially lead to the quantification of specifics of periods of recessionary shocks and recoveries.

The results of industrial performance (relative resilience at the industry level) or industrial competitiveness (excluding national industrial portfolio contributions), accumulated to the global perspective, produce an aggregated view of global economic performance through two perspectives – country and industry. The country perspective allows for the identification of disruptions to economies in

different regions of the world, while the industry perspective provides insights into disruptions in global production chains on an annual basis. Both calculation methods identify the periods of global recessionary disruption in a quantified manner, and these periods correspond to global economic recessionary events highlighted in scientific literature. The results imply the applicability of both methods for the effective quantified identification of the global recessionary events, but the industrial competitiveness calculation is more practical.

The direct correlation between national resilience and competitiveness opens a range of new possibilities for future resilience studies in terms of national competitiveness. Furthermore, decision-making bodies anywhere in the world can effectively and to conveniently adapt these economic performance measuring methods, proposed in this study, to estimate national or even global economic performance.

The most recent statistical data available for this research is from the year 2020. The findings could be renewed and updated once the OECD publishes the updated version of the ICIOTs for 2021 and later periods.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

No funds were received for covering the costs of publishing this paper in an open access journal.

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ANNEX

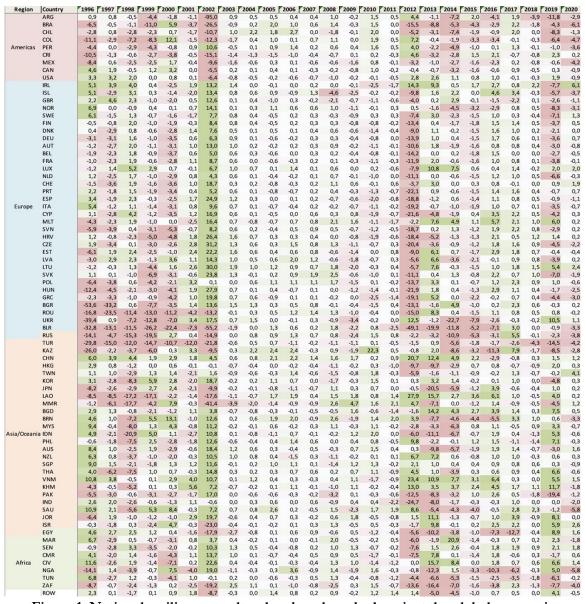


Figure 1. National resilience results when benchmarked against the global economic performance

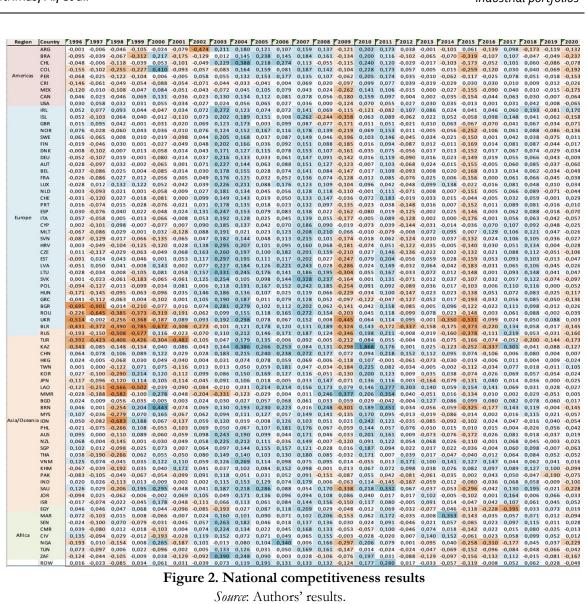


Figure 2. National competitiveness results



Figure 3. Industrial resilience from Country's industrial portfolio perspective *Source*: Authors' results.

Industries total	97T98 Activities of households as employers*	94T96 Other service activities	90T93 Arts, entertainment and recreation	86T88 Human health and social work activities	85 Education	84 Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	77T82 Administrative and support services	69T75 Professional, scientific and technical activities	68 Real estate activities	64T66 Financial and insurance activities	62T63 IT and other information services	61 Telecommunications	58T60 Publishing, audiovisual and broadcasting activities	55T56 Accommodation and food service activities	53 Postal and courier activities	52 Warehousing and support activities for transportation	51 Air transport	50 Water transport	49 Land transport and transport via pipelines	45T47 Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles	41T43 Construction	36T39 Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation	35 Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	31T33 Manufacturing nec; repair and installation of machinery/equipment	30 Other transport equipment	29 Motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	28 Machinery and equipment, nec	27 Electrical equipment	26 Computer, electronic and optical equipment	25 Fabricated metal products	24 Basic metals	23 Other non-metallic mineral products	22 Rubber and plastics products	21 Pharmaceuticals, medicinal chemical and botanical products	20 Chemical and chemical products	19 Coke and refined petroleum products	17T18 Paper products and printing	16 Wood and products of wood and cork	13T15 Textiles, textile products, leather and footwear	10T12 Food products, beverages and tobacco	09 Mining support service activities	07T08 Mining and quarrying, non-energy producing products	05T06 Mining and quarrying, energy producing products	03 Fishing and aquaculture	01102 Agriculture, hunting, forestry
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9349	0	160	751	775	724	107	58	110	120	1698	151	1146	162	758	1170	42	4	-12	16	12	617	35	27	24	105	22	36	87	48	17	29	6	2	209	0	و.	30	2	4	104	-19	-37	-23	54	29
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Figure 4. Industrial resistance or recoverability from the global industry perspective *Source*: Authors' results.

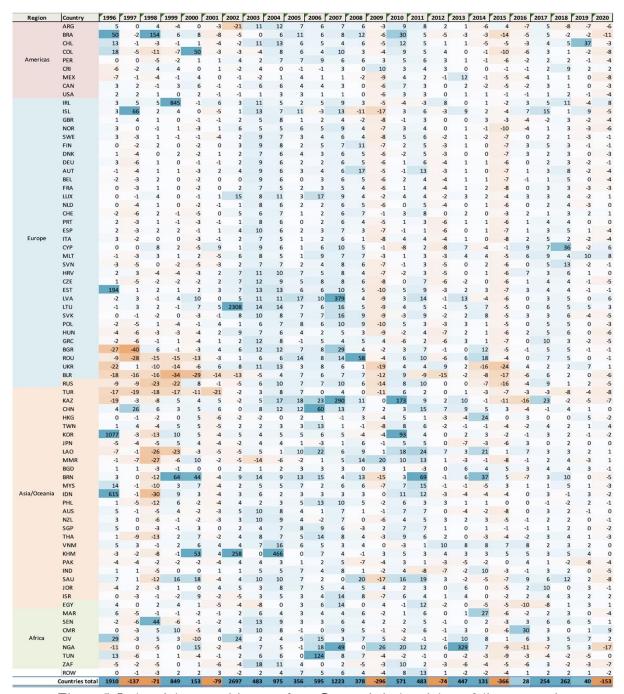


Figure 5. Industrial competitiveness from Country's industrial portfolio perspective *Source*: Authors' results.

Industries total	97T98 Activities of households as employers*	94T96 Other service activities	90T93 Arts, entertainment and recreation	86T88 Human health and social work activities	85 Education	84 Public administration and defence; compulsory social security	77T82 Administrative and support services	69T75 Professional, scientific and technical activities	68 Real estate activities	64T66 Financial and insurance activities	62T63 IT and other information services	61 Telecommunications	58T60 Publishing, audiovisual and broadcasting activities	55T56 Accommodation and food service activities	53 Postal and courier activities	52 Warehousing and support activities for transportation	51 Air transport	50 Water transport	49 Land transport and transport via pipelines	45T47 Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles	41T43 Construction	36T39 Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation	35 Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	31T33 Manufacturing nec; repair and installation of machinery/equipment	30 Other transport equipment	29 Motor vehicles, trailers and semi-trailers	28 Machinery and equipment, nec	27 Electrical equipment	26 Computer, electronic and optical equipment	25 Fabricated metal products	24 Basic metals	23 Other non-metallic mineral products	22 Rubber and plastics products	21 Pharmacouticals medicinal chemical and hotanical products	20 Chemical and chemical products	19 Coke and refined petroleum products	17T18 Paper products and printing	16 Wood and products of wood and cork	13T15 Textiles, textile products, leather and footwear	10T12 Food products, beverages and tobacco	09 Mining support service activities	07T08 Mining and quarrying, non-energy producing products	05T06 Mining and quarrying, energy producing products	03 Fishing and aquaculture	01T02 Agriculture, hunting, forestry
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975	0	9	12	12	10	19	11	11	13	11	11	9	10	9	10	11	13	10	11	11	16	14	10	11	19	14	16	180	296	14	20	12	11	10	13	17	9	12	5	11	12	11	10	8	10
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Figure 6. Industrial competitiveness from the global industry perspective *Source*: Authors' results.

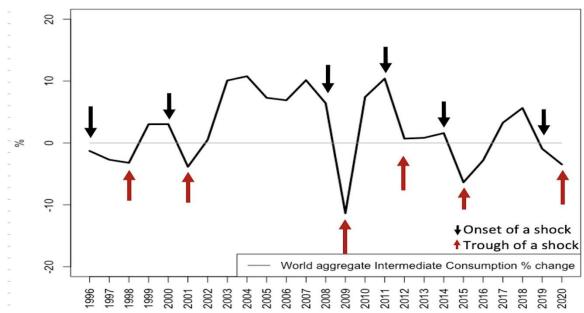


Figure 7. Identification of onsets and troughs of the shocks in the world economic performance *Source*: Authors' results.

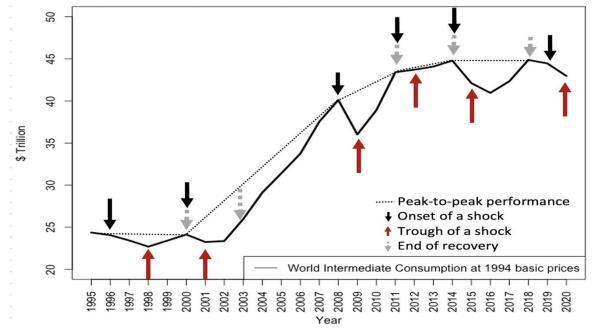


Figure 8. Progress of the world aggregate IC growth and indication of peak-to-peak performances

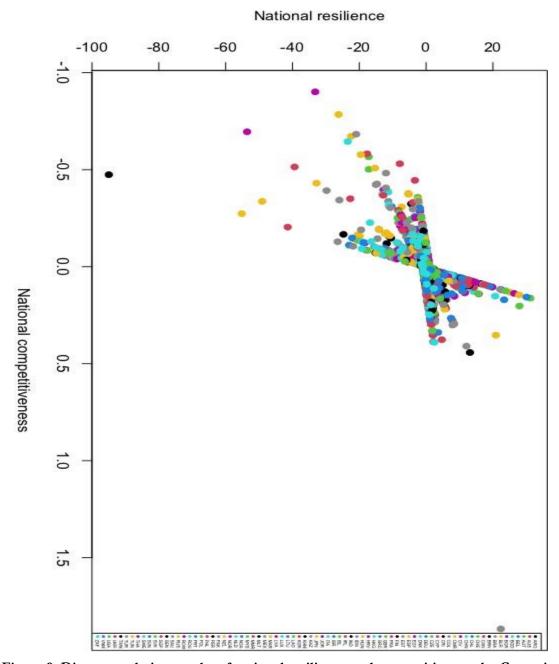


Figure 9: Direct correlation results of national resilience and competitiveness by Countries *Source*: Authors' results.

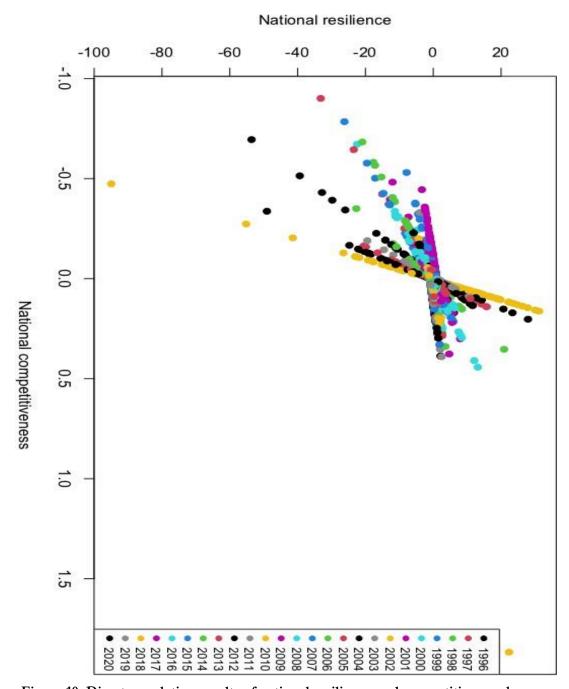


Figure 10. Direct correlation results of national resilience and competitiveness by year *Source*: Authors' results.

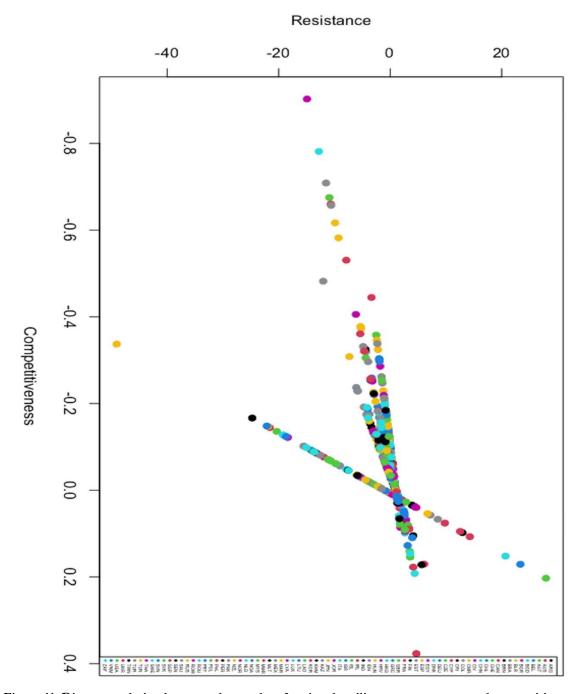


Figure 11: Direct correlation between the results of national resilience components and competitiveness during shocks, by Countries

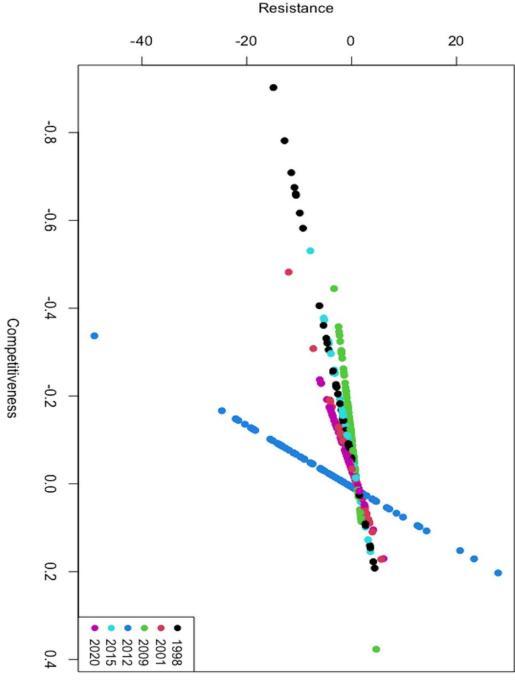


Figure 12: Direct correlation between the results of national resilience components and competitiveness during shocks, by identified periods

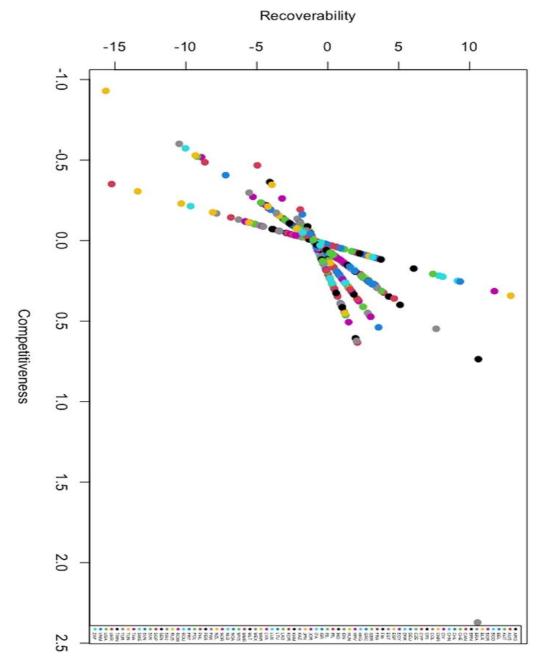


Figure 13: Direct correlation between the results of national resilience components and competitiveness during recoveries, by Countries

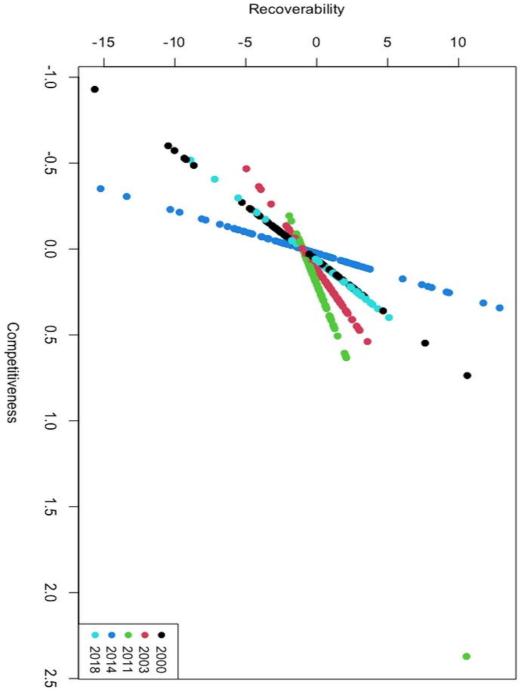


Figure 14. Direct correlation between the results of national resilience components and competitiveness during recoveries, by identified periods