

The Evolution of International Trade Models: A Review of Theoretical Perspectives

Neha Jain¹, Dr. Sunrita Chaudhuri²

¹Research Scholar, nehaj.257@gmail.com

²Assistant Professor, School of Management, G.D.Goenka, sunrita.chaudhuri@gdgu.org

Abstract

The evolution of international trade theory represents one of the most enduring intellectual trajectories in economics, reflecting successive attempts to explain the organisation, distribution, and dynamics of global exchange. From Smith's (1776) foundational articulation of Absolute Advantage to the complex digital trade frameworks emerging in the 2020s, theoretical progress has mirrored structural shifts in production systems, technological capabilities, institutional architectures, and firm-level behaviour. This study undertakes a systematic synthesis of major trade theories from 1776 to 2024, integrating classical, neoclassical, New Trade Theory, New–New Trade Theory, Global Value Chain (GVC) perspectives, and emerging digital trade models. Using a structured review methodology grounded in transparent inclusion and exclusion criteria, the paper compares the assumptions, mechanisms, and empirical relevance of each theoretical strand. The analysis highlights a progressive movement from country-level explanations to firm-level heterogeneity, network-based fragmentation, and data-driven value creation. The review further contextualises the evolution of trade theory within contemporary policy environments, including India's expanding engagement with multilateral and regional trade frameworks, digitalisation strategies, and participation in global production networks. The synthesis reveals significant conceptual advances but also identifies gaps relating to sustainability governance, digital trade regulation, and value chain restructuring. By consolidating dispersed theoretical developments, the study contributes an integrated perspective that advances scholarly understanding and informs future research on the determinants and direction of global trade.

Keywords

International Trade Theory, Comparative Advantage, Heckscher–Ohlin Model, New Trade Theory, New–New Trade Theory, Global Value Chains, Digital Trade

1. Introduction

International trade theory constitutes a central pillar of economic analysis, providing the conceptual tools through which scholars and policymakers interpret the organisation, structure, and dynamics of cross-border exchange. Over nearly two and a half centuries, trade theory has undergone repeated transformations, each shaped by contemporaneous economic realities, technological advances, and institutional changes. The earliest formulations by Smith (1776) and Ricardo (1817) established the normative and positive underpinnings of specialisation and mutual gains, embedding trade within a framework of labour productivity, opportunity cost, and relative efficiency. These classical insights, though grounded in simplifying assumptions, served as the intellectual foundation for subsequent theoretical elaboration.

The neoclassical revolution extended this foundation by incorporating capital, labour, and other productive factors into a general equilibrium framework capable of explaining trade

patterns through differences in factor endowments. The Heckscher–Ohlin model, alongside the Stolper–Samuelson and Factor Price Equalisation theorems, represented a significant advance in predictive rigour (Heckscher & Ohlin, 1933 & Samuelson, 1948). Yet empirical anomalies, most notably the Leontief Paradox (Leontief, 1953), demonstrated that real-world trade flows deviated from the expectations of classical and neoclassical models, signalling the need for deeper theoretical refinement.

The emergence of New Trade Theory (NTT) in the late twentieth century marked a decisive shift in the analytical landscape. Krugman’s (1979, 1980) incorporation of increasing returns to scale, monopolistic competition, and product differentiation addressed the empirical reality of substantial intra-industry trade among structurally similar economies. NTT highlighted that trade could arise independently of factor endowment differences, driven instead by market structure, scale advantages, and consumers’ preference for variety. This intellectual reorientation broadened the explanatory power of trade theory, aligning it more closely with observed patterns in advanced industrial economies.

Building on this, the New–New Trade Theory (NNTT) of Melitz (2003) introduced firm-level heterogeneity as a central determinant of export participation. By demonstrating that only highly productive firms can absorb fixed export costs and compete internationally, NNTT provided a micro-founded explanation for the persistence of extensive and intensive trade margins. The framework also illuminated the reallocation effects triggered by trade liberalisation, whereby productive firms expand and inefficient ones exit (Helpman, Melitz, & Yeaple, 2004). This shift from country-level to firm-level analysis significantly enhanced the empirical relevance of trade theory, especially for emerging economies characterised by uneven firm productivity.

The rapid expansion of global production networks from the 1990s onwards introduced yet another layer of complexity. Global Value Chain (GVC) theory reframes trade not as an exchange of final goods, but as a fragmented process involving tasks, intermediate inputs, and the distribution of value creation (Gereffi, Humphrey, & Sturgeon, 2005). The governance typologies, upgrading trajectories, and asymmetric value capture across production stages underscored the structural transformation of world trade. These insights proved particularly salient for developing economies seeking to integrate into high-value segments such as design, branding, and advanced manufacturing.

In the twenty-first century, digitalisation has generated new theoretical challenges. Data flows, digital platforms, artificial intelligence, and intangible assets have emerged as central drivers of competitiveness, leading to frameworks that analyse trade in data, algorithms, and cross-border digital services (UNCTAD, 2024 & WTO, 2023). Digital trade theory highlights the diminishing significance of physical distance, the rise of platform-mediated ecosystems, and the emergence of regulatory concerns related to data governance, cybersecurity, and digital market access.

Despite these substantial developments, the literature remains fragmented across multiple paradigms. Classical, neoclassical, NTT, NNTT, GVC-based, and digital frameworks each capture distinct but interconnected aspects of global exchange. The absence of an integrated synthesis complicates theoretical interpretation and limits policymakers, particularly those in rapidly transforming economies such as India, from aligning policy frameworks with evolving trade architectures. India’s expanding participation in digital trade, its integration into global production networks, and its engagement with contemporary agreements such as the India–EFTA TEPA (MEA, 2024) underscore the need for a comprehensive reassessment of trade theory in light of structural change.

Against this backdrop, this study undertakes a systematic synthesis of international trade theories from 1776 to 2024. By comparing assumptions, variables, mechanisms, and empirical relevance across theoretical models, the paper aims to provide an integrated and historically grounded understanding of the evolution of trade thought. Moreover, the review seeks to contextualise these theoretical developments within contemporary global dynamics, including digitalisation, sustainability governance, supply-chain restructuring, and institutional transformations and to identify conceptual and empirical gaps that can guide future research. In doing so, the study contributes to ongoing efforts to develop a more comprehensive and analytically coherent framework for understanding the determinants, direction, and consequences of trade in an increasingly complex global economy. The purpose of this study is to trace the historical development of international trade theories, from their classical roots to the complex, technology-driven frameworks of the digital era. It examines how the major schools of thought differ in their underlying assumptions, key mechanisms, and analytical variables, allowing a clearer understanding of how each framework contributes to trade analysis. As global economic structures have shifted with rapid technological advancement, fragmentation of production across value chains, and the growing influence of digitalisation, the evolution of trade theory has also been shaped by these transformations. Situating these theoretical developments within today's policy environment, particularly in the context of emerging economies, helps demonstrate their contemporary relevance and practical implications. Through this synthesis, the study also aims to highlight conceptual blind spots and empirical gaps that remain unaddressed, offering direction for future research in international trade scholarship.

2. Methodology

The study adopts a structured, systematic review methodology to synthesise the evolution of international trade theories from their classical origins to contemporary digital frameworks. Systematic reviews have gained prominence in the social sciences because they enable researchers to identify, evaluate, and integrate diverse bodies of knowledge in a transparent and replicable manner (Tranfield, Denyer & Smart, 2003). Although initially developed for evidence-based practices in the natural sciences, this approach has been widely adapted to economics and management disciplines, where theoretical fragmentation and heterogeneous empirical contexts necessitate rigorous synthesis. In line with these principles, the present review employs a multi-stage protocol that encompasses a search strategy, source selection, screening criteria, and analytical synthesis.

2.1 Search Strategy and Data Sources

Given the temporal breadth of trade theory spanning nearly 250 years, the search strategy incorporated both historical and contemporary sources. A comprehensive search was conducted across major academic databases, including Scopus, Web of Science, JSTOR, ScienceDirect, Taylor & Francis Online, SpringerLink, and Google Scholar. These databases were selected for their extensive coverage of economics, international business, and the global political economy literature. To ensure completeness, additional searches were performed across repositories of working papers (NBER, CEPR, ICRIR) and institutional publications issued by UNCTAD, OECD, WTO, and the Ministry of External Affairs (MEA). A combination of keywords and Boolean operators was used to refine the search process. Representative search terms included: "international trade theory", "classical trade models", "comparative advantage", "Heckscher–Ohlin model", "New Trade Theory", "New–New

Trade Theory”, “GVC theory”, “digital trade”, “data flows”, “platform economics”, “firm heterogeneity”, and “value chain governance”. Keywords were paired with terms such as “evolution,” “comparative analysis,” “theoretical development,” and “systematic review” to ensure sensitivity to both foundational and contemporary contributions. The search strategy also utilised backwards snowballing to capture influential earlier works and forward citation tracking to identify recent advancements.

2.2 Inclusion and Exclusion Criteria

The review encompassed a broad spectrum of scholarly materials to ensure comprehensive theoretical coverage. It included peer-reviewed journal articles, academic books, and authoritative policy publications produced between 1776 and 2024, along with studies that explained, refined, or critically examined established trade theories. Literature that connected trade theory with Global Value Chains, digitalisation, sustainability, institutional transformation, or firm-level heterogeneity was also incorporated. Additionally, contemporary Indian policy documents, including trade agreements, strategic reports, and sector-specific reviews, were examined to capture current developments in the country’s trade architecture. Conversely, sources were excluded when they lacked theoretical grounding, offered only commentary or opinion without analytical depth, or focused narrowly on operational business functions, such as logistics or marketing, without engaging with broader conceptual issues. These parameters ensured that the final body of literature directly supported the study’s goal of analysing the evolution, comparison, and practical relevance of international trade models.

2.3 Screening and Selection Process

The selection process proceeded in three stages. First, all records identified through the initial database search were imported into a reference management system, and duplicates were removed. Second, titles and abstracts were screened to eliminate sources that were not conceptually relevant to trade theory. Third, full-text reviews were conducted to assess theoretical depth, methodological rigour, and contribution to understanding trade model evolution.

The final dataset included foundational texts (Smith, 1776 & Ricardo, 1817), neoclassical manuscripts (Heckscher & Ohlin, 1933), seminal journal articles underpinning NTT (Krugman, 1979, 1980) and NNTT (Melitz, 2003), significant contributions to GVC scholarship (Gereffi, Humphrey & Sturgeon, 2005), and contemporary analyses related to digital trade (UNCTAD, 2024 & WTO, 2023). This curated corpus reflects a balanced representation of theoretical, empirical, and policy-oriented literature spanning multiple eras of globalisation.

2.4 Analytical Framework and Synthesis Approach

The analytical framework for this study was structured to enable a balanced comparison of major trade theories by examining their core assumptions, the variables they rely on, the mechanisms they use to explain trade patterns, their conceptual strengths and weaknesses, and their relevance across historical and contemporary settings. To achieve this, the review employs a hybrid synthesis approach that blends narrative interpretation with systematic conceptual classification. The narrative component allows each theory to be situated within its historical and intellectual context, emphasising the motivations that informed its development and the way it fits within broader economic thinking. Alongside this, the

conceptual categorisation provides a clearer basis for comparing models that operate at different levels of analysis, whether at the country level in classical and neoclassical theories, the industry level in New Trade Theory, the firm level in New–New Trade Theory, or the network and task level in Global Value Chain approaches. The framework is further extended by incorporating insights from emerging digital trade scholarship, which introduces new determinants, including data flows, platform-driven coordination, artificial intelligence, and evolving regulatory systems.

2.5 Ensuring Rigour, Transparency, and Validity

To enhance methodological rigour, the study followed structured review protocols emphasising transparency, replicability, and analytical consistency. Search terms, screening procedures, and analytical categories were documented systematically. Triangulation was achieved by integrating diverse sources, including historical texts, theoretical journal articles, econometric studies, and institutional policy reports, to mitigate bias from any single source. The synthesis also prioritised theoretical neutrality, giving equal weight to classical foundations and contemporary innovations without assuming the superiority of any particular school.

2.6 Scope and Boundaries

The study deliberately adopts a conceptual rather than empirical orientation. While empirical results are referenced to illustrate theoretical relevance, the primary focus remains the intellectual evolution of trade theory and its conceptual underpinnings. The review does not undertake econometric testing, gravity modelling, or simulation-based analysis, as these tasks fall outside its theoretical mandate. Nonetheless, the study identifies empirical gaps and methodological opportunities for future researchers.

3. Theoretical Evolution of Trade Models

The evolution of international trade theory reflects a progressive deepening of analytical sophistication, driven by structural changes in the global economy and advances in economic modelling. From the early classical formulations to contemporary digital trade frameworks, trade theory has expanded from country-level explanations to firm-level, network-level, and data-driven analyses. This section provides a structured synthesis of the core contributions that shaped this intellectual trajectory.

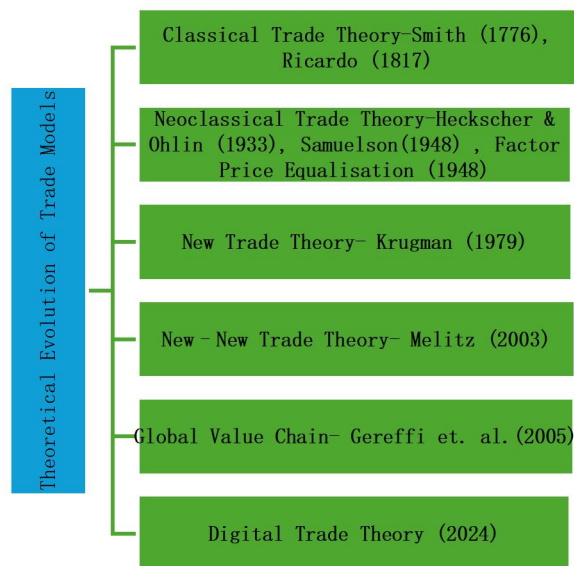


Figure 1

3.1 Classical Trade Theory

Classical trade theory constitutes the earliest systematic attempt to explain cross-border exchange. Smith's (1776) theory of Absolute Advantage positioned labour productivity and the division of labour as the basis for international specialisation. Ricardo (1817) advanced the analysis by introducing the principle of Comparative Advantage, demonstrating that even less productive countries could gain from trade if they specialised in goods where their relative efficiency was highest. These models relied on simplifying assumptions, one factor of production, perfect competition, and constant returns to scale, yet they provided durable insights into the mutual gains from specialisation that continue to shape trade discourse.

3.2 Neoclassical Trade Theory

Neoclassical theory sought to overcome the limitations of classical models by incorporating multiple factors of production and general equilibrium reasoning. The Heckscher–Ohlin (H–O) model posited that countries export goods that intensively use their abundant factors and import goods that require scarce ones (Heckscher & Ohlin, 1933). Complementary propositions, such as the Stolper–Samuelson theorem and the Factor Price Equalisation (Samuelson, 1948), provided essential predictions about income distribution and price convergence under free trade. However, empirical anomalies such as the Leontief Paradox (Leontief, 1953) complicated factor-based predictions, laying the foundation for subsequent theoretical developments that incorporated technology, productivity, and human capital differences (Trefler, 1995).

3.3 New Trade Theory (NTT)

New Trade Theory (NTT) emerged in the late twentieth century in response to empirical evidence showing high levels of intra-industry trade among structurally similar nations that the H–O framework could not explain. Pioneered by Krugman (1979, 1980), NTT emphasised increasing returns to scale, monopolistic competition, and product differentiation as mechanisms through which trade arises independently of differences in factor endowments. Consumers' preference for variety and the advantages of a large market size became central to explaining trade between advanced economies. NTT provided the theoretical foundation

for modern analyses of industrial clustering, geographic concentration, and innovation-driven competition.

3.4 New–New Trade Theory (NNTT)

The emergence of New–New Trade Theory (NNTT), driven by Melitz’s (2003) seminal model, represented a major conceptual leap by shifting the analytical focus to firm-level heterogeneity. Melitz demonstrated that firms differ markedly in productivity, innovation capacity, and cost structure, and that only the most productive firms can absorb fixed costs of exporting. Trade liberalisation induces reallocation effects, leading productive firms to expand while inefficient firms contract or exit (Helpman, Melitz, & Yeaple, 2004). NNTT aligns closely with empirical patterns across both developed and emerging economies, where a small subset of high-performing firms accounts for the majority of exports.

3.5 Global Value Chain (GVC) Models

The fragmentation of production across borders in the late twentieth century gave rise to the Global Value Chain (GVC) theory, which reframes trade in terms of tasks, intermediate inputs, and distributed value creation rather than focusing on final goods. Gereffi, Humphrey, and Sturgeon (2005) introduced governance typologies: market, modular, relational, captive, and hierarchical, illustrating how power asymmetries shape coordination within global networks. GVC theory also emphasises upgrading trajectories (process, product, functional, and chain upgrading), highlighting the uneven distribution of value along the chain, where advanced economies capture high-value activities such as branding, R&D, and design. For developing economies, integration into GVCs is increasingly central to industrial upgrading and export competitiveness.

3.6 Digital Trade Theory

The rapid expansion of digital technologies has introduced new dimensions to international trade. Digital trade theory examines the cross-border flows of data, digital services, algorithms, platform-mediated transactions, and AI-enabled production systems (UNCTAD, 2024; WTO, 2023). Digitalisation reduces trade costs, enhances scalability, and enables firms to participate in global markets without traditional physical constraints. Data governance, cybersecurity, artificial intelligence, and digital interconnection increasingly shape comparative advantage. Digital platforms further reconfigure global commerce by coordinating interactions, creating network effects, and generating new forms of value capture. These dynamics signal a structural transformation of trade theory towards intangible, data-driven, and technology-intensive frameworks.

4. Determinants and Methodological Trends

Understanding the evolution of international trade models requires a systematic examination of the underlying determinants that shape trade flows across different theoretical paradigms. As the structure of production, the nature of firms, and the organisation of global markets have transformed over time, the explanatory variables in trade theory have expanded from factor endowments to include technology, market structures, firm heterogeneity, value-chain integration, digitalisation, and sustainability governance. This section synthesises these determinants and outlines the methodological approaches through which they have been theorised and empirically examined.

4.1 Technological Capability as a Determinant of Trade

Technological capability is among the most salient determinants of trade in modern theoretical frameworks. Early neo-technology models and Linder's demand-based hypotheses emphasised innovation, product sophistication, and the similarity of consumer preferences as drivers of trade patterns among industrialised nations. These insights were further developed by the New Trade Theory (NTT), in which Krugman (1980) demonstrated that technology-induced economies of scale and product differentiation enable trade between countries with comparable factor endowments.

The centrality of technology is further strengthened in New–New Trade Theory (NNTT). Melitz (2003) shows that firms differ substantially in productivity and innovation capacity, and only those with superior technological capabilities can bear fixed export costs and succeed in foreign markets. Empirically, technological asymmetries explain why export participation is concentrated among a small number of highly productive firms (Bernard et al., 2007). Thus, across theoretical strands, technological capability functions as both a micro-level determinant of firm behaviour and a macro-level determinant of national competitiveness.

4.2 Market Structure, Increasing Returns, and Imperfect Competition

The shift from perfect competition to imperfect competition fundamentally altered the analytical architecture of trade models. Helpman and Krugman (1985) demonstrate that increasing returns to scale generate incentives for intra-industry trade among similar economies, thereby challenging the predictions of Heckscher–Ohlin models. Monopolistic competition, product differentiation, and the presence of large firms capable of exploiting scale economies influence not only trade volume but also its composition.

Market size plays a similarly critical role. Larger domestic markets foster industrial clustering, enabling firms to operate at lower average costs and to supply a wider variety of differentiated goods internationally. These insights underpin contemporary explanations of global manufacturing hubs, agglomeration forces, and spatial concentration of industries.

4.3 Firm-Level Heterogeneity and Export Selection

Firm heterogeneity remains one of the most transformative determinants introduced in modern trade theory. NNTT formalises how productivity dispersion within industries shapes export behaviour, survival, and reallocation dynamics (Melitz, 2003). Productive firms self-select into export markets, while less efficient firms either remain domestically constrained or exit entirely.

This mechanism has been validated across multiple empirical settings, including emerging economies such as China and India (Khandelwal, Schott, & Wei, 2013), where policy reforms and trade liberalisation induce structural shifts in the distribution of firms. The methodological approaches used in these studies, micro-data econometrics, firm-level regressions, and productivity decomposition, reflect a significant shift away from aggregate, country-level explanations.

4.4 Global Value Chain Participation and Governance

The emergence of Global Value Chains (GVCs) introduced fragmented production as a central determinant of trade performance. GVC theory conceptualises trade as an exchange of tasks and intermediate goods rather than final products (Gereffi, Humphrey, & Sturgeon, 2005). Countries specialising in high-value tasks such as R&D, design, and branding achieve

superior competitiveness, whereas participation in low-value assembly segments yields limited gains (Johnson & Noguera, 2012).

The determinants of GVC participation include logistics efficiency, institutional quality, absorptive capacity, and firm-level upgrading strategies. Methodologically, the study of GVCs relies heavily on input–output tables, trade in value-added (TiVA) databases, and network-analytic tools that map interdependencies across global production systems.

4.5 Institutional and Policy Determinants

Trade agreements, regulatory frameworks, tariff structures, and non-tariff measures significantly shape a country's trade patterns. Bilateral and multilateral agreements, such as the India–EFTA TEPA (2024) or the India–UAE CEPA (2022), directly influence market access, investment flows, and harmonisation of standards (MEA, 2024).

Institutional quality, transparency, and legal stability significantly influence a firm's readiness to engage in export markets. Recent literature also highlights the role of trade facilitation, logistics, customs modernisation, and financial access as key determinants of export capability, particularly in developing economies.

4.6 Digital Connectivity and Data-Driven Determinants

Digital trade frameworks identify digital infrastructure, data flows, artificial intelligence, platform economies, and digital regulations as new determinants of global competitiveness (UNCTAD, 2024 & WTO, 2023). Data now functions as a tradeable asset, and digital platforms act as intermediaries that reduce transaction costs and enable cross-border services. The methodological tools used to analyse digital trade include digital adoption indices, platform transaction datasets, cross-border data flow metrics, and AI-driven productivity modelling. These techniques reflect a significant expansion of empirical toolkits beyond traditional trade statistics.

4.7 Environmental and Sustainability Determinants

Sustainability has emerged as a critical determinant of trade performance. Green standards, carbon regulations, and clean technologies increasingly influence comparative advantage, especially in high-income economies (OECD, 2023). Firms and countries failing to comply with rising environmental expectations risk exclusion from global markets.

Empirical methods in this domain include carbon embedded trade models, life-cycle assessments, and environmental input–output modelling. The integration of sustainability considerations marks a substantive reorientation of trade theory toward climate-linked competitiveness.

4.8 Methodological Trends Across Theoretical Paradigms

The progression of methodological approaches within international trade theory reflects a broader transformation in the global economic environment. Early Classical and Neoclassical frameworks were built on deductive, algebraic reasoning rooted in general-equilibrium logic, emphasising productivity differences, factor proportions, and the allocation of resources across countries. As scholarship advanced, New Trade Theory and New–New Trade Theory introduced analytical tools borrowed from industrial organisation, shifting empirical work toward firm-level econometrics, structural modelling, and the use of detailed micro-datasets to examine heterogeneity and selection effects among exporters. Subsequent developments in Global Value Chain research and digital trade analysis adopted methods suited to increasingly

fragmented and interconnected production systems, including network approaches, input–output techniques, value-added accounting, and digital-flow metrics. These models recognise the growing importance of intangible assets, platform-mediated interactions, and algorithmic processes in shaping trade outcomes. Together, these methodological shifts mirror the transition from a world dominated by nationally organised industries to one characterised by cross-border production networks and digitally enabled economic ecosystems. Parallel to this intellectual evolution, empirical applications have expanded across a wide range of countries, regions, and sectors. Studies have examined how differences in industrial maturity, institutional structures, technological capability, and participation in global production systems influence the explanatory power of various trade models. This diversity of contexts has played a central role in testing, challenging, and refining theoretical perspectives within the field.

5. Contexts, Countries, and Sectors Studied in Prior Research

The empirical literature examining international trade theory spans a diverse array of geographical contexts, income groups, and sectoral structures. As theoretical paradigms have evolved, so too have the empirical applications used to validate, challenge, or refine these frameworks. This section synthesises the dominant country-level, regional, and sectoral contexts in which significant trade strands theory has been applied, highlighting how differences across economic structures, institutional environments, and production capabilities shape the relevance and predictive power of competing trade models.

5.1 Country and Regional Contexts

The empirical application of international trade theory varies widely across countries at different stages of development, reflecting distinct economic structures, technological capacities, and institutional environments. Research grounded in Classical, Neoclassical, and New Trade Theory has predominantly focused on advanced industrial economies such as the United States, Japan, Germany, France, and the United Kingdom. These nations possess strong technological capabilities, highly diversified manufacturing sectors, and mature regulatory systems, which collectively support substantial levels of intra-industry trade. The European Union, in particular, offers a fertile setting for testing New Trade Theory, owing to its deep economic integration and extensive cross-border trade in differentiated manufactured goods (Krugman, 1980; Helpman & Krugman, 1985). In contrast, studies of emerging economies increasingly draw on New–New Trade Theory and Global Value Chain perspectives to explain patterns of export upgrading, fragmented production structures, and wide disparities in firm-level productivity. Evidence from countries such as China, India, Brazil, Turkey, Mexico, and Vietnam highlights how firm capabilities and position within value chains influence trade dynamics (Khandelwal, Schott, & Wei, 2013; Narayanan & Vashisht, 2020). Low-income economies, particularly in Africa and parts of Southeast Asia, present yet another empirical context, characterised by limited technological advancement, low participation in high-value segments of global production networks, and export baskets dominated by primary commodities or basic assembly tasks. These settings underscore the importance of institutional quality, absorptive capacity, and structural constraints, themes central to value-chain-oriented analyses (Banga, 2014).

5.2 The Role of Institutional and Policy Environments

Institutional environments have a significant impact on the application of trade theories across different countries. In economies with mature regulatory systems, clear governance structures, and predictable policy regimes, the outcomes observed in empirical studies tend to mirror the expectations of New Trade Theory and New–New Trade Theory. These contexts typically foster competitive markets and support the emergence of highly productive firms that engage actively in export activities. By contrast, countries facing institutional weaknesses such as inconsistent regulations, inadequate contract enforcement, administrative corruption, or policy volatility often experience trade patterns that deviate from the assumptions embedded in classical or neoclassical frameworks. Such gaps have prompted scholars to incorporate insights from institutional economics to understand better disparities in trade performance (Trefler, 1995; OECD, 2023). Moreover, the structure of national and regional trade agreements, including frameworks like CEPA, TEPA, and other regional value-chain partnerships, significantly shapes firm incentives and strategic behaviour in international markets, thereby altering the empirical relevance of contemporary trade models.

5.3 Sectoral Context and Industry-Specific Evidence

Manufacturing Sectors

Manufacturing sectors, including automobiles, electronics, machinery, textiles, and pharmaceuticals, have formed the backbone of empirical work applying New Trade Theory, New–New Trade Theory, and Global Value Chain perspectives. These industries are particularly well-suited for testing modern trade models because they exhibit strong product differentiation, operate on substantial economies of scale, and account for a significant share of global intra-industry trade. Their production systems are also organised through multilayered value-chain structures that distribute activities across design, component manufacturing, assembly, and distribution. Research on European automobile networks, East Asian electronics supply chains, and the export behaviour of machinery producers in the United States demonstrates how variations in firm-level productivity and the degree of integration into international production networks influence competitiveness and trade outcomes (Gereffi et al., 2005; Timmer et al., 2014). Together, these sectoral studies underscore the significance of scale, innovation, and value chain positioning in shaping contemporary trade patterns.

Technology- and Innovation-Intensive Sectors

High-technology sectors, including semiconductors, software, telecommunications equipment, and biotechnology, offer some of the most informative empirical environments for analysing digital trade-oriented theoretical frameworks. These industries are characterised by their intensive use of intangible assets, reliance on continuous cross-border data exchanges, and extensive engagement with platform-based modes of conducting business. Their operations are also deeply embedded in intellectual property regimes that shape competitive advantages and market access conditions. Recent work on digital trade highlights how these features underpin the expansion of digitally delivered services, the emergence of platform-mediated global transactions, and the growing economic significance of algorithm-driven value creation (UNCTAD, 2024; WTO, 2023).

Agriculture and Natural-Resource Sectors

Although agriculture and resource-based sectors receive comparatively less attention in the empirical literature on New Trade Theory and New–New Trade Theory, they continue to play

a vital role in evaluating neoclassical and institution-based explanations of trade. These industries exhibit characteristics that closely align with traditional factor-endowment approaches. Variations in climate, soil quality, availability of natural resources, and land utilisation shape production patterns and trade outcomes. At the same time, the degree to which producers adopt modern technology, along with the structure and regulation of commodity markets, strongly influences comparative advantage. As noted by earlier scholarship, these structural differences across countries help explain persistent trade patterns in primary products and why certain economies continue to specialise in resource-intensive or climate-dependent exports (Leamer, 1984).

5.4 How Context Shapes Theoretical Relevance

Across different strands of trade theory, the suitability of each framework becomes evident when examined in relation to the economic conditions in which it is applied. Classical and Neoclassical models tend to perform best in environments where countries possess markedly different factor endowments, making them especially relevant for agriculture and resource-dependent sectors. However, their ability to explain the complex patterns of intra-industry trade observed in advanced economies is limited. New Trade Theory offers a better fit in high-income regions with well-developed innovation ecosystems, where economies of scale, product differentiation, and the exchange of similar manufactured goods dominate trade flows. In contrast, New–New Trade Theory is most effective in settings characterised by substantial productivity variation across firms, such as liberalising emerging economies. It provides strong insights into export participation, firm survival, and reallocation processes. GVC-based approaches span both developed and developing regions, providing a robust explanation of global production fragmentation, outsourcing, and the mechanisms by which countries upgrade or capture value within supply chains. Digital trade theory, meanwhile, is particularly pertinent to economies equipped with sophisticated digital infrastructure and data-driven industries. It sheds light on platform-mediated transactions, cross-border services, and the growing importance of intangible assets, all of which are gaining increasing significance for India’s IT, fintech, and digital services sectors.

Theory	Key Proponents	Core Assumptions	Main Drivers of Trade	Limitations	Policy Relevance
Classical (1776–1817)	Smith, Ricardo	Labor productivity, constant returns	Comparative advantage, specialization	Ignores technology, capital, and scale effects Fails with empirical paradoxes;	Foundation of free trade ideology
Neoclassical (1930s–1950s)	Heckscher, Ohlin, Samuelson	Factor endowments, perfect competition	Relative abundance of labour and capital	ignores intra-industry trade	Explains resource-based trade
New Trade Theory (1979–1985)	Krugman, Lancaster	Imperfect competition, scale economies	Product differentiation, innovation	Firm-level behavior omitted	Explains intra-industry trade;

New–New Trade Theory (2003)	Melitz, Helpman	Firm heterogeneity	Productivity, entry costs, innovation	Data-intensive, firm-level focus only	supports industrial policy Basis for export promotion and MSME upgrading
GVC Models (2000s)	Gereffi, WTO, OECD	Fragmented production, task trade	Inter-firm linkages, upgrading	Complex measurement and governance issues	Explains participation in global production networks Framework for sustainable, inclusive digital globalization
Digital Trade (2010s–2020s)	UNCTAD, WTO, OECD	Data and technology as trade enablers	Cross-border data flows, e-commerce	Regulatory asymmetry, digital divide	

Table I

6. Comparative and Contrasting Analysis

The evolution of international trade theory reflects a progressive deepening of analytical scope, moving from macro-level country attributes to industry-level structures, firm-level capabilities, and, more recently, networked and digitalised production systems. A comparative reading of the major theoretical paradigms reveals both continuity and divergence in their explanatory mechanisms, assumptions, and empirical relevance. Classical theories laid the foundation for trade theory by attributing cross-border exchange to productivity differences and relative efficiency, anchored in the principles of Absolute and Comparative Advantage. These early models assumed perfect competition, constant returns to scale, and homogeneous labour, thereby offering a broad but simplified account of why nations specialise. Their generalisability and intuitive appeal remain strong; yet, their limited capacity to explain intra-industry trade, product differentiation, and the role of technology reveals clear boundaries to their predictive power.

Neoclassical trade theory addressed some of these limitations by incorporating multiple factors of production and adopting a general-equilibrium approach. The Heckscher–Ohlin model explained trade patterns through differences in factor endowments rather than productivity, providing a more systematic and mathematically rigorous framework. However, empirical inconsistencies, most famously the Leontief Paradox, have exposed the theory’s inability to account for real-world complexities, such as technological disparities, human capital differences, and institutional variations. While Neoclassical theory advanced the analytical sophistication of trade models, it retained many of the restrictive assumptions of its predecessors, particularly those regarding perfect competition and constant returns.

The New Trade Theory represented the first significant conceptual departure, explicitly introducing increasing returns to scale, monopolistic competition, and product differentiation into the theoretical framework. By doing so, NTT explained phenomena, especially intra-industry trade among advanced economies, that Classical and Neoclassical models could not.

Its focus on scale economies and consumer preference for variety provided new insights into why structurally similar countries trade heavily with one another. Yet NTT relies on stylised representations of firms, treating them as symmetric producers operating under representative conditions. This abstraction limits the theory's ability to capture heterogeneity, an increasingly crucial empirical reality as globalisation intensified.

The emergence of New–New Trade Theory marked the most significant theoretical transformation since the advent of NTT. Melitz's model fundamentally reconceptualises trade by making firm-level heterogeneity the central determinant of export behaviour. Rather than assuming identical firms, NNTT posits that differences in productivity, innovation, and cost structures determine which firms enter export markets. This framework offers compelling explanations for selection effects, reallocation dynamics, and the prevalence of a small number of highly efficient firms in global trade. The theory's microeconomic foundation aligns closely with empirical evidence from both advanced and emerging economies. However, its focus on firm-level capabilities limits its direct applicability in contexts where external constraints, such as institutional weaknesses, infrastructure deficiencies, or trade barriers, play a decisive role.

Global Value Chain theory broadens the analytical landscape by shifting attention from firms and countries to networks of production dispersed across multiple geographies. GVC theory explains trade in terms of tasks, coordination structures, and governance mechanisms that shape the creation, transfer, and capture of value across borders. Unlike earlier theories, which emphasised national-level or firm-level determinants, GVC frameworks illuminate the relational power dynamics between lead firms, suppliers, and states. They also incorporate trajectories of upgrading, revealing how countries can reposition themselves within global production hierarchies. While GVC theory addresses phenomena that earlier models overlook, such as fragmentation, outsourcing, and value-added distribution, it is less focused on modelling equilibrium outcomes. Instead, it adopts a more structural and institutional perspective.

Digital trade theory represents the newest frontier in the comparative evolution of international trade models. By foregrounding data, algorithms, artificial intelligence, and digital-platform ecosystems, this paradigm captures the growing importance of intangible assets in shaping competitive advantage. Digital trade models differ sharply from Classical, Neoclassical, and NTT frameworks by emphasising scalability, network effects, data governance, and cross-border digital services rather than physical goods. These dynamics introduce a structural shift in the basis of comparative advantage: not factor endowments or even firm productivity, but control over data flows, digital infrastructure, and platform-mediated interactions. At the same time, digital trade theory complements GVC perspectives by explaining how intangible activities such as design, branding, analytics, and cloud-based services are integrated into value chains.

Despite their differences, the theories share critical conceptual linkages. Classical and Neoclassical models remain foundational, providing baseline explanations for trade rooted in productivity and endowments. NTT and NNTT extend these insights by incorporating modern industrial realities, including scale economies, differentiated products, and firm-level heterogeneity. GVC and digital trade theories further widen the analytical lens by recognising the fragmentation and digitalisation of production, phenomena inconceivable in earlier theoretical periods. The progression from Classical theories to digital trade reflects not a linear replacement but a cumulative layering of insights, with each paradigm addressing

empirical shortcomings of its predecessors while illuminating new dimensions of global economic interaction.

In summary, the comparative analysis reveals a shift from theories based on simplifying assumptions to frameworks that acknowledge complexity, heterogeneity, and interdependence. The diverse contexts studied in the empirical literature, ranging from advanced industrial economies to emerging-market manufacturing hubs and low-income commodity exporters, underscore the reality that no single theory can sufficiently explain global trade. Instead, contemporary scholarship benefits from integrating these perspectives, combining the structural insights of Classical and Neoclassical models, the behavioural nuance of NTT and NNTT, and the network and technology-oriented analyses of GVC and digital trade theories. Together, they provide a more holistic understanding of how trade patterns develop, adapt, and evolve in an increasingly interconnected and digitalised global economy.

7. Findings and Research Gaps

The synthesis of international trade theories reveals a rich and evolving intellectual trajectory, yet it also highlights critical empirical patterns and conceptual limitations that remain insufficiently addressed in existing scholarship. A central finding is that the explanatory power of trade theories is highly context-dependent, shaped by countries' structural characteristics, the industrial composition of their economies, and the institutional environments within which firms operate. Classical and Neoclassical theories continue to offer valuable insights into trade motivated by productivity differences, factor endowments, and resource allocation, particularly in low-income and resource-dependent economies. However, their simplifying assumptions, including perfect competition and homogenous agents, limit their ability to account for modern trade structures dominated by differentiated products, complex supply chains, and diverse firm behaviours.

The comparative analysis demonstrates that New Trade Theory successfully expands the analytical frontier by incorporating economies of scale, monopolistic competition, and product differentiation, thereby explaining patterns of intra-industry trade in advanced economies. Nonetheless, NTT abstracts from firm-level differences, treating firms as representative entities and overlooking the heterogeneity documented by empirical studies. This limitation is addressed by New–New Trade Theory, which identifies productivity dispersion as a central driver of export participation, survival, and reallocation. Empirical validation of NNTT across both developed and emerging economies confirms that firm-level characteristics, rather than country-level attributes alone, play a decisive role in shaping modern trade dynamics. Yet even NNTT, despite its substantial microeconomic realism, offers limited explanatory power in settings constrained by institutional inefficiencies, inadequate infrastructure, or restrictive regulatory frameworks.

The emergence of Global Value Chain theory introduces a fundamentally different analytical perspective, shifting attention from countries and firms to networked production systems that span borders. GVC literature illuminates how value is created, transferred, and captured within hierarchical or relational governance structures, offering critical insights into upgrading trajectories, power asymmetries, and the fragmentation of production. The theory's ability to explain the distribution of value-added across high- and low-income economies represents a significant advancement over earlier models. However, the conceptual breadth of GVC theory means that it often lacks formalised modelling structures, making it less suited for predictive analysis or quantitative simulation when compared to Classical, Neoclassical, or Melitz-type frameworks.

The rise of digital trade introduces yet another domain in which existing theories provide incomplete explanations. The growing importance of data, analytics, artificial intelligence, cloud services, platform-mediated transactions, and digital infrastructure suggests that traditional determinants of comparative advantage, such as labour productivity or factor endowments, are increasingly inadequate for capturing competitive dynamics in the digital era. Digital trade theories, while conceptually rich, remain underdeveloped in terms of formal modelling, empirical measurement, and integration with established trade frameworks. The absence of robust cross-border data-flow metrics, the complexity of platform governance, and inconsistent national digital regulations pose significant challenges for empirical validation. Consequently, current scholarly work often relies on descriptive analyses rather than rigorous econometric or structural modelling.

Across theoretical paradigms, a key finding is that international trade cannot be adequately understood through any single framework. Instead, global trade patterns reflect a convergence of factors: technological changes, institutional reforms, digital transformations, and production network dynamics that interact in ways earlier models rarely anticipated. Theories developed before the emergence of fragmented production systems, intangible assets, and algorithmic coordination lack the conceptual tools necessary to explain contemporary dynamics fully. Similarly, models centred on firm heterogeneity or network structures do not fully incorporate the institutional, environmental, and digital determinants that have become central to modern trade policy.

These observations reveal several critical research gaps. First, there is a need for integrative models that combine firm-level insights from NNTT with the task-based and governance-driven perspectives of GVC theory. Such hybrid frameworks could better explain how firm behaviour interacts with value-chain structures, especially in emerging economies undergoing rapid structural transformation. Second, digital trade research requires the development of formal theoretical models to capture data governance, platform economics, digital services, and algorithmic competition. Third, empirical studies must incorporate more granular data, particularly firm-level, transaction-level, and platform-mediated information, to validate modern theories more robustly. Fourth, the institutional dimensions of trade, including regulatory quality, trade facilitation, digital policy, and geopolitical factors, remain insufficiently theorised relative to their growing empirical importance.

Finally, much of the existing literature is biased toward advanced economies, with fewer comprehensive analyses integrating low-income or structurally constrained economies into contemporary theoretical frameworks. This geographical imbalance limits the generalisability of current theories and underscores the need for more inclusive empirical research that accounts for diverse institutional and developmental contexts. In summary, the findings suggest that while international trade theory has expanded significantly in scope and sophistication, substantial conceptual and empirical gaps remain, underscoring the need for a more comprehensive, interdisciplinary, and forward-looking research agenda.

8. Limitations

This study provides a broad synthesis of how international trade theories have evolved, but a few limitations must be recognised. First, the review relies mainly on published and indexed academic literature, which may overlook recent working papers, region-specific studies, or contributions from developing countries that are not widely accessible. Second, because the review spans more than two centuries of theoretical development, it cannot explore every

model or sub-stream in detail, and some internal debates within each school of thought may remain underrepresented.

Third, the study adopts a conceptual approach rather than empirical testing; therefore, it does not evaluate theories using econometric models, firm-level data, or gravity-based evidence. This limits the ability to assess the quantitative validity of competing frameworks. Fourth, insights related to digital trade are provisional, as the field is still emerging and suffers from limited data, evolving definitions, and inconsistent international measurement practices.

Finally, synthesising insights across economics, international business, political economy, and digital studies involves interpretive judgement, which may introduce a degree of subjectivity. These limitations do not weaken the study's contribution; instead, they underscore the need for more in-depth empirical research and ongoing theoretical refinement as global trade structures continue to evolve.

9. Implications and Conclusion

The evolution of international trade theory carries significant implications for policymakers, firms, researchers, and global institutions seeking to understand and navigate the complexities of contemporary economic integration. A central implication emerging from this review is that the analytical foundations of trade have shifted from simple models based on factor endowments and relative productivity toward more sophisticated frameworks that account for firm-level heterogeneity, production fragmentation, intangible assets, digitalisation, and global governance structures. As a result, the assumptions underpinning Classical and Neoclassical theories, while foundational, no longer provide sufficient explanatory power for economies characterised by technologically advanced industries, multinational production networks, and increasingly digital modes of exchange. Policymakers must therefore interpret traditional indicators of comparative advantage in light of the complex realities of modern trade, where value accrues not only through production but also through innovation, data management, design capabilities, and strategic participation within global value chains.

For emerging economies, including India, the theoretical developments reviewed in this study underscore the importance of capability-building policies that extend beyond factor accumulation. The insights from New–New Trade Theory point to the critical role of firm-level productivity, innovation capacity, managerial quality, and the ability to bear fixed export costs. These findings suggest that export promotion strategies should focus on firm upgrading, technological adoption, and ecosystem development, rather than relying solely on macroeconomic incentives. GVC theory adds dimension by demonstrating that participation in global production networks yields heterogeneous outcomes depending on governance structures, task specialisation, and functional upgrading. Strategies aimed at integrating into high-value segments, such as design, R&D, branding, and post-production services, are therefore essential for countries seeking long-term competitiveness rather than remaining locked into low-value assembly roles.

The growing prominence of digital trade further expands the policy landscape, revealing that competitiveness increasingly depends on digital infrastructure, data governance, cross-border digital regulations, cybersecurity frameworks, and firms' ability to engage in platform-mediated commerce. Digital trade theories emphasise how economies that can harness data flows, artificial intelligence, cloud services, and digital platforms can achieve substantial productivity gains and access new global markets. For countries like India, which possess strong information technology capabilities, this shift represents both an opportunity and a

challenge: digital strengths must be matched with appropriate institutional frameworks, regulatory coherence, and global interoperability to capitalise on emerging trade patterns fully.

At the scholarly level, the review reveals that theoretical evolution has expanded rather than displaced earlier models. Each paradigm addressed specific empirical gaps unaccounted for by its predecessors, yet none provides a fully comprehensive explanation of global trade. Classical and Neoclassical theories offer valuable insights into resource-based and cost-driven trade but fall short in explaining intra-industry exchange and firm-level heterogeneity. NTT introduces market structure and scale economies but overlooks asymmetries among firms. NNTT captures these asymmetries but is limited in its ability to account for production fragmentation and institutional constraints. GVC theory contextualises trade within global production networks but lacks the formal modelling precision of earlier frameworks. Digital trade theory adds yet another layer by emphasising intangible assets and algorithmic coordination, though it remains a nascent field in need of deeper conceptual and empirical development.

The conclusion that emerges from this comparative analysis is that contemporary international trade cannot be adequately explained through a single theoretical lens. Instead, global trade is best understood as a multidimensional phenomenon shaped by interacting forces, including productivity, factor endowments, technology, firm capabilities, market structure, institutional quality, governance arrangements, and digital ecosystems. This multiplicity underscores the importance of theoretical pluralism, whereby insights from Classical models to digital-era frameworks are combined to produce a more holistic understanding of economic integration. It also suggests that empirical research must expand to incorporate micro-level datasets, value-chain metrics, and digital indicators that reflect the realities of twenty-first-century trade.

Ultimately, the evolution of trade theory highlights a dynamic and continually shifting landscape. As global production systems become increasingly digitalised, fragmented, and interdependent, new theoretical innovations will be necessary to capture emerging forms of value creation and competitive advantage. Future research must integrate insights from economics, data science, institutional analysis, and international business to develop models that can explain the evolving structure of global trade. In this regard, the present study contributes a synthesised understanding of the trajectory of trade models while identifying conceptual gaps that future scholars must address. The cumulative implication is clear: international trade theory must evolve in tandem with the global economy, adapting to the structural transformations shaping how nations, firms, and digital networks engage in cross-border exchange.

References

1. Antràs, P., & Chor, D. (2013). Organizing the global value chain. *Econometrica*, 81(6), 2127–2204.
2. Balassa, B. (1965). Trade liberalization and “revealed” comparative advantage. *The Manchester School*, 33(2), 99–123.
3. Baldwin, R. (2016). *The great convergence: Information technology and the new globalization*. Harvard University Press.
4. Baldwin, R., & Lopez-Gonzalez, J. (2015). Supply-chain trade: A portrait of global patterns and several testable hypotheses. *The World Economy*, 38(11), 1682–1721.

5. Banga, R. (2014). Linking into global value chains is not sufficient: Do you export domestic value-added content? *Journal of Economic Integration*, 29(4), 1179–1202.
6. Banga, R. (2020). *Digital trade in services: Policy implications for India* (UNCTAD Research Paper No. 47). UNCTAD.
7. Banga, R., & Sahu, P. (2010). *India's exports and outward FDI: Are they complementary or substitutable?* UNCTAD India Discussion Paper.
8. Bastos, P., & Silva, J. (2010). The quality of a firm's exports: Where you export to matters. *Journal of International Economics*, 82(2), 99–111.
9. Bernard, A. B., & Jensen, J. B. (1999). Exceptional exporter performance: Cause, effect, or both? *Journal of International Economics*, 47(1), 1–25.
10. Bernard, A. B., Jensen, J. B., Redding, S. J., & Schott, P. K. (2007). Firms in international trade. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 21(3), 105–130.
11. Bowen, H. P., Leamer, E. E., & Sveikauskas, L. (1987). Multicountry, multifactor tests of the factor abundance theory. *American Economic Review*, 77(5), 791–809.
12. Brühlhart, M. (2009). An account of global intra-industry trade, 1962–2006. *The World Economy*, 32(3), 401–459.
13. Chaney, T. (2008). Distorted gravity: The intensive and extensive margins of international trade. *American Economic Review*, 98(4), 1707–1721.
14. Davis, D. R., & Weinstein, D. E. (2001). An account of global factor trade. *American Economic Review*, 91(5), 1423–1453.
15. Deardorff, A. V. (1984). Testing trade theories and predicting trade flows. In R. W. Jones & P. Kenen (Eds.), *Handbook of international economics* (Vol. 1, pp. 467–517). North-Holland.
16. Egger, P. (2002). An econometric view on the estimation of gravity models and the calculation of trade potentials. *The World Economy*, 25(2), 297–312.
17. Falvey, R., Greenaway, D., & Yu, Z. (2004). Intra-industry trade between asymmetric countries with heterogeneous firms. *GEP Research Paper 2004/22*, University of Nottingham.
18. Gereffi, G., & Fernandez-Stark, K. (2011). *Global value chain analysis: A primer*. Center on Globalization, Governance & Competitiveness.
19. Gereffi, G., Humphrey, J., & Sturgeon, T. J. (2005). The governance of global value chains. *Review of International Political Economy*, 12(1), 78–104.
20. Goldfarb, A., & Tucker, C. (2019). Digital economics. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 57(1), 3–43.
21. Greenaway, D., & Milner, C. (1986). *The economics of intra-industry trade*. Basil Blackwell.
22. Grubel, H. G., & Lloyd, P. J. (1975). *Intra-industry trade: The theory and measurement of international trade in differentiated products*. Macmillan.
23. Heckscher, E., & Ohlin, B. (1933). *Interregional and international trade*. Harvard University Press.
24. Helpman, E., & Krugman, P. R. (1985). *Market structure and foreign trade: Increasing returns, imperfect competition, and the international economy*. MIT Press.
25. Helpman, E., Melitz, M. J., & Yeaple, S. R. (2004). Export versus FDI with heterogeneous firms. *American Economic Review*, 94(1), 300–316.
26. Hinloopen, J., & van Marrewijk, C. (2001). On the empirical distribution of the Balassa index. *Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv*, 137(1), 1–35.

27. Hummels, D., & Levinsohn, J. (1995). Monopolistic competition and international trade: Reconsidering the evidence. *Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 110(3), 799–836.
28. Johnson, R. C., & Noguera, G. (2012). Accounting for intermediates: Production sharing and trade in value added. *Journal of International Economics*, 86(2), 224–236.
29. Khandelwal, A. K., Schott, P. K., & Wei, S.-J. (2013). Trade liberalization and embedded institutional reform: Evidence from Chinese exporters. *American Economic Review*, 103(6), 2169–2195.
30. Krueger, A. O. (1977). Growth, distortions, and patterns of trade among many countries. *Princeton Studies in International Finance*, 40.
31. Krugman, P. (1979). Increasing returns, monopolistic competition, and international trade. *Journal of International Economics*, 9(4), 469–479.
32. Krugman, P. (1980). Scale economies, product differentiation, and the pattern of trade. *American Economic Review*, 70(5), 950–959.
33. Leamer, E. E. (1984). *Sources of international comparative advantage: Theory and evidence*. MIT Press.
34. Leontief, W. (1953). Domestic production and foreign trade: The American capital position re-examined. *Proceedings of the American Philosophical Society*, 97(4), 332–349.
35. Liu, Y., & Strange, R. (2023). Digital trade, data flows and global value chains. *International Business Review*, 32(4), 102121.
36. López-González, J., & Jouanjean, M.-A. (2017). Digital trade: Developing a framework for analysis. *OECD Trade Policy Paper No. 205*.
37. Linder, S. B. (1961). *An essay on trade and transformation*. Wiley.
38. Lancaster, K. (1979). Variety, equity, and efficiency. *Columbia University Press*.
39. Mayer, T., & Ottaviano, G. I. P. (2008). The happy few: The internationalisation of European firms. *Intereconomics*, 43(3), 135–148.
40. MEA (Ministry of External Affairs). (2023–2024). *India–EFTA TEPA and Nordic collaboration statements*. Government of India.
41. Melitz, M. J. (2003). The impact of trade on intra-industry reallocations and aggregate industry productivity. *Econometrica*, 71(6), 1695–1725.
42. Narayanan, B., & Vashisht, P. (2020). *Determinants of India's participation in global value chains* (ICRIER Working Paper 382).
43. OECD. (2023). *Green trade and sustainable value chains*. OECD Publishing.
44. Ricardo, D. (1817). *On the principles of political economy and taxation*. John Murray.
45. Samuelson, P. A. (1948). International trade and the equalization of factor prices. *Economic Journal*, 58(230), 163–184.
46. Smith, A. (1776). *An inquiry into the nature and causes of the wealth of nations*. Methuen.
47. Stolzenburg, V. (2022). Data flows and digital trade: Measuring their economic impact. *World Economy*, 45(9), 2795–2819.
48. Timmer, M. P., Los, B., Stehrer, R., & de Vries, G. J. (2014). Rising export sophistication and the changing nature of global value chains. *Journal of Development Economics*, 104, 17–32.
49. Trefler, D. (1995). The case of the missing trade and other mysteries. *American Economic Review*, 85(5), 1029–1046.

50. Tranfield, D., Denyer, D., & Smart, P. (2003). Towards a methodology for developing evidence-informed management knowledge by means of systematic review. *British Journal of Management*, 14(3), 207–222.
51. UNCTAD. (2024). *Digital economy report 2024: Shaping the future of cross-border trade*. United Nations.
52. Veeramani, C. (2009). Intra-industry trade of India: Trends and country-specific factors. *Indian Economic Review*, 44(1), 51–73.
53. Vollrath, T. L. (1991). A theoretical evaluation of alternative trade intensity measures of revealed comparative advantage. *Weltwirtschaftliches Archiv*, 127(2), 265–280.
54. WTO. (2023). *World trade report 2023: Re-globalisation for a secure, sustainable, and inclusive future*. World Trade Organization.