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Acculturation of Foreign IT Workers in Japan from a Cognitive and Business Management Viewpoint

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation investigates expatriate IT workers located in Japan in the contexts of their acculturation and thinking about workplace and business negotiations. Case studies of individual actors supported by surveys were chosen as the methods to gather data leading to findings about how expatriates develop in Japan, including their ability to adjust, accept, and reject schemata about business management situations. Individuals were chosen as a unit of study because they are the key figures who decide the economic fate of companies. Schemata were chosen as a study focus in the later articles because they are the cognitive location of information about home and host culture and come into play when actors decide their actions and strategies. Important findings are that individuals who are skilled and successful in cross border business management often have not only cultural informants, but interculturally fluent informants as guides and supporters. Further, hybrid managers can extend hybrid formations to internal company organizations and synergize their networks as well as their skills. Acculturation develops in some individuals moving along through stages recognized in previous intercultural work to create new types of expatriates not previously identified. Business schemata in negotiation, business management, and day to day workplace practices present a way to compare knowledge, approach and ability among managers from various cultures. Very successful actors studied in this thesis were able to activate home and host culture schemata as well as synthesize those schemata to create the results they targeted. Overall, the thesis shows that business actors in Japan's IT landscape may have high success in acculturating to Japan and learn to manage a business environment very different from their home countries in North America and Europe. In addition to findings and implications regarding IT business actors and their thinking, the thesis proposes a refined model of decision making about schemata and the development of schemata as an actor gains experiences.

Keywords: Japan, IT, cross cultural, acculturation, schemata, hybrid manager, expatriate

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II.   Schlunze, R.D.; Ji, W.W.; and Baber, W. W. (2014). Preferences and Intercultural Networking for Globalizing Practices of Successful Leaders in the Intercultural Workplace. In Claes G. Alvstam, Harald Dolles and Patrik Ström (Eds.): Asian Inward and Outward FDI – New Challenges in the Global Economy, pp. 115-136. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan

III.   Baber, W. W. (2015). Cognitive Change among Foreign Managers in Japan's IT Sector. The IAFOR Academic Review. Vol. 1, 1 pp. 39-47 ISSN 2188-9570

IV.   Baber, W. W. (forthcoming). Looking Inside Japanese-Japanese Intracultural Business Negotiation. Kyoto Economic Review.

V.   Baber, W. W. and Ojala, A. (2015). Cognitive Negotiation Schemata in the IT Industries of in Japan and Finland. Journal of International Technology and Information Management (JITIM).

VI.   Baber, W. W. and Ojala, A. (forthcoming). Schemata, Acculturation, and Cognition: Expatriates in Japan's Software Industry. APSEC 2016 Proceedings.

1 INTRODUCTION

What is an expatriate worker? How does that person develop and advance, or fail, in a foreign country? What changes in thinking and behavior does he or she undergo? How do these issues play out in the IT sector? This thesis investigates a target population of foreign managers and workers in IT in Japan and understand some aspects of their working life with an eye to understanding how some become relatively successful as others do not.

A variety of research papers and books have appeared on the topic of expatriate workers in Japan, though fewer in the years leading up to Abenomics and the tentative economic recovery currently underway, than in the halcyon days of the Economic Bubble (late 1980s-early 1990s). Original scholarly works in the past 10 years on the experience of Western expatriates in Japan are relatively few (Baber, 2012, 2015a; Clausen, 2010; Forsgren, Andersson, & Johanson, 2014; Huang, Mujtaba, Cavico, & Sims, 2006; Kaeppeli, 2006; Lohtia, Bello, & Porter, 2009; Ojala, 2008; Peltokorpi, 2008; Ralston, Holt, Terpstra, & Yu, 1997; Schlunze, 2012; Schlunze, Ji, & Baber, 2014; Zhou, 2014). Where once there were frequent articles on Japanese management and even business books with businessmen depicted as Ninja on the front cover, e.g. The Japanese Negotiator, (March, 1988) as well as high quality business guides (Alston & Takei, 2005; E. Hall & Hall, 1987; Nishiyama, 1999) there are far fewer such texts from the past 10 years, for example (Haghirian, 2010). This thesis seeks to develop the level and currency of the discussion around foreign expatriate managers, especially from North America and Europe, in Japan. This topic is of interest to the academic field of cross cultural management with regard to acculturation and adjustment. Additionally the topic is of interest to Japanese government and foreign workers in Japan as the country struggles with growing numbers of and need for foreign job seekers (Ministry of Economy Trade and Industry, 2015) and the development of appropriate policies.

What then is an expatriate worker? On a casual level, the term was once widely understood as those foreign workers who were dispatched by headquarters (HQ) to work overseas. These centrally dispatched, classic "expats" enjoyed the prerogatives of an elite group: apartments, enviable salary and benefits packages, paid memberships in clubs and associations, access to

international schools and so on. The number of such elite expatriates may be down but expatriate assignments are increasing worldwide (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2015). In Japan no numbers were available, but the fall in membership, reported casually by members in conversation, and the increasing ethnic diversity of the Tokyo American Club, suggest fewer elite expatriates in Japan. The decrease may be due to high costs as economic doldrums in the 1990s and 2000s led to lower investments, while teams and even regional HQs moved to Hong Kong or Singapore.

More broadly, however, the term expatriate covers any sojourner in a foreign country. This thesis uses the term to cover all foreign workers from classical elites, through those with long and deeply embedded connections to the host country, to those who have just arrived. A typology of expatriates is explained later in the thesis and in key articles that comprise the thesis.

Culture matters when individuals from different cultures interact and conflict or miscommunicate. Conflict and miscommunication occur not only because of language barriers. In order to understand why, we must understand what culture is. Culture is an omnipresent facet of life that cannot be avoided any more than a fish can avoid the water it swims in (Hammerich & Lewis, 2013), a web of significance that we individuals make ourselves (Geertz, 1973). The actual rules of a culture are what the individual through socialization knows to have worked in the past (Triandis, 1989) and these rules, meanings, and associations must be transmitted, acquired, and constructed anew through interactions (Spencer-Oatey & Franklin, 2009). Culture in this thesis consists of the interpreted significance, understandings, and expectations of individuals in the context of situations they face. Thus, culture in this conversation is not about the larger group such as a nation or a region; culture at that level cannot reliably explain or predict individual actions. Building on the definitions of culture above, expectations develop from experiences ranging from previous interactions with people, to training, to second hand information (Dimaggio, 1997), to entertainment consumed. As each element arrives through a person's attention, the information is sorted into schemata (Kamppinen, 1993; Neisser, 1976). Schemata are the organizational tools we use as we collect information as well as the web of meaning and associations around experience-based data. From these general schemata, schemata for social interaction arise (Nishida, 1999) in the form of scripts, strategies, and procedures, that are deeply emic to the culture they are learned in and best understood by participants in that culture (Harris, 1997). Every time a schema is accessed to digest information or to drive behavior, the schema itself develops and changes (Neisser, 1976). Upon coming into contact with people from other cultures, an individual's existing schemata may or may not lead to the expected outcome. That is to say the script provided by a schema may not match the sequence of events presented by the other party's schema. More generally, the schemata of a host culture person may not match the schemata of a sojourner.

The schema is where theory and practice meet in cross cultural interactions and for this reason it is of compelling interest to researchers and

practitioners. It is actors who develop and use schemata. Organizations are made of actors, and therefore the actor and schemata are suitable units of study for cross cultural interaction. Actors in a host culture must identify new or differing schemata and acquire, reject, or adjust them based on their needs, values, and awareness of the situation. The problem this thesis addresses, is the need and ability of expatriate workers in Japan's IT sector to successfully identify, adjust, and react to new or different schemata.

The thesis relies primarily on the inputs of managers in Japan. These are defined according to the stratification of owners/founders or their top agents (i.e. a CEO), middle managers with tactical decision making authority, and front line supervisors who oversee tasks done by workers (Mahoney, Jerdee, & Carroll, 1965). Thus managers in this thesis are better defined by task than by job title. Managers are the focus population because their actions have greater impact on their organizations than those of non-managers. Nonetheless, non-managers are also included because that population may reveal insights through contrast with managers.

The thesis takes IT workers, especially software business, as a focus. This target population includes all hardware, software, internet, and communications companies. Recruitment in this thesis for surveys and interviews centers on individuals with managerial experience. The target population is mainly North Americans in Japan, meaning those individuals who had most or all of their upbringing, education, and training in Anglophone USA and Canada. Despite a primary focus on North Americans, the thesis includes some Europeans, expanding the field to what are loosely termed "western" countries; that is to say North America and Europe.

A question remains to be treated in this introduction – why Japan and North America are the focus of this research. One reason is the lack of up to date materials as indicated above. However, merely refreshing the existing data is not a compelling reason to undertake a major research process. A more pertinent reason is the relative importance of these markets to each other. The USA remains the largest economy in the world, and Japan the third. With an economic recovery apparently underway in Japan and the Trans Pacific Partnership treaty poised for completion, these economies are headed for greater integration. Although outbound Japanese merger and acquisition (M&A) activity in North America has decreased in 2014 with the rising yen, it continues driven by the search for growth opportunities (*Deals and Divestitures: Trends in Japanese M & A*, 2014). The same report shows that 2014 saw 30% of Japanese outbound investment going to North America. As of 2013, over 28,000 foreign IT workers were in Japan, a multiyear upward trend (except for the year after the triple earthquake, tsunami, and nuclear catastrophe in 2011), with Americans accounting for about 16% of the total (Ministry of Economy Trade and Industry, 2015). Canada cannot be exempted as it is the origin of some portion of North American workers in Japan; however, the percent is not clear as the Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry (METI) releases only aggregate statistics for the IT sector. Finally, Japan remains a country widely considered to

be a difficult overseas post to adjust to (Peltokorpi, 2008) with de facto barriers to business execution for software technology firms such as challenging networking and localization (Ojala & Tyrväinen, 2007) as well as a lack of cultural knowledge (Kaeppeli, 2006) and various barriers in place between foreigners and host country nationals (Clausen, 2010; Peltokorpi & Clausen, 2011) that may require special efforts to manage (Ojala, 2008). Challenges for expatriates in Japan may include the low penetration of Agile development (Inada, 2010), a preference for tacit knowledge communication and agreements that are under constant negotiation (Krishna, S., Sahay, S., Walsham, 2004) as well as unfamiliar business schemata. It is the difficulty of adjusting in particular that drives this study to examine how workers in the IT world, a fast paced and often collaborative industry, interact successfully and unsuccessfully to create value and innovations.

In summary, this thesis seeks to update and improve the understanding of North American and other Western IT workers in Japan as these economies and industries evolve. This work links thinking from various disciplines, i.e. management science, psychology, cross cultural studies, pedagogy, and international business to go beyond descriptive techniques of cultural dimensions thus defining it as a Phase IV study (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). This thesis examines this population taking individual actors and schemata as the study units in order to learn how individuals change, develop, succeed or fail to succeed.

2 OVERVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The understanding of cross cultural interaction has followed a lengthy path from Oberg's (1960) description of culture shock to the more recently developed concepts of Cultural Intelligence (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003) and Hybrid Managers (Schlunze & Plattner, 2007). This thesis attempts to draw some key elements together from this tradition while carefully rejecting some aspects of cultural dimension theory that have come into wide use through the works of Hofstede, among others. Instead of dimensions, the focus of this study is on schemata. What follows is a brief overview of key concepts and concerns and their integration in this thesis.

Oberg in 1960 described the trajectory of a sojourner as a rising curve during a honeymoon period in a country followed by a fall and eventually a recovery and finding of balance. The change progresses from euphoria to outright unhappiness and eventually to a suitable balance through a process of adjustment, defined later in this section. Oberg speaks of the process as all but inevitable once the sojourner gains language skills, but the adjustment takes time. But by no means do all individuals progress regularly or reliably toward comfortable acculturation; some become segregated from the host culture into home culture groups because of their adherence to their own culture or marginalized and out of contact with home and host culture groups through their inability to retain their home culture or adopt the host culture (Berry, 1997). Berry introduces two additional acculturation outcomes that may occur: integration, and assimilation. Integration indicates maintenance of identity and contacts in the home as well as the host culture and thus a balanced level of contact with home and host cultures. While more positive than segregation and marginalization, assimilation indicates a loss of original identity and the synergistic benefits that identity may bring when integrated with the host culture.

2.1 Synergy and Cultural Dimensions

The next stop on the cross cultural management tour is the concept of synergy as developed by Adler, (1986) and Adler and Gundersen (2007). Synergy proposes that partners who invest significant time and effort in understanding details of their differences and similarities may develop a new way beyond their own normal work and ethnic cultures. This third way, shown by Adler and Gundersen (pg. 112) as the overlapping area of circles representing cultures, describes a new behavior set, a customized, synergistic third culture. Synergy is a key strategy for unlocking the potential of interactions that cross cultural barriers displayed by some of the managers investigated in this research.

The concept of comparing cultures based on dimensions — simplified oppositional extremes — has been developing for some decades with publications by leading proponents such as Hall (1959), Kluckhohn, Strodtbeck, & Roberts, (1961) Schein, (1990) Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, (2012) and Hofstede, (1983) as well as Trompenaars (1993). A few points of critique need to be reviewed before continuing with cultural dimensions in cross cultural management discussions and research. A key concern is that dimensions are reductionist and distract or even preclude the ability to synthesize understanding. Another concern is that dimensions seem only to apply to groups and fail to predict individual or corporate actions (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2001), a failing highlighted by Brewer and Venaik (2012). In any case, the dimensions Hofstede (1983) seem to have little value as research theory because of their lack of predictive power. A third point is that some of the well-known research around dimensions has centered on groups that are not representative of overall populations, as pointed out by McSweeney (2000) and DiMaggio (1997) in (Jones, 2007) regarding Hosfstede (1983). Additionally, some observers have challenged the habit of using cultural dimension data to place countries on relative hierarchies or scales despite the fact that the studies reveal no cardinal data or absolute values and ordinal data cannot be scaled in this way because there is no absolute difference between their values (Rosner, 2015). Others critique the assumed homogeneity of national level studies as summarized by Baskerville-Morley (2005). Additional critiques persist in the discussion of cultural dimensions but are not germane to this study.

This thesis takes the stance that cultural dimensions are not theory and thus are not predictive. The thesis, however, makes use of the concept of cultural dimensions for the purpose of description, not prediction, in the way that dark blue and light blue allow a description of color appearance. For example, the particularist-universalist dimension is used in Schlunze et al. (2014) to characterize an industry that is broadly universalist (finance) to the broadly particularist home cultures of two individuals (France and Japan) and point out that in both instances the industry culture came to dominate.

2.2 Cultural Intelligence

The next thread to be woven into the thesis is that of Cultural Intelligence (CQ), a measure of expertise and motivation, not of innate intelligence. This psychometric concept includes components that make up the sensitivity and skills appropriate for cross cultural situations (Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004). The CQ concept and the related instrument are composed of four parts: behavioral, cognitive, metacognitive, and motivational. These four elements are measured relative to a specific host culture and are not universal intrinsic abilities that allow an individual to hop fluidly from one culture to another. In other words, CQ reflects a set of skills and motivations to be gained and sharpened during the process of acculturation. The results of the research suggest that low motivational CQ predicts poor career progress in expatriates active in business.

2.3 Hybrid Expatriates

Research on classical expatriates (i.e. those dispatched by headquarters) has led to insights important for this thesis. Investigations of Japanese managers in Europe (Schlunze, 2002) and European managers in Japan (Schlunze, 2012; Schlunze et al., 2014; Schlunze & Plattner, 2007) revealed that expatriate managers had characteristics that allowed for the differentiation of distinct groups among them. Among the groups identified were those managers characterized by success in their business activities, as well as by high levels of skill regarding the host country and synergy creation. These individuals are described as hybrids in recognition of their ability to bring together home and host cultures. Some hybrids develop as a result of long term association with the host country, for example having studied, married, and raised children there. Hybrid expatriates are always integrated in the terms that Berry (1997) set forth, yet this is not their sole defining characteristic. Most develop only after some years of actively improving their cognitive, metacognitive, and behavioral CQ. For these individuals, motivational CQ remains high.

Other writers on cultural adjustment have recognized the need to include personality in the understanding of expatriate adjustment as summarized by Peltokorpi (2008) and later by others (Hippler, Caligiuri, & Johnson, 2014; Hippler, Caligiuri, Johnson, & Baytalskaya, 2014). The choices described by Peltokorpi (2008), however, are not as rigorously tied to the Big Five personality traits of Costa and McCrae (1992) as are those present in the CQ instrument of Ang et al. (2007). A recent article meanwhile provides a clear definition of adjustment as the expatriate's harmony within his or her person-environment relationship (Hippler, Caligiuri, Johnson, et al., 2014). Hippler et al. further consider the separation of spaces, i.e. living space, urban surroundings, and personal life which, however, have been more precisely clarified as preferences

in living, work, and corporate environments (Schlunze, 2012). Importantly, Hippler et al. identify a difference between *willingness* and *ability* to adjust. The instrument they employ, however, does not capture this notion directly; instead they use proxies that may account for engagement with the local environment. On the other hand, the CQ instrument employs five questions to directly target motivation (Ang et al., 2007). In these respects, the CQ instrument provides a strong psychometric tool for investigating expatriate potential for adjustment. Thus the combination of approaches, CQ led by Ang and the hybrid manager work led by Schlunze, provide a powerful suite of tools to analyze the expatriate community in Japan.

2.4   Cultural Environment

It is necessary to briefly review the current cultural environment of Japan, and from there to consider its impact on the worker and workplace. Japan is widely viewed in terms of established stereotypes kept in place by foreign and Japanese academicians, as well as by the popular media (Matsumoto, 2002). Matsumoto, reacting against the standard depictions, presents evidence to reject seven core stereotypes and claims that Japan is entering into a period of fast moving social change. He claims that the Japanese worker is moving from traditional values such as collectivism, loyalty to the boss, and seniority based promotion, to values associated with western workers such as work life balance, and merit based promotion. Matsumoto (2002, pg. 145) shows the old and new thinking in his Table 4.1.

A decade and half later, the stereotypes have not been decisively defeated and the trends presented in the 2002 publication appear to be in place, nonetheless they remain trends and do not dominate mainstream thinking. By way of example, Prime Minister Abe's re-election platform in 2012 included structural reforms, referred to as the Third Arrow, which touch on issues identified by Matsumoto (2002). The fact that the Abe reforms are so recent, instituted largely in 2013-2014 (Patrick, 2013; "The third arrow," 2014), suggests that Matsumoto was optimistic about the degree and speed of change. Thus Table 4.1 in Matsumoto's 2002 work remains a list of goals that are not broadly realized in workaday Japan. Moreover, many of the items listed in Matsumoto's Table 4.1 are viewed as ideals in North America and Europe, i.e. work life balance, management views of workers, worker individuality and so on. Considering the emphasis on western ideals, Matsumoto's viewpoint is at risk of being a prescriptive wish list for the betterment of Japan. Other approaches, such as the origins and explanations of ethnic culture arising from environmental and historical causes — for example Japanese capitalism arising from feudal structures (Harris, 1999; Sanderson, 2007) — suffers from simplification and opaque causal explanations. In general, the academic industry of describing Japan in terms of broad dimensions and national level

trends appears at risk. What approach can replace the questioned, even outdated, thinking on broad cultural characterizations?

While some workers, specifically Japanese and French teachers in England, have been found to mix and match behaviors and expectations from their home and host cultures (Winch, 2015), this thesis finds evidence of more complex processes in place among IT sector workers in Japan. The data gathered for this thesis include workplace instances of power distance, bullying, job instability, loss of ownership of ideas, and predominantly Japanese business schemata that foreign workers must confront and then adjust, reject, or adopt. Paying attention to schemata, which develop on the basis of personal experience in a given environment or culture, allows this thesis to avoid stereotyping Japanese culture and its individuals; these do not form a monolithic group with an essence that might be changed (Miwa & Ramseyer, 2006). At the same time, understanding the development of business people through schemata avoids blurring distinctions among non-Japanese or "western" actors from various cultures.

2.5   Schemata

Schemata are a well-known concept in cognitive psychology. A dictionary definition refers to schemata as mental representations of experience and phenomena (Colman, 2015). Neisser (1976, pg 56) describes schemata as being "not only the plan, but the executor of the plan" with regard to understanding and organizing information. Schemata organize the inflow of information that arrives through perception; these same schemata are altered by information that arrives. Thus they are in a dynamic relationship with information and other schemata. Neisser does not provide a typology of schemata but he does mention that there are extensive schemata that are "wide" and which may activate "less wide" schemata that organize information. Neisser also identifies format schemata that accept information and plan or perceptual schemata that sort it. For example, upon hearing a rumble one may immediately become attentive and start sorting the sound, frequency, and tenor (using a format schema) into likely causes (e.g. thunder, a truck, an earthquake, an explosion etc.) using a plan schema. After identifying the sound, the plan schema may activate other schemata such as one for leaving the building (earthquake) or one for relaxing to enjoy on coming rain (thunder). Schemata can be simple; the schemata of a simple physical object are likely to be less complex than the schemata of a large city. In both cases, individuals will have a mental representation, or schemata, that may be difficult to communicate and may imperfectly match the objectively confirmable features of the object. This phenomenological nature of tangible and intangible things renders them subject to the interpretation of the beholder. In turn, the communication about those things is subject to the receiver's interpretation of the communication. Nishida (1999) provides a typology of eight schemas (sic) for social interaction. These

build on Neisser's conceptualization, but are specific to social situations. Nishida's schemas are not related to the initial acceptance and processing of information; they describe the processes of interpreting and reacting to social information. For example, instead of simply informing an actor to leave a building upon hearing an earthquake noise, Nishida's schemas inform the actor to pursue or not pursue scripts or strategies of interaction in social situations including the workplace. Social concepts such as "business negotiation" leave room for considerable variation in schemata and their communication as well as miscommunication. Schemata in the context of cognitive psychology are often termed *cognitive schemata* (Kamppinen, 1993); this term is preferred in this thesis.

This thesis, in its Article V (Baber & Ojala, 2015), identifies 12 cognitive schemata that may be in play during business negotiations. While individuals may have more than one active schema that influences their actions, they may not have the same schemata as their counterparties. Schemata and cognitive style arise from cultural background, experiences, and perceptions (Beamer, 1995; Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992; Kozhevnikov, Evans, & Kosslyn, 2014; McMillen, 1991); while Baber and Ojala (2015) suggest that individuals with different cultural backgrounds may share some, but perhaps not many, schemata about business negotiation. The negotiation schemata are cognitive constructs often used without deliberate thinking; that is to say, the metacognitive mechanism is not part of the awareness of the individual actor.

Beamer (1995) confirms that similar schemata boost communication in business and negotiation while Ryan (2010) points out the potential for disruption to communication by schemata across cultures. When schemata are different or absent in one party or another, it may be possible for the individual and their supporters to target the understanding of the schema in question to improve cultural adjustment, acculturation, and success. Cultural informants are present for most expatriates (Baber, 2012) and some are even highly fluent in two or more cultures. It is these supporters in the expatriate's environment who are able to influence the development of schemata. Supporting individuals of this sort may hold the key to improved communication and performance of expatriate North Americans in Japan. Schemata can change and develop, indeed they must for the sake of gaining business abilities, as argued by Krueger (2007) with regard to entrepreneurship. Changes can occur incrementally or by the creation of new schemata (Anderson, Greeno, Kline, & Neves, 1981) or through broad substitutions of the contents of schemata (Balogun & Johnson, 2004). The result of learning is a new or improved schema (Anderson et al., 1981).

Examination of the cognitive world of North Americans working in Japan may reveal more about their business schemata, acculturative development, and relative success.

2.6 Mapping the Social Cognitive Network

Mapping of social structures — that is social networks (Granovetter, 1983) — among expatriates leads to enhanced understanding of the actors and their milieu. The individuals and organizations that add to the expatriate worker's experience and knowledge, and therefore schemata, form social networks. Network models are cognitive reconstructions of social networks as experienced by the actor (Mehra et al., 2014). To visualize these cognitive models, this thesis used a software package, VennMaker, to depict real world social networks. Research using VennMaker includes historical (Düring, Bixler, Kronenwett, & Stark, 2011) as well as business subjects, for example Chinese managers working in Japan (Schlunze, Ji, Mori, & Li, 2015).

2.7 Negotiation

Negotiation is a fundamental activity of managing (Mintzberg, 1971) and an activity impacted by cross cultural issues (Adair, Taylor, & Tinsley, 2009; Gelfand & Dyer, 2000; Graham, 1985; Gulliver, 1979; Salacuse, 1998). While negotiation is broadly defined as coming to agreement by parties with disparate information and interests but mutual dependence (Lax & Sebenius, 2006), the interactions, and processes, involved have been the topics of much literature. With regard to the cognitive aspects of negotiation, scripts have been examined previously (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992) though not to a great extent in cross cultural negotiation settings (Carnevale, Cha, Wan, & Fraidin, 2004) in spite of the fact that mismatch of schemata has been implicated in failed negotiations (Beamer, 1995). This thesis uses negotiation, and schemata in particular, as a way to understand how managers think before and during interactions across cultural barriers.

2.8 Research questions

Research questions that originated with the thesis and which developed during the process are presented here.

RQ1 Acculturation and development of hybrid managers
How do hybrid managers develop? Can elements of their development be described?

RQ2 Expatriate manager typology
Do more types of expatriate manager exist than those already described in the literature? To what extent can they be characterized by experience, ability, attitude, and other traits?

RQ3 Cognitive styles, change, and switching
Do differences in cognitive style play a role in the management experiences and choices of expatriates? Do managerial styles change and can they switch? If they switch, what are the metacognitive mechanisms involved?

RQ4 Cognitive schemata
What cognitive schemata for business do people from differing backgrounds carry with them? Are they similar, the same or different? What is the role of schemata in the acculturation and cross cultural management ability of expatriates and their cognition?

RQ5 Negotiation
How does negotiation play a role in expatriate success and acculturation? Do differences exist between negotiation approaches in Japan compared to those of other cultures?

Figure 3 in Section 4.7 of this thesis shows how the component articles are related to the elements of the literature review. The figure also shows which Research Questions are handled in which article.

3 METHODOLOGY

The research for this thesis progressed through several phases from the discovery of issues to data collection through interview and survey methods to case investigations to a panel in order to complete a holistic analysis. The process is outlined in Figure 1. In brief, interviews were conducted with experienced business people, both native Japanese as well as foreigners located in Japan for shorter or longer terms. These interviews led to the identification of topics and concepts for further inquiry. Subsequently a survey of North Americans in Japan was conducted expanding on the work of Schlunze (Schlunze & Plattner, 2007) among Europeans, however the work for this thesis targeted North Americans in Japan. The survey captured data on Cultural Intelligence (CQ) (Earley & Ang, 2003; Earley & Mosakowski, 2004), negotiation, and other issues. Some of the survey respondents agreed to in depth interviews in the following phase. This included the mapping of their social networks in geographic and business contexts. Follow up interviews were done with 14 of these individuals and two were invited to participate in a panel alongside managers new to the survey and interviews. The panel confirmed some aspects of the study while allowing richer detail to emerge. See Figure 1 for the overall process of the research phases.
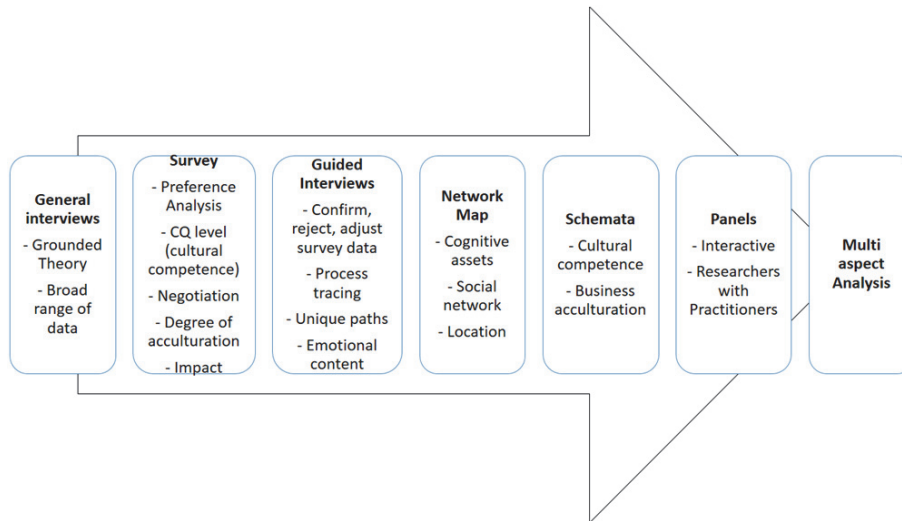
FIGURE 1 Overview of research process

3.1 Developing the research direction

Glaser and Strauss (1967) characterized Grounded Theory as a method to identify themes and build theory on an emerging basis from data, including interviews. Since then the approach has found welcome in various management/business topics as seen in Goulding's table 2.1 (2002, pg 50). Mello and Flint (2009), writing in a logistics business context, state that Grounded Theory is appropriate for the understanding of social processes. Grounded Theory is an approach reaffirmed as suitable for theory building in international business (Birkinshaw, Brannen, & Tung, 2011). Grounded Theory was the approach behind the first study in this thesis, Adjusting to a Distant Space (Baber, 2012) as well as the following in depth interviews. Glaser eventually diverged from Strauss to espouse a more structured coding process proposing 18 coding families (Mello & Flint, 2009). This thesis, however, allowed adopted a flexible and reflexive approach (Corbin & Strauss, 2014) by allowing theory to emerge even late in the process that helped to identify path dependent typologies of expatriate workers in Japan.

3.2 Survey

The survey created for this project includes 65 items. Initially it was deployed with 67 items but after 12 responses had been received it was amended in order to gain data on Cultural Intelligence (CQ) and negotiation, and business

performance. The first version of the survey was developed by Schlunze and Plattner (2007) for their work on European expatriates. Items and the reason for their inclusion on the final version are displayed in Table 1.

The survey was disseminated through email and LinkedIn, the online business network service. The sample was drawn from managers identified in the American Chamber of Commerce, Japan (ACCJ) annual directory. One weakness with this sampling strategy is that those managers do not represent a random cross section of foreign or North American managers in Japan. Additional individuals were added to this sample based on personal networks of the study authors. Canadians were identified through contact with organizations such as the Kansai Canada Business Association and LinkedIn profiles.

TABLE 1   Content of survey instrument

Items	Content
9	Determine preferences in corporate, sector, and living environments (sections A1-A3)
3	Identify preferred work locations with qualitative explanation (section A4)
4	Determine cultural background (sections A5-6)
4	Determine Acculturation and Change preferences (section A7)
8	Determine expatriate status, demographic information (sections B1-B7)
9	Determine networks (section B8)
14	Questions from the CQ instrument (Ang et al., 2007) (sections C1-C2)
3	Identify personal business performance related to negotiation and CQ (section D1)
2	Qualitative responses about management practices (section D2)
4	Determine company performance related to competitors (section D3)
5	Voluntary contact information (section E1)
Total 65	

3.3 About the research and case approach

This thesis is based on cases derived from interviews. Starting with a Grounded Theory approach, I looked for issues and patterns in the words and experiences

of the target population. Saturation (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Levy, 2006) is achieved when no new issues and experiences come to light. However, even at the end of the interview phase, with saturation apparently reached, one last interviewee related a remarkable experience that led to insights that otherwise might have gone missing. In the end, it is impossible to know when saturation has been reached unless all members 26,000 foreign IT workers (Ministry of Economy Trade and Industry, 2015), are investigated.

Because the study population is too large to handle in total, it was necessary to seek a sample. There is, however, no registry of individuals and no publication or website commonly used that could reach a randomized representative sample. Organizations such as ACCJ or clubs include relatively few IT members and are not randomized. Accordingly, interviewees were drawn first from direct acquaintances and their acquaintances in a snowballing approach in which one participant refers others to join (Denscombe, 2014). Thereafter the net was cast more broadly through online social networks, especially LinkedIn as it allows sorting by keywords, profession and location. This approach is broadly suitable for gathering individuals with the right background who are willing to be interviewed or surveyed. Ultimately, 14 interviews were conducted for the Grounded Theory approach and the number of completed surveys totaled 56, however, the individuals are not randomized and may not be representative of the population. One half of the respondents were heads of business (i.e. CEO, General Manager, or President), senior executives made up 23% of the survey respondents and lower middle managers made up another 22%. The remaining four percent were non-management workers. Individuals who are willing to be interviewed are not necessarily representative of the population; nonetheless, their testimonies and experiences were roughly consistent with the themes of other interviewees and with those of blogs such as Kalzumeus (McKenzie, 2014) and public forums such as gaijinpot.com. Typical themes include work life balance, empowerment in the company, the tenuous nature of employment, office and HR management, skill of IT coworkers, and so on.

The data contains few individuals that match the characteristics of marginalized expatriates. Individuals interviewed were given code numbers to preserve anonymity. Only tow, 12D early in his career, and 12E, were clearly marginalized. In the case of 12E this marginalization resulted in his early return to North America in a worker buyout. Other individuals in the study experienced very negative situations including racial harassment (12D), managerial harassment (12E), and job insecurity (most individuals). One target of significant managerial harassment, 12Q, now appears to be in a marginalized or separated position as his career is at least temporarily sidelined.

There are no actors in the data who represented the assimilated state. This may be because they do not see themselves as part of the expatriate population and prefer to view themselves as part of the Japanese population. For such individuals there would be little motivation to participate in a study on a group that they do not identify with.

Regardless of the representativeness of the population, qualitative data is ultimately open to interpretation inflected by the interpreter's experience, career position, and emic knowledge. Even if these biases can be managed or at least positioned, a different interpreter with other viewpoint´s or with the advantage of review in later years may come to different conclusions or even an entirely different focus. Thus the investigator has built in difficulties to overcome and explain. With this in mind it is appropriate to describe the thesis author's background in Japan and IT.

In 2005 the author arrived in Japan with minimal language skills and only a surface understanding of Japan's workplace culture and lifestyles. Since then, the author has worked in various positions at two different universities and as an educator, a consultant, and an academic researcher the author visited 10-20 offices and companies per year viewing layout, staff size, IT equipment, employee interrelations, and management techniques among other factors. These visits have mostly taken place in Tokyo, Kyoto, and Osaka. In summary, the author has developed a view of office culture in Japan that is broader than most individuals who work in one or two companies for years, and broader than most business people other than consultants handling multiple clients. Nonetheless, the author remains a relative outsider to Japanese workplace culture. With regard to workplace culture in the United States and Europe, the author is more of an insider, after 15 years of various office experiences, and takes an emic ethnographic position with regard to these work cultures.

With respect to IT, the author enjoys only limited experience having managed and completed IT projects early in the IT revolution, around 1990, and having participated in a large (250 employee) ERP specification and implementation in the early 2000s. These experiences do not constitute deep technical knowledge. Thus while the author has some knowledge and insight into the world of the target population, North American IT workers in Japan, the author does not start with a rich background in the topic. The author's background was, however, sufficient to build rapport with interviewees and to grasp the jargon and experiences of changing customer specifications, deadlines, Agile and waterfall engineering approaches and share similar points of reference.

In summary, the author is able to span the boundaries of workplace cultures of North America, Japan, Europe, and the IT world with varying depths of personal experience in each. The ethnographic position then is neither emic nor etic, but a combination of both. The benefit, summarized, is rapport with the study population, the drawback is the impossibility of seeing the world as the study population sees it.

Accordingly, an overall goal of the interviews has been to draw out the landmarks of the workplace of North American expatriate IT workers in Japan and to draw broad theories based on the evidence gleaned directly from the target population.

3.4   Case selection

Interview candidates were selected based first on their membership in the target population: North Americans working in Japan in the IT sector. Cases were selected for research based on various criteria such as those summarized by Fletcher and Plakoyiannaki's Table 10.1 (2011, pp 179-181). Cases presented in Article I of this thesis, were selected based on criteria such as manager status, minimum number of years in Japan, in the pattern of criterion sampling (Sandelowski, 1995 as well as Patton, 2002 in Fletcher & Plakoyiannaki, 2011). Criterion sampling refers to selecting cases because they match criteria determined in advance.

Those later interviews that were expanded into cases appearing in Articles II, IV, and VI of this thesis and in the appendix, however, were selected on the basis of theoretical sampling in which emergent data and emergent theory drive data selection (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Eisenhardt, 1989; Coyne 1997; Strauss and Corbin, 1998 in Fletcher & Plakoyiannaki, 2011). Theoretical sampling refers to selecting cases that are likely to enrich the knowledge of the subject and improve understanding of a theoretical model. Thus, these cases are relatively similar in outward appearance.

The case selected for the second article in this thesis, is an example of critical case sampling (Miles and Huberman, 1994; also Patton, 2002; in Fletcher & Plakoyiannaki, 2011; Yin, 2013). This case was referred to the co-authors by the European Business Council in Japan for its merit as a compelling example of cross cultural business success. Additional non-North American but western cases were selected as confirmatory or disconfirmatory (Sandelowski, 1995 in Fletcher & Plakoyiannaki, 2011) in order to confirm or reject the content of North American cases. Case 12Q was selected opportunistically because of an interesting communication but became a critical case because the interview revealed a disparity between the ability and achievement of the individual.

3.5   Guided interviews

Guided interviews were conducted with those individuals who were willing to take the time. As there was no way to compel individuals to participate, these interviews were self-selected. Certain of these became cases, and their selection is explained in the following section. Thus the motivation of the individuals to participate was in some instances to get feedback from a cross cultural management expert regarding their own experiences. In other instances, the individuals were proud of their accomplishments and appreciated the chance to review them. Other motivations may have included a need to release personal feelings, an altruistic desire to contribute to others in similar circumstances, and desire to participate in research. Motivations were not investigated as these

were not central to the research and time was at a premium even for individuals willingly participating.

The interviews were based on a list of questions in sequence, though neither sequence nor questions were always completed the same way. The first question was open to permit the interviewee maximum scope to express themselves. This step improved the opportunities for theory building through Grounded Theory by gathering hints about what concerned expatriate workers most. An open start followed by more specific questioning is supported by Appendix B of Corbin and Strauss (2014). Researcher insights arising from the expatriate work experience of the author were applied to interpretation, as is appropriate in Grounded Theory studies (Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Goulding, 2002). The extended speaking time of interviewees made possible later categorization of themes and searches for specific comments on business schemata and other issues of interest.

3.6 Case interviews for rich data

Interviews were chosen as the best method to gather rich data sufficient to gain insight into the population and their experiences. Unstructured data was collected and reviewed at later points and between the initial and follow up interviews. Some interview data were structured in collaboration with the interviewee using network mapping software. After the cases employed in the Article I, the interviews followed a guided interview format, as discussed above. The study cases, however, required follow up interviews and, in some instances, email or other communications. These longer and deeper interviews were styled to allow the interviewee to respond to more questions. At the same time, the interviewer(s) were able to pursue and clarify specific issues. Additionally, surveys were used to gather structured supporting data about business and lifestyle preferences.

3.7 Case theorizing

Theorizing from cases was carried out on the basis of inductive theory building (Eisenhardt, 1989; Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007) and interpretive sense making (Stake, 1995, 2005). Table 2 below (Welch, Piekkari, Plakoyiannaki, & Paavilainen-Mäntymäki, 2011) compares the approaches. Inductive reasoning and objective searches for generalities were conducted in the case studies in order to construct and develop models about the group comprised by the individuals studied. These generalities and models and weak causalities (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007) extend to much of the population. Some cases, specifically the case of the coleaders in the second article and the case of the blocked career (see 12D in appendix) are examples not of generalization

attempts, but of understanding a case particularly and thickly with its own issues and contexts (Stake, 2005). Nonetheless, such cases may lead to understanding of patterns that appear elsewhere in the population. Triangulating the case, as Stake describes it, may help to confirm understanding through redundant data derived from network analysis or survey responses in addition to interviews. This thesis leans mainly on Eisenhardt and Stake as laid out in Table 2 which presents the differences among the four leading approaches to drawing theory from case studies.

TABLE 2   Methods of theorizing from case studies, Welch et al. (2011, pg. 745)

Dimension	Inductive theory building	Natural experiment	Interpretive sensemaking	Contextualized explanation
Main advocate	Eisenhardt	Yin	Stake	Ragin/Bhaskar
Philosophical orientation	Positivist (empiricist)	Positivist (falsificationist)	Interpretive/constructionist	Critical realist
Nature of the research process	Objective search for generalities	Objective search for causes	Subjective search for meaning	Subjective search for causes
Case study outcome	Explanation in the form of testable propositions	Explanation in the form of cause-effect linkages	Understanding of actor's subjective experiences	Explanation in the form of causal mechanisms
Strength of the case study	Induction	Internal validity	Thick description	Causes-of-effects explanations
Attitude toward generalization	Generalization to population	Generalization to theory (analytical generalization)	"Particularization" not generalization	Contingent and limited generalizations
Nature of causality	Regularity model: Proposing association between events (weak form of causality)	Specifying cause effect relationships (strong form of causality)	Too simplistic and deterministic a concept	Specifying causal mechanisms and the contextual conditions under which they work (strong causality)
Role of context	Contextual description a first step only	Causal relationships are isolated from the context of the cause	Contextual description necessary for understanding	Context integrated into explanation

3.8   Graphic analysis for visual apprehension of human networks

A dedicated social network analysis software, VennMaker, was used during interviews to capture information about social networks. Collecting notes in the software during the conversation was sometimes cumbersome, so along with recordings, notes were made on paper or on screen. Partially constructing the network on screen allowed for immediate co-development of the graphic by the researcher and the interviewee. Visually attractive, the VennMaker graphic increased the involvement of the interviewee in the project. Schlunze proposed use of VennMaker in Article II of this thesis in expatriate interviews (Schlunze et al. 2014). In total, graphics were created for ten of the interviewees, although one was lost in a data management error. Following Schlunze et al. (2014), through their interviews individuals revealed contacts in nine areas which are represented as a matrix of three environments and three geographies in Table 3.

The VennMaker program, furthermore, allows display of the data in a customized graphic of concentric circles and pie sections as shown in Figure 2. Each pie section indicates a real world sector of life: living environment, the employer and the industry sector.

The VennMaker graphic visually displays the relative density and connectedness of the network. It is also emphasizes where the network is underdeveloped or disconnected. Embeddedness is described as the extent to which economic action of businesses is embedded in social relations (Granovetter, 1985). Strong and weak ties (Granovetter, 1983) among nodes were investigated to map the social and professional environments of individuals (Schlunze et al., 2014; Schlunze & Plattner, 2007). Thus a given network's well and poorly developed areas sometimes emerged and these helped to support, by means of triangulation, the conclusions drawn from the interview and survey. In some cases interviewees were able to gain insights from the graphic and stated their intent to adjust their networks.

The interactions between the researcher and the interviewee helped to develop additional information about relationships and their importance which could be represented by lines of various thickness, color, and style. Nodes in the networks included individual actors, identified by gender, institutions, and informal groups, all represented by different icons.

TABLE 3   Two dimensional network matrix

	City	Country	International
Living space			
Workplace			
Broader market			

FIGURE 2 Example of VennMaker network map

In addition to the visually obvious data, VennMaker calculates betweenness, centrality, density including the central actor, and density without the central actor. Density refers to the percentage of all possible connections in a network that are complete (Kronenwett & Schönhuth, 2013); degrees of centrality refers to the number of total connections linked to a node (Hansen, Shneiderman, & Smith, 2011), in this case the interviewee; betweenness centrality refers to the ratio of paths to nodes on shortest route, with higher numbers indicative of greater importance in the network by dint of bridging clusters of nodes (Newman, 2004); The closeness centrality of the interviewee in the networks captured in this project is always 1, indicating a direct connection to the other nodes, because only information on direct contacts and not secondary contacts was collected. Such a network is referred to as a 1.5 degree network (Hansen et al., 2011).

3.9 Schemata for understanding cross cultural interaction

Schemata found in business negotiations were investigated in Baber and Ojala (2015) through a survey of Japanese and Finnish business actors and in Article

VI through the interviews conducted with North Americans. Schemata are the cognitive locus of cultural understanding and reaction, and so are considered the conceptual place where reactions, both verbal and behavioral, are launched. In order to investigate business negotiation schemata, literature (Baber, 2015b; Bazerman & Malhotra, 2007; Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992; DeMente, 2004; Lafley & Martin, 2013; Lax & Sebenius, 2006; Movius, Matsuura, Yan, & Kim, 2006; Salacuse, 1998) as well as interviews with the authors were reviewed and searched for schemata. Additionally, the experiences of the author and other informants were considered. Based on these academic, empirical, and informal sources, a catalog of schemata was developed which provided the basis of an online survey that captured preferences for and knowledge of schemata in business negotiation.

3.10 Panel for confirmation and further development in context

At the end of the research process a panel was held to share the knowledge gathered and express it in the systematized form of theory and practical implications. The panel included two individuals who had completed the survey, the VennMaker cognitive map, and multiple interviews. One other panel member had completed the survey, but not the interview process. The last panel member had not completed any of the processes. For these two individuals, the panel was their first interview.

For the two who had completed the entire process, the panel served as an additional opportunity to re-express or add nuance to any previous comments while listening in an open situation to the experiences of other expatriate managers. Part of the value of a panel session lies in the event itself, as participants may speak more, and more openly, than otherwise (Kidd & Parshall, 2000). Focus groups may promote openness by the participants because of the group dynamic (Freeman, 2006). Homogeneity of the group – all experienced business people from North America – may also boost the ability of the focus group to explain the larger population it represents (Freeman, 2006). A focus group tends to take control away from the researcher allowing for more authentic expression by participants (Chase, 2011). Ultimately, the panel event itself is part of the triangulation of findings among rich data that augment the panel, according to Kidd and Parshall (2000). The testimonies from the focus group may validate some findings from other members of the population investigated through surveys and interviews (Chase, 2011). Some best practices covered in the panel for this thesis are listed by Freeman (2006), such as creating homogeneity but avoiding a pre-existing group dynamic by selecting individuals who did not know each other and with no direct career overlap; gaining a high level of interaction; and including individuals with some knowledge of the meta conversation around the core topic due to their experience in the previous interviews.

4 OVERVIEW OF ARTICLES

4.1 Article I: Adjusting to a Distant Space: Cultural adjustment and interculturally fluent support

Research objectives

This article reviews the roles and impact of supporters around expatriate workers. Previous research has considered supporters such as spouses and mentors. However, no studies directly tackled the various kinds of cultural informants. The topic is important because it sheds light on the development of expatriate actors in the business community. These actors may be in the host country, Japan, for some years before they become embedded career-wise and socially, and become adept at managing the new workplace environment. Expatriates may gather information from a variety of sources, including other individuals, media, courses, and so on. However, cultural informants, provide insight and information in a personal and often timely manner. Cultural informants differentiate themselves from mentors in several respects, enumerated in the study. Most importantly, cultural informants are not career guides and may not even participate in the business world.

The context of this study is Japan and conclusions are drawn from structured interviews conducted with individuals from Australia, USA, Canada, UK, Germany, and Sweden. The location of this study is Japan, which is often presented in the literature as a difficult place for foreign managers to gain local knowledge and find success. This study presents data from interviews with foreign managers active in Japan including the cities and suburbs of Osaka, Kyoto, and Tokyo. The interviews highlight the presence or absence of interculturally fluent individuals in the adjustment process of the managers. Further, the interview data throw light on the mechanisms by which foreign managers adjust to a host country. Finally, the paper asks if individuals with high intercultural fluency may be a previously unrecognized resource for promoting management cultural adjustment.

Findings

Whereas mentors focus on career, cultural informants can provide information on any topic from managing in-laws to the workplace. The interculturally fluent informant is an informant who is highly experienced in the home and host work cultures. Thus the interculturally fluent informant is not a general supporter, but one that is keyed to business and the industry of the expatriate. These informants have to undergo a process themselves of observing and learning lessons about the workplace. These special informants are familiar with, at least generally, the laws, norms, and popular culture around the workplace. Because of their insight they become important for successful resolution of day to day work issues such as workplace humor, gender issues, conflict resolution, and the expectations of organizations. Cultural informants, especially those who are interculturally fluent, impact the development of an actor's business schemata.

The study identifies interculturally fluent informants as an important part of the ecosystem around adjusting expatriates. Further, the study characterizes them and how they support expatriates.

Summary and relation to the whole

In conclusion, this article sets the stage for the following investigations by focusing on the individual actor as the unit of study. Additionally this study represents the first collection of data in the overall cycle that will investigate business management schemata in Japanese and non-Japanese expatriates to various host countries. These data provided some insight into themes that were later repeated and developed in other interviews and in the triangulation efforts to understand issues in their context. Further, this paper develops insight into the process of change that goes on in business actors as they adjust, or fail to adjust, to the environment around them. This result positions the action of these informants in the third sequential phase of expatriate experience, in adjustment outcomes (Thomas, 1998). It is this action, the adjustment of expatriates, which is the main study target of this thesis. Accordingly, Article I in the thesis contributed to the author's intuition to investigate change in expatriates in cognition and behavior through the lens of adjustment. The article helped the author to examine core theory about adjustment from culture shock (Oberg, 1960) to acculturation strategies (Berry, 1997) to the process of outcomes (Thomas, 1998). The review of theories and consideration of data gathered led to presuppositions that the actor was an appropriate starting point to consider adjustment and change and led the author to join similarly minded researchers. Reviewing theory, creating and checking presuppositions, and continuing from there to hypotheses is part of the scientific process described as foundational analysis (Saariluoma, 1997).

4.2 Article II: Preferences and Intercultural Networking for Globalizing Practices of Successful Leaders in the Intercultural Workplace

Research objectives

The aim of this paper is to develop theory around the actions and successes of expatriate managers working in Japan. This single case study was chosen as a setting to investigate the issues deeply and apply analytical tools with the goal of understanding the case in its unique context while developing theory regarding expatriate managers. The study proposes two research questions. Both are specifically about the practices of the coleaders selected for this study. First, can leaders who share their information network and adjust their preferences innovate satisfactory solutions for their corporate organization? Second, whether leaders with a strong business vision can influence and motivate the actors within the organization.

The case was selected for its interesting content, a bicultural, co-leadership with a gestation period of about three decades. Multiple interviews over the course of two years allowed the researchers to construct earlier thinking in the joint career of the subjects. Research sessions included recorded workshops with students, several recorded interviews, and various informal encounters. Although the case is not a longitudinal case, it presents a historical path of development. Of the two managers, one is Japanese and the other French. They worked in the same sector meeting early in their careers while on assignment in Hong Kong. Their careers progressed at a similar pace and they remained in close contact sharing the deep tacit knowledge of their industry which can only be transmitted intensively in repeated encounters over time (Polanyi, 1966). Later in their careers one was offered the opportunity to conduct the turnaround of a Tokyo insurance company. He accepted only the condition that the other would be accepted as co-CEO, at full pay. Together they succeeded in the turn around, became co-CEOs of a large bank, and then semi-retired as co-internal auditors of the bank. This case represents an intrinsic case (Stake, 2005) because of its standout content in the field. The case became a proving ground for a four part triangulation (Stake, 2005) using interviews, survey instruments, network mapping and conjoint preference analysis. The conjoint preference analysis established priorities in preferences allowing the actors to be categorized.

Findings

It was possibly to categorize the actors based on their preference as supported by qualitative data. One leader is more locally embedded; the other is more globally networked. In these areas their networks complement each other and do not much overlap. Both leaders have global networks but with little overlap, thus they access independent sources of information. Their business success is

based also on their strong corporate vision – this is a tool for communication, leadership, and team support. In this last respect they reinforce each other rather complement. While their decision making process is complex, in the end they speak with one mind and share all decisions and responsibilities. Their joint leadership solution is a model for expatriate workers and corporations seeking to harness them.

This case reviews the history of the managers' 30 year joint career and therefore allows ample opportunity to detect change in cognition and behavior. Among these has been the joining of their decision making process, their adjustments in language, and innovative presentation of corporate vision through corporate governance and its communication.

Summary and relation to the whole

Summarizing, this study contributes to the thesis by showing how individuals change with experience and how they impact a company. The study adds to the knowledge about adjustment and acculturation by showing the uncommon but very successful strategy of long term alliance and cooperation between an expatriate and a local. The business schemata of this pair developed incrementally over the years based on inputs from their industry, experience, and home cultures. Additionally, the study shows a methodology suitable for understanding actors in Japan's internationalized business environment. This article is able to position the actors among typologies based on network development and work/life preferences, following in the footsteps of Schlunze and Plattner (2007).

4.3 Article III: Cognitive Change among Foreign Managers in Japan's IT Sector

Research objectives

The aim of this paper is first to identify changes in the style of individuals by reviewing their workplace thinking before and after their exposure to the business environment of Japan and second to determine the outcomes of their acculturation based on cognitive changes. Intuitive cognitive style refers to how one grasps a project overall and understands its elements in terms of their interrelationships. Two opposing cognitive styles proposed in the literature are analytical and holistic (Miyamoto, Nisbett, & Masuda, 2006; Nisbett, 2010). Analytical style describes one in which the viewer focuses on the individual elements rather than the whole. In a famous analogy, the analytical person prioritizes the fish in the pond and the holistic person sets equal value on the fish and the pond. Analytical conceptualization of large scale projects is more typically found in the West whereas holistic apprehension is more widespread in the East. The West and East are broadly divided based on their deep

philosophical influence from ancient times, the West following reductionist Aristotelian epistemology and the East following a synthesizing dialectical approach.

Comparing North American and Japanese management techniques that are respectively analytical or holistic and comparing them to an actor's choices while working in Japan allows systematic identification of changes in thinking. These individuals have either changed their cognition, or have accepted a different cognitive style.

The core research questions of this study are whether North American business managers can move from the analytic category of cognitive style into holistic, and whether there are positive or negative outcomes associated with cognitive change as evidenced by cognitive style. The outcomes of the study population were mapped to the work of Berry (1997) and Adler and Gundersen (2007).

Findings

Based on the responses of nine completed interviews from 76 individuals selected based on their experience from a population of 128, this survey found that most individuals had undergone cognitive change. Seven of the nine interviewees showed clear change based on their choice and application of management techniques. An additional finding is the status of those individuals in the acculturation outcomes proposed by Berry (1997) and Adler and Gundersen (2007).

Summary and relation to the whole

Finally, this paper adds to the overall thesis by outlining nine cases with completed in depth interviews. These cases can be systematized based on the acculturation outcomes of the actors. Further, this article positions the importance of cognitive changes in individuals working as expatriates. This is the first study to identify changes in cognition through systematic exploration of expatriate choices of management techniques. Previous studies in this thesis determined expatriate typologies based on their preferences and networking. This study introduces other taxonomies and is a step toward the addition of path dependent expatriate types later in the body of work. With a focus on management techniques and the high level cognition behind them, this study brings the thesis a step closer considering cognitive schemata as both the location and the unit of cultural adjustment and change.

4.4 Article IV: Looking Inside Japanese-Japanese Intracultural Business Negotiation

Research objectives

The aim of this study is to establish a baseline understanding of behaviors in Japanese business, especially business communication or negotiation. Without knowledge of these matters, comparisons to western or other non-Japanese management and communication practices cannot be made accurately. While some up to date material was previously available for business practices in general, no data was available regarding verbal business negotiations in the Japanese-Japanese context. Previous works about Japanese business practices took intercultural activity as their starting point, not intracultural communications. The goal of those works was primarily to communicate about foreigners, mainly western business people, dealing with Japanese. Some sources from the early 1990s continue to be cited in current academic and popular books on Japan. Even Japanese academics may refer to out of date non-Japanese sources, presenting it to local and foreign audiences as received wisdom.

This study therefore undertook a survey of Japanese business practitioners in order to learn what they observe in business meetings, normally closed door events that leave behind no records beyond the notes of the actors. The data generated in this study include observations by individuals and thus rely on the mass of respondents to report on the degree to which behaviors are used or not in current business discussions.

As the study population was primarily Japanese speaking, a Japanese language survey was deemed the most appropriate way to learn about this group. Outreach to the group was done via the social network, LinkedIn. This approach created a group of 80 respondents, superior to most studies assembled in the past. Of these, 46% were in top managerial positions, such as CEO and board members, with responsibility for strategic issues as opposed to operations. These individuals were active in various areas of business and were not restricted to one sector, allowing an overview of what can be broadly called business in Japan.

Findings

Findings from this paper reveal that some behaviors considered to be missing or uncommon among Japanese when in intercultural situations are quite commonly found in intracultural situations. Some of these behaviors are standards of non-academic business guides, for example that long silences are common, was not found to be true by Japanese among Japanese. Similarly, cunning surprises were widely reported in the West, but not by these Japanese business people. Thus the key overall finding is that Japanese behaviors among Japanese are not understood by foreign academics and business practitioners.

Further, the study found that participants in negotiations have different experiences based on their managerial rank and the position they take in a negotiation. An additional finding is methodological, namely that LinkedIn is a suitable medium for reaching Japanese business people in a survey based study.

Summary and relation to the whole

To conclude, this study establishes baseline info for behaviors in Japanese business negotiation. While this study does not directly discuss the cognition of the business people studies, it meshes with the following study which compares negotiation thinking among Japanese and Finnish business people. Some of the survey items in this study are echoed in the study on preferred overall thinking about negotiation. These items include collaborative thinking, win/lose compromising, emotions, and process preferences.

4.5 Article V: Cognitive Negotiation Schemata in the IT Industries of Japan and Finland

Research objectives

This research aims to present core negotiation approaches and link them to Finnish and Japanese negotiator knowledge. The purpose is to increase insight into negotiation approaches among negotiators and communication among IT sector business people. The approaches referred to are schemata, sets of thinking surrounding a concept. Schemata are not necessarily mutually exclusive; thus actors may activate more than one schema at a time. Further, different schemata may activate in different situations, allowing actors to switch as negotiations proceed. The research examined a small number of individuals from each culture group to determine the range of schemata they were familiar with and might use. The schemata presented were based on a thorough review of literature and informal discussions with business people from various cultures and industries. The individuals surveyed for the research were all active in the software/IT sector and included workers, managers, and founders.

Findings

Respondents from both culture groups were consistent in their rejection of the most aggressive bargaining schemata. This result came as a surprise to the researchers because as trainers, they had anecdotally found aggressive approaches to be common among professionals. The IT and software staff, however, appeared to take more gentle and relationship oriented approaches. Another surprise lay in the fact that there were few schemata with strong followings among both groups. Conversely, there were some schemata that were predominantly preferred by one group and not the other. Thus there appears to be a gap between the populations in experience and exercise of

negotiation approaches. While the IT and software world might be widely considered to be internationalized with high labor mobility, there were differences among the Finnish and Japanese groups investigated. No individual in the study had full knowledge of all schemata, indeed most were familiar only with four or five. Those individuals with higher decision making power in negotiations had access to more schemata. This finding may indicate the impact of cognitive change through position and exercise of decisions.

Summary and relation to the whole

Summarizing, this article links the business thinking of Finnish and Japanese business actors to the IT sector and thus to the cycle of interviews with North Americans. Cognitive schemata provide useful units for understanding how business people act and communicate in cross cultural contexts. As experience and knowledge increase, so cognitive schemata also increase in number. Any increase in complexity or ability to use the schemata well is not measured in this paper, but does surface in the final article.

4.6 Article VI: Schemata, Acculturation, and Cognition

Research objectives

This research aims to look inside the thinking and actions of individuals in a search for answers about acculturation and cognitive schemata in Japan's business world. The study population is limited to North Americans working in the IT sector in Japan. The experiences of eleven actors in the IT sector gathered through structured interviews and surveys reveal insights about this population. The cases include individuals with managerial experience except for one junior engineer (12J) and one senior engineer (12D). Two cases are business founders (12M and 12T) providing IT services. Only one (12L) has no engineering background and is active in IT sales, management, and business development. The activities of these individuals have been mainly in Tokyo with briefer experiences outside of the megalopolis. Taken together, these cases help to typify the experiences of US expatriate IT workers in Japan, although the emphasis here is on individual actors, not a generalized population. Case 12Q is contrastive, rather than confirming, as this actor's experience and actions are unlike those of the others interviewed in this project. The cases were assembled first through snowballing of the author's network, then through the online networking service, LinkedIn. The study shows evidence of adaptation of cognitive schemata. Selected cases including 12D, 12J, 12M and 12Q are summarized in the Appendix.

Findings

The study finds that some expatriates are able to use, reject, and adjust social schemas (Nishida, 1999) found in Japan's business world. In the process,

business schemata that individual actors change, sometimes incrementally or more broadly (Krueger, 2007) and in the process of tuning schemata (Anderson et al., 1981), and can be applied situationally creating business success for the actors. Some individuals in this study are able to use carefully adjusted schemata in tactical business situations to persuade, gain clients, and irritate opponents. Further, the study finds a metacognitive mechanism for cultural adjustment that functions through experience and repetition. The mechanism hones the accurate or adjusted use of schemata in business situations. The findings include a non-exhaustive catalog of schemata that expatriates working in Japan commonly encounter. Finally, the study proposes that the most successful entrepreneurs are able to adjust schemata in subtle ways to gain cultural competency which may lead to greater success in terms of gaining customers, partners, and promotions.

Summary and relation to the whole

To conclude, this study of eleven North American individuals in Japan's IT sector brings together the dominant themes of this thesis: acculturation, cognitive style, and schemata. It ties these themes directly to the data provided by individuals about their experiences and abilities. Further, the study connects theory to the day to day lives of expatriate workers. The rich detail of the interviews and surveys allows confident interpretation of the data and its link to theory.

4.7   About the joint articles

Article I. Sole author. The impetus for this article came from the work of Schlunze and Plattner (2007) on hybrid managers in Japan.

Article II. Joint author. The author participated in three workshops held at Ritsumeikan University and two formal interviews, in Tokyo and Kusatsu (Shiga Prefecture), and in several informal conversations with the individuals in the case study for the purpose of data collection. His work included a small role in interviewing, a larger role in interpreting the notes and recordings, and a large role in the writing of the article. The author developed the corporate governance graphics and confirmed these with the interviewees. Co-author R. Schlunze organized the workshops and led the theorizing as well as directed the interview content while the second author W. Ji led some of the interviews, supported the network mapping, and helped with the theorizing and interpretation.

Article III. Sole author. The idea for this study came from the author.

Article IV. Sole author. The idea and research design and analysis came from the author.

Article V. Joint author. The author was the primary developer of the survey instrument and received improvements and inputs from the co-author, A. Ojala. The author managed the outreach to potential respondents and data collection, conducted the analysis of data (with some input from A. Ojala) led the literature search and writing of the literature review regarding negotiation and Japanese business practices. The co-author helped connect the paper conceptually to the IT industry.

Article VI. Joint author. The author developed the guided interview, identified interviewees, scheduled, completed various survey instruments with them, and wrote up the cases. The co-author supported the analysis and production of the paper. The author joined in some interviews by co-researchers as clarified in Table 4.

TABLE 4   Interview cooperation

Code	Country of Origin	Co-researcher
12B	US	–
12C	US	–
12D	US	–
12E	US	–
12F	Canadian	–
12G	US	–
12H	US	–
12I	Australian	R. Schlunze
12J	Canadian	–
12K	US	–
12L	US	–
12M	US	–
12P	US-Japanese	–
12Q	Canadian	–
12R-JH	US	R. Schlunze
12S-DN	US	R. Schlunze
12T	US	R. Schlunze
Mr. F Mr. J	French, Japanese	R. Schlunze, W.W. Ji
A	Australian	–
C	US	–
D	German	–
E	Canadian	–
F	Swedish	R. Schlunze
G	UK	R. Schlunze

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The case numbering appearing in this thesis follows the cases as they were investigated. The initial case was 12B, the process having started in 2012. Thereafter the numbering proceeded from 12B to 12Q despite interviews occurring in subsequent years. The original numbering system is retained, however, in order to better relate to presentations and articles using the same numbering system. In this way confusion can be minimized for readers. Cases 12D, 12E, 12J, 12L, 12M, and 12Q are summarized in the Appendix.

The six articles of this thesis relate to each other as shown in Figure 3. Each article supports one more of the three main topic areas of the thesis: Japan and contrasts between Japan and other cultures; adjustment and acculturation of individual actors to new cultures; and outcomes of cultural change in the context of the cognition of actors. Figure 3 shows the material each covered by article, namely the "what" or "how" of the cultures, acculturations, and thinking.
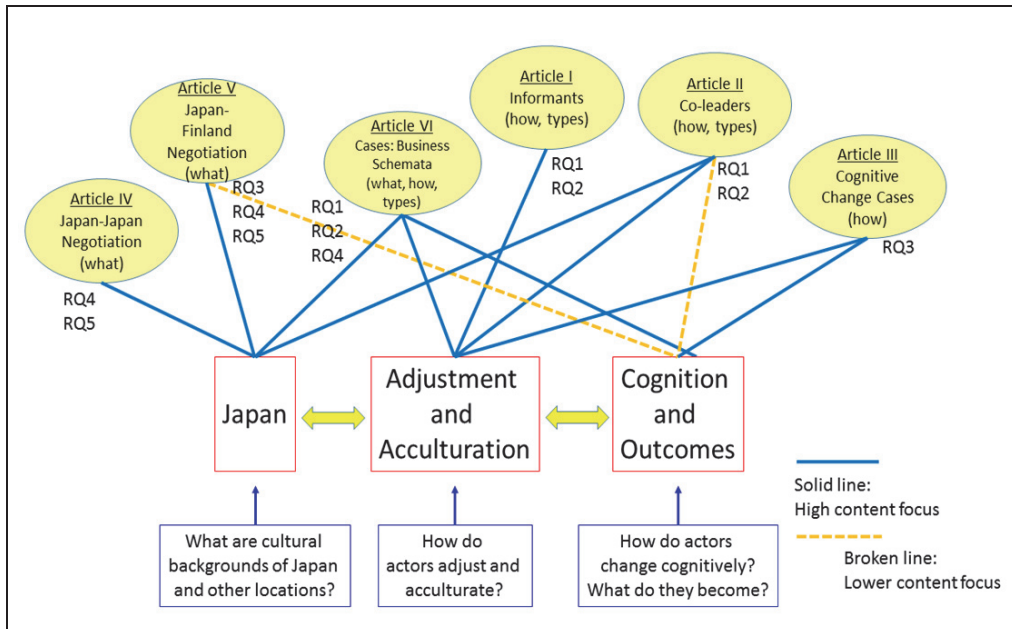
FIGURE 3   Relationships among the included articles

5 CONCLUSIONS AND FURTHER STUDY

This dissertation investigates North American IT workers in Japan and how they change in the host work environment. The findings in this dissertation give rise to several theoretical contributions and practical implications which are discussed below. Finally, limitations of this thesis are examined and follow up research is considered.

5.1 Theoretical contributions

The thesis adds to theories regarding cultural adjustment and acculturation, specifically hybrid expatriates and the acculturation outcomes of Berry (1997) and Schlunze and Plattner (2007). It also contributes to theory around East/West cognition differences (Miyamoto et al., 2006; Nisbett, 2010). Additional contributions are made to negotiation with respect to schemata (Beamer, 1995; Deci & Ryan, 2000; Nishida, 1999) and their presence in different populations. Schemata theory is expanded with respect to negotiation and business approaches in particular the acceptance, rejection, and adjustment of business schemata common to Japan's business world.

5.1.1 Cultural adjustment

The first article of this thesis contributes to the theory of cultural adjustment around hybrid managers, firstly highlighting the importance of the cultural informant, and secondly identifying second the role of especially efficacious interculturally fluent informants (Baber, 2012). These last individuals are highly capable specifically in the work world where they can bridge the knowledge gap between professional workers in home and host country with high competency.

Article II of this thesis addresses the long genesis of two hybrid managers who became coleaders as a consequence of their joint experiences and

development. They extended their hybrid ability as individual actors to encompass the boards of the companies they managed as co-CEOs, creating hybrid organizations. Their process and outcomes add to the understanding of acculturation in the business context of Japan (Schlunze et al., 2014). This is the only study on coleaders as bicultural hybrids. Article III of this thesis, Baber (2015a), identifies types of expatriate managers based on Berry's (1997) acculturation outcomes and synergy (Adler & Gundersen, 2007). This article adds to the understanding of acculturation of Western expatriates in the business context of Japan and to the understanding of cognition among these expatriates. The sixth article comprising this thesis identifies a metacognitive mechanism by which expatriates learn how to use and apply business schemata appropriately in a host country. This article also demonstrates that the appropriate use, adjustment, and rejection of schemata is a component of the success of high achieving expatriates.

Two new types of expatriates are identified and characterized in the not yet published material of this thesis, Restarter and Maverick, represented by cases 12D and 12Q respectively. The Restarter shows resilience despite bad experiences and even setbacks such as repatriation. The Restarter reviewed in this study achieved greater job satisfaction as well as a stronger network and preferred living situation, after an interim period in his home country. Characterized by his path that leads from Assimilation to Marginalization to Integration in the terminology of Berry (1997), the Restarter is further hallmarked by high CQ motivation. The Maverick is also characterized by a path winding among different acculturation outcomes, in this case from integration to separation. Furthermore, the Maverick is characterized by low motivational CQ. The Maverick's preferred behavior is not to participate harmoniously with the group, but to retain his independence even if this requires the intentional irritation of the employer or team. These new types are characterized by motivation determined by the CQ instrument of Ang et al. (2007) and their path through more than one of the Berry (1997) acculturation outcomes as seen in Figure 4.
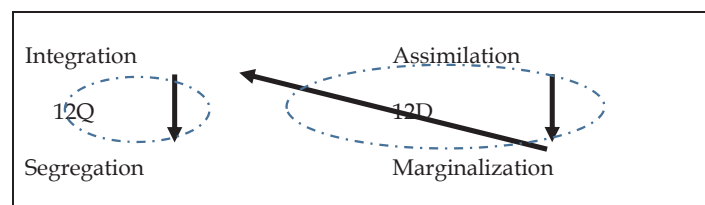
FIGURE 4   Paths of 12D (Restarter) and 12Q (Maverick), Berry (1997) acculturation
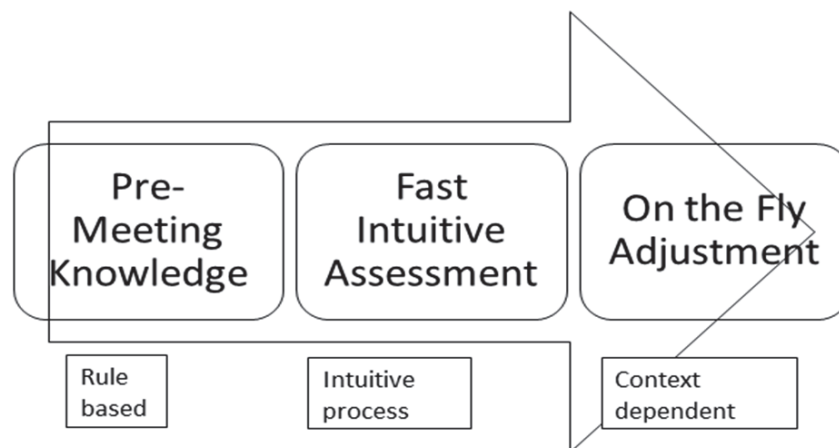
FIGURE 5   Analytical intuitive metacognition

This study finds that change in cognitive style can be linked to double loop learning (Argyris, 2002) and thus to learning. Expatriates are sometimes able to synthesize management techniques that are largely analytic in nature from their original North American culture with management techniques that are holistic in nature and more aligned with Japanese approaches. Such synthesis is not the result of incremental learning or change, but of a deeper understanding that overturns a core understanding or creates a new one.

The study also finds a theoretical model for a switching mechanism with regard to cognitive style. Some expatriates are able to move from prepared knowledge to an assessment mode, and to adjust at the moment of interaction with host country nationals. These expatriates switch from analytical to holistic (Nisbett, 2010) and fast intuitive thinking (Kahneman, 2011) as necessary, see Figure 5.

5.1.2   Cognitive Style

Among expatriates, some individuals have accepted a different cognitive style, moving from analytical to holistic approaches in business management techniques as described in Article III of this thesis. Article VI shows how expatriate business actors accept, reject and adjust business schemata that are representative of Japan's often holistic cognitive style. The identified schemata included relatively simple Japanese role and context schemata as well as complex strategy schemata for negotiation.

5.1.3 Schemata

Theory around cognitive schemata is expanded in Article II, Schlunze et al. (2014), by addressing the role of corporate governance as an overall schema for business thinking as well as a schema for internal communication and organization of the business. The depiction of that cognitive schema for communication, developed in the case study and depicted in graphic form, shows a top to bottom communication with participation at all levels.

A further contribution regarding theory around schemata, or social interaction schemas (sic) (Nishida, 1999) in business, and particularly in negotiation, is that schemata are not shared equally among different populations (Baber & Ojala, 2015). Baber and Ojala (2015), taking schemata as a unit of study following Dimaggio (1997), showed that Finnish business negotiators in the IT sector had greater flexibility than their Japanese counterparts in accessing and selecting schemata. Moreover, some schemata that appeared frequently in the Finnish population were absent in the other population. Finally, Baber and Ojala (2015) showed that the number of schemata appears to increase with the frequency with which an actor participates in negotiations. Thus, it may be possible to predict a negotiator's skill not by role or age or business function, but by the actor's frequency of participation. Finally, various business schemata were shown to be adjustable by expatriate actors working in Japan in Article VI of this thesis. Business people are able not only to appropriate schemata that they encounter as new in a host culture, they are also able to reject and change schemata to meet their ends.

The process of adjustment, application or rejection of a schema is shown in Figure 6. The graphic shows a dual decision process in which the first decision is to accept or reject a schema and the second is either to adjust or apply it as is or to be demotivated and quit interacting with the schema or, if motivated, to learn more about it. Unless the actor is demotivated with regard to the schema, there is no end to the loop and learning, adjusting, and applying may continue throughout the actor's life. Previous work found that critical incidents may result in awareness and change to a schema (Chang, 2009), however this current work points out the double decision point and iterative nature of the process as well as the exit from the process that results in no development due to lack of motivation. For example, upon experiencing a mild earthquake in Tokyo, an expatriate from a non-seismic area might look to coworkers for guidance. Seeing their lack of concern and thereby gaining awareness of their mild earthquake schema, the expatriate might accept or reject it. If accepting it, the actor might apply the schema and continue working or adjust the schema then apply it by edging toward the exit. Alternatively the actor might reject that schema and flee, later to either feel motivated and learn about responses considered appropriate or feel unmotivated to learn and continue to flee in the future. Because the loop continues indefinitely, the actor can use or change the schema frequently or, having quit, later feel motivated to learn and re-enter the loop.
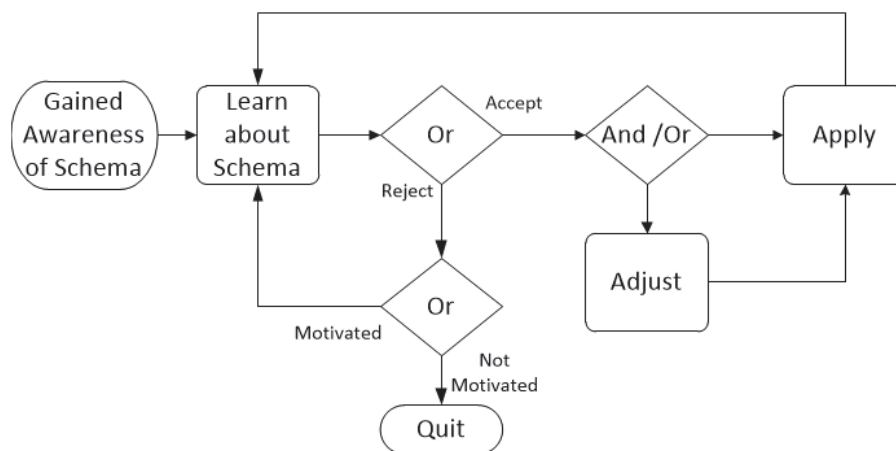
FIGURE 6   Schemata Learning, Adjustment, and Application (Baber & Ojala, n.d.)

The schemata of a business person are the locus of changes in cognition and changes in the assembly of knowledge and sense making. The schemata are the tools which actors use in the host culture to cooperate, win, and build business success. Schemata and the evolution of their contents have not previously been considered for cross cultural and acculturation studies. This thesis shows that schemata, managing schemata, understanding them, and adjusting them are potentially vital to the success of an expatriate worker.

5.1.4   Negotiation

Contributions to negotiation theory include those around schemata mentioned above as well as a refreshed understanding of the behaviors present in Japanese-Japanese business negotiations as shown in Article IV in this thesis. The same article also presents evidence that the experiences of actors in negotiations differ based on their rank in the company and their role in the negotiation, somewhat refuting the notion of harmonious teamwork in Japanese businesses, at least with regard to negotiation. A further contribution to negotiation theory is that Japanese negotiators may be at a loss regarding some schemata that are common among European negotiators such as quid-pro-quo exchanges, as found in Baber and Ojala (2015). Lastly, Article VI of this thesis shows that negotiation ability has an impact on the success of an actor's business or career.

5.1.5   Summary of contributions

Table 5 summarizes the contributions made by the articles to various areas of theory.

TABLE 5 Contributions to theory

Theory area	Article	Contribution
Cultural Adjustment	I	Hybrid managers
	I	Refinement of the definition of cultural informants
	I	Delineation between cultural informants and mentors
	I	Definition and role of interculturally fluent informants
	II	Synergy of networks as well as cultures
	II	Extension of hybrid management from individuals to the corporate board
	II	Hybrid managers in a co-leadership situation
	III	Connection between cognitive change and acculturation outcomes
	VI	Typologies of expatriate managers
Cognitive Style	II	Change and adaptation from original culture to that of partner and to synergize culture
	III	Change of cognitive style in context of Japan and North American IT workers
	VI	Change and development of actor's style
Schemata	II	Business thinking from a corporate governance approach
	II	Corporate governance schemata as the basis for communication of business vision
	V	Schemata are shared unequally or not at all among Japanese and foreign (Finnish) business people
	V	Actors with more frequent negotiation interactions had more schemata
	V	Finnish negotiators were highly flexible about using and accessing schemata
	VI	Schemata regarding business and negotiation in Japan were revealed along with adjustment of the schemata
	VI	Model for adjusting a schema based on actor's decisions and motivation
Negotiation	IV	Preferred negotiation behaviors in the Japanese context
	V	Finnish negotiators may have a greater range of choices in action and schemata
	VI	Impact on business and career success
Metacognitive	II	Awareness of mutual mechanism for decision making process
	V	Negotiation schemata are metacognitive frameworks for action
	VI	Selecting and adjusting schemata

This thesis is about individuals and their thinking in a foreign workplace. Specifically the research covers North American IT expatriates in Japan. These individuals are not "expense account" expatriates dispatched from HQ; all those interviewed and surveyed for this thesis were hired or founded their businesses locally. The research questions of the thesis address the ways in which they adjust, acculturate, succeed, and the role in those processes of the cognitive styles they employ. Workplaces in Japan are locations in which expatriates forge their futures as they adjust their cross cultural behavior and cognition. The adjustments incorporate information from supporters (Baber, 2012), close associates and business strategies (Schlunze et al., 2014), and entails changes in thinking and acting as examined in Baber and Ojala (2015), Baber (2015a) and Article VI of this thesis (Baber & Ojala, n.d.). Negotiation as well as other cognitive schemata around business are the keys that expatriate workers in Japan use to unlock business success as well as to promote and defend their individual skills and goals. The as yet unpublished material of the thesis digs deeper into the typology of expatriate workers in Japan characterizing two new types and identifying their acculturation paths. In total, the thesis develops a picture of expatriate workers in IT in Japan who are self-aware, capable of change in the scale of years and from moment to moment as they adjust to Japan and adjust Japanese business schemata to their own ends. Further study is needed to know if expatriates in other host countries are similarly able to use and adjust schemata in their business and personal environments. While the schemata in various locations will likely vary, as they do between North America and Japan, the need to learn schemata, use, and adjust them may extend across the world. Therefore recognizing how schemata can impact performance and behavior choices will be of interest and importance to expatriate workers and their managers in many locations.

5.1.6   Responses to research questions

The research questions that drive this thesis are answered through the articles and research. An overview is provided here.

RQ1 Acculturation and development of hybrid managers
- How do hybrid managers develop?
- Can elements of their development be described?

Articles I, II, and VI show how hybrid managers develop overtime with deepening experience in working and living environments as well as through close contact with a variety of cultural informants. Article VI reveals the process of repeatedly attempting and assessing the results of using business schemata to gain cultural competency and business success.

RQ2 Expatriate manager typology
- Are there more kinds of expatriate manager than already described by the literature?
- To what extent can they be characterized by experience, ability, attitude, and so on?

Article II addresses hybrid-coleaders illustrating how two people develop a close bond and mutually complementary and overlapping work style to create synergies and business successes. Unpublished data suggests that pathways of development, whether successful or not, can lead to hybrid managers or other types of expatriate managers. The unpublished data of this thesis finds two new expatriate manager types, the Restarter and the Maverick.

RQ3 Cognitive styles, change, and switching
- Do differences in cognitive style play a role in the management experiences and choices of expatriates?
- Do managers change and can they switch?
- If they switch, what are the metacognitive mechanisms involved?

Article III shows that cognitive style differentiates behavior and management techniques, and also that managers can switch management styles or synthesize new ones. Article VI sets out a metacognitive mechanism for learning to use and to adjust management techniques or schemata as expatriates gain experience. An additional mechanism is explored in the unpublished data and suggests that there is a two-step, intuitive then analytical, decision making mechanism that expatriates use in order to assess individuals and situations and choose appropriate behavior.

RQ4 Cognitive schemata
- What cognitive schemata for business do people from differing backgrounds carry with them?
- Are they similar, the same or different?
- What is the role of schemata in the development and ability of expatriates and their cognition?

Articles IV, V, and VI identify behaviors and schemata among non-expatriate and expatriate populations to develop a starting catalog of business schemata that are used, adjusted and rejected in order for expatriates to achieve their goals. Article V compares the schemata of Japanese and Finnish people finding that some are common to both groups but others are not. Article VI and the unpublished material show that schemata are the locus of change as individuals gain experience and apply new understanding to use or adjust schemata in the work environment.

RQ5 Negotiation
- How does negotiation play a role in expatriate success and acculturation?
- Are there differences in negotiation approaches in Japan compared to other cultures?

Article II demonstrates that negotiation skills, especially when host and home country skills are applied, have an impact on individual success. One interviewee, 12H, indicated that changing negotiation skills inside Japan caused him to adjust his approach from the Bubble Economy era (late 1980s to the early 1990s) as the Lost Decades (early 1990s to the Abe administration) progressed.

5.2 Contributions to practice

Some implications can be drawn from this thesis to the benefit of business practitioners working in Japan and for HR managers in particular. One of these implications is that hybrid expatriates are to be sought after for their strong local and overseas networks, high language ability, high ability to negotiate their needs, and ability to bridge communication and practice between home and host country. In particular, this last item suggests that hybrids are lower in liability regarding changeable workplace issues such as harassment and employee retention.

A further implication regarding hybrid expatriate workers is that because they develop over time through a process of working and coping as rank and file it may be that individuals likely to become hybrids can be selected and developed intentionally over the course of some years. Individuals with some hybrid characteristics, once trained and encouraged to develop other defining characteristics, could provide significant returns on investment by improving internal communication, enhancing boundary spanning activities, and decreasing the disruption associated with non-hybrid expatriates. Further study should attempt to determine the relative costs and benefits of hybrid employees versus expatriates and local hires.

One implication that seems challenging but could have long lasting impact is the potential of attempting to reproduce the close working partnership of pairs such as the French-Japanese one described in Article II (Schlunze et al., 2014). Such a partnership takes years to develop, thus the selection of individuals should be done carefully. The individuals should be developed in similar and complementary areas and, following the study pair, be co-located for the long term. Such coleaders arrive at remarkable abilities, as the Japanese partner put it in an interview, "We didn't divide responsibilities, his responsibility is my responsibility, and my responsibility is his responsibility. [The] brain can be divided into right and left side, but we didn't divide." This statement indicates their ability to form joint decisions on complex issues based on the reinforcement and complementariness of their various skills.

A further implication for HR managers is to attempt the restart of promising expatriates whose careers have become stuck. The case of 12D (see Appendix) is one in which a re-energized individual improved his network, skills, and then made a positive impact on the company. The turnaround that this individual experienced suggests that others may be able to benefit from some aspects of his path.

Implications for IT workers include the need for self awareness when working in Japan regarding behavior and thinking. Typical North American schemata about ownership of ideas, effecting changes in the employing organization, confrontation, decision making, and personal interactions must be adjusted in Japan. With regard to home and host cultures other than Japan and North America, expatriate workers need to know and perhaps be trained regarding their home country business schemata so that they can recognize new or differing ones; sojourning workers must be ready to face and cope with schemata that are different from those they know in their home culture. In practical terms, expatriates in Japan should identify and understand a full range of schemata in their home country and compare them to the schemata of similar situations in Japan. Knowledge of schemata, especially those that are substantially different or wholly unfamiliar may boost success in business and communication. Because no such catalogs currently exist, expatriates need to read and observe carefully in order learn successfully. Moreover IT expatriate workers must be ready to adjust standard Japanese schemata to suit their own purposes. This can result from observing, rejecting, accepting, adjusting, and learning about them. To this end, these actors will have to improve their metacognitive skills in order to develop sources of information such as mentors, cultural informants, reading, training, and observation. Practical advice to expatriates working in Japan is to develop extensive networks locally of professional and private life contacts who have cross cultural and or business experience. These networks appear to support acculturation and cross cultural competence. Within those networks, the expatriate should include one or more individuals who are highly fluent in home and host cultures as they can make important contributions. Partners, especially those who become cross cultural coleaders can lead to high levels of success, particularly in management. In addition to awareness and knowledge of schemata, expatriates should be aware of the potential to subtly adjust or manipulate those schemata in order to develop and refine their own success strategies.

5.3   For further study

Despite reaching theoretical saturation during the Grounded Theory approach, it is possible for new ideas or research threads to appear through the ongoing collection of data. Thus additional, albeit more targeted, data collection should continue.

The various schemata around conducting business, managing people, interacting and negotiating, and interpreting incidents outside of the workplace present an avenue of further investigation. As the individual gathers experiences and analyses the interpretations of those experiences, this thesis shows that they improve their ability to apply and manipulate schemata. Follow up investigation of the facility and success with which individuals apply and manipulate schemata could lead to greater insights into cross cultural competency, training, and acculturation.

Another avenue for further investigation is the change in schemata experienced by co-workers and decision makers in Japan due to their interactions with foreign workers. A focus on schemata might lead to a greater degree of knowledge about the personal process of globalization of thinking as well as policy creation at the corporate level. Of practical value in such an investigation would be catalogs of widely used schemata related to business in countries that serve as host and home cultures as well as advice on employing and adjusting those schemata.

YHTEENVETO (SUMMARY IN FINNISH)

Tässä väitöskirjassa tutkitaan Japanissa työskentelevien ulkomaisten IT-työntekijöiden sopeutumista paikalliseen kulttuuriin ja toimintaa työpaikalla ja liikeneuvotteluissa. Tiedonkeruumenetelmiksi valittiin yksittäisten toimijoiden tapaustutkimukset ja niitä tukevat kyselyt. Tavoitteena oli tutkia ulkomaalaisten kehittymistä Japanissa sekä heidän kykyään muokata, hyväksyä ja hylätä liiketoimintajohtamisen tilanteisiin liittyviä skeemoja. Tutkimuksen kohteeksi valittiin yksittäisiä henkilöitä, koska he ovat tärkeimpiä yritysten taloudelliseen kohtaloon vaikuttavia tekijöitä. Tutkimuksen painopisteeksi valittiin loppupuolen artikkeleissa skeemat, koska ne ovat koti- ja isäntämaan kulttuuria koskevan tiedon kognitiivinen sijaintipaikka ja niitä tarvitaan, kun toimijat päättävät toimistaan ja strategioistaan.

Yksi tärkeistä löydöksistä on, että rajat ylittävän liiketoimintajohtamisen taitajilla ja menestyjillä on oppainaan ja tukijoinaan paitsi kulttuurisia tiedonantajia, myös sujuvasti eri kulttuurien välillä luovivia henkilöitä. Lisäksi hybridijohtajat voivat ulottaa hybridirakenteita yrityksen sisäisiin organisaatioihin ja synergisoida sekä verkostot että taidot. Kulttuuriin sopeutumisessa jotkut kehittyvät aiemmassa kulttuurien välisessä työssä tunnistettujen vaiheiden kautta niin pitkälle, että syntyy uusia, aiemmin tunnistamattomia ekspatriaattityyppejä. Neuvotteluihin, liiketoimintajohtamiseen ja työpaikan arkikäytäntöihin liittyvien skeemojen avulla eri kulttuureista tulevat johtajat voivat vertailla tietämystään, toimintatapojaan ja kykyjään. Tässä väitöskirjassa tutkitut erittäin menestyksekkäät toimijat pystyivät aktivoimaan koti- ja isäntämaan kulttuuriin liittyviä skeemoja sekä yhdistelemään niitä haluttujen tulosten saavuttamiseksi.

Kaiken kaikkiaan väitöskirja osoittaa, että Japanin IT-maisemassa liiketoimintaa harjoittavat toimijat voivat sopeutua japanilaiseen kulttuuriin varsin menestyksekkäästi ja oppia toimimaan liiketoimintaympäristössä, joka eroaa suuresti heidän pohjoisamerikkalaisten ja eurooppalaisten kotimaidensa ympäristöistä. IT-liiketoimijoita ja heidän ajatteluaan koskevien löydösten ja johtopäätösten esittelyn lisäksi väitöskirja ehdottaa jalostettua päätöksentekomallia skeemoista ja niiden kehittymisestä toimijan kokemusten karttuessa.

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APPENDIX

Cases considered most important to the thesis are briefly outlined here. A table outlining all cases follows.

12D Stalled and restarted

The individual code-named 12D participated in a lengthy face to face in-depth interview, with an in-person follow-up about a year later. In addition few email exchanges and brief Skype sessions were conducted in the interim. This individual experienced two working stays in Japan lasting about 8 years and 5 years respectively, to date. The information covering the first part of his sojourn is, therefore, retrospective; the information concerning the second part of his stay is contemporary to the time of the interview. The first work period in Japan started before the fiscal crisis that came to a head in 2008-2009, and ended in 2009. During his first sojourn, 12D worked in various companies mostly outside Tokyo, starting in Shikoku. Shikoku is Japan's smallest main island and has remained off the beaten track for most foreigners; it has been in long slow economic decline since the end of the Bubble Era (early 1990s). He was the first foreigner to work for the company and one of the few foreigners living long-term in the area. Describing it in the late 90s he said, "And it's Shikoku right? So it's... it's a little bit, a little bit weird." He referred to the company as "very old school." Adjustment is considered to be satisfaction with the person-environment relationship; these statements indicate some dissatisfaction with work and life in Shikoku.

At that company, his daily life was focused almost entirely on the firm. Hours were long, typical for Japanese workers, and after-hours drinking and meals were the norm, including visits to hostess bars, partly in compensation for a relatively low salary. In those days, 12D mostly concentrated on his work and did not mind the hours spent in a relatively lonely situation. His Japanese language skills developed only to a moderate degree despite being in a remote area. His spouse was with him and working as a language teacher in the JET program so he did experience on-going English language interaction.

Shikoku did bring some benefits, in particular being able to learn about Japanese culture, the country's systems in general and the corporate environment. His statements indicate some motivation to learn about Japan and he contrasts this to the attitude of other expatriates who, he believes, may not care at all. Unlike them, he says, "I tend to care." This statement is not very strong and was made years later.

Some of his learning experiences in Shikoku and the first years in Tokyo were not always positive. He found Japanese organizations, large and small, domestic or international, to be very siloed. There was a pretense of worker equality but he found that upper middle management (*bucho*) level, really made

the decisions. In his perception, consensus decision making was mere appearance and not the reality. Similarly while there was often hard work and usually long hours, there was also some pretense of hard work. He found systemic controls lacking, so while there were low crime and mistake rates, problems occurred that would not have been possible in a US organization. These learning experiences were sometimes positive or negative, but did not include critical events.

Eventually he left to work in Tokyo for another Japanese company. In Tokyo he worked for a series of companies for relatively short periods, neither building up a network of Japanese contacts nor a strong expatriate network. He found software development specifications to be quite detailed, better than in the US where he had previously worked for large companies including sophisticated defense industry leaders.

Working in Tokyo he faced some negative intercultural interactions, and critical learning experiences that were strongly negative. In general he had "noticed non-hostile racism"; for example finding that no one would sit next to him, a visibly foreign person, on trains that were otherwise overfilled. He was later the victim of more serious racism in the workplace. At one major company, a manager with authority over the IT team who were mostly non-Japanese, took many opportunities to harass the group. This hazing took the form of sudden schedule changes, missing authorizations, countermanding orders. It took a few months to really confirm the actions at the time, and a few years later a former co-worker reported that this manager had in a high-level meeting said the Japanese equivalent of "I fucking hate those foreigners." During the economic crisis the company fired the non-Japanese workers first, before dismissing almost all of the IT staff.

At this juncture 12D returned to the US with his spouse. In the US they reconnected with friends and found new interest in politics. After the economy recovered and hiring picked up, they decided to make another go of it in Japan. The spouse opened a wine bar restaurant in Tokyo and he also worked in the area. This time the experience was quite different. He maintained his political interests by joining Democrats Abroad (again: "an expatriate political grouping") and connecting with US military alumni in Japan. Additionally he became involved with software-related groups such as BARcamps and became a founder of a Tokyo Hacker Space.

With his networks far more/better developed and his CQ motivation increased, he was able shortly after our first interview to move into the lead technical position of a small IT company where he has remained three years at time of writing with high levels of satisfaction. His adjustment, in terms of satisfaction with his person-environment relationship is stronger than ever in his Japan experience, and he is more connected than ever before.

12E Dissatisfaction

The story that 12E lays out is one of dissatisfaction and irritation. This interview was completed by Skype as the individual was in California, having left Japan a few years before. He spent a total of about 8 years in Japan. He learned some Japanese but did not become very proficient. Two of his employers, out of a total of three, were undertaking major IT redevelopment driven by a CTO.

He found that other than the CTO, however, there was considerable direct and indirect resistance to change. He was aware of resistance among rank and file and middle management, driven by complacency as well as a dislike of having IT developed by foreigners. In one company he experienced somewhat threatening behavior by managers, as well as active undermining (of his role) by the sales managers. Discovering this overt resistance was critical in his mind. He also experienced additional stress in the workplace environment. During his time there he did not adjust his workstyle to Japanese office behavior, and did not find that life and work became easier with time. He did, however, learn to gain information by joining drinking sessions at which important questions could be broached informally. He felt effective at managing a team of foreigners, but did not gain business satisfaction from it. His satisfaction with the personal environment, especially in his last workplace, was very low. That assessment included Japanese staff and management as well as physical space. He found particularly annoying the workstyle of Japanese who would have low hourly productivity but stay very late. Even then he considered that they were ineffective and inefficient, citing an example where his team quickly accomplished a challenging Basel II design and implementation that the company's Japanese team had failed at for half a year. In particular, the last employer kept the IT team in a restricted space full of monitors and equipment that the team referred to as the cave: "It was an intimidating space" he reports. Eventually he left Japan, willingly accepting a buyout offer. His approach to managing in Japan, if he were to return, would be to tackle change-resistance head on, rather than accepting a position that did not have high commitment from the organization.

12J Aiming for assimilation

This software engineer studied in Canada, worked a few years in Silicon Valley and came to Tokyo where he had been less than five years at the time of the interviews. His experience here has been moderately satisfying. To some extent he has abandoned the thinking of western management and workers. For example he expected to receive credit for his ideas and good work, but came to accept that ideas and successes belong to the group. Thus when he presents his managers with an innovation or engineering idea he is not upset that the idea may disappear for some weeks before resurfacing in a meeting with no

attribution to him. He does feel some unfairness, even frustration, on behalf of his fellow employees, some of whom he considers excellent engineers, but who do not get recognition or benefit from their skills. Meanwhile, he notes that others do much lower quality work but enjoy the same benefits. He is able to act autonomously and approves of the office atmosphere in general. He makes an effort to learn Japanese and to build relationships with co-workers and managers. He appears sensitive to Japanese behavior and styles of interaction and willing to conform to expected norms. In short he is making an effort to assimilate and he feels comfortable with the process and the potential outcomes – a good job in a city that is comfortable to live in. He indicates a clear preference for Tokyo in climate, lifestyle, opportunities, and other areas in comparison to his experiences in Canada and Silicon Valley.

On the other hand 12J has found some jarring notes in the Tokyo harmony of the workscape. He finds that the organization is very slow to move or change, like a ship, it can only be turned bit by bit. Nonetheless he is willing to help budge the ship along. More disturbing to him is the distance management keeps from product development and customer experience. These issues he considers vital, yet he understands that management will not change in this respect. He also notes that he has no particular success in negotiating his goals. Despite these negative notes, his CQ is high including his motivational CQ and he is comfortable with his situation and near term future. He shows clear intent to assimilate and become part of the company's team and the Tokyo work world.

12L Up the ladder

This individual first came to Japan as military staff in his 20s. After returning to the USA and completing his service he decided to seek work in Japan, a place he had positive memories of and where he had gained some language skills. He was able to find work and has remained in Japan with the same company for about 20 years, despite mergers. He describes his Japanese skills as not very strong, nonetheless they are more than sufficient for his technically demanding job. He conducts his work in Japanese and English and frequently speaks with co-workers and counterparties both inside and outside Japan. He has become a logistics specialist and is now a leading figure in the Tokyo branch of this large multinational.

Early in his career in Japan, he faced a critical learning experience as the result of an error that led to a loss of approximately $100,000 to the group. Upon discovering his error, he expected to be fired. His superior however chose Japanese management approaches instead of standard Western approaches. In practice that meant training instead of firing, protecting instead of punishing, and developing the individual as a long-term human resource instead of replacing with already-skilled staff. Even though he had only been with the group briefly, he experienced the benefit of being part of the in-group. The error

was distributed over multiple months instead of appearing in a block and the superior deflected attention from upper management.

In the years since then, both 12L and his superior have risen in the organization and changed roles. Nonetheless they keep in touch and share experiences from time to time. From working entirely inside the domestic subsidiary, 12L has evolved to take on an important position connecting the Japan operation with foreign suppliers and customers, as well as bridging the gap between HQ in North America and Tokyo. As a result, his network in the corporate entity and his network in the strategic value change have become complex and deep-reaching. He connects with legal specialists in places such as Hong Kong and Singapore, as well as at HQ. He accesses customs offices and consultants around the region, and can resolve technical issues relating to import and export. In his work he often negotiates in Japanese with Japanese individuals with satisfying results. When negotiating with HQ he finds the situation much more difficult because of expectations about negotiating as well as about the outcomes. His approach is often to spend additional time explaining the purpose and goal of HQ demands to Japanese management. On the flip side, he often has to negotiate for extra time from HQ in order to accomplish tasks that they mistakenly consider to be matters of simple execution in Japan.

Striking is the fact that 12L has not had a strong mentor in the organization to support his career progress. While he keeps in touch with his original manager, that person does not wield significant power in the organization. He also does not have a single strong cultural informant who can explain to him about Japanese life or business. Thus, 12L appears to be a largely self-made success. Without a mentor he forms his own strategic career ideas and at the time of the interviews was considering certifications and university courses to improve his qualifications.

The results of his CQ survey reveal that his metacognitive score (how to gain knowledge about Japan), his behavior score (how to behave), and his motivation score (urge to learn) were higher than his cognitive score (which indicates the quantitative extent of his knowledge). The reason for this lack of knowledge is unclear. Nonetheless he remains actively engaged with outdoor activities, such as surfing, that require knowledge of the region.

12M Gathering skills

This individual came to Japan as a graduate student arriving in a research group at Tokyo University. He found he disliked the laboratory atmosphere and research so he exited the lab and found work in Tokyo. Despite having been in the program of an elite university, he accepted a workaday non-scientific job as a salesman with a small company. The experiences he gained in that company here were fundamentally formative for his way of thinking and acting in business in Japan. He started as the lowest man on the totem pole, the

only non-Japanese in a small company and the newest recruit. From the start he was under pressure to perfect his Japanese skills from merely sufficient in order to gain nuance and accuracy. The improvement was necessary in order to thrive, not merely survive, in the grueling world of the salaryman.

In those years his work experiences included the kind of humiliations and stresses feared, and experienced, by most starting employees in Japan. He was required to make collections calls to condescending buyers, complete menial office tasks, and work very long hours. His recollections include apologizing profusely to buyers who were behind in payments as he cajoled them into paying, or at least into accepting his request for payment. Other times he was assigned menial work for his boss or the owner. He and the staff were sometimes treated with contempt by the owner as they worked long hard hours. The owner was a domineering second generation owner who did not practice what he preached, appeared insensitive to staff and enjoyed privileges built on the work of the staff in their sight.

In interviews, he described his experiences in humorous tones despite the fact that they were clearly unpleasant. He emphasizes that it was an invaluable learning experience. Above all he decided that when he entered management he would not mistreat and exploit his subordinates. Other benefits were that he participated in all areas of business management and client relations. He was thus able together up practical experience as well as the necessary language skills for handling the tasks of day to day business operation.

Eventually he determined to start his own company in a services gap he was aware of, IT. He started the business with a Japanese partner who continues with him to this day. From his own experience working as an employee in Tokyo, he knows how to treat Japanese employees in ways they prefer, not exploitatively and not abusively, and as a result he benefits from their loyalty and support. 12M takes a direct role in office decisions and all aspects of service provision to customers. Although the Japanese partner is nominally COO and 12M is CEO, they share decision making in almost all instances from HR to finances to branding to strategy. In this respect they are similar to the French-Japanese coleaders who discussed and disagreed but did not separate their decisions and duties.

12M uses the understanding he has acquired over the years of standard Japanese business behavior, expectations, and mentality to handle prospects during marketing meetings. He is able to soothe and manipulate them as they agree to service delivery. In dealing with Japanese business people he shows very strong negotiation skills. He is appropriately collaborative on prices and created an innovative sliding scale that would allow him to protect a high nominal rate while providing a lower cost option to the satisfaction of the customer. This sliding scale is an example of synergy in which he combined ideas from North America with ideas common in the Tokyo business world. He has learned to quickly start to talk about contracts, minimizing the lost transaction cost of discussions with someone who will not in the end make an agreement. He has observed that talks can be moved more quickly to a

shutdown phase if the contract topic arises sooner. In this respect he is able to suitably balance the need to build relationships up with the ability to detect a lack of opportunity and thereby move on to other work, identifying winning targets to concentrate his efforts on. He has a strong ability for Impression Management suitable for his business environment. He selectively manipulates the listener by letting them think he has poor Japanese skills. Their impression is of a foreigner who is good at technology but cannot handle operations. As their image firms, he reveals his precise grasp of the language and the business reality of those prospects commanding their attention and respect. His overarching negotiation schema is that success is based on joint commitment to a good value proposition. Thus he combines schemata such as securing an ally, exploring options to solve problems, and employing a multistep process to cooperate which are discussed in Article V.

Although he is adept at handling Japanese business situations, partners, and employees, he can transition smoothly to interact with Western clients and meet their expectations. He notes, however, that particularly when visiting the US, "[Americans] think I'm strange, meaning my mannerisms…" Specifically he sometimes uses body language that is inappropriate to North America, for example, posture and bowing.

12Q High flyer stuck

The individual interviewed as 12Q is highly skilled in language, finance, and business. His ability to express himself in English, his native language, is higher than most who grow up and are educated in an English speaking environment. At the same time, his Japanese skills are advanced enough to use and explain complex wordplay in conversation with well-educated native speakers. In the workplace he is able to communicate complex ideas and plans, though he is not always able to gain the support of his co-workers and mangers. The field of work is finance and he is not an IT technologist, although his activities include guiding development and implementation of IT systems.

After completing university in Canada, and with a rudimentary command of Japanese, 12Q made his way to Japan to seek employment. The usual process of hiring staff in Japan involves repeated rounds of testing and interviews. During the process the potential recruits are under strong pressure to show how well normed they are; hair, clothing, word choice, speaking ability, all are examined microscopically. For a foreigner with no prior living experience in Japan to manage this would be nearly unthinkable. But 12Q short circuited the process by simply going to a factory and insisting on seeing the head. He was hired.

He was successful in the first step of negotiating life in Japan. His own drive and lack of knowledge about Japan made the impossible possible. He was then unknowingly and subsequently with awareness able to make the most of not being Japanese. Non-Japanese including 12Q are often able to break the norms of society without drawing punishments. In addition to being non-

Japanese in Japan, 12Q became comfortable as a rare foreign business person on the scene. He was able to maintain and develop his identity outside of the regular Japanese workers and separate from the standard foreign workers. In both identities he was able to dispense with some of the work world's norms as his career developed.

Working for a Japanese company and frequently seeing supplier operations made him sensitive to the high level of quality of products and the commitment to maintaining plant and equipment that is the heart of the Five S aspects of Lean management. He carried these concepts into Canada as a management consultant.

With time he returned to Japan and found himself in the finance industry where he currently works. His efforts in this industry in Tokyo have led to moderate success, but also to the feeling that his ideas are not respected and that his potential is thwarted. Whereas other actors interviewed in this series of cases had learned to give up ownership of ideas and not to feel upset when their ideas returned months later with no attribution, this individual wished to retain ownership and was angered by the standard Japanese practice. His skills and qualifications are quite high, yet he has been sidelined into less challenging work. He makes his animosity clear to management from time to time. The question raised is why such a person of high cultural and technical ability with previous successes remains stuck in unchallenging and unappreciated work situations.

Table 6 highlights key points about the interviewees.

TABLE 6   Key points about the interviewees

Case	Work status	Approx. Years in Japan	Key Characteristics
12B	Software programmer, project manager, executive in Kyoto based electronics company	20	Accepted and visibly rejected some schemata in the workplace. Nonetheless was able to rise in the company.
12C	Sales, operations manager, etc. in Tokyo subsidiary of on-line services company	15	Work in front line sales and eventually various management positions led him to deep knowledge of Japanese workplace schemata and culture.
12D	Various positions, now senior programmer for Japanese app developer	12	Had negative experiences and poor network during his first sojourn. Experiences, integration, network, job satisfaction, and relative success all improved during second sojourn
12E	World bank	4	Was unable to accept and adjust to workplace behaviors and expectations. Overall experience was dissatisfying

12F	IT, recruiting services	15	Found workplace and management to be out of touch with up to date techniques and unresponsive to suggestions.
12G	Tokyo HQ of an ICT JV	15	Unlike most interviewees found familiar work styles in this internationalized employer.
12H	IT hardware and consulting; entrepreneur	30	Learned certain business schemata even as a graduate student. Has been able to adjust schemata over the years. Mentor to Japanese and foreign individuals.
12I	Head of operations, Tokyo branch of advertising firm	8	Arrived as a Third Country National with few appropriate skills but was able to successfully adjust and synergize appropriate new workplace behaviors.
12J	Software engineer, Japanese company	5	Making a strong effort to identify and adjust to (accommodate) the new and challenging elements of Japanese workplace behavior and expectations.
12K	Publishing, editor, entrepreneur, Tokyo	20	Has mainly worked in a Japanese environment and has selectively taken on, adjusted or rejected schemata.
12L	Operations and logistics manager, Tokyo HQ of USA company.	20	Grew his career almost entirely in Japan blending Japanese and North American styles to rise to an important international specialist position in the company.
12M	IT services company, Tokyo, Entrepreneur	20	Gathered skills from lowest position on the totem pole until starting his own company. Highly facile at blending the business skills and schemata of Japan and North America.
12P	Consulting in Big 5	5	
12Q	IT project manager in Japanese financial sector company	15	Among the most highly skilled with the language and highly perceptive of business schemata; nonetheless he uses schemata to upset the employer rather than to co-create success.

12R-JH	Insurance sector, operations manager, Tokyo HQ of US company	3	In second working experience in Japan. Low skills in language and culture hinder his ability to identify and use schemata well.
12S-DN	Food services company, entrepreneur	25	Highly skilled in Japanese business schemata with extensive professional network in food import and logistics.
12T	App development company, entrepreneur, Tokyo	25	Highly knowledgeable about Japanese business behavior and schemata; nonetheless insists on some North American approaches with his staff.
Mr.F Mr.J	Co-CEOs, Tokyo HQ of French financial sector company	30	This pair worked together from their junior staff days finally joining forces formally as Co-CEOs forging a new company culture at two organizations.
A	HR chief, hotel industry, Osaka	20	Able to synthesize new business behaviors while using some Japanese and Western schemata.
C	Consultant, educator, Kansai	3	Limited experience in Japan but able to draw on experienced bi-cultural informants to learn Japanese business schemata.
D	IT engineer, Kansai	5	Not yet well skilled in Japanese business schemata but gains guidance from his bi-culturally capable boss.
E	Consultant, entrepreneur	20	Gained guidance from his Japanese business partner and now provides cultural insights to non-Japanese.
F	CEO and COO of Japanese operations of Swedish company.	25	Gained business skills appropriate for Japan through working many years as the only foreign person in Japanese organizations.
G	Aerospace industry, Tokyo HQ of UK company	10	Able to gain insight through a highly skilled bicultural informant.

ORIGINAL PAPERS

I

ADJUSTING TO A DISTANT SPACE: CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AND INTERCULTURALLY FLUENT SUPPORT

by

William W. Baber 2012

In Spaces of International Economy and Management: Launching new perspectives on management and geography. (Eds. R. Schlunze, N. Agola and W. Baber.) pp. 254-270. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan

II

PREFERENCES AND INTERCULTURAL NETWORKING FOR GLOBALIZING PRACTICES OF SUCCESSFUL LEADERS IN THE INTERCULTURAL WORKPLACE

by

Rolf D Schlunze, Wi W. Ji, and William W. Baber 2014

In Asian Inward and Outward FDI: New Challenges in the Global Economy (Eds.C-G. Alvstam, H. Dolles, & P. Strom), pp. 115–136. Basingstoke, UK: Palgrave Macmillan

III

**COGNITIVE CHANGE AMONG FOREIGN MANAGERS IN
JAPAN'S IT SECTOR**

by

William W. Baber 2015

Cognitive Change among Foreign Managers in Japan's IT Sector

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Introduction

This study report provides evidence about how North American IT professionals change in the process of working in the environment of Japan. The changes studied here include cognitive, metacognitive, and behavior changes, however mainly the cognitive changes will be examined in this research report. This research project began with intuitions about the subject, namely that North Americans coming to Japan would experience a situation different enough to change their behaviors and thinking that were in place prior to arrival in Japan. These intuitions were formulated as research questions. The research questions were developed into in depth, open form interviews.

Literature review

The literature on foreign managers and acculturation in Japan has languished in the time since the collapse of the Bubble Economy in the early 90s. As economic excitement has shifted to China and other countries, academic interest has also shifted away from Japan. Highlighting this shift of attention, only a handful of academic papers on cognition in Japanese business have appeared in 2000-2014; journal searches on "Japan management cognitive" and similar keywords found only a few each of articles, books, and dissertations.

Nonetheless Japan retains its reputation as a challenging country for acculturation and adjustment in the popular press (Pilling, 2008). As such, Japan and the experiences of foreign workers in it can be a source of insight into cognitive change and acculturation.

This paper is based on original research and investigates changes in cognitive style occur in North American managers working in Japan.

What is cognitive style?

Cognitive style refers to the way a person gathers and evaluates information about their environment (Allinson & Hayes, 1996, 2011). These authors broadly describe two extremes, analytical and intuitive, and gradations between them based on the earlier work of Hammond et al., 1987). Allinson and Hayes however developed the Cognitive Style Index (CSI) specifically for business managers. Numerous studies have been undertaken using the CSI on managers in North American and other countries, however not in Japan. Other writers have criticized this one dimensional (analytical-intuitive) as oversimplifying because these extremes may be mutually reinforcing and in place in managers (Hodgkinson and Sadler-Smith, 2003). This research paper however does not investigate the deep nature of cognitive style. Rather the goal is identify and compare changes in the style of individuals before and after their exposure to the business environment of Japan. Therefore the unitary intuitive-analytical dimension proposed by Allinson and Hayes is taken as a starting point for this work.

The hallmarks of intuitive cognitive style are grasping an overview of a project and understanding its elements in terms of their interrelationships.

The characteristics of analytical cognitive style include grasping components of a project and understanding its elements in terms of categories.

Allinson and Hayes (1996, 2000) have not included Japan in their empirical work on cognitive style, nor have other studies employing the CSI. They do however refer to older works that found inconclusive and apparently contradictory results in seeking to identify differences at the macro (nations or regions) in East versus West cognitive style. Abramson, Lane, Nagai, and Takagi (1993) found Japanese to be more intuitive in style albeit using the Meyers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI). Abramson et al. found Japanese to be slower decision makers, possibly due to "a more feeling-based cognitive style" (pg. 581) reflected in preferences for group harmony, relationships, and sensing the environment as a whole. Canadians, in their study, preferred "a thinking-based cognitive style" (pg. 581). Further, "the Canadians displayed a cognitive style that reduced the importance of the human element in favor of analytical, impersonal, rational factors." (Abramson et al., Pg 585).

Cognitive differences exist between a notional East and West according to Nisbett, Peng, Choi, and Norenzayan (2001). In their work *West* refers loosely to those cultures that inherited their thinking from Ancient Greece. *East*, meanwhile, refers to those cultures that trace their roots to Ancient China, specifically in East Asia. The differences are based in *tacit epistemologies*,

long held understandings subsumed by the people of those cultures. They explain that East Asians conduct less categorizing, lean toward grasping an overall view, employ less formal logic, and prefer a dialectic understanding of issues. These are broadly described as *holistic*. The West, exemplified in their work and in Nisbett (2003) categorizes more, employs formal logic, and is more reductionist. These are described broadly as *analytic*.

While the work of Nisbett and collaborators used complex imagery with Japanese and Canadians, Kitayama, Duffy, Kawamura, and Larsen (2003) found similar differences among Japanese and Americans using a simplified visual task.

Thus three different models, those used by Abramson, et al. (1993), Nisbett et al. (2003), and Kitayama et al. (2003) find similar cognitive style differences among East Asians and North Americans. Psychology studies have identified cognitive style differences between East and West in other fields of research such as and sociology (Yang, 1986). In the fields of business and management science, Hay and Usunier (1993) quote an interviewee pointing out the difficulty of quick change within an organization and inadvertently describing a holistic cognitive style:

"We [Japanese bank managers] always consider the sequence between the past and the future. Dramatic change is only possible from the outside. But continuity is very important. It is difficult to change

things drastically." (Pg 327)

The holistic approach remains widespread and Japanese business organizations are often described as holistic by writers such as M. Abe (2010).

It is a reasonable step to conclude that these cognitive style differences, if they are indeed confirmed, exist among business managers. The studies cited above used students as proxies for whole populations, albeit Abramson et al. took MBA students as a study population. This research paper accordingly accepts the notion that a broad difference exists as described on a general population level. This paper also seeks to identify evidence of those proposed cognitive style differences in the management styles of Japanese and North American business managers. Further, this research paper seeks to identify changes in cognition as North American business managers adjust to work in the host country of Japan.

The Japanese management styles presented below match the cognitive style ascribed to East Asia. Rather than assigning credit or guilt to individuals, these common techniques (according to cited literature and direct observations of this author) emphasize group identity and efficacy. As in the examples of frame and components in the cognitive styles literature, the emphasis in Japan is largely on the frame and relationships. Among the North American techniques noted below, the emphasis is, in reverse, placed on the components which is generally to say on staff members, not the group.

Table 1: Cognitive style in management style preferences

Japanese management style	Analogous or opposite North American management style	Comment
Chourei shiki – regular ritualistic morning gathering	No analogous management technique	Focus on group, not individual; Increases the feeling of group unity; joint presence and joint suffering contribute to group identity (Maricourt, 1994; Nishiyama, 1999).
Kachou at head of island of desks of team	Opposite: Cubicles and offices; geographically distributed teams;	Focus on group, not individual; Front line boss knows the team, their abilities, strengths, weaknesses, and activities in depth (Nishiyama, 1999).
Evening drinking (frequent, late)	Infrequent brief evening drinks; may be open to outsiders.	Focus on group, not individual; Group limited to the organization's members, develops group identity (DeMente, 1994; Nishiyama, 1999).
Feigned drunkenness	No analogous behavior.	Usual strictures of relationships are suspended. Opens a channel for feedback and complaints with no reprisals on the complainer (DeMente, pg 86, 1994).
Seniority based promotion	Opposite: merit based promotion	Focus on group, not individual efficacy; Ensures staff loyalty (Coleman, 1999) and promotion of individuals who embody the goals and culture of the organization (Haghirian, 2010).

Preference for generalists	Preference for specialists	Restricts the value of any one individual; Training includes broad range of skills including moral training (Sakai, 2009).
Ideas don't get acted on immediately	Ideas not credited to the author are considered stolen.	Focus on group, not individual; Ideas become part of the group understanding and are not bound to an individual before considered for action (Bhagat, Kedia, Harveston, and Triandis, 2002, p. 214).
No individual credit for idea generation	Ideas not credited to the author are considered stolen.	Focus on group, not individual; Develops pre-eminence of group over individuals (DeMente, 1994)
Nemawashi	Meetings outside the group could be considered underhanded.	Focus on avoiding class; Manager seeks solutions one to one with team, not in group discussion (Nishiyama, 1999; Kameda, 1996).
Total Quality Management (TQM)	Six sigma (fixing the product or process).	Focus on the whole delivered product, not the components of the product; Employees become aware of how they contribute to final overall results (Haghirian, 2010).
Wa – maintaining group harmony	Constructive conflict; performance based hiring and firing.	Focus on group, not individual; Avoid upsetting the group at the expense of the individual or team (Haghirian, 2010).
Slow decision making	Slow is considered a cause of failure	Focus is on group participation; Time is necessary for consensus building (Nishiyama, 1999; Abe, 2010).

The above Japanese management styles, all in wide use in Japan, indicate preference for holistic approaches. North American managers that have moved from analytic approaches to holistic approaches have either undergone a change in cognition, or have accepted a different cognitive style on the surface level. The data collected for this research report will help to identify whether managers have undergone either or both of those steps.

Research Questions

Thus the research questions for this report include:

- Can North American business managers move out of Nisbett's analytic category of cognitive style into holistic?
- Are there identifiably positive or negative outcomes to cognitive change evinced by cognitive style?

Because this research seeks to be relevant to the business world as well as to the research community, it also seeks implications for North American managers working in Japan or other East Asian locations.

A table of cases is shown below.

Methodology

This research paper collected qualitative data in the form of in-depth interviews with North American (US and Canadian Anglophone) managers working in Japan's IT sector. The individuals were identified through Linked In as well as the American Chamber of Commerce in Japan (ACCJ) directory. Some individuals came from the first or second degree contacts of the author. In all 128 potential contacts were identified and 76 were contacted. Outreach was accomplished through Linked In (63 contacts), verbal requests (3), email (9), and website interfaces (4).

Of these, 19 responded with a willingness to join the study and ten completed the study. One of the ten was removed from the study as his experience in Japan's IT industry had ended about eight years prior.
The interviews included the same questions in largely the same phrasing and order. All but one were recorded with typed notes been taken simultaneously. Most included follow up sessions to clarify or expand on issues. Some of the recordings have been transcribed.

Table 2: Overview of cases

Case	Nationality	Job Title	Years in Japan
12C	USA	VP Business Development	15
12D	USA	Team Leader	20

12E	USA	Supervisor	8
12F	Canada	Engineer	3
12G	USA	Team Leader	13
12H	USA	Owner	32
12J	Canada	Engineer	7
12L	USA	Logistics Manager	22
12M	USA	Owner	23

Age of interviewees ranged from 30-60.

Discussion with Analysis and Findings

Change occurred in ways that indicate cognitive change, that is, shift from analytical to holistic.

Table 3: Change in cognitive style

Case	Before	After	Change to Holistic Thinking
12C	Top down non-consensus dictator leadership	Bottom up consensus building including use of nemawashi	Y
12C	Reactive not proactive	We are "very Japanese" in approach to quality of service (proactive re customer experience) – TQM approach	Y
12D	One of the broader team	Ghettoized within the org …later overcame this in diff org where he is part of the harmony	Y
12E	General feeling of satisfaction	Rejected change to his own thinking and management style. Well defined dissatisfaction; Attempted to mentor Japanese staff	N
12F	Tried to make change, get idea across (do code reviews, eat your own dog food);	Appreciation of some benefits of slow speed and patience with long talking through of an issue;	Y
12G	Direct approach	Indirect approach to protect group harmony	Y
12H	Lower level individuals should seek to stand out	Don't rock the boat; look for ways not to rock the boat that you had not imagined before – think from point of view of the management or other counterparty	Y
12J	Individual can impact the group; Individual will be charged by management to pursue a task they propose at short notice; Individual merit;	Individual cannot cause quick change in the org; The large ship can be redirected only in increments; Merit not rewarded; Contributions not recognized	Unclear
12L	Employees live or die based on their merits	Appreciates relationship philosophy of Japan and uses it to bridge with HQ.	Y
12M	Just work and show your merit; be treated w respect	Picks and applies Japanese and North American styles as suitable; **Synergy:** Able to embarrass a potential client yet gain their custom; US appreciation of time to minimize transaction cost – Japan appreciation of seniority so he moves to get to a senior Japan person instead of politely working with lower staff.	Y

Impact on the manager

After detecting a change in cognitive style by identifying adoption or abandonment of a management technique, the next question is to determine the impact of the change. One way to directly detect such impact is to identify positive or negative outcomes for the manager. Data gathered for this study shows that the shift in cognitive style from a typically Western one, analytic, to a typically East Asian one, holistic, results in some cases in clearly different end states.
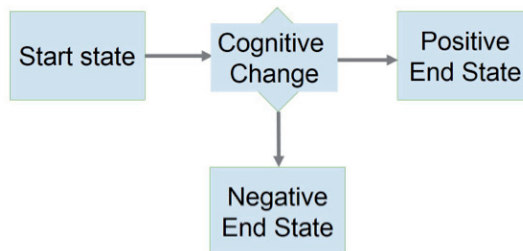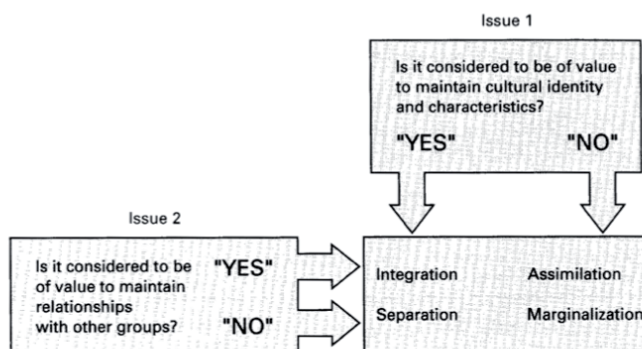

Figure 1

After the change in cognitive style

This research report employs Berry's (1980) framework for acculturation which proposes four states of acculturation: integration, separation, assimilation, and marginalization. These are arrived at based on the relative importance of relationships and cultural identity as modeled in the figure below.

Source: Berry, J. W. (1980). Acculturation as varieties of adaptation. In A. Padilla (Ed.), *Acculturation: Theory, models, and some new findings.* Boulder, CO: Westview. Reprinted with permission.

Figure 2

The four possible outcomes described by Berry (1980, 1997) and the synergy outcome from Adler and Gundersen (2007) are mapped in the figure below to positive or negative outcomes.

Separation, marginalization, and assimilation are considered negative in this research report because the individual cannot contribute their ideas and styles to the host culture. In a practical worst case scenario, separation and marginalization situations could result in the demotion, sidelining, or loss of job of individuals who arrive and stay in these end states. Assimilation too, though it may seem safer, could result in the removal of an expatriated business leader who has "gone native" and cannot effectively represent the wishes of an overseas headquarters.

Berry's integration concept is described as the dominant culture accepting some institutions of the non-dominant group while the non-dominant group accepts the basic values of the dominant group (Berry, 1997).

Adler and Gundersen (2007) describe synergies as involving "...a process in which managers form organizational strategies, structures, and practices based on, but not limited to the cultural patterns of individual organization members and clients." (pg 109). Thus synergy does not insist on acceptance of any one set of norms or standards. Synergy and integration are further differentiated in that synergy requires the rise of new solutions which go beyond the available range of solutions offered by the cultural groups represented.

Integration is seen as positive in this report because the foreign manager can contribute management ideas and techniques to the host culture environment. Similarly,

synergy is seen as positive because the foreign manager contributes management ideas albeit in changed forms that particularly suit the immediate environment in creative combination with the local thinking and practices. Figure three shows the end states.
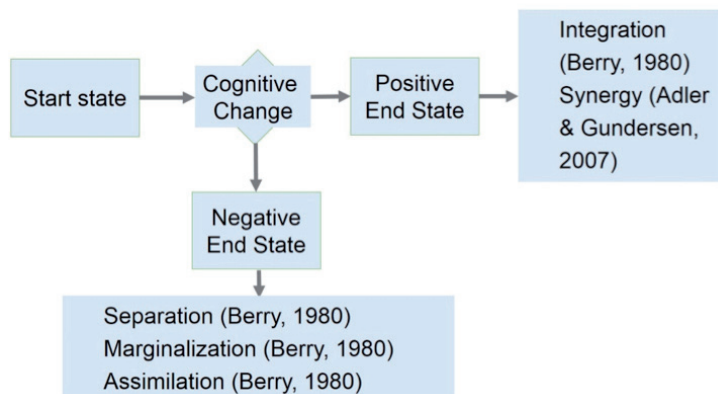

Figure 3

Table 4: Positive or Negative Outcome

Case	Outcome	End status
12C	Positive	Integration
12D	Negative	Separation
12E	Negative	Marginalization
12F	Positive	Integration
12G	Positive	Integration
12H	Positive	Integration
12J	Unclear	Assimilation Integration
12L	Positive	Integration
12M	Positive	Synergy

The shift in cognitive style from analytic to holistic indicates a change in cognitive style. What remains unclear however in this study is the degree of change. Most of the managers interviewed indicated that they had preferences for both typically North American and Japanese management approaches. Therefore it seems unlikely that one style overrides or erases another in this study population.

Assimilation

This individual has been in Japan only three years prior to the interviews. The passage of time appears to have been too brief for this person to identify their role in the company and the greater context of Tokyo. The individual in case 12J has been able to change his own thinking from "a junior employee should strive to make a mark on the organization" to a more Japanese way, "my ideas are contributed to the group and the group will gain credit and benefit from them". He further describes his image of the Japanese corporation as one in which the organization seems like a great ship, so big that its direction can only be changed by small increments through the indirect efforts of individuals.

12J has therefore surrendered his analytic approach in which personal identity and merit form the cornerstones of success and satisfaction. He has assimilated to the point that he considers himself part of a group that must survive in order to achieve success. It is not clear however that 12J will continue in this assimilated state. His own overarching goal is to become an entrepreneur, a radically different role in which he may integrate or synergize based on his North American background.

The end state, however, need not be a permanent state. The manager may move to another state as evinced by some cases in this study. Like 12E, discussed next, case 12J has not yet clearly settled into one position in the model.

Marginalization

12E had been unable to find satisfaction working within a Japanese company but in the months before these interviews, was able to find a new understanding of the role as an individual in the context of groups. His new

understanding may have started 12E on the path to integration, though too little data exists to know and follow up interviews in coming years will be necessary to confirm the outcome. Moreover, 12E's time in Japan, only three years as of summer 2013, may yet be too brief for the sensitive process of determining his state.

The experience of this person was ranged from intimidating to disappointing. On one side, the foreign staff was separated from Japanese staff, "we were in our own small space, we were in the "cave" it was an intimidating space." Physically separated from the mainstream work environment, this individual found himself ultimately marginalized. Attempting to work with and train Japanese staffers, he found "Japanese engineers were happy to follow what you teach, but do not take it further." His professional and personal network among Japanese was minimal and in the end he "realized that Japanese management and workers want no change". Blocked from integration and with his efforts to reach out rebuffed, this person found himself marginalized and unable to contribute to or learn from the host culture. Did his experience with the Japanese employer change his work style or way of thinking? "No," he responds.

Separation
One case in the study, 12D, worked for several employees

with some negative experiences. An early employer accommodated his North American style and thinking in the early 2000s, in a rural region of Japan, Shikoku. Moving to Tokyo he found himself in a Japanese owned multinational where the division head hazed the foreign team through schedule changes and countermanded orders. The result of this experience was that the individual, and his team of foreign workers, was separated from the work process. But they were not marginalized because they developed a coping mechanism of going further up the chain of command to get the necessary support for their work. This situation continued during this entire period of employment with the foreign staff in a sort limbo, not integrated into operations fully, but also not entirely out of the picture. Having changed employers between the first and second interviews in this study, 12D finds himself in a new job, comfortably integrated with the staff of a smaller Japanese organization contributing to projects and products. He has not assimilated fully to the Japanese environment, nor has he developed new synergies with his coworkers. His current status seems to one of integration.

Integration
There are numerous examples of integration among the cases in this study report.

Table 4: Integration examples

Case	Example
12C	Changed to bottom up consensus building including use of nemawashi
	Introduced limit working after hours
	Accepted as fundamental a Japanese view of top quality customer service
	Rejected Japanese after hours drinking in favor of in-office communication
	Accepted Lean integration with suppliers
12F	Integrated benefits of slow speed of decision making and long talking through of issues while maintaining task orientation
12G	Able to integrate North American and Japan based skills by being a bridge between Tokyo and foreign based HQ
12H	Integrated showing of value (North American style) as relationship ceased to be the supreme as in the Bubble Economy era
12L	Integrated relationship philosophy of Japan and uses it while keeping focus on completing tasks, bridging understanding between foreign HQ and local operations, etc.

The above individuals have shown a shift in cognitive style by integrating North American and Japanese management styles, using both holistic and analytic approaches.

Synergy
Case 12M indicates the strongest synergy creation among the cases presented. While synergy may be present in Cases 12H, 12J, 12L, and others, 12M has certainly been able to create multiple new approaches that are neither completely holistic nor analytic, neither

entirely Japanese nor North American. These new approaches are synergies in Adler and Gundersen's (2007) understanding as described previously in this report.

Go straight for the leader
The individual in case 12M studiously avoids working through the hierarchy of a potential client company in normal fashion. Usual behavior in the Japanese business context might be to develop a contact slowly with or without access to the ultimate decision makers. Where a

higher level person is part of a meeting, conversation is commonly managed by a junior staffer with little direct input from the higher level manager. 12M however pushes directly to the higher level person and presents a proposal. Synergy here is based on a North American preference for minimizing transaction cost and the Japanese appreciation of senior staff. Once 12M has accessed the senior decision maker, return to the junior staff by the Japanese organization is unlikely. Put neatly into a trap of responding, and thereby increasing their own face as senior staff, or repositioning the junior staffer as the contact point and losing face, many feel compelled to directly deal with 12M.

Embarrass potential client

Strategically he allows potential clients to think he speaks Japanese poorly. Thus he surprises them with his highly fluent and technical Japanese. They feel embarrassed when it turns out that the person they were speaking about has in fact strong language skills and has been following the conversation. As a result, when he does speak, they listen more closely. This is a face damaging exercise with respect to the potential client whereas it is face-building for 12M. Normal expectations would be for a new relationship to be severely damaged, if not destroyed by such a maneuver. However, this tactic is successful for 12M because it develops respect in the client for his abilities. This tactic is neither in the canon of North American nor Japanese behaviors but has been developed by 12M, synergizing from both business cultures.

Implications

North American IT managers can change their cognitive style and gain benefits through achieving integration or synergy. The population can integrate, at least most of those in the sample. In some cases they seem to have the resilience to move from negative end states to positive ones.

Limitations

This study report is limited chiefly by the small sample size. However the in depth interviews provided a glimpse into a potentially important theme, cognitive change, for future study.

Another limitation is that these managers are not reviewed by their Japanese co-workers whose contribution could balance the perception of their strengths and weaknesses.

Conclusion

The study reveals that a fundamental shift in thinking can occur for North American managers working in Japan. The shift from analytic to holistic cognitive style can lead these managers into positive or negative outcomes. Those that navigate the process to arrive at positive results may be a source of further learning about acculturation, thinking, and the Japan-North American business-scape.

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IV

**LOOKING INSIDE JAPANESE-JAPANESE INTRACULTURAL
BUSINESS NEGOTIATION**

by

William W. Baber

V

COGNITIVE NEGOTIATION SCHEMATA IN THE IT INDUSTRIES OF IN JAPAN AND FINLAND

by

William W. Baber and Arto Ojala 2015

Cognitive Negotiation Schemata in the IT Industries of Japan and Finland

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ABSTRACT

The existing literature emphasizes the importance of negotiation skills in the field of IT. However, negotiation and negotiation styles in the IT industry have received limited attention. This original empirical research compares the negotiation schemata of Finnish and Japanese IT business people. The study identifies negotiation schemata used in one or both culture groups. Negotiators with greater experience and power in the negotiation process command more schemata. However, neither population enjoys the full range of negotiation schemata. Business negotiators in or out of IT and these cultures may benefit from knowing the schemata and the results of matching and mismatching.

Keywords: Negotiation; Finland; Japan; Information Technology; Schemata

INTRODUCTION

In the information technology (IT) industry, where collaboration among various professionals and customers is important, different kinds of negotiation skills are needed. Although the IT industry appears very international and deeply collaborative (Whitehead, 2007), we can assume that practices of negotiation participants vary in different cultures, as negotiation styles are culturally associated (Adair, Taylor, & Tinsley, 2009; Nishiyama, 1999; Tinsley, 2001). That is, if two cultures differ considerably, negotiation styles might also differ. Although the existing literature highlights the importance of negotiation skills in the field of IT; negotiation styles per se have received only scarce attention in the field of IT. This lack has developed despite the literature showing that negotiation skills directly impact for instance IT and software outsourcing decisions (Davis, Ein-dor, King, & Torkzadeh, 2006; Kuivanen & Nahar, 2009), price negotiation of IT services (Vykoukal, Wolf, & Beck, 2009), IT project management (Abraham, Beath, Bullen, Gallagher, & Goles, 2006), and service contracts (Kim, Agrawal, Jayaraman, & Rao, 2003; Raghu, Woo, Mohan, & Rao, 2008) as well as among individuals involved in organization-wide IT implementations (Matsuura, Fuller, Kaufman, Kim, & Baba, 2013).

Based on the research gap discussed above, the research aim of this study is to increase our understanding of negotiation styles among negotiators in an era when technology outruns business management and business people must constantly refine skills for interacting. More specifically, the authors are interested in the negotiation schemata of business negotiators in the IT industry. Schemata refer here to the mental patterns that impact how people process

information (Colman, 2009). Boehm, Bose, Horowitz, and Lee (1997) called for new models applicable to software development yet none have appeared beyond their Win-Win Spiral, a process level approach that does not address situational thinking, communication, nor selection and application of mental models.

The knowledge targeted in this study helps us to better understand how IT negotiators apply various schemata in business negotiation and how different factors impact on availability and choice of schemata. The specific research questions are: i) Which schemata are in use among the current generation of Japanese and Finnish negotiators in the IT industry? ii) Do Finnish and Japanese IT negotiators change their schema based on situation? iii) Do age, level in company, position of the negotiator in the team or frequency of negotiation impact availability of schemata or choice of schemata? With this knowledge, IT negotiators may be able to develop better negotiation strategies and overcome some difficulties when interacting in a global business environment. From the theory point of view, this study expands the negotiation schemata literature with specific reference to technology business. In addition, this study contributes to the IT business literature by investigating to negotiation styles in international context.

For this study, we selected negotiators working in the IT industry from Finland and Japan as these two countries are distant in almost every way, geographically, linguistically, and in the measures of widely used cultural comparison tools (Hofstede, Hofstede, & Minkov, 2005; Ojala, 2015; Peterson, Wood, & Smith, 2008; Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2012). As geographies with relatively homogenous populations, Japan and Finland are more likely to reveal variations when compared (Peltokorpi & Clausen, 2011) than locations where ideas, experiences, and personal origins mingle more freely. In addition, even though both nations are technology leaders, the industries in these countries differ significantly. For example, the Finnish software industry and its human resources are generally globalized, multilingual, and Agile management techniques are widespread (Rönkkö & Peltonen, 2012) whereas the Japanese software industry has a lack of skilled generalist managers, low pervasiveness of Agile management, and difficulties to internationalize their business (Inada, 2010). Further, Japan appears to have some unique business approaches (Ueki, Ueki, Linowes, & Mroczkowski, 2011) generally and in IT specifically (Krishna, Sahay, & Walsham, 2004; Ojala & Tyrväinen, 2007), including bonding and trust practices (Choi, Souiden, & Skandrani, 2012). Because negotiation is relationship oriented (Lewicki, Hiam, & Olander, 1996), impacts and approaches in Japan may appear relatively unique to Finnish and other "western" negotiators.

The paper is organized as follows: we first discuss the theoretical background of schemata, negotiation, and negotiation in the context of IT industry. Thereafter we present the research method and the results of the survey. Finally, we present empirical findings leading to concluding thoughts.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Schemata

Schemata theory is well established in cognitive psychology. Schemata refer to "mental representations of some aspect of experience…" that help interpret information (Colman, 2009). Beamer (1995) reviews schemata and describes them, following Casmir (1985), as mental structures used to interpret information. Casmir (1985) specifically indicates that these schemata

derive from the person's culture and abilities. Culture itself arises from experiences shared in time, geography, language and sharing meaning, norms, and rules though the same general experiences can create multiple cultures (Triandis & Albert, 1987). Cognitive style arises from culture at various levels including personality, family influences, professional, and broader societal influences (Kozhevnikov, Evans, & Kosslyn, 2014). Beamer (1995) further notes that schemata arise from cross cultural experiences, such as learning to bow in Tokyo. Schema can also arise from perceptions and interpretations (McMillen, 1991).

Schemata are found for not only concrete and abstract things, but also processes; these are referred to as scripts which may apply to business, negotiation, and even more specifically to gender nuanced business negotiation (Colman, 2009; Hanappi-Egger & Kauer, 2010; Taylor & Crocker, 1981) when they involve expected sequences of steps. Scripts develop from planning as well as experience (Turner, 1994). Nishida (1999) refers to script schemata as *procedure schemata* building on the work of Turner (1994). Specifically, Nishida's (1999) procedure schema includes not only a sequence of steps, but also contains information about the steps and expectations for counterparties. Additionally, Nishida (1999) specifies strategy schema for problem solving. If a negotiation is seen as a problem, or series of problems, to be solved, the negotiator's approach is a strategy schema that will impact their choice of actions. The concept of negotiation orientations as introduced more recently are highly personalized and variable and change with experience (Brooks & Rose, 2004), yet these do not include schema contents and schemata remain a more appropriate concept for this research.

Schemata are not a concept widely used in daily language, a typical English language user would understand words like *routines* or *routines for processes* more readily. However, *kata* (represented by the character 形) is a concept broadly familiar to Japanese speakers, "A *kata* is a routine that allows people to interact smoothly." (Alston & Takei, 2005). These authors describe *kata* as strongly norming scripts "…formal ways of behaving (kata) forcing conformity of behavior on everyone." Japan's *kata* are tantamount to schema as described in the literature cited above. *Kata* can be relatively rigid and formulaic such as those for business meetings or more flexible such as those for preventing loss of face by sharing blame among subordinates (Alston & Takei, 2005). Finnish uses the term *toimintatapa* or *omaksuttu toimintatapa* in a similar way.

Schemata, including *kata* and *toimintatapa,* allow business people to interact in predictable patterns thereby decreasing misunderstandings and increasing chances of successful communication. Similarly for schema, according to Beamer (1995), "Business communication is effective when schemata are closer." Conversely, mismatches may result in misunderstandings and communication as well as negotiation failure (Beamer, 1995; McMillen, 1991) and matches of mental models may improve outcomes (Van Boven & Thompson, 2003). These sources fail to consider how schemata are applied specific business contexts, though Van Boven and Thompson (2003) consider two very broad situations – distributive and integrative negotiations. If there are opportunities for matches and mismatches, considering situations may shed light on the process.

Schemata are developed from a person's construct of social reality, including the schemata for negotiation (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992). The schemata of business people from differing experiential backgrounds, for example their working lives in different cultures, companies, locations or industries, may therefore be different. Conversely, those with similar experiences, for example MBA studies, might have similar schema despite being located in different national

cultures. Salacuse (1998) found variances in negotiation style by culture and occupation. His analysis employs ten dimensions, and several are reflected in the schemata employed in this research.

Negotiation

Negotiation is one kind of business process that may include a procedure or strategy schema. For the purposes of this paper, we take a general definition of business negotiation as a process of interactions in which parties define and develop relationships, solve problems and seek to make agreements or avoid detrimental ones, usually in formal situations where parties are aware of an intended deal (Benyoucef, 2010; Lewicki & Hiam, 2010; Sarkar, 2010).

As mentioned above, culture has impact on negotiation through schemata. Yet the studies referred to discuss national level culture rather than more granular levels of culture such as age, experience, and industry as attempted in this study in addition to the cultural contexts of Japan and Finland. Further, the relationships between negotiation schemata and the individual's position (Katz & Kahn, 1978) in a negotiation or managerial rank in the company remain uninvestigated. In this research report, position means one of four main jobs in a negotiation: the final decision maker, the team leader or chief negotiator, team members, and a last group of other supporters. The final decision maker may or may not be at the negotiation table, they however have final authority over approval. Thus the final decision maker could be an owner, top executive, board, or other body (Brett, Friedman, & Behfar, 2009). The lead negotiator, if not the same person as the decision maker, handles the strategy, sets the atmosphere, and directs research by allocating team members and resources (Ashcroft, 2004). Team members are generally speaking under the control of the leader and may be directed to speak as specialists or to take on other tasks (Brett et al., 2009). Other supporters may be part of the team but not directly participating in talks or they may be only briefly part of the team. Each of these four positions may take on multiple, even the same, roles (Katz & Kahn, 1978).

Managerial rank in this study report means the relative position in the organization from the top of the pyramid downward. At the top is the owning individual or group or their top agent(s) who are responsible mainly for strategic decisions. The next level is occupied by middle managers responsible for tactical decision making and resource allocation. The third level consists of first line managers who operationalize tasks and report on them. These levels are widely described in the literature (Boone & Kurtz, 2012; Cyert & March, 1992; Montana & Charnov, 2008; Robbins, DeCenzo, & Coulter, 2014). A fourth group, non-management, is included in the survey in this research. Non-management negotiators are important in business negotiations in the IT industry because these individuals may have considerable technical expertise.

Negotiation in IT industry

Although the previous studies in the field of IT have not directly focused on negotiation, several studies have highlighted its importance. In their study on software offshore outsourcing, Nahar and Kuivanen (2009) argued that negotiation forms one of the nine phases of the offshore outsourcing process. They concluded that offshore outsourcing contract negotiations between Finnish and Vietnamese partners are largely impacted by a weak legal system, corruption, and lack of transparency, in addition to common contractual issues. Currie (2000) studied the supply-

side of IT outsourcing. She concluded that the rapid pace of technical change makes negotiations of outsourcing contracts difficult and in some cases there might be a need to hire external consultants to provide assistance during the negotiations process. Corbett (1994) investigated the skills needed to successfully manage IT outsourcing processes. He found that negotiation is one of the most important skills, as a manager needs an ability to work toward mutually beneficial outcomes with partners that are not under the manager's direct control. In a similar vein, Elena and Silvius (2010) found that good negotiation skills were the key capability required when developing partnerships between outsourcing partners.

Studies by Davis et al. (2006) and Abraham et al. (2006) argue that negotiation skills should receive more attention when developing personal skills and the education of new IT specialist. In their study, Davis et al. (2006) argue that IT-related contract negotiations are important part of the CIO's responsibilities. Thus, for IT workers' personal development, different negotiation techniques are important "soft skills". These skills help in networking with partners and building trust between contracting parties. In their research, Abraham et al. (2006) investigated different capabilities that senior IT executives are looking for when hiring new employees and how these capabilities could be developed in information systems (IS) curriculums. The findings indicate that IS students would greatly benefit from negotiation skills especially in the context of project management.

Altogether, IT literature emphasizes the importance of negotiation skills among IT managers. These skills are counted as important "soft skills" for operation and management of various IT related tasks. However, negotiation skills and various negotiation styles per se have received only very limited attention in the IT literature. Thus, the aim of this paper is to study the negotiation schemata of IT professionals. This helps better understand how different factors impact negotiation strategies in the IT industry. Furthermore, we will compare negotiation schemata between Japanese and Finnish IT negotiators to develop wider understanding about possible differences in negotiation styles in international context.

METHODOLOGY

This study applies standardized questionnaire survey method. The method is suitable especially in those situations where the aim is to gather data about attitudes, beliefs, and behavior (Bhattacherjee, 2012). For this study, the goal was to collect a small number of responses from IT professionals in each of the two target countries in order to test the conceptual approach of identifying schemata and seek hints about differences. Targeting this population, a survey was firstly developed based on the literature review and the authors' personal experiences in the field. Thereafter the preliminary version of the survey was completed and commented by two Finnish IT managers. Their comments were used to further develop the final survey questionnaire. In the final survey questionnaire, respondents reported their actions and observations in negotiations. This self reporting approach is shown to be valid in the work of Vetschera and Kainz (2013) who found that self-reported strategies match observed behavior in situations of preferences regarding payoff distribution. The current survey included schemata involved, or possibly involved, in business negotiation as identified and gathered from a variety of sources (see Table 1).

Table 1: Negotiation schemata in this study.

Schema and source	Description
1. Win/lose (Salacuse, 1998)	Distributive thinking in which each gain has a related loss and vice versa.
2. Employ a multistep process to get satisfying results (Lax & Sebenius, 2006; Movius, Matsuura, Yan, & Kim, 2006)	Specific steps and phases are followed which provide a structure to the negotiation.
3. Explore/Solve Win/Win Cooperate (Lax & Sebenius, 2006; Salacuse, 1998)	Integrative thinking in which utility is maximized for all parties possibly with gains beyond those initially in discussion.
4. Pitch to absent boss (informal interviews by authors)	Speaking through the counterparty to the needs and desires of their superior. Characterized by the statement, "I always propose in a way that will convince their boss."
5. Determine if there is suitable end to end business logic in the situation (Baber, 2015)	A reflective approach that seeks to understand the entirety of a proposal through its greatest logical extent with consideration of suppliers, distant stakeholders, product lifecycle, relationship lifecycle and more.
6. Bargaining/Logrolling i.e. trading incremental concessions (Bazerman & Malhotra, 2007)	Exchange of concessions especially by linking and delinking issues.
7. Get the deal and move on (authors; Salacuse, 1998)	Prioritizes time and cost efficiency as part of the transaction with the goal of completing and progressing, whether a deal or no deal is the outcome.
8. Secure an ally, develop the relationship (Baber, 2015; Salacuse, 1998)	A negotiation is a process for developing an ally, as opposed completing a particular agreement or task. The negotiator takes a strategic perspective towards the relationship and the deal content.
9. Negotiate only if the other party has empathic fit with you (Baber, 2015; DeMente, 2004)	Establish at the outset if there is chemistry (simpatico feeling) among the parties sufficient to motivate trust and cooperation. This includes the Japanese feeling of an emotional connection *en* (縁) or *wetto* (ウエット).
10. Fairness: An expected sequence of events for determining and adjusting to perceived fairness among the negotiation parties (Carnevale & Pruitt, 1992)	The negotiator expects a process that seems fair. Note that any given process may or may not be seen as fair by other parties.
11. Play to win, win for the sake of winning (Lafley & Martin, 2013)	The sole goal is to gain victory over the other sides in some respect even if loss of possible maximum gains is a result. The victory definition may include moral or egotistical issues as well as substantive issues within the negotiation.

While managers are often considered an appropriate focus group in business negotiations, this study includes also non-managers as the focus is on position in the negotiation. Position in a negotiation does not always equate to rank in the company because non-managers may have remarkable impact on the final decisions due to their relative importance or their technical specialization.

Processing the survey, the main outreach was via LinkedIn searches. Each candidate's profile was checked to confirm long-term work in the IT industry. Approximately one hundred individuals (61 Finnish and 38 Japanese) were contacted in this way. Five additional Finnish individuals were contacted by email. Ultimately ten responses from Japanese IT industry workers were received, all male (see Table 2). One of these, number 16, was removed from the data as all possible schemata were selected for all situations, suggesting an erroneous input. While an actor may access more than one schema at the time, some are mutually exclusive such as securing the deal and moving on (number 7) versus negotiating only if there is an empathic fit (number 9). From Finland, eleven individuals from the IT industry completed surveys, all are male (see Table 3). One was removed from the data because of long term work experience within Japan. In the data analysis, bivariate analysis method was applied to investigate how two variables correlate to each other (Bhattacherjee, 2012). When analyzing the data, correlations were investigated for several pairs of variables using the MS Excel statistics package.

Table 2: Japan respondents.

ID	Age	Level	Frequency of negotiating	Training	Position	Global employee count
1	30-35	Head of Operation	About monthly	No	Negotiation leader	10
5	36-40	Senior Management	Very often	No	Final decision maker	500
6	51-55	1st level of management	4-8 per year	Yes	Negotiation leader	170000
7	56-60	Head of Operation	Very often	No	Final decision maker	NA
8	30-35	1st level of management	1-3 per year	No	Team member	300000
10	51-55	1st level of management	4-8 per year	Yes	Negotiation leader	170000
14	56-60	Non-Management	4-8 per year	Yes	Team member	300
20	41-45	1st level of management	1-3 per year	No	Negotiation leader	80
23	46-50	1st level of management	About monthly	No	Negotiation leader	10

Table 3: Finnish respondents.

ID	Age	Level	Frequency of negotiating	Training	Position	Global employee count
2	46-50	Head of Operation	About monthly	Yes	Final decision maker	4
9	30-35	Non-Management	1-3 per year	No	Other supporter	5000
11	26-30	Non-Management	1-3 per year	No	Other supporter	270000
12	41-45	Non-Management	1-3 per year	Yes	Team member	500
13	46-50	Non-Management	1-3 per year	No	Other supporter	15000
15	36-40	Senior Management	Very often	Yes	Final decision maker	6
18	21-25	Non-Management	4-8 per year	No	Team member	10
21	41-45	Head of Operation	Very often	Yes	Final decision maker	50
22	31-35	Head of Operation	Very often	No	Final decision maker	150
24	36-40	Non-management	Very often	Yes	Team member	300000

FINDINGS

For the first research question, which schemata are in use among the current generation of Japanese and Finnish negotiators in the IT industry, the survey confirmed that schemata 2-10 in Table 1 above are in use. Table 4 below shows how many individuals among the Japanese and Finnish respondents are employing which schemata.

Table 4: Number of negotiators choosing schemata.

Schema	Number of Finnish negotiators	Number of Japanese negotiators
1. Win/lose	0	0
2. Employ a multistep process to get satisfying results	8	6
3. Explore/Solve Win/Win	10	7

Cooperate		
4. Pitch to absent boss	7	7
5. Determine if there is suitable end to end business logic in the situation	8	7
6. Bargaining/Logrolling i.e. trade incremental concessions	5	1
7. Get the deal and move on	4	0
8. Secure an ally, develop the relationship	4	6
9. Negotiate only if the other party has empathic fit with you	4	3
10. Fairness: An expected sequence of events for determining and adjusting to perceived fairness among the negotiation parties	5	6
11. Play to win, win for the sake of winning	0	0

Two schemata were not selected by any respondent at all: Win/lose and Play to Win. These schemata are competitive and distributive, thinking which may be less appealing to the open source collaborative culture of the IT world, especially software, where team based development work is the standard. Alternatively, the prevalence of less-competitive schemata may indicate a relatively sophisticated view of business negotiation among IT negotiators. These two schemata are discussed further in the following section.

Regarding the second question, we can argue that negotiators mostly change their schema based on situation. The survey presented three situations, a new business relationship, an existing but not close business relationship, and a close business ally. Two of the Japanese and three of the Finnish respondents out of the seventeen total respondents indicated that they do not change schema based on the three situations provided. For these five, one way of thinking is enough. Four of those five brought only one schema into play. The remaining fourteen individuals, 74% of the survey population, did evince selection of schema based on situation.

For the third research question, we examined correlations among the data using dummy values as presented in Table 5 below. Variables in Table 5 correspond to the columns in Tables 2 and 3 above as follows. The AGE variable refers to the age range of the respondent. The LEVW variable refers to the management level of the individual. The FREQ variable refers to the frequency that the respondent participated in negotiation. TRN refers to respondent's experience of negotiation training. POSIT refers to the respondent's position in negotiation. COUNT refers to the number of employees in the organization globally and thus indirectly to the size of that organization.

Table 5: Respondent data with dummy values.

ID	AGE	LEVW	FREQ	TRN	POSIT	COUNT
1	3	4	3	1	3	3
2	6	4	3	2	4	8
5	4	3	4	1	4	6
6	7	1	2	2	3	6
7	8	4	4	1	4	3
8	3	1	1	1	2	4
9	2	0	1	1	1	4
10	7	1	2	2	3	6
11	2	0	1	1	1	2
12	5	0	1	2	2	3
13	6	0	1	1	1	5
14	6	0	2	2	2	4
15	4	3	4	2	4	8
18	1	0	2	1	2	7
20	5	1	1	1	2	5
21	5	4	4	2	4	6
22	3	4	4	1	4	7
23	6	1	3	1	3	4
24	4	0	4	2	2	5

We found that age did not correlate with increased number of schemata as shown in Table 6 below. It would seem that years of work and life experience do not result in the individual accruing additional views of negotiation. On the other hand, level in the organization, frequency of negotiation, and position in negotiation, all correlated with the number of schemata available to that individual, as seen in Table 6 below.

Table 6: Correlation of age to other variables.

Correlation of Age to Number of Schemata	0.02349	No correlation
Correlation of Workplace Level to Number of Schemata	0.342251	Moderate correlation
Correlation of Frequency of	0.415894	Strong correlation

Negotiation to Number of Schemata		
Correlation of Negotiation Position to Number of Schemata	0.525538	Strong correlation

As it can be observed from Figure 1 below, there is a tendency for the number of available schemata to increase with the importance of the person's position in the negotiation, from Other Supporter (low) up to Final Decision Maker (highest). Additionally, in this small sample, the Japanese business negotiators appear to have fewer schemata available to them than their Finnish counterparts.

Figure 1. Schemata availability by negotiator position.
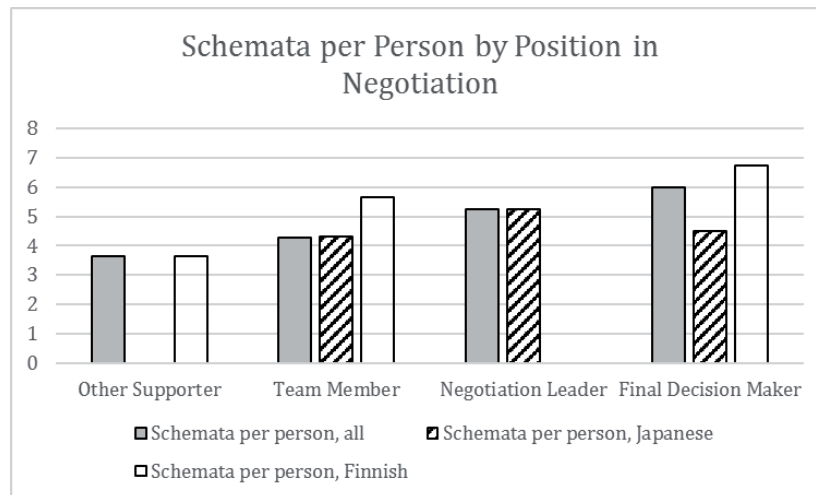
Analysis also reveals that negotiators with lower positions in negotiation (Team Member and Other Supporter) had on average fewer schemata, about three, than those with higher positions (Lead Negotiator, Final Decision Maker). The higher players had almost six schemata available (see Figure 1). When it comes to negotiation training, Final Decision Makers and Negotiation Leaders with negotiation training had slightly more schemata at hand. However Team Members with training had slightly fewer.

DISCUSSION

The most interesting findings from the previous section and other salient items are discussed below. Because this study based on fairly small sample, the main intent of this discussion is to identify salient points for future study.

Firstly, Logrolling, schema number six in this study, was noticeably less in use among Japanese than among the Finnish negotiators studied. Logrolling, the process of offering and

counteroffering incremental improvements, concessions, and recombined packages, is common in training courses and popular negotiation literature in North America and Europe. In those regions, it may be a widely held schema that comes easily to the layman's mind, a more complex version of *quid pro quo,* "I'll give you this if you give me that."

Secondly, Get the Deal and Move on, presented as schema number seven, was chosen by seven of the Finns and only one of the Japanese respondents. This way of thinking seeks time efficiency and is competitive towards co-workers and competitor companies that may not be directly in the negotiation, but not necessarily towards the negotiation counterparties. This schema may match with the notion that individualism is valued higher in Finland than Japan (Hofstede et al., 2005). This schema is short term in thinking; relationships and repeat business are not goals of this schema, merely saving time or gathering a quota of deals are the goals. This is an opposite, though not mutually exclusive, schema of developing an ally (number eight), which appears to be more popular among Japanese than Finnish negotiators.

Thirdly, Develop an Ally for the Long Term, number eight in this study, was more popular among Japanese than Finns but relatively common in both groups. Therefore it may be a source of common ground in Japanese-Finnish encounters. If so, parties may be able to promote it explicitly and improve the communication from the outset. This schema refers to a process for developing an ally, as opposed to completing a particular agreement or task. The negotiator takes a strategic perspective towards the relationship and the deal content. The typical collaborative nature of IT development (Whitehead, 2007) may explain the relative commonality of this schema.

Fourthly, Establish Empathic Fit is presented as the ninth schema. Only three Finnish and a mere pair of Japanese negotiators chose this schema. The literature (DeMente, 1994) and authors' experience suggests that this schema is common among Japanese business negotiators. However the data collected in this study suggest that it is neither remarkably common among the Japanese negotiators, nor restricted to Japanese business people. Against the expectations of the authors, few Japanese business people chose this and they were outnumbered, albeit only three to two, by Finns. It may be, as suggested by Choi et al. (2012), that Japanese businesses have well established relationships and do not need to undertake this step so often.

Fifthly, in this study population, Finns employed more schemata than Japanese, however the small sample size makes it unclear if this is true in the larger population of IT industry negotiators. Nonetheless, some tendencies appear for the following three schemata: i) Get the deal and move on: Four Finns included this schema, but it was not selected by any Japanese respondents. ii) Develop an ally: Four Finns identified use of this schema whereas six Japanese respondents did. This schema emphasizes a long-term alliance where the relationship is of vital importance. iii) Make offers and accept counteroffers to gain and give incrementally: Only one Japanese whereas five Finnish participants selected this schema. Other schemata were shared close to equally by Japanese and Finnish IT business negotiators, although the survey population is too small to draw clear conclusions about preference.

Finally, two schemata were not selected by any respondent at all. These were the first on the list, Win/lose, and the final choice, Play to Win. Both are highly competitive and allow little room for relationship development; indeed they are likely to sacrifice relationships in favor of tangible

gains. The rejection of these two schemata suggests that Finnish and Japanese IT negotiators may not be particularly aggressive in seeking immediate distributive advantage but may be generally tuned to collaborative arrangements and mutual gains. This result could be because the industry presents a broadly collaborative culture as demonstrated in some locations, for example USA (Dionisio, Dickson, August, Dorin, & Toal, 2007; Inada, 2010; Saxenian, 1994) and one of Canada's technology hubs, Waterloo, Ontario (Spigel, 2013) or for other reasons not investigated here such as lack of training, lack of pressure due to limited resources, and so on.

These data suggest that the number of schemata a person has available to draw on does not increase simply through the general experience of living in the normal world of daily interactions and informal negotiation. Rather, it may be by dint of frequent exposure to business negotiations that negotiators increase their library of available schemata. More strikingly, with the strongest correlation, it is the higher position in the negotiation that is associated with the greatest depth of schemata. The causality nonetheless remains unclear. It may be that individuals with more schemata rise to the top, or it may be that their rise to the top is part of their process of harvesting new schemata. Future research may be able to determine the causality through modeling, surveys, and observation.

CONCLUSIONS

The aim of this study was to contribute knowledge of business negotiation schemata of IT negotiators and thence to identify avenues of further investigation on this subject. Although negotiation skills of IT managers have been highlighted in several previous studies (Abraham et al., 2006; Davis et al., 2006; Kuivanen & Nahar, 2009; Vykoukal et al., 2009), the negotiation styles per se have received very limited attention the IT literature. The findings of this study reveal that differences exist among the study population with respect to negotiation schemata, preferences for sharing of info, experience, and availability of schemata to individuals. IT negotiators apparently have some schemata at hand, but do not necessarily enjoy a broad range. There is a possibility that they might choose schemata that conflict with the schemata of their counterparts in cross-cultural situations. Indeed, they may not identify their counterparty's schema due to their own narrow range of schemata. Practical implications for IT negotiators include gaining more schemata. By extension, they should seek to hone their ability to correctly select and switch based on the context of an interaction. An important further implication for Japanese and Finnish IT practitioners is to know the schemata in use on all sides in order to avoid mismatches and thus inadvertent conflicts.

Among its limitations, the study suffers from small sample size including only male respondents. This has to be taken into the consideration when evaluating the findings of this study. That is, the present work could be improved with a larger population in order to validate, extend, and refine the findings. In addition, present study did not consider to the type of a product or software under negotiation. That is, highly customized hardware or software might require a totally different kind of negotiation process compared to the standardized hardware or software (cf. Nambisan, 2001; Ojala & Tyrväinen, 2006). We did not consider differences between deal and sales negotiations or experience gained in negotiation. Follow up studies are required to take these into consideration. For instance, qualitative case interviews with individual negotiators would shed greater light on preferences and choices about schemata in the context of the industry and

specific negotiation situations. A future survey and complementary cycle of interviews might also seek to determine the metacognitive mechanism of selecting and switching schemata.

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VI

SCHEMATA, ACCULTURATION, AND COGNITION: EXPATRIATES IN JAPAN'S SOFTWARE INDUSTRY

by

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