



Indigenous Brazilian Management Practices

Zandra Balbinot¹, Luciano Minghini², Rafael Borim-de-Souza³

Abstract

Purpose: The present research seeks to understand to what extent companies in emerging countries, specifically, Brazilian, adopt dominant management practices, the so-called Euro-American practices, possess their one, or show a syncretism between the two. **Methods:** Mixed research. One phase was to collect data using a survey about cultural dimensions adopted from GLOBE (House 1998) management practices and also from Brazilian academy. Another was to collect data through interviews, which were analyzed in parallel. **Results:** Of the seven dominant cultural dimensions, indigenous practices influenced two. Another three were influenced by dominant management practices. Two of the local dimensions, even with internationalization, merged practices with Brazilian cultural traits. Even so, the practices derived from Jeitinho diminished relative to the international relations and experience of managers. **Conclusions:** The paper shows the existence of powerful Brazilian Indigenous Managerial Practices such as personalism and formalism. These practices have great influence on international business negotiations. On the other hand, it also shows that there are still dominant managerial practices specially in the case of more internationalized Brazilian managers.

Keywords: comparative management; managerial practices; indigenous practices; jeitinho; brazilian culture; brazilian practices.

¹Zandra Balbinot is PhD. and full professor at Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, Brazil. Pref. Lothario Meissner Avenue, 632, 2nd floor, Curitiba, PR. Zip code: 80210-170. Phone: 554133604365. E-mail: zbalbinot@hotmail.com

²Luciano Minghini is M.D. and full professor at Federal University of Paraná, Curitiba, Brazil, and makes his doctorate in Business Administration at the same university. Pref. Lothario Meissner Avenue, 632, 2nd floor, Curitiba, PR. Zip code: 80210-170. Phone: 554133604365. E-mail: lminghini@gmail.com.

³Rafael Borim-de-Souza is a Researcher with a PhD scholarship from the Brazilian Council of Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq), has a Master degree in Business Administration and makes his doctorate in the same area at Federal University of Paraná. Pref. Lothario Meissner Avenue, 632, 2nd floor, Curitiba, PR. Zip code: 80210-170. Phone: 554396320056. E-mail: rafaborim@yahoo.com

Introduction

Since the 1960's, the debate about the appropriateness of management principles from the United States and other countries has become an important focus of research. The American management model is still the reference, however, with the constant evolution of the global economy, the development of communications and international relations, its appropriateness is increasingly contested. In the same way, other models, such as from Germany and Japan, have been adopted by other countries. Globalization has brought mixed characteristics to how companies are managed, whereupon the dominant models are adapted to necessities, especially to local cultures. Various authors have observed that local management situations truly have unique realities that are different from those in dominant countries and which can become a source of competitive advantage. In international business, the diversity of management practices appears most prominently in local markets, at the industry level and among the people that establish them. In this sense, this research seeks to understand to what extent companies in emerging countries adopt dominant management practices, indigenous practices, or a syncretism between the two. Comparisons between managerial practices can be made between countries or based upon cultural roots which serve as a reference in the comparison between different groups or practices (Liesch and Knight, 1999; Oviatt and McDougall, 2005; Schollhammer, 1975).

The importance of this study comes from the need for understanding and accepting the existence of different local management practices which are affected by internationalization (Buckley and Casson, 1998; Dawson, 2001; Melin, 1992).

We first present a brief history and review of comparative management research in order to display a synthesis of the debate concerning cultural characteristics and origins of management practices. This is used to support the subsequent study of indigenous practices used by Brazilian managers in internationally active organizations located in southern Brazil. Data was gathered through a web survey and eight interviews using cultural dimensions of managerial practices adopted from GLOBE and Brazilian academy, allowing for an analysis of managers' perceptions about the daily use of indigenous practices, the adoption of dominant practices, and Euro-American influences.

Comparative Management Perspective

Contemporary knowledge in comparative management theory, as well as its epistemological and methodological foundations, is rooted in colonialist practices that were primarily extended throughout the world from European pow-

ers (Smith, 1999; Westwood, 2004). Just as the relationships between colonies and metropolises developed over time with the concession of new international representativeness for existing countries, there is currently a need to analyze the relationships between these countries using different variables, among them management practices, using a post-colonialist interpretive perspective (Overing, 2006; Pfeffer, 2005).

European manipulation, as manifested in the socio-cultural context, has left remnants that are still experienced by former colonies, such as devastated ecosystems, dissemination of widespread poverty, and the domination of utilitarian and teleological discourse of how to best understand reality. The suppressed areas, in other words, did not try to be understood by the metropolises, but instead tried to be alike in a subordinate and inferior relationship (Parry, 1987; Peterson, 2001).

By observing the contemporary geopolitical context which is based upon institutionalized knowledge systems, it is possible to declare that research into comparative management theory can be organized as a new benchmark, which does not mention merely Europe and comes to consider the Euro-American project as it relates to the world. The project is intended to understand, predict and control economic, technological and productive development systems (Katz, 2001; Tsui, 2007; Westwood, 2001).

In a concise manner, the studies connected to comparative management theory are conducted for and by the Euro-American center and seeks to ensure that the management and business practices of the others (in this case no longer colonies, but the countries that relate to this center) are accessible and understandable so that strategic commercial relationships can be constructed. The imposed strategy of international relations is self-perpetuating, in which this Euro-American center seeks to control the transformations that are occurring in the emerging economies, primarily those related to the alteration of social structures, values and behavioral patterns of a given society (Hoogvelt, 2001; Raghuram and Madge, 2006; Westwood, 2001).

This scenario of comparison with the Euro-American center allows a recurring misconception in academy, which treats international management as synonymous with comparative management (Redding, 1994). Schollhammer (1975) established an objective differentiation: research into international management is interested in understanding the management and operations of multinational enterprises, while comparative management is focused on the institutional and cultural similarities and differences that relate to managerial practices in different countries.

This differentiation, when combined with Westwood's (2001,

2004) contributions, leads to a comparative management theory perspective that is intent on researching organizational management systems in relation to a specific country as a benchmark. This comparison would allow dominant managerial practices to be gradually increased and facilitate the internationalization of these companies (Besio and Butz, 2004; Brannen, 1996).

In fact, the primary objective of comparative management theory is to develop a body of knowledge that endows the ability to forecast and explain the efficiency and success of companies in different countries (Alton, 1969). Those who study comparative management theory focus on the external environment, because it contributes specific elements that contribute in special ways to the managerial efficiency of an organization (Clifford and Marcus, 1986).

In this sense, comparative management theory is interdisciplinary, in that academics who study related subjects also conduct parallel studies about other topics which help aggregate a greater depth to the findings of comparative management (Jack and Westwood, 2009; Schollhammer, 1975).

The interdisciplinary aspect of this theoretical body can be seen in its methodological potential. Schollhammer (1969, 1973) suggests a typology where studies in comparative management fall into two categories: (1) the abstract-theoretical, which seeks to ground comparative management theory through the construction of theoretical models, conceptual structures and specific typologies for developing and testing hypotheses; (2) the empirical, which understands the research forces which seek to explain, evaluate and accumulate the data collected by empirical research. This typology shows that comparative management theory, while located within the field of management studies, does not possess a theoretical body which can be analyzed merely through a single knowledge perspective.

There are three conceptual approaches for comparative management: socioeconomic, aimed at economic development; ecological, focused on the external environment; and behavioral (Neghandi, 1975).

The socioeconomic approach, focused on economic development, starts its analysis from the fact that management symbolizes the most critical and relevant characteristic for economic development of any given region. Management is considered one of the primary conduits for change, but it is only one of the many parts that compose a socioeconomic system (Neghandi, 1975; Schollhammer, 1969).

The ecological approach, focused on the environment, seeks to isolate the variables in the external environment based upon similarities and differences that are attributed to the

different managerial activities in various national contexts. The business focus of a firm is seen as an ecological system, in that external factors have a determining impact on managerial efficiency, which in turn influence firm performance. This system influences the overall economic efficiency. Ecological components are seen as potential impediments for effective managerial practice (Neghandi; Schollhammer, 1969).

Researchers that use the behavioral approach to conduct analysis of comparative management prioritize specific manager behaviors that exercise their functions in different cultural contexts. It is important that motivations for finding particular results related to specific managerial attitudes and their respective professional relationships are taken into account. These are important for understanding the interactions between individuals and society in a way that organizational objectives can be adequately achieved (Neghandi, 1975; Schollhammer, 1969). By considering the cultural roots and relationships in comparative analysis of managerial practices, we believe that the behavioral approach is the closest for studying indigenous practices of specific groups as contrasted against what are considered global (House, Javidan, 2002); convergent (Butt, Jaeger, 2010; Jaeger, Avrichir, 2010; Webber, 1969); or dominant practices (Neghandi, 1975; Schollhammer, 1975).

Even though Schollhammer (1969, 1973, 1975) defends the comparative management theory as a pluralistic theoretical body, its different characteristics don't remove the overwhelming content of domination in comparative studies. It is possible to affirm that the areas which are not located in the West, specifically in the Euro-American center, were systematically subjected to Western scientific and technological knowledge in a way that the others always taken out of their realities and reconstructed by a dominant comparative discourse (Said, 1978). This was the context by which all of the management practices were developed: from the management of the colonies up to the global international management found today. Western science, for its part, was intrinsically involved in the practice, in that it was used to justify the negation of the other in favor of the proliferation of the practices, ways of living and knowledge of the dominant discourses (Westwood, 2004).

Under a methodological analysis we can see theories that were predominantly developed through deductive approaches, testing of hypotheses and statistical analysis. Such considerations reassert that the comparative management theory emerged in a discursive space in which structural functionalism represented the dominant paradigm and sustained the rationality for the construction of explanations that could be generalized and applied as universal rules. Functionalist leanings gained more strength in inspecting how different

economies began to industrialize and develop, resulting in a teleological historiography dictating a common trajectory that should be followed by countries so that economic success could be reached (Boyacigiller and Adler, 1991). As a response to this, some researchers began to develop their studies along more orthodox lines, which, even though they claimed to promote different methodologies, were still rooted in functionalist traditions. This is a fact which still persists in the presumption of uniqueness, specialty, and truth in Euro-American science as compared to the rest of the world (Parry, 1987). There is still a prevalence of reverence for and dissemination of management practices developed by the Euro-American center over those from the rest of the world.

But after all, are the Euro-American managerial practices still generalizable and unique?

Managerial Practices' Cultural Roots

Managerial practices are carried out by one or more organizations which begin and develop through the interactions between the people involved. These interactions emerge with time and according to organizational needs, such as the need to internationalize, allowing for the emergence of an interdependent union of activities coherently oriented towards a specific strategy (Newman and Nollen, 1996; Jarzabkowski, 2005; Whittington, 1996).

The content of strategic management practices is confirmed by the fact that they are influenced by and dependent upon cultural values which are expressed in the values built through relationships with the external business environment (Inglehart and Baker, 2000; Johnson et al., 2007; Ralston, Gustafson, 1993). Thus, the managerial practices can be defined as a union of organizational activities that are carved out depending upon cultural demands (Jarzabkowski, 2010).

In this sense, values can be understood as managerial practices' cultural roots (Hofstede, 1991; Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1994). Values are part of the cultural formation of a group, and thus they conform to the context in which the group is inserted (Hofstede, 1991; Torres Jr., Gati, 2011). The social reality experienced by this group of people displays the preference these individuals have about important aspects that organizations must understand if they desire to accomplish business in different country locations. Jaeger, Avrichir (2010) analyzed Hofstede's (1991) contributions, determining that the values represent non-specific, shared beliefs and feelings, which together influence the processes governing the social choices and decisions taken by individuals.

Based upon the propositions found in Hofstede (1991) and

Schwartz (1994; 1994), a group of researchers coordinated by House (1998) developed a project called GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness) identified groups of countries with similar cultural characteristics and individual values. In order to measure cultural differences, GLOBE opted to directly observe the similarities in practices within families, companies and political institutions (House, 1998).

This allowed for the values both influencing and influenced by the behaviors, policies and practices to be studied in light of the managerial practices in organizations (House, Javidan, 2001). Thus, the GLOBE proposal came to help in the study of the managerial practices labeled dominant, or dominant, by the comparative management academy. In what is referred to as the Brazilian context of studies about cultural values and characteristics (Barbosa, 1992; Da Matta, 1997; Freyre, 1984; Motta, 1997; Ramos, 1989; Salami, Soltanzadeh, 2012) eight local values dimensions were identified as influencing Brazilian managerial practices listed in Table 1 as follows (Chu and Wood, 2008; Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira, 2001).

In this sense, this research seeks to understand to what extent companies in emerging countries adopt dominant management practices, indigenous practices, or a syncretism between the two. For that, the methodological process is explained in the next section.

Methodological Process

In order to verify if indigenous managerial practices remain present in the routines of managers' who are internationally active, or if they are being replaced by dominant managerial practices (that originate in Euro-American cultural characteristics), we undertook an investigation guided by the behavioral approach suggested by Schollhammer (1969). This approach allows analyses of comparative management by prioritizing behavior within a specific cultural context, in this case Brazilian. GLOBE (House, 1998) dimensions were used for measuring the managerial practices, together with the Brazilian cultural characteristics identified by Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira (2001), Machado-da-Silva and Shimonishi (2003), and Chu and Wood (2008). These latter define the indigenous managerial practices we hoped to analyze.

The study began by reviewing the theoretical underpinnings and previous empirical results, and then proceeded to collect initial data via a web-based survey. This survey was aimed at uncovering managers' perceptions about the presence of indigenous or dominant practices in companies at different stages of internationalization. Due to a limited number of responses, the research was enhanced through individual interviews, resulting in a multi-method study (Creswell, 2007).

Characteristics	Short Description
Inequality of Power and Hierarchy	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Hierarchical relationships of colonial Brazil - People in superior positions believe that they possess special rights that exempt them from common laws. - Similar to the Power Distance dimension ideas.
<i>Jeitinho</i> (i.e. a way)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Smart, creative, flexible or even, unofficial ways of accomplishing difficult tasks, most often outside of official procedures, channels, and especially through the use of favors and relationships. - Seeks to balance the daily needs of individuals with the demands and restrictions imparted by laws and rules. - Actions, decisions, behavior and/or creative angles adopted in social interactions that aim to accomplish objectives in spite of opposing legal circumstances.
Personalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emphasizes relationships and acquaintances. - Importance attributed to individuals and personal interests to the detriment of group or community interests. - High degree of trust placed on family and friend networks when solving problems or obtaining privileges. - Sometimes it leads to favoritism, nepotism, and paternalism in relationships.
Formalism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - A high degree of discrepancy between formal rules and norms and what really happens. - How effectively rules and norms condition behavior. - Seek to reduce risk and increase the level of control over human actions and behaviors. - Large number of rules, norms and procedures created.
Protectionism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Generated from affective and intense interpersonal relationships with traces of paternalism and authoritarianism. - Surface from an individual external locus of control. - Derived from power distance and hierarchical relationships.
Uncertainty Avoidance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Term coined by Hofstede. - Historical desire for avoiding social and interpersonal conflicts. - Gives rise to Personal relationships, Protectionism, and Power Distance. - Brazilians constantly seek peace and order in order to avoid conflict in these relationships.
Short-term Orientation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Consequence of the strategy adopted by the first Portuguese managers in Brazil. - Origin in exploitation interests and priorities - Defined as being based in Hofstede's Short-term/Long-term Orientation.
Flexibility	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Capacity for people to be adaptive and creative in adjusting to adverse situations and innovative under challenging circumstances. - Stimulated by economic and market history - This characteristic shows Brazilians' interest in achieving results and objectives as being similar to the Hofstede's Masculinity concept.
Receptiveness to what is Foreign	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Emanate from the desire for miscegenation. - Acceptance of racial and social mixtures. - Easy assimilation of foreign practices and customs, hospitality for and, admiration, valorization and imitation of what is foreign.

Table 1: Brazilian Cultural Characteristics

The data collected through the two methods were combined during the analysis, using the perspective of comparative management theory. The level of analysis adopted was the individual and the unit of analysis was managerial practice as influenced by cultural traits. The individuals were limited to company managers, being strategic agents responsible for making decisions. These were divided into middle managers (MDM: 56.6%) and top management team (TMT: 44.4%) (Jarzabkowski, 2004).

Based upon the models, primarily GLOBE, which had been used in previous research in Brazil, we conducted a survey pre-test with 8 business executives. After necessary adaptations, we selected 2,100 emails of companies that were listed in the databases of the local federation of industries and the ministry of national industrial development as having imported or exported during 2008 or 2009. An invitation to participate with a link to the survey was sent by email on two occasions, separated by 30 days. After each mailing, the researchers randomly contacted 5% of the managers to confirm receipt of the email and reinforce the invitation to participate in the research. Out of all of the emails, 100 respondents began to fill out the electronic survey, of which 42 finished it. There were 36 valid survey responses which characterized our sample as non-parametric.

The survey was developed using GLOBE questions in order to measure the practices derived from the following cultural dimensions: Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Assertiveness, Future Orientation, and Performance Orientation. These are cultural characteristics that originated from the Euro-American axis and from which Brazil diverged in previous studies (GLOBE, 2006; Jaeger and Avrichir, 2010; Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira, 2001). Some questions were designed based upon models from previous research by Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira (2001), specifically to measure the practices linked with Jeitinho, Personalism, and Formalism. These characteristics are considered as typically Brazilian and did not raise any concerns about interpretation during the pre-test (Hilal, 2006; Hofstede and Hilal, 2010; Motta, 1997). Beyond questions about practices, there were also some formulated to measure the international relationships and participation of the managers (Karlsen and Silseth, 2003; Papadopoulos and Martin, 2010; Sullivan, 1994; Welch and Luostarinen, 1993). The questions were objective, nominal, categorical or dichotomous, and interval scales of the Likert type with intervals from 1 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree) (Babbie, 1999; Bryman and Duncan, 2005). Table 2 displays a summary of the questions and constructs about managerial practices that were used for analysis under a comparative management perspective.

The quantitative statistical methods used in this research were based upon the GLOBE papers (GLOBE, 2006) and

the research of Sarala and Vaara (2010). In order to compare the present results with results from previous works, we implemented parametric tests with factor analysis, as well as tests, correlations, and linear regression tests for the non-parametric sample, as suggested by Bryman and Duncan (2005). Non-parametric tests such as the chi-squared test (level of adherence), descriptive and exploratory tests, norm tests, independence tests (crosstabs), analysis of significant differences between medians of one or more groups and Spearman correlation analysis were used when necessary in order to reinforce the parametric analysis.

Because of inherent limits to analysis for the sample, we decided to interview company managers with different levels of international participation (Creswell, 2007). Six interviews were performed, all with managers working in manufacturing industries with titles of owner, director or manager. One manager was responsible for a national-level, family-owned company that is beginning to import inputs. Another was manager of a different national-level, family owned company that had been importing inputs for 15 years and was beginning export activities. One was a production manager of a large-scale company that imports and exports a large volume of consumer goods. Representing different multinational subsidiaries based in Brazil with large international operations were two directors and one manager.

In order to collect the data for the qualitative phase, we chose the personal interview technique (Eisenhardt, 1989; Welch and Piekkari, 2011; Yin, 2011). The interviews consisted of a script constructed from the theoretical review of this research's variables. The primary focus was on exploring everyday situations where a manager might evince practices that related to the ten measurement dimensions. The interviews were recorded, with the permission of the subjects, onto digital media. The identity of the subjects was concealed by using ENT (interview) plus a number from 1-6. Treatment of the interviews was made based upon the methodology suggested by Creswell (2007) and Merriam (2009), through content analysis without the support of specific computer programs or systems. Extracted content from the interviews was identified and classified in accord with the definitions of each category of analysis. During the qualitative phase the interview subjects asked that their names not be revealed.

Having presented the data collection and methodology, below follows a discussion about the results.

Discussion

Analysis of the data collected during the web survey and the personal interviews allowed identification of which of the dominant and indigenous cultural dimensions influenced

subjects' managerial practices. We were also able to relate these results to the international relations and participation of the subjects.

The statistical tests began with reliability and factor analyses for the questions relating to each dimension measuring managerial practices. The first dimension analyzed was Power Distance, with a low level of reliability (alfa=0.320). The same happened with Uncertainty Avoidance (alfa=0.540), Performance Orientation (alfa=0.452), Jeitinho (alfa=0.373), Personalism (alfa=0.547) and Formalism (alfa=0.444). The results of reliability analysis for these dimensions were skewed due to the low number of responses, probably due to the stress caused by a lengthy survey.

On the other hand, we did find that some dominant practices presented statistically strong levels of reliability. The questions for the dimension Future Orientation showed an acceptable level of reliability (alfa=0.684), but did not have coefficients or sufficient KMO value (above 0.6) to allow grouping the questions into a single factor. However, the questions for the dimension Assertiveness (KMO=0.649, alfa=0.706) did provide a high level of reliability (above 0.6

and allowed for simplification into a single factor.

Even though the statistical analysis as a whole did not show sufficient levels of reliability for all dimensions, we decided to keep some specific questions that, when isolated, showed better levels of reliability and correlation with the others.

Analyzing the correlations between dominant and indigenous practices, the correlation and linear regression (stepwise model) between a manager's level of internationalization and cultural dimensions for the practices studied, we discovered that there were interesting correlations at a mid-level ($r > 0.3$ or $r < -0.3$). This reinforced the data encountered in the interviews and displayed the apparent relationships.

As a part of the interviews, the subjects were asked to list, without giving order to priority, five daily activities that contribute in some way towards local or international company success; in other words, strategic management practices. Among the examples (Table 3), it was possible to identify managerial practices related to the dimensions of Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Future Orientation, Performance Orientation, and Personalism.

Dimensions	Constructs or Questions
Power Distance (alfa = 0,320)	POD - *The people of this company who occupy positions of power try to increase their distance from individuals with less power.
Uncertainty Avoidance (alfa = 0,540)	UAV1 - *The majority of work in this organization is highly structured, leading to few unexpected events. UAV2 - *The requirements and instructions for work in this company are defined in detail, so that employees know is expected of them.
** Assertiveness (KMO = 0,649) (alfa = 0,706)	In this company, people are normally aggressive. In this company, people are normally dominant. In this company, people are normally rude.
Future Orientation (alfa = 684)	FOR1 - * In order to be successful in this company, it is necessary to plan ahead. FOR2 - * Everyone in this company accepts that planning for the future is the norm. FOR3 - * The meetings in this company are normally planned well ahead of time (more than two weeks).
Performance Orientation (alfa = 0,452)	POR - *The majority of employees in this company set challenging goals for themselves.
Jeitinho (alfa = 0,373)	JET – I always finagle or find a new way to deal with the bureaucracy that keeps me from doing my job.
Personalism (alfa = 0,547)	PER – In order to advance in this company I must depend upon my personal contacts and relationships.
Formalism (alfa = 0,444)	FOM – In this company there are rules, norms or controls that don't relate to everyday work, are not known, or are not followed by the employees.

Table 2: Dimensions and constructs of analyzed practices

* Inverse scales recoded during statistical treatment. ** Questions grouped as a result of factor analysis.

Source: questions adapted from the GLOBE (House, 1998), Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira (2001), and Chu and Wood (2008) models.

Table 3: Practices considered strategic by managers.
Source: research data.

Characterization of the practices	Managers' strategic practices
Power Distance The existence of different levels for which members of an organization or society believe and agree that power should be unequally distributed (House and Javidan, 2001).	(-) Circulate throughout the company. (-) Keep in contact with the manufacturing floor. (-) Participative management.
Uncertainty Avoidance Defined as the level to which members of an organization or society trust in the norms, rituals and bureaucratic practices of their society in order to minimize unpredictable future events (House and Javidan, 2001).	(+) Planning and control of purchasing and payments related to importation. (+) Daily monitoring of finances. (+) Monitoring client complaints and causes of problems.
Future Orientation This is the degree to which individuals in an organization or society engage in behaviors focused on future or long-term situations, where rewards are not immediate (House and Javidan, 2001)	(+) Weekly meetings with all company business units. (+) Annual meetings with headquarters. (+) Monthly meetings for production and sales forecasting.
Performance Orientation This refers to the level at which an organization or society encourages and rewards its members for excellence and improvements in performance (House and Javidan, 2001)	(+) Managing sales teams with motivating tactics. (+) Learning foreign languages. (+) Keeping engineering informed about market needs to improve products. (+) Prospecting for new clients and markets. (+) Technical training concerning internationalization. (+) Encourage team members to develop good relationships with clients.
Personalism (and Networking) Personalism emphasizes personal relationships and networks, expressing the importance given to people and personal interests to the detriment of group or community interests. There is a high degree of confidence in networks of family and friends when resolving problems or gaining privileges: high levels of favoritism and paternalism in relationships (Chu and Wood 2008, Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira 2001).	(+) Coordination of international contacts, encouraging managers to work closely with international clients. (+) Engaging with internal and external clients in order to understand them. (+) Increase or maintain networks. (+) Monitoring sales and contact with clients and suppliers. (+) Visiting trade shows and clients.

Indigenous Practices

By analyzing Table 4 it is possible to see that the practices derived from the cultural characteristics Jeitinho and Personalism are not significantly related to dominant practices, and thus don't run a risk of being replaced. For example, some authors consider Assertiveness to be the opposite of Jeitinho and Personalism (Da Matta, 1997; Vergara and Moraes, 1997). Formalism, on the other hand, has a contrasting inverse relationship with Uncertainty Avoidance ($r = -0.382$) and enhances Future Orientation ($r = -0.345$ and -0.416).

In Table 5 it is apparent that Jeitinho has the greatest number of average correlations ($r > 0.3$), all inversely proportional to the level of internationalization (negative r). Three manag-

ers interviewed explained that "out there we are just one more", and that abroad there are formal barriers in professional relationships that are more respected than in Brazil and that can impede managers using their relationships to gain favor in controversial or complex situations (Chu and Wood, 2008). One of the directors said: "[...] I get along well with all of my contacts [...], but in a different way [...]". Another stated: "[...] we play by the rules [...], because it is the security that both he and I have [...]".

Dominant Practices

The first cultural dimension analyzed was Power Distance. Managers from countries with dominant practices show evidence of a lower idea of power distance (Hofstede, 1991). Statistically, we did not find any significant correlation with

SPEARMAN CORRELATION		International personal contacts	International professional contacts	Frequency of phone contacts	Frequency of e-mail contacts	Total of months in international courses	Total of months working abroad	Total of international activities	Manager International Commitment
POD	Corr.	,245	,202	,222	,265	,175	,283	,050	-,138
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,150	,238	,200	,123	,308	,094	,771	,423
UAV1	Corr.	,084	,139	,305	,385*	,097	-,023	,086	,191
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,625	,418	,075	,022	,575	,896	,619	,264
UAV2	Corr. Coefficient	-,188	-,284	,037	-,061	-,024	,092	-,211	-,186
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,272	,094	,833	,728	,892	,593	,216	,278
ASS	Corr.	-,112	-,314	-,022	-,213	-,009	-,208	-,147	-,055
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,517	,062	,901	,220	,958	,224	,391	,751
FOR1	Corr.	,167	,054	,106	-,026	,002	-,070	-,176	-,052
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,329	,755	,546	,883	,992	,687	,306	,761
FOR2	Corr.	,022	,118	,173	,122	,025	,031	-,151	-,043
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,899	,495	,320	,484	,884	,857	,380	,805
FOR3	Corr.	,357*	,246	,409*	,217	,330*	,352*	,095	-,027
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,033	,149	,015	,211	,050	,035	,583	,875
POR	Corr.	,250	,166	,410*	,371*	,302	,301	,069	,013
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,141	,334	,015	,028	,073	,075	,688	,942
JET	Corr.	-,441**	-,345*	-,328	-,400*	-,074	-,144	-,057	,038
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,007	,040	,054	,017	,666	,403	,741	,828
PER	Corr.	,317	,054	,053	,205	-,006	,059	-,283	-,144
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,060	,755	,763	,237	,975	,734	,095	,404
FOM	Corr.	,291	,284	-,120	-,044	-,067	-,223	,114	,155
	Coefficient								
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,085	,094	,491	,803	,697	,191	,507	,366

Table 4: Correlations among cultural practice dimensions and manager internationalization level.
 ** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Spearman Correlation		POD	UAV1	UAV2	ASS	FOR1	FOR2	FOR3	POR	JET	PER
POD	Corr.	1,00									
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.									
UAV1	Corr.	,030	1,00								
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,864	.								
UAV2	Corr.	-,105	,292	1,00							
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,541	,084	.							
ASS	Corr.	-,278	,042	,352*	1,00						
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,101	,809	,035	.						
FOR1	Corr.	-,214	,325	,392*	,015	1,00					
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,210	,053	,018	,931	.					
FOR2	Corr.	-,284	,291	,139	,134	,514**	1,00				
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,094	,086	,419	,437	,001	.				
FOR3	Corr.	,158	,274	-,033	-,024	,080	,248	1,00			
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,358	,105	,850	,889	,644	,145	.			
POR	Corr.	,000	,491**	,454**	,040	,227	,181	,268	1,00		
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	1,000	,002	,005	,819	,182	,291	,114	.		
JET	Corr.	-,237	-,014	,191	,016	-,077	-,011	-,286	,046	1,00	
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,165	,937	,266	,925	,655	,949	,091	,790	.	
PER	Corr.	,293	-,041	-,061	-,155	,042	,031	-,157	,218	-,127	1,00
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,083	,813	,723	,367	,806	,856	,360	,201	,462	.
FOM	Corr.	,283	-,145	-,382*	-,271	-,345*	-,416*	,027	-,245	-,228	,271
	Coefficient										
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,095	,398	,022	,110	,039	,012	,877	,150	,182	,110

Table 5: Correlations among Indigenous and Dominant cultural practice dimensions

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Dependent Dimension	Independent Dimension	R^2 aj.	Beta	Sig.
Future Orientation: FOR3 - The meetings in this company are normally planned well ahead of time (more than two weeks).	International Experience	0,149	0,421	0,018
	Frequency of telephone contact			
<i>Jeitinho</i> : JET - I always finagle or find a new way to deal with the bureaucracy that keeps me from doing my job.	International Experience	0,170	-0,445	0,012
	Frequency of email contact			
Personalism: PER - In order to advance in this company I must depend upon my personal contacts and relationships.	International Experience	0,110	0,374	0,038
	Breadth of personal contacts			
Formalism: FOM - In this company there are rules, norms or controls that don't relate to everyday work, are not known, or are not followed by the employees.	International Experience	0,124	0,392	0,029
	Breadth of personal contacts			

Table 6: Linear regression of dominant practices, indigenous practices, and manager internationalization level.

the indigenous dimensions (Table 5) or with a manager's level of internationalization (Table 6). On the other side, the level of distance discovered showed a change in the comparison between our median (mean = 3.11) and that found by GLOBE (mean approximately 5.00) (Javidan and Dorfman, 2006). In addition, during the interviews, the managers cited specific practices which bring them closer to their teams and other company sectors (i.e. return to production and engineering, circulating throughout the company, participative management) as listed in Table 3. These results let us infer that the practices linked with this dimension suffer from a slight interference from international cultural characteristics.

In regards to Uncertainty Avoidance, Table 5 allow us to glean that in order to reduce uncertainty, the manager needs to keep in contact with international associates via telephone or email ($r = 0.305$ and 0.385). As one of them explained: "[...] I need to talk to him [foreign contact] before approving my sales person's idea [...]". Whereas in international activities such contact reduces uncertainty for the manager, in the local arena it is closeness with the team that allows for greater security. Three managers commented that they keep in contact with the manufacturing floor in order to: "[...] stay close to what is happening daily in the company, to understand the problems that are making themselves known [...]". Table 3 shows other practices managers use to maintain contact and control of information in order to reduce uncertainty. It can thus be said that the practices linked with Uncertainty Avoidance in Brazil continue to display more indigenous characteristics than global or dominant ones (Javidan and Dorfman, 2006).

Furthermore, in Table 5, the more contact ($r = 0.409$) and foreign experience (studying $r = 0.330$; or working $r = 0.352$) a manager has, the greater the change in indigenous practices focused on the short term (Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira, 2001) towards practices influenced by Future Orientation. The positive correlation shown in Table 6 (beta = 0.421) for international experience demonstrates managers' preferences for dominant practices. Based upon the interviews with the managers that did not participate constantly in the international market, it is possible to distinguish the presence of dominant practices in planning their first importation:

"[...] I have been running after this for six months. I still haven't done anything, practically for my importation [...] it is a question of another 30-40 days from now and I should be hitting the hammer and making my first. In order to be able to in 2011 I have already started implementing my plans that I detailed already." (Emphasis added)

International activity seems to be a new context for the managers, one where they interact and thereafter begin to redefine some practices: "[...] it is the moment from which I do this, understand?" On the other hand, in their natural habitat, the daily production, the short-term orientation continues:

"[...] the agent evaluates it quickly, because I am shortsighted. If I see that something is cool and good to use, let's use it now, don't wait"

Another manager already accustomed to international routines commented:

“I have already measured it out, the budget for 2011 [...] with this market growth [...] you have to make adjustments. And these adjustments, they are monthly [...]”

Table 5 lets us see that practices aimed at performance (Performance Orientation, $r = 0.410; 0.371; 0.302; 0.301$) increase the frequency of contacts and experience (studying or working) abroad proportionately. Table 3 shows examples of practices cited by the managers that illustrate this foreign influence in managerial practices for managers who have had more contact with the international environment (Inglehart and Welzel, 2005; Ralston, 2008).

Even though the practices focused on performance are stimulated by internationalization of managers, the same cannot be said for Assertiveness, as we saw in the previous section, it is substituted for by a more docile and friendly posture due to Personalism. Furthermore, Assertiveness does not influence indigenous characteristics but it does diminish with increasing manager internationalization.

Consequently we can see in Figure 1 that using the analytical perspective of comparative management we have powerful indigenous practices that influences international business activities as Personalism, Formalism ABC and we could observe the presence of dominant practices from the Euro-American axe as ABC.

Conclusions and Final Propositions

Based upon a quantitative and qualitative study of managers from the South of Brazil, we analyzed changes in managerial practices influenced by dominant and indigenous cultural dimensions as a consequence of the international experience and relationships managers have.

Using the GLOBE (House and Javidan, 2001) proposal and Brazilian cultural characteristics (Chu and Wood, 2008; Machado-da-Silva and Oliveira, 2001), we investigated the perceptions managers have about the influence of Power Distance, Uncertainty Avoidance, Assertiveness, Future Orientation, Performance Orientation, Jeitinho, Personalism, and Formalism in their managerial practices.

Analysis of the interviews and web survey showed that the cultural dimensions Uncertainty Avoidance and Assertiveness did influence the practices of the managers studied in a negative sense as compared to the practices considered dominant (Westwood, 2004) and in favor of Brazilian cultural characteristics, even after managers become internationalized. Differently, Power Distance, Future Orientation, and Performance Orientation increase with internationalization and more closely approximate the characteristics referenced as being on the Euro-American axis.

The local cultural characteristics Personalism and Formalism suffer influence from internationalization and are reflected in the managerial practices consolidating the Brazilian cul-

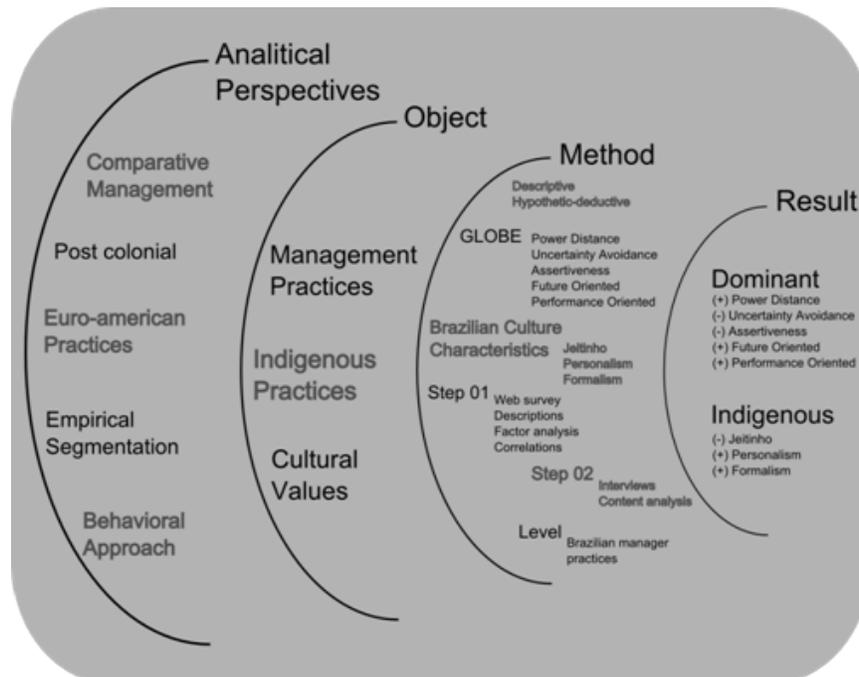


Fig.1 – Overview of study logic for comparative management analysis of Brazilian management practices

tural traces. In addition, the managerial practices derived from Jeitinho diminish with increases in a manager's international experience and relationships.

Based upon the findings of this research, we believe that cultural dimensions of managerial practices can be used to gain insight into how manager's perceptions demonstrate influences from dominant and indigenous cultural characteristics. For this study, it is particular to managers with international experience. Furthermore, it can demonstrate which cultural characteristics are influenced by increasing levels of international experience and relationships.

The sample size and levels of correlation encountered are limitations that need to be taken into account when analyzing the results. Due to this, we believe that the proposed methodology and framework presented can serve by helping ensure future research to: a) confirm the results for different samples in Brazil; b) compare the cultural dimensions of dominant practices in different samples or for different levels of internationalization (i.e. samples of managers without contact with the international market); c) compare the cultural dimensions of dominant practices with indigenous practices of other countries and even identify the presence of indigenous practices with international competitive advantages.

References

ALTON, A.J. (1969). Comparative management: how useful to the practitioner? *Management International Review*, 9(1), 3-11.

BABBIE, E. (1999). *Métodos de Pesquisa de Survey*. UFMG, Belo Horizonte.

BARBOSA, L.O., *O Jeitinho Brasileiro*. Rio de Janeiro: Campus 1992.

BESIO, K.; Butz, D. (2004). Autoethnography: a limited endorsement. *The Professional Geographer*, 56(3), 432-438.

BOYACIGILLER, N., Adler, N.J. (1991) The parochial dinosaur: organizational science in a global context. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(2), 262-290.

BRANNEN, M.Y. (1996). Ethnographic international management research. In: Punnett, B.J.; Shenkarm O. (Eds.), *Handbook for international management research*. Blackwell, Cambridge, pp. 115-143.

BRYMAN, A., Duncan, C. (2005). *Quantitative Data Analysis with SPSS 12 and 13 - A Guide for Social Scientists*. Routledge, London.

BUCKLEY, P.J., Casson, M.C. (1998). Analyzing Foreign Market Entry Strategies: Extending the Internalization Approach. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 29(3), 539-561.

BUTT, A.N., Jaeger, A.M., Kim, S.S. (2010). Convergence and Divergence can be two Faces of the Same Coin: The Emergence of a Global Managerial Culture and its Impact on Managerial Dynamics in Developing Countries. *AIB Annual Meeting*. Rio de Janeiro, Brazil: Academy of International Business.

CLIFFORD, J., Marcus, G.E. (1986). *Writing culture: the poetics and politics of ethnography*. University of California Press, Berkeley.

CHU, R.A., Wood, T.J. (2008). Cultura organizacional brasileira pós-globalização: global ou local? *Revista de Administração Pública*, 42(5), 969-991.

CRESWELL, J.W. (2007). *Projeto de Pesquisa: Métodos Qualitativo, Quantitativo e Misto*. Artmed, Porto Alegre.

DAWSON, J. (2001). Strategy and opportunism in European retain internationalization. *British Journal of Management*, 12(1), 253-266.

DA MATTA, R. (1997). *A Casa & a Rua: Espaço, Cidadania, Mulher e Morte no Brasil*. Guanabara, Rio de Janeiro.

Eisenhardt, K. (1989). Building Theory from Case Study Research. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(4), 532-550.

FREYRE, G. (1984). *Casa-Grande e Senzala*. Livraria José Olympio, Rio de Janeiro.

GLOBE, T.F. (2006). *Syntax for GLOBE National Culture, Organizational Culture, and Leadership Scales*. Glandale. The GLOBE Foundation, USA.

HILAL, A.V.G. (2006). Brazilian National Culture, Organizational Culture and Cultural Agreement: Findings from a Multinational Company. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 6(2), 139-167.

HOFSTEDE, G.H. (1983). National Cultures in four Dimensions: A Research-based Theory of Cultural Differences among Nations. *International Studies of Management and Organizations*, 13(1-2), 46-74.

HOFSTEDE, G.H. (1991). *Cultures and Organizations : software of the mind*. McGraw-Hill, New York.

HOFSTEDE, G.H., Hilal, A.V.G., Malvezzi, S., Tanure, B., Vinken, H. (2010). Comparing Regional Cultures Within a Country: Lessons From Brazil. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 41(3), 336-352.

- HOOGVELT, A. (2001). *Globalization and the Postcolonial world*. 2. ed. Palgrave, Basing-stoke.
- HOUSE, R. (1998). A brief history of GLOBE. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 230-238.
- HOUSE, R., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. (2001). Project GLOBE: An Introduction. *Applied Psychology*. 50(4), 489-505.
- HOUSE, R., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dorfman, P. (2002). Understanding cultures and implicit leadership theories across the globe: an introduction to project GLOBE. *Journal of World Business*, 37(1), 3-10.
- INGLEHART, R., Baker, W.E. (2000). Modernization, Cultural Change, and the Persistence of Traditional Values. *American Sociological Review*. 65(1), 19-51.
- INGLEHART, R., Welzel, C. (2005). *Modernization, Cultural Change, and Democracy*. The Human Development Sequence. Cambridge University Press, London.
- Jack, G., Westwood, R. (2009). *International Cross-Cultural Management Studies*. A postcolonial reading. Palgrave MacMillan, London.
- JAEGER, A., AVRICHIR, I., BUTT, A., M., F., Hafsi, T. (2010). Managerial Values in Developing Countries: Global Convergence or Local Divergence? In: Singh, P., Verma, S. (Eds.), *Organizing and Managing in the Era of Globalization*. Sage, New Delhi, pp. 259-271.
- JARZABKWOSKI, P. (2004). Strategy as Practice: Recursive-ness, Adaptation, and Practices-in-Use. *Organization Studies*, 25(4), 529-560.
- JARZABKWOSKI, P. (2005). *Strategy as Practice: An Activity-Based Approach*. Sage Publications, London.
- JARZABKWOSKI, P. (2010). An activity-theory approach to Strategy as Practice. In: Golsorkhi, D., Rouleau, L., Seidl, D., Vaara, E. (Eds.), *Cambridge Handbook of Strategy as Practice*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp. 127-140.
- JARZABKWOSKI, P., Balogun, J., Seidl, D. (2007). Strategizing: the challenges of a practice perspective. *Human Relations*, 60(1), 5-27.
- JAVIDAN, M., DORFMAN, P.W., LUQUE, M.S., HOUSE, R.J. (2006). In the eye of the Beholder: Cross-cultural lessons in leadership from project GLOBE. *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 20(1), 67-90.
- JOHNSON, G., LANGLEY, A., MELIN, L., WHITTINGTON, R. (2007). *Strategy as Practice: Research, Directions and Resources*. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.
- KARLSEN, T., SILSETH, P.R., BENITO, G.R.G., WELCH, L.S. (2003). Knowledge, internationalization of the firm, and inward-outward connections. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 32(5), 385-396.
- KATZ, C. (2001). On the grounds of globalization: a typography for feminist political engagement. *Signs*, 26(1), 1213-1234.
- LIESCH, P.W.; KNIGHT, G.A. (1999). Information and hurdle rates in small and medium enterprise internationalization. *Journal of International Business Studies*. 30(2), 383-394.
- MACHADO-DA-SILVA, C.L., OLIVEIRA, P.T. (2001). Características culturais nacionais em organizações industriais do setor alimentício paranaense. *Organizações & Sociedade*, 8(22), 27-48.
- MACHADO-DA-SILVA, C.L., SHIMONISHI, J.S. (2003). A influência de traços culturais nas atividades gerenciais de organizações altamente estruturadas. *Revista Administração em Diálogo*, 4(1), 3-22.
- MELIN, L. (1992). Internationalization as a strategy process. *Strategic Management Journal*, 13(1), 99-118.
- MERRIAM, S.B. (2009). *Qualitative Research: a guide to design and implementation*. Jossey-Bass, San Francisco.
- MOTTA, F.P. (1997). Cultura e organizações no Brasil. In: Motta, F.P., Caldas, M.P. (Eds.), *Cultura organizacional e cultura brasileira*. Atlas, São Paulo, pp. 3-18.
- NEGHANDI, A.R. (1975). Comparative Management and Organization Theory: A Marriage Needed. *Academy of Management Journal*, 18(2), 334-344.
- NEMAN, K. L., NOLLEN, S. D. (1996). Culture and congruence: the fit between management practices and national culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4), 753-779.
- OVERING, J. (2006). The backlash to decolonizing intellectually. *Anthropology and Humanism*, 31(1), 11-40.
- OVIATT, B. M., MCDUGALL P. P. (2005). Defining international entrepreneurship and modeling the speed of internationalization. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, 29(5), 537-554.
- PAPADOPOULOS, N., MARTÍN MARTÍN, O. (2010). Toward a model of the relationship between internationalization and export performance. *International Business Review*, 19(1), 388-406.

- PARRY, B. (1987). Problems In Current Theories Of Colonial Discourse. *Oxford Literary Review*, 13(1), 25-58.
- PETERSON, M.F. (2001). International collaboration in organizational behavior research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 22(1), 59-81.
- PFEFFER, J. (2005). Why do management theories persist? A comment on Ghoshal. *Academy of Management Learning and Education*, 4(1), 96-100.
- RAGHURAM, P., MADGE, C. (2006). Towards a method for postcolonial development geography? Possibilities and challenges. *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 27(1), 270-288.
- RALSTON, D.A. (2008). The crossvergence perspective: reflections and projections. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39(1), 27-40.
- RALSTON, D.A., GUSTAFSON, D.J., CHEUNG, F.M., TERPSTRA, R.H. (1993). Differences in Managerial Values: A Study of U.S., Hong Kong and PRC Managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(2), 249-275.
- RAMOS, G. (1989). A nova ciência das Organizações: Uma reconceituação da riqueza das nações. Fundação Getúlio Vargas, Rio de Janeiro.
- REDDING, S. G. (1994). Comparative management theory: jungle, zoo or fossil bed? *Organization Studies*, 15(3), 323-359.
- SAID, E.W. (1978). *Orientalism*. Pantheon Books, New York.
- SALAMI, R., SOLTANZADEH, J. (2012). Comparative analysis for science, technology and innovation policy: lessons learned from some selected countries (Brazil, India, China, South Korea and South Africa) for other LDCs like Iran. *Journal of Technology Management & Innovation*, 7(1), 212-227.
- SARALA, R.M., VAARA, E. (2010). Cultural differences, convergence, and crossvergence as explanations of knowledge transfer in international acquisitions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41(8), 1365-1390.
- SCHOLLHAMMER, H. (1969). The Comparative Management Jungle. *Academy of Management Journal*, 12(1), 81-97.
- SCHOLLHAMMER, H. (1973). Strategies and Methodologies in International Business and Comparative Management Research. *Management International Review*, 13(6), 17-32.
- SCHOLLHAMMER, H. (1975). Current Research On International And Comparative Management Issues. *Management International Review*, 15(2), 29-45.
- SCHWARTZ, S.H. (1994). Are There Universal Aspects in the Structure and Contents of Human Values? *Journal of Social Issues*, 50(4), 19-45.
- SCHWARTZ, S.H. (1994). Beyond individualism/collectivism: New cultural dimensions of values. In: U. Kim, H. C. Triandis, C. KAGITCIBASI, S. C. CHOI, YOON, G. (Eds.), *Individualism and collectivism: Theory, methods, and applications*. Sage Publications, Thousand Oaks, pp. 85-119.
- SMITH, L.T. (1999). *Decolonizing Methodologies: research and indigenous peoples*. Zed Books and University of Otago Press, London and Dunedin.
- SULLIVAN, D., (1994). Measuring the Degree of Internationalization of a Firm. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 25(2), 325-342.
- TORRES JR., A.S., GATI, A.M. (2011). Identification of barriers towards change and proposal to institutionalize continuous improvement programs in manufacturing operations. *Journal of Technology Management & Innovation*, 6(2), 94-109.
- TSUI, A.S. (2007). From homogenization to pluralism: international management research in the academy and beyond. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(6), 1353-1364.
- VERGARA, S., MORAES, C., PALMEIRA, P. (1997). Cultura brasileira revelada no barracão de uma escola de samba: o caso da família imperatriz. In: Motta, F.P., Caldas, M. (Eds.), *Cultura organizacional e cultura brasileira*. Atlas, São Paulo, pp. 21-55.
- WEBBER, R.H. (1969). Convergence or divergence. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 4(3). 75-83.
- WELCH, C., PIEKKARI, R., PLAKOYIANNAKI, E., PAAVILAINEN-MÄNTYMÄKI, E. (2011). Theorising from case studies: Towards a pluralist future for international business research. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 42(5), 740-762.
- WELCH, L.S. (1993). Luostarinen, R., Inward and outward connections in internationalization. *Journal of International Marketing*, 1(1), 46-58.
- WESTWOOD, R.I. (2001). Appropriating The Other In The Discourse Of Comparative Management. In: Westwood, R.I., Linstead, S. (Eds.), *The Language of Organization*. SAGE; London, pp. 242-261.

WESTWOOD, R.I. (2004). Towards a postcolonial research paradigm in international business and comparative management. In: Marschan-Piekkari, R., Welch, C. (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research methods for international business. Edward Elgar, Cheltenham, pp. 56-83.

WHITTINGTON, R. (1996). Strategy as Practice. Long Range Planning, 29(5), 731-735.

YIN, R.K. (2011). Qualitative Research from Start to Finish. The Guilford Press, New York.