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JAPANESE MANAGEMENT ABROAD:
A LITERATURE REVIEW AND
A RESEARCH AGENDA

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A LITERATURE REVIEW AND A RESEARCH AGENDA

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ABSTRACT[1]

The purpose of this review is to evaluate the status of scholarly research on Japanese management as it is applied outside Japan. The first part of the review deals with the concept of Japanese management. The second part aims at understanding how Japanese management is applied in foreign countries, both at subsidiaries of Japanese corporations and in non-Japanese firms; in particular, the issue of transferability of concepts and techniques is considered in detail. Primarily EBSCO databases were used, but other sources were consulted as well.

A set of seven steps was used to organize the literature search, analysis, and report. These steps, presented in a section on methodology, are: 1. Rationale; 2. Sampling procedures; 3. Measures and operations; 4. General procedures; 5. Data analysis and results; 6. Interpretations, limitations, and implications; and 7. Reporting the review.

There is general agreement among different authors on the main tenets of Japanese management (especially those referred to Human Resources Management) and on the ability of firms--Japanese and non-Japanese alike--to use some practices of Japanese management in foreign lands; in particular, the Japanese production management "paradigm" seems to travel everywhere with the Japanese.

An attempt is made to detect changes in the nature of themes studied by scholars through the years. To this end a number of variables is explicitly considered for a subset of the literature. While most variables seem to be receiving the same amount of attention from scholars through time, the issue of corporate governance seems to be getting more attention in recent years.

On the basis of the literature search, the final part of the paper provides a sketch of a general research agenda. Methodological appendices are provided, as well as a reference list.

JEL: F23, M10, M11, M12, M14, P51.

Keywords: Japanese management, Japanese management abroad, transferability of Japanese management, international corporations, multinational corporations, Japanese multinational corporations.

I.   INTRODUCTION

This review evaluates the status of academic research on Japanese management as it is applied outside Japan. The first part of the review deals with the concept of Japanese management. The second part aims at understanding how Japanese management is applied in foreign countries, both at subsidiaries of Japanese corporations and in non-Japanese firms; the issue of transferability of concepts and techniques is considered in detail.

The rest of this document is organized as follows. Section II describes the seven steps of the review methodology. Section III comments on previous reviews; section IV is an overall presentation on Japanese management in general. Section V deals with Japanese management abroad. Section VI presents a sketch of a research agenda. Section VII provides a summary with conclusions. Appendix I shows a summary table of the contents of 29 peer-reviewed, full-text EBSCO articles specifically addressing the issues of Japanese management abroad. Appendix II quantifies main variables and themes discussed in the review articles. Appendix III presents a classificatory system used to organize data, with the aim of facilitating a replication of the present review.

II.   REVIEW METHODOLOGY

This review is empirical research on the status of Japanese management studies with the aim of understanding theory, summarizing the state of the art of the discipline and its methodological approaches, generalizing inferences from other empirical studies, and ultimately developing a sketch of a research agenda on Japanese management outside Japan. Specific objectives of the review are: (1) Problem definition; (2) Building a summary of previous research; (3) Identifying the main relations existing among different works, as well as inconsistencies and gaps; (4) Proposing a research agenda on the basis of the previous points.

This task is approached as empirical research, conducted according to established scientific criteria and principles of research design. Following (in part) Ellis (1991), a set of seven steps was used to organize the search, namely: 1. Rationale; 2. Sampling procedures; 3. Measures and operations; 4. General procedures; 5. Data analysis and results; 6.

Interpretations, limitations, and implications; and 7. Reporting the review. Thus the search aims to be an integrative research review.

EBSCO databases were used systematically, and the findings were later enriched with other sources, such as JSTOR and Japanese books. Being the initial result of a larger research project, the review will be completed in a subsequent stage using other sources than those here reported.

II.1. RATIONALE OF THE REVIEW

The purpose of this review is to systematize existing knowledge on Japanese management, in particular, knowledge related to the diffusion of Japanese management practices in foreign countries, including contingency success factors and performance measures. Authors such as Buckley (2002) suggests that the research agenda in the field of international business does not have nowadays a clear "big research question", and it is "running out of steam". "Big questions" in the past have been the study of foreign direct investment, the multinational corporation (MNC), and, more recently, the internationalization of firms and globalization. What could the new "big questions" in the field of international business be? More basically, do we need new "big questions"? Even if they are not "big", what questions deserve attention in this field? A research review can help to answer these type of questions and this is a first reason to pursue it.

Turning now to Japanese management, we can assert that it is a special subject deserving much study, as reflected, for example, in the number of articles dealing with it in the literature.[i] For more than a decade Japanese management has been studied from different angles. What could the benefit of further research on this theme be? For one thing, the world of Japanese and international business evolve with time and thus the need to conduct further studies also evolves. This is a second reason to perform a research review.

In addition, there are areas of Japanese management and Japanese management practices (JMPs) still unexplored. In particular, the application of JMPs in Argentina has been studied by a number of scholars (Novick et al. (2001), Neuman (2003, a, b, c), Roldan (1993 a, b), and JICA (1990), among others.) but there is room for further contributions to this topic. A literature survey on the subject, as the first research step, is warranted: it will

show the existence of a gap between what is known and what can be known, in particular, how new socio-economic phenomena affect the existent body of knowledge. And this is a third reason to do a research review.

II.2. SAMPLING PROCEDURES

In this initial stage of the research, a relatively limited search was conducted. The systematic search was initially restricted to the EBSCO databases, although a limited number of non-EBSCO sources were later reviewed[ii]. The search will be expanded in a second version of this chapter to include other English sources, as well as new Japanese and Spanish sources.

Three EBSCO databases[iii] were searched using the keywords "Japanese management": Academic Search Elite, Business Source Elite, and Econlit[iv]. The search results are presented in Table 1. The database includes articles from 1984 to the present. A total of 446 articles were listed, out of which 122 were full-text and peer-reviewed or journal articles.

Database	Total database	Full-text	Peer-reviewed/ Journal article	Full-text and peer-reviewed/ Journal article
Academic Search Elite	**71**	29	26	12
Business Source Elite	**264**	144	199	111
Econlit	**111**	0	32	0
Total	**446**	**173**	**257**	**123**

Table 1. Search results from three EBSCO Databases.

Table 1 should alert us about the possible existence of bias in the literature considered; notice, for instance, that no full-text articles on Japanese management are available in our version of Econlit; thus treatments of Japanese management by economists might be underrepresented.

II.3. MEASURES AND OPERATIONS

Research design for the review is one of the first tasks to be performed. By research design we understand the set of methods, procedures, and statistical analysis that are used during the review. To the extent possible, the design should have quantitative elements, in addition to the more traditional qualitative reviews, as quantitative elements are easier to be replicated. In addition to the design, variables are defined; Appendix III makes clear how these variables are operationally defined.

Using an affinity diagram (KJ method)[v] 121 articles from the peer-reviewed, full text category were classified into six classes, as follows:

1. What is Japanese management? (22 references)
2. Theories on Japanese management (13 references)
3. Original Japanese answers to management and societal problems (9 references)
4. Challenges to Japanese management, critics and convergence (23 references)
5. Ethnocentric and culture-based perspectives on Japanese management (10 references)
6. Japanese companies abroad (29 references), including conditions for the successful (or unsuccessful) transfer of Japanese management overseas (15 references).

Thus 77 articles (64%) out of 121 are related to Japanese management in general (themes 1 to 5 above) and 42 articles (36%) are related to overseas issues (theme 6). In sections IV and V these articles are summarized.

II.4. GENERAL PROCEDURES

Qualitative data analysis was performed following in general guidelines provided by Miles et al. (1994). All review procedures were performed by the author, thus eliminating a possible lack of consistency in the evaluation of works and preparation of exhibits. Clusters were formed using affinity diagrams in most cases. Variables were chosen firstly on the basis of each article's keywords, titles and subtitles, and, secondly and more subjectively,

on the basis of the reviewer's criteria, who judged the weight of specific topics at the light of the relevant arguments in an article.

II.5. DATA ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

The data analysis should search for answers to the research review's questions, i.e., it should try to present the state of the art in the research on Japanese management (in Japan and abroad) and clarify the areas that require further research. A set of exhibits was created in order to systematize the information in the databases. Variables were classified and counted by 5-year periods, in order to discover any time patterns that might show a change of interest in the focus of the research over the years.[vi]

II.6. INTERPRETATIONS, LIMITATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The basic objective of the literature review is to answer the following questions as they apply to Japanese management: What is known? What remains unknown? What are the implications of the answers to these questions for theory, research, practice, and further reviews? Detailed answers are provided in sections IV, V, and VI. Mostly primary study-based inferences are considered. Results are limited in principle to the countries and industries considered, with the general proviso that case studies "infer" towards the theory and not to the larger population (Yin, 1994).

II.7. REPORTING THE REVIEW

The review report is basically the rest of this document. Target articles should ideally be considered regarding aims, method, findings, and comments (a second draft will do this). Tables of diverse degrees of aggregation are used to summarize the objective, characteristics, geographical and business scope of articles, as well as their main findings.

The result of a wide literature on Japanese management cannot be compressed into a few lines. However, it could be said that there is general agreement about different authors on the main tenets of Japanese management (especially those referred to Human Resources

Management) and on the ability of firms--Japanese and non-Japanese alike--to use some practices of Japanese management in foreign lands (the Japanese production management "paradigm" seems to travel everywhere with the Japanese).

III.   PREVIOUS REVIEWS

In an early literature review, Keys et al. (1984) examine some of the perspectives on Japanese management. Quality circles, decision making processes, open communications and other techniques used in Japan to promote and reinforce the management system are discussed, as well as environmental and structural factors which seem to offer Japanese management an advantage over the United States. Sullivan (1989) presents an early research agenda.

Kagono et al. (1985) present a concise survey of studies on Japanese management thay goes back to Abegglen (1958). From this early study, rooted in the anthropological tradition, a few characteristics of the Japanese management system were identified. In subsequent years, two main schools of thought--both of them influenced by Abegglen-- dealt with Japanese management research: (a) studies based on features unique to Japan; and (b) studies based on the socio-cultural characteristics of the Japanese people, in particular, its "groupism". These two school constitute what the authors call the "dominant perspective", which they characterize by the following limitations:

1. Emphasis on socio-cultural uniqueness at the expense of other possible relevant factors.
2. A lack of empirical data satisfying scientific standards.
3. The lack of orientation toward a more general theory of management.

From these limitations, the authors propose the mission of the rest of their book, which is the study of managerial aspects of Japanese firms based on empirical data in order to find a more general theory of management. (Some aspects of this theory will be surveyed later in this chapter.)

More recently, Keys et al. (1994) provide a framework to integrate the multiple articles on Japanese management theory. The framework, presented in Figure 1, is used to organize a series of propositions, as follows:

P1. The cultural underpinnings of Japanese society are shifting toward Western values, though the shift is not uniform across culture and is not rapid in all sectors.

P2. Industrial organization in Japan, especially the keiretsu, will continue to provide competitive advantages and is being extended internationally.

P3. Organizational structure in Japan, notably overlapping product and project management team organizations, presents advantages in product development and in implementation of operations. No trends were detected in this area.

P4. Long run planning is becoming more formal and moving toward a Western style, though it will retain a more visionary perspective.

P5. Decision making and control systems of the Japanese are not built on employee-manager participation and consensus decision-making, but rather are built on consultative or persuasive decision styles. Their strength lies more with structural systems used to promote information amplification, control and creativity, some of which have been duplicated in the West.

P6. Manufacturing productivity per employee in the United States is rapidly approaching or is exceeding parity with Japan. Advantages for Japanese companies appear in certain areas such as R & D and product design, but these appear to be heavily supported by governmental and vertical alliances.

P7. The Japanese possess some advantages in the management of quality processes, however the gap between Japanese and U.S. quality management is closing, though perhaps more slowly than the productivity gap.

P8. In neutral countries, the quality image of Japanese products continues to slightly exceed those of the United States, largely because of distribution, promotion and service advantages.

P9. The Japanese will continue to invest more heavily in R & D than U.S. firms and to introduce new products faster and more economically than the United States utilizing superior organizational, communicative and integrative arrangements, discriminatory patent protection, superior governmental funding and exceptional support by Keiretsus. These advantages will be aggressively protected and enhanced in the future.

P10. Traditional Japanese human resource management practices including lifetime employment, seniority based systems, and company unions are rapidly disappearing and cannot be relied upon to produce future competitive advantage. Transplanted Japanese organizations have had limited success in implementing these practices and will make fewer attempts to do so in the future.

P11. Because of the rapidly converging parity of U.S. and Japanese productivity and quality, and diminishing HRM advantages, future competitive advantages of the Japanese, if they persist, will derive largely from managerial and organizational learning excellence, strengthened by structural systems that promote information amplification, and bolstered by even greater reliance on the keiretsu and MITI.

Given that in some cases authors disagree on the relevance of specific traits to define a Japanese way of management, is there a group of themes generally associated with this concept? The answer to this question is not immediate. Keys et al. (1994) mention a series of research design and measurement problems in attempts to analyze and conceptualize Japanese management practices due to factors such as the following: rapid changes that are taking place, the difficulty to generalize case studies to the larger population, small sample sizes in most questionnaire and interview-based research, cultural differences, etc. The authors conclude that "(t)he most unique characteristic of the traditional Japanese management system is its highly and internally consistent nature."
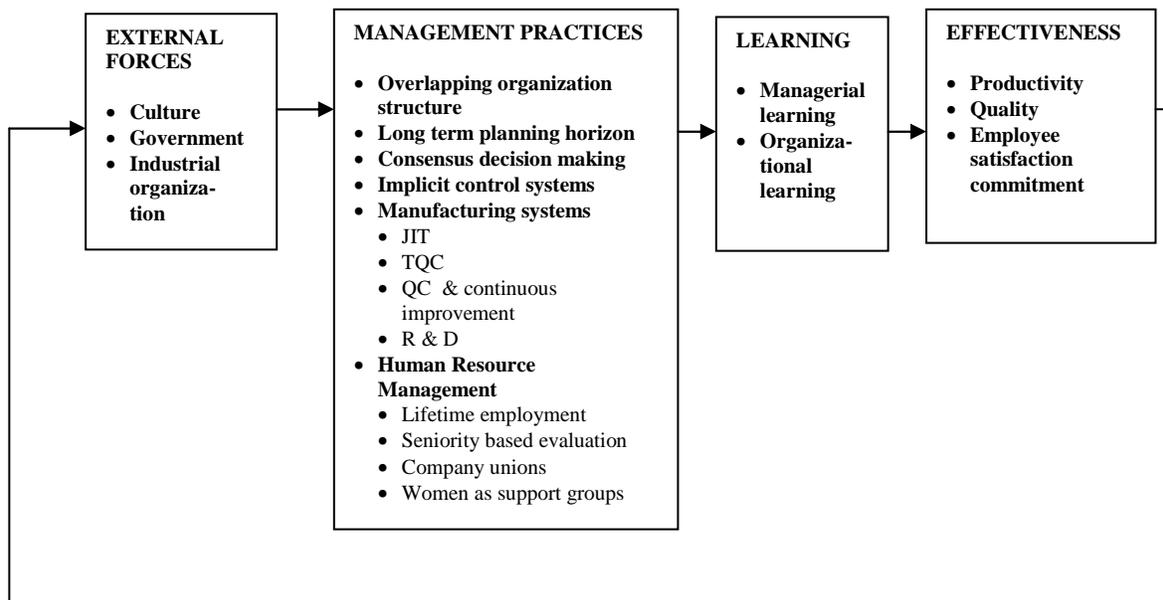
Figure 1. A road map to the literature on Japanese management. Source: Adapted from Keys et al. (1994).

In addition to these framework and propositions, the authors perform a number of other tasks. They examine the external forces that have shaped Japanese management; describe the practices that have traditionally been considered as JMP; consider the future of Japanese management and the effectiveness of Japanese management; look into the changes that are taken place in Japanese management; and consider the problems of the research reviewed and the needs of further research.

IV. ARTICLES ON JAPANESE MANAGEMENT IN GENERAL[vii]

IV.1. WHAT IS JAPANESE MANAGEMENT?

IV.1.1. Main characteristics of Japanese management

Japanese management is a management style that different authors characterize by different series of traits. Among them, the so called "three treasures" (long term employment, the seniority system, and company unions), some employment practices

related to life-time employment, and decision making style are key characteristics of Japanese management often dealt with in the literature. Let us consider these characteristics on the basis of the authors surveyed.

References to the "three treasures of Japanese management" are common in the literature. Stern et al. (1990), for example, consider that the major pillars of the Japanese management system are: long term employment, the seniority system, and company unions. In addition, they examine the success of Japanese companies, which attribute to an important extent to their training and development approach. In the process, several issues of interest to both American and Japanese companies are considered including the balance between formal and informal training.

Employment practices such as long term employment are directly related to the underlying values and ideas that justify life-time employment. (Here we could refer to what Kawakami et al. (1994) calls "principle-zation".) In particular, Mroczkowski et al. (1997) compare Japanese and American employment practices regarding downsizing and employment adjustment. They find common features between the Japanese employment adjustment ("*koyochosei*") and American rightsizing better practices. In addition, the authors highlight the specific advantages of Japanese and American practices. There seems to be a pattern of international best practice, although the lessons from each country are not the same.

Issues related to Japanese human resources management are pervasive in the literature. This importance is justified, as Japanese HRM gives color to a wide range of organizational phenomena. To quote just one example, Odagiri (1990) proposes that the Japanese approach to human resource management is the reason why mergers and acquisitions are not common in Japan.

Other authors provide sets of characteristic variables that are integrated by some of the "treasures", in addition to group values and decision-making styles. Thanopoulos et al. (1996), following this line of thought, conclude that harmony and group loyalty, consensus decision making, and life-time employment are the three main characteristics of Japanese management. In addition to long-term career development, Takanaka (1986) offers an analysis of the "unique" characteristics of Japanese management, such as high debt/equity

ratios. These characteristics are due to environmental circumstances and changing societal needs.

Several authors refer to the Japanese decision-making style. Odagiri (1991) provides a description of interlocking characteristics of the Japanese management system that make it very competitive, although different from Western models in several senses. These characteristics include: (1) its long-term approach (when judging situations and making decisions); (2) the realization that it is based perhaps more on relative ranking than absolute performance; (3) the use of "voice" mechanisms rather than "exit" mechanisms. This author also highlights the growth orientation of Japanese companies, which is in turn related to the role of human resource management. Clayton (1992) overviews Japanese management theory and highlights characteristics such as shared decision making, participative management, and collective responsibility.[viii]

As might be expected, other Japanese authors are a rich source of direct perspectives on Japanese management. Kagono et al. (1984 a) provide a concise introduction to the subject. The authors highlight the inter-related features of Japanese management and display its main principles as follows: advice from all to take advantage of collective wisdom, trust between labor and management, and separation of ownership and control. The latter principle anticipates the important issue of corporate governance that is much studied today. Characteristics of the Japanese management system such as the following are presented: Importance of middle managers in strategy formulation and implementation, sharing of values and information, long-term appraisal of personnel, and semi-formal networking. Common strategic orientations of Japanese companies are outlined: growth orientation, emphasis on production technology in the midst of intense competition, an incremental approach involving permanent coordination of marketing and production activities to adapt to an evolving competitive environment, preparation for drastic change through continuous investment in R&D ("seed sowing"), concern for human resources, and a financial strategy that relies on indirect financing. Japanese employment practices and labor-management relations are examined: life-time employment and seniority system, company hiring and education, internal promotion, a wage system that secures decent livelihood, in-company unions, and a generally cooperative labor-management situation. The book closes with a chapter on Japan's environment that describes the land, the

government (small and stable), education and information sharing and the egalitarian and competitive characteristics of society, a sense of belonging to the enterprise, the industrial structure, as well as an industrial policy that stresses guidance through "visions" more than control by law.

A comparative perspective on Japanese management vis-a-vis US management is provided by Kagono et al. (1985). The authors conduct a systematic survey enriched by case studies and find two contrasting orientations towards strategy in Japan (operations orientation) and the US (production orientation). Likewise, two orientations towards organization are found: group dynamics (Japan) and bureaucratic dynamics (US). Integrative contingency theory is initially used, but an evolutionary view emerges as a consequence of the research project, given the inability of contingency theory to explain some phenomena. A shorter presentation of this research is given in Kagono et al. (1984 b).

Kawakami et al. (1994) examine the Japanese management system from a variety of viewpoints. In Part 1 the authors present characteristics of Japanese management, describing three components: (1) the management system (organization, supervisory system, etc.); (2) the management institutions (rules that control the transactions between the company and the outside world); and (3) the management ethos (basic way of thinking, morals and norms of behavior related to management). After pointing out that, unlike the institutions and the ethos, the system is easy to change, the authors describe main features, and problems the system is going through, including the need for reform of some aspects. In Part 2 problems and solution policies of the main problems faced by the Japanese firm are considered. In particular, the employment system, enterprise governance, and the system of transactions are examined. In Part 3, Japanese management in the world and possible directions for change of Japanese style management are considered (See page 31 below).

IV.1.2. Other distinctive characteristics of Japanese management

Apart from the three treasures and other traits presented above, Japanese management is shaped by a few distinctive characteristics of Japanese companies and the Japanese environment that put it aside from management styles in other countries. In this

section we explore some of these characteristics, such as organizational learning (Japanese style), the social and economic infrastructure, manufacturing technologies including approaches to quality and quality management, and culture and values as explanatory variables of the unique characteristics of Japanese management. Many of these characteristics, in particular those related to labor practices and which have been considered particularly "Japanese", are in fact "economic and rational" (Odagiri (1992)).

Using the idea of organizational learning, Nonaka et al. (1985) explain how the hard skills of Japanese firms have reached and even surpassed those of Western firms. The authors argue that the "hard" factors of strategy, structure, and systems are required for success, in addition to the well-known soft skills (style, staff, and superordinate goals). They compare organizational learning with theory Z along the following key concepts: Driving force, role of soft skills, immediate results, consequent managerial and employee behavior and ultimate result. McMillan (1993), while discussing the lessons Canada can learn from JMPs, presents Japan's fundamental strengths, among them, dedication to high-value-added production, and investment in infrastructure (roads, transportation systems, recreation, environmental technologies). The author asserts that "the key to Japanese success lies in their commitment to best management practices, particularly total quality management". A somewhat related perspective is that of Werlin (1995), who transcends the corporate environment and distinguishes between "political hardware" and "political software". The Japanese system enjoys good political software, which includes the following aspects: Development of mutual respect, soft forms of power combined with hard forms, integration of centralization and decentralization, cooperation between the public and private sectors and improvement potential.

Manufacturing-related technologies are often associated with Japanese management. Nakamura, Sakakibara and Schroeder (xxx) discuss JIT. JIT is a core of manufacturing practices, an infrastructure (systems for designing products with a minimum number of parts, labor flexibility, and employee input into decision making), and economy-wide business practices (long term employment and keiretsu). Infrastructure and economy-wide business practices—the authors conclude—are not a prerequisite for the use of manufacturing practices that bring improved performance.[ix] In fact, Groebner et al. (1994) describe the positive and persistent effect of adopting JIT methods on the job attitudes of

workers at a HP plant outside Japan[x]. Ohno (1984) provides an authoritative account of the creation of the Toyota production system, which is further developed in Ohno (1991). Monden (1990) and Monden (ca. 1992) present an integrative perspective of JIT technology. Hirano (1988) gives a pictorial account of JIT principles of much practical value.

Quality and related problems are closely linked to production issues and to Japanese management in general. Baillie (1986) maintains that the Deming approach might be "the critical dimension of modern Japanese management" and that Japanese corporate success reflects quality control. An important issue of production management, particularly well advanced in Japan, is employee safety. Wokutch (1994) describes the approach Japanese companies have taken to promote employee safety and health. While in 1952 Japan had an industrial injury and illness rate five times higher than that of the U.S. (a 5:1 ratio), by 1990 the situation completely reversed (to a 1:6 ratio). Japanese employers consider that safety and health are related to traditional production considerations. Health and safety systems are integrated into the general production and planning system and everyone becomes involved. Responsibilities concerning these issues are well detailed. In a previous paper, Wokutch (1990) had already highlighted industrial safety as a strong point of the Japanese setting, while comparing corporate social responsibility in Japanese and American contexts and providing strengths and weaknesses. Akao (1988) presents a well-integrated reader on Quality Function Deployment, a Japan-developed TQC method for product and service design. Akao (1991) edits a set of works on hoshin management, a planing style intimately related to TQM, which has transcended to the West in recent years. Suzuki (1994) presents Total Productive Maintenance (TPM), a uniquely Japanese approach to maintenance involving all employees; the work concentrates in process industries.

Japanese culture, values, and society are often considered when approaching the study of Japanese management. Kagono et al. (1993) provide the results of a study that highlights the importance of corporate culture in shaping strategic decisions, particularly in a new environment characterized by low growth rates. The role of culture in the success of Japanese management is more recently treated by Yoshimura et al. (1997), who interviewed 50 Japanese salarymen to conclude that organizational mechanisms, and not Japanese culture, govern business behavior. Four recurring themes are: the importance of context,

learning from behavioral models, the drive to avoid embarrassment, and the primacy of process over content. The authors state that "(i)t seems to us that the kaisha has an organizational consistency all its own, so it is not practical to try to build hybrids that have both Japanese and Western characteristics". Hagen et al. (1998) propose that a combination of mechanisms of institutional and societal sanctioning explains the apparently trust-induced cooperation in business relationships. Buyer-supplier relations in the Japanese automotive industry are used to show the key role of sanctions.

Related to culture is perhaps the functioning of groups in Japanese society and firms. Tudor et al. (1996) consider historical aspects of the Japanese people that reinforce their inclination to conform to societal norms at the cost of their individualism. The authors examine the concept of team through different periods and contexts: rice growing activities (100 BC to present), religious influences (500 BC to present), the Tokugawa period (1600-1867), and the Meiji period (1868-1911). A comparison between Japanese and American management concepts (including performance appraisal) is performed. According to the authors, the paper explains some of the problems US managers face when trying to transfer Japanese management methods to the US.

The role of management in Japanese corporations has also been the subject of several studies. Campbell (1994) examines three key roles top managers play in Japanese corporations: developing business philosophies, managing internal and external relationships, and setting and overseeing human resource policies. Johnston (1992) suggests that four factors produce a situation in which Japanese management is freed from all the important threats to its dominance. The factors are financial and ownership structure, an industrial encouragement policy, barriers to entry, and the labor market. And the threats are: shareholders, trade unions, government, domestic competitors, domestic speculators, foreign competitors and foreign capital. Therefore, Japanese management has developed the long run strategies and policies building on aspects such as the following: market share emphasis, slow personnel evaluation, and MITI systems.

Compensation decision-making policies greatly contribute to shape personnel standing in a corporation. Beatty et al. (1988), after admitting that "it is not clear what aspects (of Japanese management) can be adopted" in the U.S. examines the compensation decision-making policies of 41 Japanese and 63 U.S. managers. The author confirms results

of past research in the sense that U.S. managers give importance to job performance in their decisions, while Japanese managers weight other factors such as job worth in their decisions.

IV.1.3. Japanese management and industrial structure

Some features of the Japanese economy are often presented as explanatory variables of the characteristics and functioning of Japanese management practices. Sasaki (1990) describes the industrial structure of the country, making reference to large industrial groups and to the dual structure of the economy, shaped by a few big businesses with high productivity and wages and a numerous group of smaller firms with low productivity and wages. References to the Japanese industrial structure and its evolution in time, as part of the environment in which Japanese companies operate, are provided by a number of other authors, including Kagono (1984).

IV. 1.4. Japanese management and firm performance

Does Japanese management affect firm performance? The success of Japanese companies in world markets has led many scholars to investigate the relationship between Japanese management practices and firm performance. Shibata (1991) conducts an empirical study that looks into the way norms of decision-making style affect performance. A sample of 349 Japanese managers was used and the author reached the conclusion that there appears to be "no support for the proposition that certain norms universally affect performance." In some sectors, however, the impact of norms on decision-making style, organizational design and management practices might is important.

IV.2. THEORIES ON JAPANESE MANAGEMENT

Even outside Japan, Japanese management has been studied with interest for several decades. As early as 1971, Drucker (1971) considered the value of Japanese management, and a few years later Schein (1981) would do the same. In this sections we review some

perspectives on Japanese management from a variety of viewpoints. In addition to the authors mentioned below, Urabe (1978) provides an early critique of theories of the Japanese management system, and Harper (1988) considers strengths and weaknesses of the JMPs and recommends learning from their strengths to form a new American management style.

IV.2.1. Theories from the economics field

Being Japanese management a distinctive phenomenon, it is not surprising that it has produced a number of theories that deal with it. Aoki (1990) attempts to provide a "unified" treatment of different aspects of Japanese practices through an economic model explaining how Japanese firms operate and achieve results. In a previous work, Aoki (1984) edited a set of economic works on the Japanese firm that covers a variety of areas, including human resources.

IV.2.2. Theories from the management field

From the management field, several important theories have been advanced. Kagono et al. (1984) propose a distinction between mechanistic adaptation (American style) and organic adaptation (Japanese style) of companies to their environment. Building on contingency theory, these authors conclude that both American and Japanese companies, generally speaking, create consistent patterns of adaptation to their environments. Mechanistic adaptation is more successful when the market environment is less variable, competition is hostile, the environment is bleak, the interorganizational network is weak, the input market is mobile, and the operating efficiency is the key success factor. Opposite conditions create a situation where organic adaptation is more convenient. The theory allows examination and comparison of companies along a number of issues, such as strategy, organization, technology, and organizational processes.

Several authors such as Urabe (1982), Nonaka (1985), and Kagono et al. (1985), have proposed an evolutionary view of Japanese management. Let us consider in particular, Kagono et al. (1985); the authors discuss first a number of theories of adaptation to the

environment, including contingency theory (presented in detail in Kagono (1980)), the information processing model, and group dynamics (treated by Ouchi (1982), and Pascale et al. (1981), among others); after that, they develop a four-cell scheme that classifies companies according to their major characteristics of adaptation; a simplified form of this scheme is shown in Figure 2. A number of characteristics contribute to define each cell, as follows: method of organizational integration and information processing, distribution of influence and organizational form, pattern of knowledge and information accumulation, executive's leadership style, response to opportunities and threats, key to environmental adaptation and competitive strength, and information and value orientation. The scheme allows not only classification of companies and general conclusions on performance (for example, high performance tends to be associated with V type of organizations), but also the study of a firm's evolution to adapt to a changing environment.

	Group dynamics	Bureaucratic dynamics
Operations orientation	HUMAN FACTOR (H type)	BUREAU-CRACY (B type)
Product orientation	VENTURE (V type)	STRATEGY (S type)

Figure 2. Characteristics of different types of organizational adaptation. Source: Kagono et al. (1985).

The evolutionary process of an organization, in analogy with biological processes, consists of three phases: variation, selection and retention. Variation for an organization is the equivalent of mutation for a living organism and it is at the core of organizational adaptability. In general, variations are multiple (new technologies, new markets, etc.), and selection is required to reduce organizational uncertainty. Finally, retention implies the storing of new knowledge and the replacement of useless knowledge. Adaptation processes present different characteristics of variation, selection and retention, as summarized in

Figure 3. These findings have practical implications, as discussed by the authors with a variety of examples of Japanese and American firms.

Kagono ((1988 a, b), and Nihon Keizai Shinbun (1987)) presents his idea of "everyday theory" (*nichijo riron*) as a new way to understand organizational phenomena. Businessmen often say that reality does not follow theory. Between business practice and traditional management theory there is a wide gap. But in diverse judgements, decisions, and actions, managers and businessmen follow regular theories, even though they are different from the theories of academics. Thus the author calls these theories "everyday theories", which serve the businessman to handle his action needs. Under this new definition, the word "theory" does not, by any means, limit itself to the theories of scholars. These "everyday theories" play different roles in our daily life, such as understanding the phenomena of the external world; people search for theories to understand why events that surround them occur, and an understanding of these theories is required to explain a host of organizational issues, such as paradigm change and innovation.

	Traditional view (B or S type)	Evolutionary view (H or V type)
Variation	- Goal-oriented - Strategy-induced - Planned - Pre-selected - Uncertainty reducing from macro to micro	- Haphazard - Autonomous - Emergent - Uncertainty amplifying from micro to macro
Selection	- Analytical - Systematic - Hierarchical orderly - With pre-established and consistent criteria - Deterministic	- Through interaction of chance, necessity and teleonomy - Disordered with minimum control - Interaction with market - Stochastic and dynamic
Retention	- Stored in hard memories (structure and system) - Learning by elite - Tightly structured	- Stored in soft memories - Learning by people - Loosely structured

Figure 3. Traditional vs. Evolutionary view on adaptive process. Source: Kagono et al. (1985).

Some aspects of Japanese management are taken from new perspectives. Petersen (1993) considers life-time employment from the theory of the principal-agent relationship

and concludes that companies practicing JMPs seem to be effective at screening and retaining high producers. "It takes time, however--states the author--, and seems to be dependent on relatively low turnover rates." Careful screening of candidates at hiring time, and retention procedures once hired help keeping the best employees.

Itoh (1991) examines the management of human resources at large Japanese firms from the point of view of internal incentives, i.e., how the firm provides incentives to its employees so that they behave accordingly to the goals of the enterprise. Incentive theory, a topic in economics of the organizations, serves the author to explain some features of Japanese management practices related to pay and promotion systems. Tomer (1987) proposes the new concept of organizational capital as an explanation of variables such as productivity and firm behavior. The author integrates Leibenstein´s (1984) X-efficiency theory with his approach to organizational capital and analyzes the benefits of cooperation and the superiority of the Japanese management system; this superiority arises from reduced transactions costs, increased cooperation among workers, better labor relations and less organizational inertia. Worker participation is related to superior productivity.

IV.2.3. Theories on Japanese production management

pecific functions at the Japanese firm are the source of new theories. Smeds (1994) reports experiences from a case study that show that when lean manufacturing is implemented as an innovation process, and social stimulation games are applied, the resulting systems succeed in economic and organizational terms. The author discusses lean manufacturing as an innovation and discusses process innovations and the conditions for its appearance. A generic framework is presented by which lean principles can spill over to other business processes, leading to the creation of a "lean" enterprise. Lean visions and guidelines rather than top-down change management should guide this development. In this framework, individual development projects should unfold as innovation processes able to promote bottom-up creativity and learning. The author concludes that the framework is still a hypothesis to be further tested. The Finnish experience of applying social stimulation games in the management of organizational and technical change is presented.

A so-called "new paradigm of production and work organization" is discussed by Morris et al. (1995). These authors put in context a series of articles appearing in a special issue of the Journal of Management Studies on the transfer of Japanese management abroad and conclude that this new paradigm would appear to travel with the Japanese. This paradigm encompasses JIT/TQC, defect tracing and a myriad of other techniques, and it applies in different countries and industries. In their article, they highlight the importance of paying attention to industry-specific differences and process-specific differences, in addition to country-specific differences (due to differences in systems of political economy, education, industrial relations, in addition to cultural differences).

IV.2.4. Theories on international aspects of Japanese management

The multinational setting provides an additional arena for theory development. In a cross-national context, Goldman (1994) presents a synthesis of cross-cultural perspectives on Western-Japanese inter-organizational conflict. Misconceptions and conflict between Western and Japanese management arise because of a basic antagonism between Greco-Roman and Confucian-Buddhist-based cultural and communicative codes.

Specific theories are applied at the international level. Henisz et al. (2001) perform a large scale survey of 2705 international plant location decisions by listed Japanese MNCs. These locations spread over 155 countries; the 1990-1996 period is considered. The authors use neoinstitutional theory and research on political institutions to explain company entry into new geographical markets. They show that the interorganizational environment and policy uncertainty influence a company's plant location decision at the international level. Organization-environment relations can be approached from different angles. Westney (1999) outlines three courses of thought: (1) Organizations as rational instruments to achieve specific goals. (2) Sense-making activities of the sense of the company and its environment. (3) Politics of the organizational processes. At the international level, different approaches might lead to different expectations of how the transplants will develop as hybrids. Wood (1987) utilizes Japanese management to highlight some issues related to the third wave of labor process debate.

IV.2.5. Theories related to Japanese managers

Japanese managers and their behavior, including decision-making, have been the subject of comparative studies. Sullivan et al. (1985) suggest that Japanese managers hold a social model theory of groups but a rational man theory of individual responsibility. They conduct a cross-cultural experiment with a sample of American managers as a control in order to identify the theory of group functioning in the performance control process held by Japanese managers. DeFrank et al. (1985) present an empirical perspective on U.S. and Japanese CEOs' behavior patterns and attitudes. American CEOs appear to have considerable more characteristics of Type A behavior than the Japanese CEOs. As a result of the study, the authors present a set of conclusions, including a proposal to adopt in some American organizations practices such as long-term employment, quality circles, and participative management, to mention a few. "There is no *single* or universal Japanese or American management style". Bolon et al. (1985) compare Japanese and American management decision-making patterns.

IV. 3. ORIGINAL JAPANESE ANSWERS TO MANAGEMENT AND SOCIETAL PROBLEMS

Japanese originality has been praised by different authors when referring to science and art[xi]. Japanese originality also manifests itself in the country's business institutions and practices, some of which are presented in this section.

IV.3.1. Cost management and financial practices

Cost management and financial practices are fertile terrain for Japanese innovation. Kharbanda (1992) explains that Japanese practices from the finance area differ from those in the West in vital respects: 1. Cost is everybody's business. 2. Design to cost. 3. Enter first: the profits will follow. 4. Teamwork is the crux. 5. Accountancy plays an influencing role, not merely informing. 6. Engineers and others have a working knowledge of finance, so the number of accountants in the country is relatively very low. Hiromoto (1988)

maintains that, in many companies, management accounting systems reinforce a top-to-bottom commitment to process and product innovation. Slagmulder (1997) reports on the EIASM Intensive Seminar and Workshop on Japanese Practices in Management Accounting (Paris, 28-30 October 1996), which focused on cost management and the applicability of Japanese management accounting methods in Europe. Nagahama (1982), in an early paper, had taken these topics.

IV.3.2. Business education

Business education is another area with original contributions in Japan. Economist (1991 b) discusses business education in Japan and the U.S. Robinson et al. (1993) argue about the U.S. Training Within Industries (TWI) program installed in Japan by the Occupation Forces to boost productivity and quality on a national scale. The programs are distinctive not because of the techniques taught but because these techniques are actually used. The experience shows, moreover, that successful management practices are not as dependent on culture as many observers might consider. [xii]

In line with these ideas, Robinson et al. (1995) report that for more than forty years the Management Training Program (MTP) has played a key role in disseminating sound management principles throughout Japanese industry and government and in shaping the modern Japanese management style. The article discusses the lessons that the MTP offers for implementing HRD and management training programs on a national scale.

Management education differs from that in Western advanced countries such as the US, the UK, or Switzerland. Kagono (1996) explains that one of the characteristics of Japanese management education is the almost complete absence of Japanese MBA programs and the importance given by Japanese corporations to in-company education and training.

IV.3.3. Planing and production management

Some Japanese practices related to general planning and production management have been adopted in many countries. Personnel Journal (1994) presents hoshin

management as a replacement for management-by-objectives. In hoshin management employees work in teams with decision making tools towards the achievement of a few annual policies (hoshin) that unfold from top management's directions for the year. Companies such as Texas Instruments, P&G and HP are using the methodology. Ogando (1998) presents kaizen as a method to improve cycle time, reduce in-process inventory, cut labor requirements and save floor space in a injection molding plant. In spite of its multiple advantages related to quality and productivity, kaizen has some costs: some lost production time and concern about lost jobs on the part of some workers. Typically Western innovations such as reingeneering have taken a Japanese flavor in Japan. Teresko (1994) considers Japanese introduction of reengineering in the light of Japanese tradition. "There is indication, says the author, that as reengineering is implemented, it will take on a unique Japanese flavor. One possibility would be combining kaizen with reengineering..." The author also considers other aspects, such as Japanese superiority in the factory, but not in the office, in terms of efficiency.

IV.3.4. Japanese management and innovation

Urabe et al. (1988) focus on innovation in the Japanese organizational environment from an international perspective. A number of papers presented at a symposium organized by the Japan Society for the Study of Business Administration in Kobe in April 1986 is discussed. Topics included, among many others, are: innovation and organizational management in Japan, the Japanese corporate system and technology accumulation, and a comparative evolutionary perspective on strategy making—advantages and limitations of the Japanese approach. Makino (1987) and Imai (1986) provide other perspectives on innovation in Japan.

Nonaka et al. (1995) study the ability of Japanese companies to create knowledge and use it in the production of successful products and processes. The authors point out that there are two types of knowledge: explicit knowledge, contained in manuals and procedures, and tacit knowledge, learned only by experience, and communicated only indirectly, through metaphor and analogy. While U.S. managers focus on explicit knowledge, Japanese managers, in general, focus on tacit knowledge. According to the

authors this is the key to their success--the Japanese have learned how to transform tacit into explicit knowledge.

IV.3.5. Corporate Governance

Corporate governance is a generic term that describes the ways in which rights and responsibilities are shared among the various corporate participants, especially the management and the shareholders. It is a concept of higher order than management, as it is related to setting the firm's objectives and checking that managers are behaving accordingly. Governance of Japanese firms has special characteristics and problems and is treated by a number of authors. Kawakami et al. (1994, Chapter 5) present the concept, governance problems specifically related to Japanese firms, and possible solutions to them; in order to accomplish these tasks, the authors inquire into the meaning of governance and the reasons for its existence.

The authors describe the main characteristics of corporations: (1) stockholders have limited responsibility; and (2) stockholders are not necessarily managers; and they explain that these traits, while producing great benefits, leave an open question, i.e., the impossibility of avoiding conflicting interests between owners and managers, among different owners, and avoiding the weak consciousness of what is going on on the part of the owners.

In particular, Japanese corporations have a key characteristic: there is a wide gap between legal provisions and real practices regarding governance. According to the legal provisions, in Japan the stockowner is sovereign, but according to real practices, the sovereign is the management. The authors depict the situation related to each one of the five points shown in Table 2. Some issues are considered by legal provisions, but others are not.

While this Japanese multidimensional approach to corporate governance avoids some of the problems of stockholder-centered governance, it has some problems of its own, as follows.

- First, it is not easy to check management in a reckless situation.

- Second, there is the risk that company behavior contradicts socially accepted business behavior and social logic.

Issue	Legal provisions	Situation in Japan (ca. 1994)
Who and how appoints management?	The stockholder is sovereign.	The management is sovereign.
What responsibilities are taken upon by the people who appoint the management?	The stockholder is responsible for decisions taken by him personally.	The chairman, or the president, is responsible. (But it is a vague responsibility.)
Who and how checks the management?	Directors. Accounting information.	Main bank, insurance companies, unions, clients, bureaucrats.
How to promote the group of candidates to management posts?	No clear legal provisions.	Basically, by internal competition.
How to dismiss management?	Twofold procedure: Board of directors decides dismissal and stockholders collect letters of attorney and dismiss directors and managers.	Desires of banks, important clients, bureaucrats, company internal opinion.

Table 2. Japanese response to governance issues. Source: Adapted from Kawakami et al. (1994).

- In the third place, it is difficult to nurture people with great leadership conditions to become managers.
- Next, the president's term of office tends to be limited.
- Finally, since there are no fix procedures to dismiss people, even when managers are not competent, companies can loose strength or produce poor results. In order to surmount these weaknesses, the authors propose a series of measures.

The Japanese Commercial Code was reformed to allow the realization of the rights of stockholders and the authors wonder to what extent this was a correct decision. In order to answer the question, they examine the two most important models of corporate governance: the American-British system, on the one side, and the German-Japanese system, on the other.[xiii] The authors emphasize the importance of a governance system that allows effective governance through the development of long-term commitment by means of a multidimensional system in which several groups have an important role to play: main stockholders, banks, employees, and middle management.

Coherently with this view on governance, Kagono (1999) contrasts the transfer speed of two vital business resources: money and people and states that business managers have two alternatives: to follow the money route or to follow the people route. This poses a dilemma for business managers, which he illustrates with contrasting views on the governance of Japanese corporations. One of these views is that Japanese corporations--just like their American counterparts--should be governed by the stockholders. The other view, sustained by the author, is that Japanese corporations should be governed in such a way that their strengths can be maintained in a global environment. In practice this means to organize an employee holding company in which employees can diversify their stock holdings.

The study of the specific impact of governance styles on R&D decisions is taken up by Doi (1998) using questionnaire data. The author describes the unique characteristics of the Japanese system of governance and control: mutual shareholdings, relational banking (that includes banking keiretsu and main banks), internal appointments of board of directors, and long-term relationships with suppliers and customers. These characteristics may have an influence on the relationships between corporate governance and R&D strategy. Some of the study's findings are the following:

- Top management at Japanese large firms have a larger perceived independence, and therefore undertake R&D activities independently of capital market pressures.
- Corporate structure is important to R&D strategy. The majority of respondents think that scientists and engineers should be part of the board of directors, with a representation at least equal to the number of the non-technical directors.
- New technologies are preferably based on in-house development, reflecting organic growth orientation, and also on joint R&D activities with customers and suppliers.

The author concludes that in spite of the changes taking place in Japanese financial structure, which is shifting away from bank borrowing towards equity financing, governance structure and its effect on R&D strategy design suggest no important change.

Governance issues are receiving a lot of attention around the world. Dore (2003) from a wide perspective, Apreda (2001) from the perspective of Argentina are two examples of studies about a topic that grows in importance. Demirag (1998 a) provides a general overview based on an international survey on corporate governance practices and management perceptions of short-term pressures from financial markets. Europe, North America, Australia, and Japan are included in the study. Demirag (1998 b) reviews the factors that are likely to cause short-term pressures and discusses bank-based and stock exchange-based financial systems and related governance systems, including the accountability of corporate management.

Corporate governance systems are partially based on history (see, for example, Kawakami et al. (1994)) and culture. Kuada et al. (1998) offer culture as a framework to explain differences in governance systems around the world. Cultural development creates, according to these authors, a unique configuration of economic and management systems in which business practices evolve.

IV.3.6. Networking

While networks of various types are a universal phenomenon, Japanese corporate networks have specific weight in corporate life. More basically, people networks play a central role in corporate activities. Itami et al. (1989, p. 525), in concluding an introductory text on management, explain that it can be thought that there is only one common principle underlying Japanese uniqueness considered from three viewpoints: enterprise system, company behavior, and organization management: this is the importance attached to human networks in corporate activities.

More recently, Teramoto et al. (1999) and Ernst (1999) discuss the role of inter-organizational networks. Ahmadjian (1997) offer explanations of the behavior of Japanese autoparts supply networks based on different theories: transaction costs and resource dependence.

IV.4. CHALLENGES, CRITICISM, CONVERGENCE

IV.4.1. Criticism to the Japanese management system

The Japanese management system has been the blank of observation and criticism for many years. As early as 1984, Kagono et al. (1984, pp. 14-19) devoted a section to discuss a number of problems Japanese management was facing, including the difficulty to maintain traditional employment practices, the difficulties to transfer abroad the management system and the need to foster corporate creativity. Also at that time, Sethi et al. (1984 a) looked at the changes in the Japanese system of management and the external influences on the direction of changes. A decade later, Brown et al. (1994) describe some harmful side effects of the Japanese drive to excel, as collected in a series of interviews to Japanese salarymen studying an MBA in the U.S. Hodgetts (1993) reviews the book The Japanese Management Mystique by Woronoff (1994). Although highlighting Japanese competitive strengths, Woronoff criticizes aspects of manufacturing strategy such as their willingness to grow even larger without giving consideration to "the fact that bigger is not always better".

Some Japanese management practices such as long term evaluation of employees and the generalist preparation provided to their employees are criticized as ineffective. Stewart (Ed.) (1996) provides a varied (and sometimes critical) set of articles of industrial relations in the auto industry, from a wide geographical perspective. Yang (1984), executive adviser to Hakuhodo, Inc., explains cultural traits of Japanese management, offers a look at management practices utilized by Japanese corporations, and provides detailed information on distinctive management techniques used by Japanese managers. The author explores and criticizes consensus management, bottom-up decision making, and orderly promotion. He also discusses the Japanese life-time employment and long-range planning techniques. Tsuda (1986) examines major weaknesses of Japanese management: the possibility of clashes within an organization's management ranks and the earlier retirement promotion plans. Mroczkowski (xxxx) performs a Delphi study to predict the future evolution of Japanese management.

Some criticisms point to subsets of the whole range of JMPs. Parker et al. (1993) sustain that whereas there are reasons to praise TQM there is also an alternative view: there are good reasons to be suspicious of TQM programs. They look at the problem from a different perspective and maintain that the outcome may not correspond to the good intentions of TQM promoters. The alternative perspective starts with social needs and values to which corporations should serve. Likewise, Boje et al. (1993) examine TQM from a skeptical postmodern perspective in order to "unmask the rhetoric which serves to camouflage what we believe to be the neo-modernist ideas and practices embodied in the Total Quality Management project." Miller et al. (2002) consider management fads, among which he includes Japanese management, and provides advice on how to detect them. [xiv]

Criticism of the way Japanese companies treat women is a chapter in itself. Lam (1992) explains the work patterns and personal experiences of Japanese women. She uses surveys of employees at Seibu Department Store in 1984 and 1988, before and after the Equal Employment Opportunity law (1986). The author cites evidence that some Japanese firms will invest in training of female employees and offer job rotation chances opportunities at the age of 30 or whereabouts, when the probability of quitting is reduced. Thus they would start their careers 5 to 10 years later than men.

IV.4.2. Winds of change

Japanese firms are in the midst of the longest economic crisis in their post war history. This change in the business environment has had major consequences for their management and organization, with implications for the theory of the Japanese firm. A wide perspective on these changes can be seen in Dirks et al. (1999), which cover a broad range of subjects, from the strategies and organizational structures, to the management of human resources and innovation processes, as well as internationalization and corporate governance in the 1990s. The book reproduces seventeen papers from a conference co-organized by three European research institutions located in Japan: The Deutsches Institut fur Japanstudien, the Maison Franco-Japonaise, and the Istituto Italiano di Kyoto.

Winds of change in several areas are dealt with by many other authors. Attitudes among the younger generation regarding company-life seem to be changing. Mroczkowski

et al. (1998) predict that distinctive Japanese HRM practices will disappear by approximately 2010. Journalists have also taken a critical lead and they suggest winds of change in the system. The Economist (1993) comments on weaknesses in Japanese management, exposed by the high yen. Consensus management is charged with slow decision-making. Relationships with suppliers are being altered through purchases overseas. Life-time employment "is finished". Engineering sophistication is costly, and its products, difficult to use. Japanese "traditions, however, are by no means finished", according to the magazine. Economist (1990) discusses the changes taking place in Japan's corporate life and concerns: sex discrimination, import raising, cutting prices. Economist (1999) refers to the beginnings of management reform in Japan. New York Times (1997) reports on Japanese executives, who seem to be adopting some American management ideas, such as a Western-style board at Sony and the introduction of stock options for top managers at Toyota Motor Corporation.

These changes might be occurring in the middle of a change in values. Schwind et al. (1985) focus on the personal values of Japanese managers and management trainees; in particular, they want to investigate whether radical changes are likely to occur in Japanese employment practices.

Schmidt (1996) considers that Japanese management has entered a new phase, in which personnel practices are being changed by eliminating employee positions at large corporations. Economic recession is pointed out as the culprit of these changes, which include work force reduction, introduction of merit pay, promotion and performance evaluations, along with other decisions such as the establishment of offshore production facilities, the use of temporary employees and early retirement of employees. As a consequence of these changes, the country is restructuring in a distinctive fashion: small and medium-sized firms have created new products for market niches and in the process have created employment for people who had been dismissed from the large companies.

Lux (1997) states that the burst of the bubble and the new competitive world environment showed the limitations of the Japanese management approach. He quotes several factors: the high yen, increased competition within Japan, increased competition from Asian countries and the high cost of doing business in Japan. The country is facing a number of challenges: an expensive seniority system, rising unemployment, lack of

individual initiative, inflexible structures, and lack of creativity. Companies meeting the challenge will become "awesome competitors again."

Okumura (1996) considers that changes are occurring in many areas: life-long employment, rate of unionization (it is going down); companies are starting to leave the keiretsu as there is less justification to belong to them; the institution of lead bank is also loosing steam; individualism will emerge and replace the principle of company supremacy. The author calls "company capitalism" to an institutional arrangement by which main share-holders in large firms are not individual people but interdependent firms with cross-holdings in each other.

Another area of potential change might be the work group in Japanese corporations. Sey (2000) reports changes in Japanese concepts of work group that caused great "excitement in the scientific community". According to the literature on the Japanese automobile industry, an evolution in the organization of teams at the final assembly line might be occurring. This evolution would appear in the degree of self-regulation, although so far there is no scientifically sound answer to this question.

IV.4.3. Change... but not collapse

In spite of these changes, the Japanese management system seems to be strong. Dedoussis (2001), while recognizing that HRM practices are changing in Japan, asserts that those changes may not necessarily lead to the collapse of the Japanese employment system. Companies are making adjustments, but distinctive HR practices in Japan's large firms are unlikely to disappear completely. A segment, albeit smaller than the present one, of the permanent work force will continue being defined by distinctive Japanese HR management practices. This recent perspective is in line with an older one: Mroczkowski et al. (1986) examine the changes in the employment and promotion systems in Japanese corporations and maintain that they are not designed to destroy the traditional system but to increase its flexibility. In other words, this attitude is in line with the Japanese approach to change: although change might be fast and deep, the Japanese core should be maintained. Kawakami et al. (1994), among others, share these views.

IV.4.4. Convergence

The phenomenon of convergence of different management systems is described by Floyd (1999), who considers the question whether managers should talk of a West or East style of management. He concludes that the dichotomy is not appropriate since globalization and international trade have promoted the spread of knowledge about different management practices from different countries and cultures. By examining management practices across a variety of Eastern and Western countries, Floyd finds much evidence to suggest a degree of convergence. Japanese organizations are compared with those of the U.S. and Europe, and contrasted with Anglo-Saxon and Korean organizations: according to the author, there are some similarities between Japanese and Korean firms, and also between Korean and Western (particularly French) management practices. Further convergence is anticipated, although some key differences related to national cultures (especially the role of the public sector) might remain.

Other authors as well take up the issue of convergence of industrial systems. In particular, Grayson et al. (1999) reconsiders the notions of Japanese and American theories of management and draws conclusions about the erosion of distinct management practices in a global world. The paper tries to understand the effects of the Japanese recession and globalization and technological diffusion on the mainstays of Japanese management. Some questions posed are: What caused the failure of the Japanese industrial agenda that was guided by the Japanese management models of the 1980s? What are the managerial values, concepts, and norms that allowed the U.S. economy to move toward change? What prevented the Japanese from doing the same? Which managerial values, concepts and norms are culturally determined, which are financially determined, or both? Or are they a mix, and if so, how has this mix changed over time?

IV.5. ETHNOCENTRIC, CULTURAL AND HISTORICAL VIEWS

Some authors maintain that Japanese management is deeply rooted in Japanese tradition and society. Misumi (1990), for example, writes that Japanese management is not an imitation of Western practices but rather that practices such as life-time employment,

seniority system, company unions, and periodical recruitment have been formed from traditional influences. Case studies of Nishitetsu Railroad Company and Nagasaki's Mitsubishi Shipyard are presented. In a similar vein, Bhappu (2000) tries to explain the origin of Japanese corporate networks and JMPs by presenting the Japanese family as an institutional logic underlying those networks and practices. Sullivan (1992) discusses Japanese management philosophies at the light of nihonjinron, mentioning both positive and negative aspects. Stewart (1992) provides interpretations on cultural aspects. In the broader context of MNCs, Kranias (2000) highlights the importance of culture as a means of control, especially in the case of the Japanese multinational companies in their relationship with overseas subsidiaries. The author looks in particular into the interaction of Japanese management accounting with the rest of the world. He builds a multinational model and analyzes management accounting control based on the relationship between the Japanese parent company and its overseas subsidiaries.

Cultural themes are also brought by Briggs (1988), who criticizes Japanese organizational practices, which are rooted, according to the author, in coercive and culturally-dependent methods. The Japanese practices would, therefore, be unfit to Britain society. Perlitz (1994) thinks that it is not the management technique in itself that leads countries to superior performance, but rather the fit between technique and culture, the latter being predetermined. Cultural traditions are considered by Zipkin (1991), who puts JIT in perspective and contends that JIT engenders powerful feelings (positive and negative) in marketing, production and finance people. In order to derive good applications of JIT, a question to ask is "what elements of our own varied cultural traditions shall we choose to emphasize?"

Yamamoto (1986) provides a historical perspective of Japanese management, delving into the roots of modern Japanese practices, and describing the legal and ethical codes of feudal Japan. Small circle activities and consensus-making management get a newer understanding from a historical perspective. Suzuki (1991), inspired by Chandler's studies, presents the development of managerial hierarchies in the large Japanese industrial companies from 1920 to 1980. Nakagawa (1992) looks at Japanese management from a historical perspective and labels it as "informal, integrative, democratic, and focused on the long term."

Likewise, Whitehill (1991) looks at Japanese management from a historical perspective and examines the impact of culture and values that influence management structure, processes and behaviour. Among the rich catalog of topics the author deals with, is the extent of transferability of Japanese management practices to other countries. Waring (1991), in a history book on management ideas, explores Americans´ fascination with the Japanese management approach "because of its corporative way of transcending Taylorism." Japanese management as practiced in the general trading companies is viewed from a historical perspective by Katsura (1982).

Philosophical approaches are sometimes used to explain the phenomenon of Japanese management. For Rehfeld (1994), success of Japanese management practices is due to the concept of time prevailing in Eastern cultures: unlike the West, where time is a linear and discrete (monochronic) phenomenon, the East views time as both now and future (polychronic). Monochronic means that Westerner managers do one thing at a time, while the Japanese do many things concurrently. The six-month budget cycle is presented.

V.   ARTICLES ON JAPANESE MANAGEMENT ABROAD

V.1. REVIEW OF NON-EBSCO SOURCES

In this document, "non-EBSCO sources" mean EBSCO sources other than full-text articles, including abstracts and book reviews, in addition to books and articles from other sources.

V.1.1. Japanese companies and practices abroad

Many studies examine foreign subsidiaries of Japanese companies. Some of them deal with specific countries, others with specific aspects of Japanese management practices. In this section we present different perspectives of Japanese companies and practices in foreign lands, including considerations on the extent of transfer of Japanese practices abroad. We start this section with a review of Kawakami et al (1994), who give a broad

Japanese perspective, and continue with an international perspective that includes Latin America and Argentina.

V.1.1.1. Kawakami et al. (1994)

Kawakami et al. (1994, Chapter 7, *Japanese management in the world*) specifically confront the issue of to what extent Japanese firms and industrial society will skillfully manage their contact with international society. In dealing with international contact, various problems appear and they are a source of criticism and reflection that has intensified in recent years. As these problems are related to Japanese management, a theory proposes to just change them; some aspects related to history and the Japanese ethos, however, are not easily changed. The authors think about the shape that international competition will take, or, more properly, they present the shape they would like international competition to take (more a wish than a forecast). Inside this framework, how will Japanese companies develop? What form should Japanese management take? Finally, what influence will these changes have on Japanese society?

The authors refer to the international competition among diverse forms of capitalism. How will international competition develop in this border-less world of multinational and transnational corporations? There are two contrasting opinions about it. The first one envisions a convergence towards a universal management system. The second one maintains that diversity in managerial systems will not go away.

Both views are right and both are wrong--the authors maintain. Companies indeed learn from the experience of others in foreign countries. However, no matter how hard one tries, it is impossible to imitate without change management systems that were born in a different cultural environment. Even if form is imitated, the spiritual background is probably different. For example, Japanese companies learned from the U.S. the statistical quality control methods, but they developed and established unique small groups activities under the influence of Japanese culture. These QC circles were later imported by U.S. companies, but although the form resembles the original, the impression one gets when observing them is that they are different in some way, and this difference is due to its place of origin. And the authors provide an eloquent example: When Japanese makers of refined

sake built a factory in the U.S., they transplanted the wine rice to California, but the constituents of the rice grown there were subtly different. The seeds were the same, so the soil and weather made the difference. The same phenomenon occurs to management systems when they are transplanted.

Multinational companies must confront this difficulty when transplanting technology and management methods abroad. From the point of view of competitive results, this difficulty is also a source of advantages. Imitation is not a simple phenomenon, for even from simple imitation a new thing appears. Imitator and imitated both learn and industry as a whole develops from international competition, a desirable result.

The authors mention what in Japan is called "homogeneous competition". Homogeneous competition is prone to a war of attrition where both parties act to produce successive diminishing yields and neither part improves its results. Some people propose avoiding homogeneous competition. However, it is not the case that homogeneous competition is all nonsense, and indeed the alternative of non-homogenous firms competing among them expands the range of options. From the point of view of the customer, non-homogeneous competition is more desirable. Diverse firms in diverse countries, skillfully using diverse infrastructures, are an alternative with a lot of merit.

Kawakami and his colleagues conclude their argument pointing out that is good that there is an American capitalism, a Japanese capitalism, a German capitalism, a Latin capitalism, and a *kakyoo* capitalism (overseas chinese merchants). Each one has its own competitive advantages. If we compare the *kakyoo* capitalism with the Japanese capitalism, we see that change is slower in the latter. But on the contrary, Japanese capitalism is headed for the accumulation of systems, technology and skills. By dividing labor and specializing in fields where different kinds of capitalism can make the most of their strengths, a more efficient world system can be expected.

The game of specialty. Under the heading of "The game of specialty", the authors state that from the previous arguments the competitive advantages of Japanese firms become clear. Japanese firms have unique capabilities because its workers take advantage of the systemic infrastructure of culture and milieu. A corporate strategy that takes advantage of these factors is advisable and likely. Concrete strategies will depend on each company, but, generally speaking, fields where Japanese companies are good are those

where companies can accumulate technology and skills and make the most of them; where there is repetition of continuous innovations; and where work can be done in cooperation. In fields in which the firm is not good, foreign resources can be used and foreign companies can be entrusted.

Management is also moving backwards. According to the authors, a problem emerges when companies create bad working conditions in order to achieve a better competitive position in the short term. Thus companies in one country reduce personnel to increase efficiency and competitors in other countries have no choice but to follow suit. Examples are the automobile industry and others. Unfortunately, this condition diminishes the workforce's will to work and also affects its abilities. In addition, in the long term the purchasing power of the workforce decreases and the economy bounces back. In mature industries the number of workers decreases and the workforce moves to more productive sectors of the economy. In summary, the decision to increase or not workers income is a complex problem, whose solution, for these authors, is to look at the long term, not only in terms of the stockholders but in terms of society as well. Social problems brought about by the internationalization of firms are also considered.

How would it be possible to build a universal international rule? Competition based on diversified styles of management and diversified management systems brings about better possibilities of producing good results than competition based on homogeneous systems and principles. It is advisable, however, to have common rules in basic aspects. Unfortunately, building these rules is difficult. Each country is unique, each market and political system is unique, and therefore building a universal rule is difficult, specially for differentiated products or services, which are more related to culture and institutions.

Difficulties to transplant one's own managerial system. Kawakami et al. inquire into the way firms transplant their management systems and the technology and the principles underlying them. Much technology is incorporated in people. Management systems are supported by culture, institutional environments, and infrastructure. How do we transplant them to a different environment? To what extent do we transplant the management system we have created? This is a difficult problem, in particular because the strengths of Japanese companies are not the strengths of isolated technologies but are rather

the integration of several technologies into a system. How do we transplant a system? People do.

Japanese management is embodied in people. The strengths of Japanese companies are the result of combining diverse technologies into a system that, as such, is more difficult to transplant than isolated technologies. In addition, these technologies are not written in manual or procedures, but are embodied in people. So the transfer of people accompanies the transplant of the Japanese management system: Japanese are dispatched to foreign subsidiaries and foreigners are sent to Japan for training. Therefore transplantation takes time.

Elements of the Japanese management system. The authors distinguish three types of elements in the Japanese organization, as follows:

(1) Those superficial systems that can be "seen with the eyes": organization, decision making style, work procedures, supervision methods.

(2) The superficial systems are supported by other elements: institutions and customs, rules for transaction relations with the environment, workers, suppliers, governments, bureaucrats; the life-time employment, the seniority system, keiretsu relationships, things that affect governance.

(3) Finally, there is the management ethos: a spirit that supports managers, relationships between the company and people and society, ways to consider human relations in the company, i.e., the cultural and ideological basis of management.

Elements in (2) above (like seniority, life-time employment), are the most difficult to transplant; elements in (1) (QCC, suggestion systems, organization), the easiest.

The transplant of the ethos deserves a special consideration. Ethos is a perspective of work that puts work at the center of life and considers the company as a public institution; ethos proposes the pursuit of restrained (controlled) profit, and emphasizes harmony and relations, in addition to tolerance for vagueness, genba-ism and genbutsu-ism, among other values.

Thus the ethos is difficult to transplant, but it is not impossible. Firstly, managerial ethos contain some universal principles, for example, restrained profit is related to Max Weber's protestant ethics ("see the long term and accumulate"), and genba-ism is related to

a democratic perspective of the shop floor. Secondly, some functions of the Japanese system can find a different form of expression in foreign lands. For example, life-time employment can become: "give priority, as much as possible, to guarantee employment". Similarly, Japanese governance cannot be transferred as it is, but it is possible to "appoint management people with a long term commitment with the firm".

The debate on the internationalization of business, particularly the Japanese firm, has may aspects, for example: The functions that were being accomplished by the Japanese management system, by what method will be continued? In concrete terms, the way functions are performed will likely differ, but there will be points of contact between different management systems. In summary, the Japanese system cannot be transplanted as it is. Rather, it should be adapted to fit local cultural conditions abroad by changing company methods and customs.

V.1.1.2. Companies in the United Kingdom and other European countries

A good number of studies, going back at least two decades, deal with different experiences of Japanese subsidiares and JMPs in the United Kingdom and Europe in general. White et al. (1983) try to assess the working practices and management effectiveness of six Japanese firms in the U.K. through the perception of their workers. Economist (1991 a) discusses a study commissioned by the European Commission on European parts-makers that have (poorly) copied Japanese management techniques. Management Accounting (1994) reviews "Japanese Companies in the UK", a book published by the Chartered Institute of Management Accountants and authored by Michael Bromwich and Shin'ichi Inoue, that examines the transferability of JMP judging by the experience of Japanese firms in the UK. The authors conclude that these companies are largely run from Japan, in spite of the influence of UK industrial structure, economy and culture. A number of problems is posed: the need to use British or European components, lack of skilled engineering staff, and the lack of company manuals outlining company structure and organization. Dunning (1986) studies the extent and impact of Japanese manufacturing subsidiaries in British industry and tackles issues related to the transfer of

Japanese systems. Gordon (1988) provides a detailed account of a number of perspectives on Japanese management in Britain and the U.S.

Molteni (1999) deals with the strategy and management practices of Japanese companies in Europe. Park et al. (1992) examine the results of a survey on Japanese management in West Germany. Japanese management from a Soviet perspective is studied by Tselichtchev (1992) and by Mashchits (1992). Trevor (1987) provides a set of articles dealing with the internationalization of Japanese business from European and Japanese perspectives. The work includes articles on the internationalization of Korean enterprises, in addition to papers on Japanese industrial and service firms doing business in the UK, Germany, and Western Europe in general. The transferability of management style is considered.

V.1.1.3. Companies and practices in Asia and Latin America

Japanese subsidiaries operating in other countries in Asia have also been studied. Yoshihara (1993) studies Japanese management in Korea. Likewise, Lee (1992) discusses the application of Japanese production management practices in South Korea and analyzes the variables that South Korean manufacturers can handle to achieve international competitiveness through JMPs. Fukuda (1988) studies the impact of Japanese management practices in Hong Kong and Singapore. A significant degree of dissatisfaction with management was found, through surveys of worker attitudes among HK and Singapore employees of Japanese subsidiaries. The author uses Sethi's typology[xv]. Weihrich (1990) provides a comparison of management practices in Japan, China and the U.S.

Kiyokawa et al. (2002) study the effect of Japanese management practices on job-consciousness at Indo-Japanese joint ventures. Working at three Indo-Japanese joint ventures and two Indian firms, the authors conducted a structured interview survey in 1998, aiming at uncovering the differences in job-consciousness between the joint ventures and indigenous firms. They assumed that the transfer of management, which is a transfer of culture, affects the job-consciousness in the recipient firms. Survey data was analyzed with discriminant analysis to show that the introduction of Japanese management practices promoted a sense of unity and job satisfaction, and, moreover, that such management

practices were welcome particularly by workers in the joint ventures, as they were perceived as more egalitarian. Tomita (1985) studies the application of Japanese management in the Philippines.

Signs of change are visible at the international level as well. Richter (2000), as the editor of a book on the responses of Asian firms to the Asian economic crisis, reports recent moves by Sony, Toshiba, and Toyota to redesign their group management models at the corporate level. Likewise, the crisis and transferability of Japanese management is analyzed.

Some studies tackle the study of JMPs in Latin America. Humphrey (1995) surveys changes in the way work is performed in Latin America, in particular, the use of Japanese management methods such as JIT and TQM and considers that the process of diffusion of knowledge is broader "than what it seems". Leiter et al. (2002) present LAJACONET, the Latin America Japan AOTS Consulting Network, a network of consultants that study the practical implementation of Japanese management and quality control techniques in Latin American countries (not necessarily in Japanese companies). The authors present case studies from Argentina, Mexico and Brazil.

Carrillo (1995) looks at the extent of diffusion of JIT and TQM in Latin America. He offers four perspectives on flexible production in Latin America, as follows:

(1) Transfer is impossible, for historical and cultural reasons. A reason that prevents transfer is, for example, the work culture. Another reason might be the presence of an authoritarian state or of union corporativism that prevents cooperation (Lebornge et al, 1988; Lipietz, 1986).

(2) Universal adoption, following Womack et al. (1992), since principles of lean production are applicable in any place by anyone. Specific institutions in different regions or countries would not affect JIT and TQC practices.

(3) Segmented adaptation. The JIT/TQC approach was developed in industrial countries and is not suitable to the Latinamerican reality, where most industries are small and live a reality quite different from the large car or electronics manufacturers that, in the large economies, can take advantage of lean production and similar technologies.

(4) Hybrid adaptation. Following Boyer and Freyssenet (1993) an industrial model has both principles and implementation methods. Principles can be realized by different methods on the basis of specific conditions.

The author compiles a set of characteristics of diffusion of JIT/TQC in Latin America on the basis of empirical analysis: (1) wide diffusion across countries; (2) diffusion growths in the 80's and early 90's; (3) reasons for adaptation; (4) heterogeneity; (5) segmentation; (6) productive impact; (7) labor impact; (8) limitations; (9) potential; (10) the future of JIT/TQC.

As a way of conclusion, the author proposes a number of working hypothesis. They are:

H1. There is less emphasis on work teams, polivalence, and systemic job rotation at plants with simple operations, as contrasted with plants with complex production processes.

H2. MNCs and large national firms have more management resources to internally implement JIT/TQC in a more effective and systemic way.

H3. MNCs are more effective to develop external JIT--integrating quality networks and implementing frequency and reliability in such a network. This is due to the larger technical assistance and sanctioning power MNCs have vis-a-vis national firms.

H4. A great barrier in developing internal JIT-networks is the limited capacity local firms have to meet the demands of innovation leaders in quality and delivery.

H5. A great limitation to TQC development is the lack of employee involvement and the resistance to work systems due to low salaries.

H6. Trade-offs and concessions will be required to guarantee acceptance of new organizational practices in those places where unions are well organized. In addition, there will be less flexibility in internal job markets. On the contrary, where unions are weak or non-existent, changes toward multiple qualifications, task interaction and teamwork. In this case, job security will be less protected.

H7. JIT/TQC diffusion and systemic usage will vary according to the degree of exposition of companies to international competitive standards and to the nature of the challenges companies face.

V.1.1.4. Japanese management practices in Argentina

The application of JMPs in Argentina has been studied by several scholars. JICA (1990) performs a detailed study of TQC in small and medium sized companies in Argentina. Roldan (1993 a and b) has done work on JIT and TQM in Argentina. Neuman (2003 a and b) study the transfer and adaptation of advanced manufacturing systems such as JIT to Argentine manufacturing firms, specifically, textile firms. The main objective of this research is the search for a flexible implementation methodology. Target companies are small and medium-sized firms. Some of the factors considered are culture change required for implementation, cooperation policies, flexible work practices, training and the impact on suppliers.

Novick et al. (2001) analyze so called "hybridization" processes in the Argentine automobile industry, more specifically, contrasting the Toyota and Volkswagen cases. In the first part of the paper, after reviewing the evolution of Argentina's operations for both companies, the authors state differences between the two cases in terms of personnel, training and labor relations. In the second part, supplier relationships are considered, drawing a parallel between Toyota and Volkswagen supplier networks; linkage styles, as well as innovation capabilities, work organization and training processes are looked at. Main questions are addressed and answered as follows:

(1) Was the settlement of foreign subsidiaries a process of systemic adaptation or rather a fragmentary assimilation of isolated mechanisms?
- The settlements are not integrated systems.
(2) How do the main dimensions of the original production model operate?
- They tend to be kept, with proper adaptation.
(3) What is the role played by workers, trade unions, suppliers?
- In general, they are kept, with adaptation. In particular, VW has kept the original characteristics of the labor relations approach.
(4) What are the processes of knowledge building and dissemination within the subsidiary plant?
- Development and dissemination of knowledge is not advanced.

(5) How do they evolve in the relationship with suppliers?

- These relationships are dominated by price, quality and delivery time considerations. Technical assistance and local R&D are not well developed.

(6) Are they learning processes that enrich the rest of the network or just partial appropriations by headquarters?

Yes, to a certain extent.

(7) Do these processes improve original models or rather do they lack the best qualities of the original model?

- The paper analyzes a number of issues related to process and product technology (both approaching the frontier), social management technology (trend to work with polivalence), and learning processes.

The paper looks at the adaptation process to the Argentine environment from two complementary perspectives: adaptation within the plant and adaptation through the network of local suppliers. One objective of the article is to identify whether differences and similarities between two hybridization processes (TASA and VW) are due to the original production models or to the specific way these adaptation processes are developed. A second objective is to evaluate differences or similarities in the way suppliers in two networks generate competencies and stimulate the learning process of their sectors. The third objective is to develop a way to measure and evaluate the relevance of knowledge in a production network.

V.1.1.5. Specific Japanese management practices abroad

Specific Japanese institutions and work practices have been studied in detail. The study of trade unions, for example, plays an important role when Japanese MNC´s subsidiaries are studied. Shibata (1999) compares work practices at U.S. and Japanese unionized firms, studying skill formation, communication and conflict resolution. Six manufacturing plants are studied, three in each country, through observation of first-line supervisors, workers and union executives, and interviews with corporate executives. Job rotation, job transfers, and training are analyzed; likewise, teamwork, decision making and communication are studied. Similarities and differences are presented.

Quality circles, worker teams, supervision, and lean manufacturing have also been analyzed. Coates (1988) provides a comparison of management philosophies, particularly those related to quality circles. Jenkins et al. (19xx) conclude that worker teams enjoy more authority in U.S.-owned plants than in Japanese subsidiaries and that teams in U.S.-owned suppliers are given more authority than those in transplants. Peterson, Peng, and Smith find an interesting relation between management styles and U.S. employee reaction depending on whether their supervisors are Japanese or American. "U.S. employees react positively to Japanese supervisors who emphasize group maintenance and negatively to those who emphasize planning. The reverse is true of their reactions to American supervisors." (Lynn (2000).) MacDuffie et al. (19xx) study Honda's experience of transferring lean manufacturing technology to American suppliers and conclude that the most successful experiences were with suppliers that had a moderate degree of identification and dependency on the customer. Otherwise, motivation to learn is insufficient (lack of identification with the customer and too much independence) or else the supplier tends to rely in excess on the customer (too much identification and dependence). Sheldon et al. (1990) does a summary of Japanese management techniques and analyze their applicability in the U.S.

Also dealing with team issues, Griffiths (1995) studies some of the main sociotechnical interventions occurred in the period 1970-1990 approximately and notes that changes in team work interventions may be attributed to the popularity and influence of Japanese management during the eighties, in addition to changes to the industrial relations institutions. Previous interventions, during the seventies, were associated with changing work and jobs in an effort to improve the quality of work life. On the contrary, newer team work efforts are oriented towards broader organizational design concerns, such as product flows, product innovation, customer and supplier focus, i.e., to the organization´s strategic goals.

V.1.1.6. Extent of transfer of Japanese management practices abroad

To what extent are Japanese practices imported? Pil et al. (1999)--based on research conducted at U.S. big three auto factories--find that the transplants import elements of Japan's economy-wide practices: relatively high levels of employment security and a labor union system that resembles the Japanese one. According to Adler (1999), Japanese management practices have influenced the foundations of work organization, organizational learning and HR management, whereas American practices prevail in employment relations. Thus a hybrid structure is born at the transplants with peculiar characteristics; the author states:

> "Teamwork is important in both the Japanese and American plants, but in the United States the social power of the group over individuals is weaker. Neither of the transplants (Adler) studied links skill grades to pay levels, as might be typical in the United States, but both have a sharper division of labor between production workers and skilled trades than in Japan."

Assuming that practices can be imported, why is learning so slow? Learning is not automatic. Why were U.S. firms slow to learn about quality even after it became clear that there was much to learn from their Japanese counterparts? Cole (1999) presents three reasons. (1) Uncertainty about whether Japanese practices would work in the U.S. (2) The high cost of learning from Japan, and (3) The lack of management norms legitimizing learning from Japan. Information and concrete benchmarks are key.

V.1.2. Conditions for transfer success or failure

The issue of transplantability has received much attention in the literature. Liker et al. (1999) study Japanese transplants in the U.S. and the American firms' response. They try to answer three questions: (a) Which systems have been transplanted to the US without much change? (b) Which needed adaptation? And (c) What had to be adapted? The general finding of the work is that companies working in international settings must transform-- rather than merely transplant--their operations (Methé, 2001). The editors view Japanese Management Systems as a set of four mutually-reinforcing layers of systems. They are: (1)

the shop floor production system, (2) the factory organization and management system, (3) the corporate level, and (4) the institutional environment. The editors examine automotive factories and electronics factories. The latter find transplant more difficult due to greater variation in technologies and applications. A survey shows that there is considerable variation across industries and companies in the degree of implementation of transplants and in the benefits achieved from them. According to Jenkins and Florida, automotive firms make more use of JMS (are more innovative). Kenney looks at TV assembly transplants in North America and explains why they are less prone to use JMS than automotive plants: (1) TV assembly is more automated, teams are more hierarchical and operator tasks are less complex. (2) The electronics transplants came to the U.S. earlier than the automotive ones, at a time where perhaps JMS were not so much trusted and therefore there was less of an urge to implement them.

Brannen, Liker, and Fruin, while analyzing the transfer of NSK production systems to a Michigan subsidiary, conclude that the translation of the meaning of management practices from one setting to another (what they call "recontextualization") occurs to a greater extent when the processes present two features. These are: (a) they are highly embedded in the institutional and cultural environment and (b) they involve a large tacit knowledge base. Why do JMS transfers succeed? Toshiba transferred JMS to three plants in the U.S. with a 2/3 success rate. Fruin, the author of the study, concludes that the failure was due to the lack of coordination among several different Toshiba plants in Japan that were transferring different practices to the U.S. plant.

The learning of management applications can be perceived as a two-way road. Kolchin (1987) sustains that many Japanese practices are not Japanese in origin but are rooted in Western management systems; thus by better understanding the American features of the Japanese system Americans will be able to improve their application of "Japanese" methods.

That road, however, must be transited with care. Maher (1985) alerts against blind imitation of Japanese management and production techniques, which were developed in a different cultural and demographic setting. Instead, the author proposes looking into the reasons of American failure at international business competition.

Other studies looking at the transferability of Japanese management practices show that some changes, though leading to performance improvements, are probably not possible or desirable due to contextual factors such as organizational structure and culture. Collinson (1999) presents a study that provides some insights into the capacity for (and limits of) different types of organizational change in a British firm associated to a Japanese firm through a joint venture in the steel industry. The author draws on a detailed case-study of a successful technical alliance between British Steel Strip Products (BSSP) and a major Japanese steel company which was established to help the UK company to achieve a set of objectives, namely: improve its product quality, upgrade its production control management and strenghten its customer links with Japanese car company transplants in the UK. The main focus of the paper in on "knowledge management practices" in both firms. The case-study relates improvements in quality, production control and customer interface to specific management practices transferred from the Japanese producer to the British partner as part of the alliance. The alliance represents a clear case of how some knowledge management practices are more difficult to transfer between firms because they are more dependent on broader contextual factors (knowledge resources, organizational structure, culture etc.,) to operate effectively. Broader changes are more difficult to implement and usually take much longer.

Kaplinsky (1995) explores whether there are obstacles specific to less-developed countries in the systemic application of Japanese management techniques. The author studies adoption in Latin America, India, and Zimbabwe. Systemic application, through a complete package embedded in a production system, is contrasted with the application of individual Japanese management techniques. The author concludes that three major factors affecting systemic application in these countries are human resources, interfirm cooperation, and management.Brown et al. (1989) present the technological model and base recommendations on what to adopt from Japan based on it.

V.1.3. A summary of non-EBSCO sources

Table 3. presents a summary of sections V.1.1 and V.1.2. Over all, it can be asserted that JMSs can be transplanted to foreign countries provided that adequate adaptation of

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practices is performed (references 1, 5, 6, 7, 8, 16). Consideration of contingency factors is taken by several authors to explain different phenomena related to transfers: 17, 19, and, to some extent, 15 and 18.

Some difficulties are noted, however (references 2, 3, 22, 23), but others make explicit reference to the values embodied and transferred by Japanese management (articles 4 and 13). Two articles allow to infer that a transfer of principles closely associated to JMP as they are applied in Japan has occurred, i.e., "principle-zation" (reference 13, 14).

The study of some specific aspects of Japanese management abroad is done by a number of articles: 9 (teamwork and authority in an international comparison); 10 (reaction of workers to supervision in a cross cultural comparison); 11 (relationship between transfer success to suppliers and contingency variables); 12 (reasons for changes in team work). Articles 20 and 21 consider the need to re-think Western and American systems (from different perspectives).

No.	Author (year)	Issues and conclusions
1	Kawakami et al. (1995, Ch. 7)	To what extent and how will Japanese firms manage their contact with international society? Will there be convergence of managerial systems or diversity? System transplantation is difficult because a system is a set of interrelated technologies, embodied in people, and it takes time. Organization, work methods, decision making styles, and supervision methods are the easiest elements to transplant. Institutions and customs are the hardest. The management ethos is difficult to transplant, but not impossible. In summary: the JMS cannot be transplanted as it is, but must be adapted to foreign conditions and cultures.
2	Manage-ment accounting (1993)	(Review of "Japanese Companies in the UK", by Bromwich and Inoue) Examines the transferability of JMPs to the UK. These companies are largely run from Japan, in spite of the influence of UK industrial structure, economy and culture.
3	Fukuda (1988)	Impact of JMP in Hong Kong and Singapore. A degree of dissatisfaction with management was found through surveys of worker attitudes at Japanese subsidiaries.
4	Kiyokawa et al. (2002)	Introduction of JMPs at Indo-Japanese joint ventures promoted a sense of unity and job satisfaction. These practices are welcome by workers, as they are perceived as more egalitarian.
5	Neuman et al. (2003)	Study the transfer and adaptation of JMP and QC techniques in Argentina. Culture change is required, specially at upper levels of management.
6	Novick et al. (2001)	Compare Toyota and Volkswagen operations in Argentina. Settlement of foreign subsidiaries was not a process of systemic adaptation. The main dimensions of the original production model, including the role of workers, trade unions and suppliers, are kept, but with proper adaptation. The paper looks at adaptation within the plant and through a network of suppliers.

Table 3. Summary of main issues and conclusions for a selected sample of articles on Japanese management abroad (non-EBSCO sources). (Continues on next page.)

No.	Author (year)	Issues and conclusions
7	Carrillo (1995)	Looks into the diffusion of TQM and JIT in Latin America and proposes a number of working hypothesis.
8	Humphrey (1995)	Surveys changes in the way work is performed in Latin America, specially JIT and TQM. The diffusion is broader that "what it seems".
9	Jenkins et al. (1999)	Worker teams enjoy more authority in US-owned plants than in Japanese subsidiaries. Teams in US-owned suppliers are given more authority than those in transplants.
10	Peterson et al. (xxxx)	"U.S. employees react positively to Japanese supervisors who emphasize group maintenance and negatively to those who emphasize planning. The reverse is true of their reactions to American supervisors."
11	MacDuffie et al. (1999)	Honda's experience of transferring lean manufacturing technology to American suppliers teaches that the most successful experiences were with suppliers with a moderate degree of identification and dependency on the customer. Otherwise, motivation to learn is insufficient or else the supplier tends to rely in excess on the customer.
12	Griffiths (1995)	Changes in team work interventions may be attributed to the popularity and influence of Japanese management during the eighties, in addition to changes to the industrial relations institutions.
13	Pil et al. (1999)	At U.S. big three auto factories, the transplants import elements of Japan's economy-wide practices: relatively high levels of employment security and a labor union system that resembles the Japanese one.
14	Adler (1xxx)	Japanese management practices have influenced the foundations of work organization, organizational learning and HR management, whereas American practices prevail in employment relations.
15	Cole (1999)	The papers considers why learning from Japan is so slow. Three reasons: (1) Uncertainty about whether JMPs would work in the U.S. (2) High cost of learning from Japan, and (3) The lack of legitimating management norms.
16	Liker et al. (1xxx)	Companies working in international settings must transform--rather than merely transplant--their operations. JMSs are a set of four mutually-reinforcing layers of systems: (1) the shop floor production system, (2) the factory organization and management system, (3) the corporate level, and (4) the institutional environment. Automotive factories and electronics factories are studied. The latter find transplant more difficult due to greater variation in technologies and applications. There is considerable variation across industries and companies in the degree of implementation of transplants and in the benefits achieved.
17	Kenney (1999)	Looks at TV assembly transplants in North America and explains why they are less prone to use JMS than automotive plants: (1) TV assembly is more automated, teams are more hierarchical and operator tasks are less complex. (2) The electronics transplants came to the U.S. earlier than the automotive ones, when perhaps JMS were not so much trusted and therefore there was less of an urge to implement them.
18	Jenkins et al. (1999)	Automotive firms make more use of JMS (are more innovative).

Table 3 (cont.). Summary of main issues and conclusions for a selected sample of articles on Japanese management abroad (non-EBSCO sources).

No.	Author (year)	Issues and conclusions
19	Brannen et al. (1999)	Two studies: 1. Transfer from NSK plant to Michigan: translation of the meaning of management practices from one setting to another occurs to a greater extent when the processes present two features. These are: (a) they are highly embedded in the institutional and cultural environment and (b) they involve a large tacit knowledge base. 2. Toshiba transferred JMS to three plants in the U.S. with a 2/3 success rate. Why did JMS transfer failed? The failure was due to the lack of coordination among several different Toshiba plants in Japan that were transferring different practices to the U.S. plant.
20	Kolchin (1987)	Many Japanese practices are not Japanese in origin but are rooted in Western management systems; thus by better understanding the American features of the Japanese system Americans will be able to improve their application of "Japanese" methods.
21	Maher (1985)	Alerts against blind imitation of Japanese management and production techniques, which were developed in a different cultural and demographic setting. Instead, the author proposes looking into the reasons of American failure at international business competition.
22	Collinson (1999)	Some knowledge management practices are more difficult to transfer between firms (and take much longer) because they are more dependent on broader contextual factors.
23	Kaplinsky (1995)	Explores obstacles specific to less-developed countries in the systemic application of JMPs: HR, interfirm cooperation, and management.

Table 3 (cont.). Summary of main issues and conclusions for a selected sample of articles on Japanese management abroad (non-EBSCO sources).

V.2. REVIEW OF EBSCO SOURCES

V.2.1. General information

EBSCO full-text articles on Japanese management abroad were further analyzed, its information being summarized in Table A1 in the Appendices. The following basic information is provided in Table A1 (pages 68 to 73), where the reader can refer to as required:

1. Name of author and year (reference)
2. Country considered
3. Period studied
4. Industry of firm studied
5. Approach (case study, literature-based research, survey study)

6. Tools used in the study (e.g., interviews, questionnaires, etc.)

7. Main issues

8. Variables or themes considered in the study

9. Study conclusions

Table 4 on next page is a summary of Table A1. Information on author, publication year, country and industry studied are provided, along with main issues and very brief conclusions of each article. Articles are numbered from 1 to 29 for easier reference.

It can be argued, as we show in detail later in this chapter, that 20 out of 29 papers maintain that adoption of JMPs in foreign lands is possible, although with conditions (papers number 1 to 20). Two papers by Taylor on China are more skeptical (papers number 21 and 22). The seven remaining articles do not deal directly with adoption or transplantation of JMPs (papers 23 to 29).

No.	Author (year)	Country	Industry	Main issues	Conclusion in a nutshell
1	Wilkinson et al. (1995)	UK	Heavy engineering	Adaptation of company to British labor-force culture.	Japanese management adjusts to Britain. Mutual influence.
2	Harwit (1993)	Eastern Europe	Automotive industry	Adoption of production methods in Eastern Europe.	Principles of JM are adoptable.
3	Johnson (1988)	U.S.		What are JMPs? Are they exportable?	Adoption is possible and its degree depends on advantages.
4	Reitsperger (1986 a)	UK	Electronics manufacturing	MNCs' contribution to British industrial relations.	Some policies and practices resemble home country practices.
5	Bowman et al. (1986	U.S.	Service, trading, etc.	What is the predominant managerial approach in Japanese-owned U.S. subsidiaries?	Mixture of JMP and American management practices. Adaptation is possible.
6	Purcell et al. (1999)	Australia	Manufacturing and service	HRM practices and its transferability to Australia.	Japanese subsidiaries have adopted JMPs.
7	Tolich et al. (1999)	U.S.	Electronics	American and Japanese conceive management and themselves differently.	Each factory has adopted different combinations of management styles.
8	Evans (1993)	UK	Financial services	Explores HRM in overseas offices of Japanese service-sector firms.	Some JMPs are used.
9	Shadur et al. (1995)	Australia	Auto, information, tourism.	Can international best practices be transferred to Australia or elsewhere?	The key pillars of Japanese management are not being transferred.
10	Cunningham et al. (1996)	Singapore	Electronics, etc.	Explores ability to use or adapt practices employed in Japan.	Companies modify features of the Singaporean environment to suit JMP, with concessions.
11	Naylor (2000)			Can JMPs be transferred to Western countries or are there cultural limits?	JMPs can be adopted in the West.
12	Sargent et al. (1998)	Mexico	Manufacturing or assembly	Study of strategic international human-resource management	Mexican managers attempt to change corporate culture to support adoption of JMTs.
13	Humphrey (1995)	Brazil	Motor components	Role of labor relations in the Japanese model. Is systemic application of JIT/TQM possible?	Application of JIT/TQM in Brazil is possible.
14	Lowe et al. (2000)	Japan, UK, Mexico	Electronics	Examines the transferability of a Japanese supervisory system	Japanese supervisory systems more successful in Mexico than in Britain.
15	Abdullah et al. (1995)	Malaysia	Electronics	The transferability of the Japanese management syndrome.	Transferability must be considered in historical context.

Table 4. Summary information on 29 full-text articles on Japanese management abroad (continues on next page).

No.	Author (year)	Country	Industry	Main issues	Conclusion in a nutshell
16	Kennly et al. (1995)	U.S.	Autos Electronics	Review the evidence on the transfer to the U.S. of Japanese labor management relations.	Transfer is possible if managers make effort.
17	Morris et al. (1995)			Debates on the transformations in management and organization.	The three treasures are not being transferred. Production paradigm, is.
18	Beechler et al. (1994)	U.S.	Service and manufacturing	Outlines contingency theory for factors impacting transfers of HRM practices.	The transfer process is complex, depending on many contingencies.
19	McKenna (1988)	UK		Assess the utility of the concept of Japanization in British industry.	There is little evidence of a direct Japanese influence on HRM practices in UK.
20	Negandhi et al. (1985)	13 counties	Review of six works.	Identify and discuss the JM problems of overseas subsidiaries.	Only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced.
21	Taylor (2001)	China	Chemical, electrical, etc.	Personnel policies and practices, and their overall industrial relations strategies.	Personnel practices were generally not transferred from Japan to Chinese plants.
22	Taylor (1999)	China	Electronics, chemical, etc.	Structure and pattern of managerial control in different locations and industries, etc.	Complex and varied array of patterns of control are identified. Production, highly Japanized,.
23	Reitsperger (1986 b)	UK	TV manufacturing	Job satisfaction and its relation to productive achievement.	Different personnel policies lead to different job satisfaction.
24	Mahoney et al. (1993)	U.S.	Automotive and tire	Managerial values and beliefs are critical factors explaining success/failure.	Values are critical for success.
25	Wright et al. (2001)	Scotland	Electronics, etc.	Linguistic patterns accompanying activities of Japanese subsidiaries in Scotland.	The local dialect promotes solidarity.
26	Laws et al. (1999)	U.S.	Automotive manufacturing.	Discuss failure of unionization efforts at NMMC.	Union-free automotive manufacturers are at advantage.
27	Mroczkowski et al. (1997)	Japan and U.S.		Comparison of approaches to employment adjustment and rightsizing.	There seems to be a pattern of international best practice.
28	Dedoussis (1995)	Australia	Electronics, etc.	Study of causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices abroad.	There is the emergence of the core-peripheral workforce dichotomy at the international level.
29	Tayeb (1994)	UK	Electronics	Are JMP compatible with British societal and business cultural characteristics?	Culture and social structure have influenced the business culture of both countries.

Table 4. Summary information on 29 full-text articles on Japanese management abroad.

Table 5 shows a preliminary description of 29 articles. It is clear from it that the number of articles increased during the 1995-2000 period relative to the previous decade. The country most studied is the U.S., followed by the UK/Scotland, and Australia. Electronics and automobiles are the industries most studied, and the case study is the most common approach taken by authors. Let's consider the main issues and conclusions of these articles in next section.

Year	Country	Industry	Approach
85-89: 6	UK/Scotland 6	Auto: 7	Case study: 16
90-94: 5	Taiwan 1	Elect: 12	Survey: 11
95-99: 14	US 7	Other mfg: 9	Literature: 7
00-03: 4	Eastern Europe 1	Services: 5	N/A: 1
	Australia 3		
	China 2		
	Japan/US 1		
	Japan/Mexico/UK 1		
	Mexico 1		
	Brazil 1		
	Malaysia 1		
Total: 29	Total: 25		35

Table 5. Preliminary description of 29 articles dealing with Japanese Management abroad: Year of publication, country location of companies studied, industry to which companies studied belong, and methodological information.

V.2.2. Issues and conclusions

V.2.2.1 Transferability of Japanese management

The issue of transferability of JMPs abroad is considered by many authors. Johnson (1988) inquires into the nature, significance, and exportability of JMPs. Through a literature-based study of life-time employment, the impact of Japanese culture and capitalism in Japan (a country that went through late industrialization), the author concludes that the degree of implementation of JMPs in the US varies with the advantages a Japanese firm thinks might gain in the market. More specifically, if goals are management-centered, companies are more interested in implementation; when goals are process-centered, companies are less interested; finally, when goals are product-centered, there is little emphasis in implementation of JMPs in the US. The author considers, moreover, that labor is a form of capital, which is cultivated and nurtured carefully by Japanese corporations.

Neghandi et al. (1985) also deal with transferability themes when they identify and discuss the problems Japanese firms face in their foreign subsidiaries on the basis of six empirical studies across several different countries. The management style of Japanese expatriate managers either try to adopt local management practices or try to keep the JMP

as much as possible. In reality, only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced. Overall, it seems that Japanese MNCs find fewer problems in the developed countries than in less developed countries. Problem areas include: centralization of decision making; low level of confidence in subordinates' abilities; low level of trust for local managers; ceiling on promotion for locally employed managers; problems with unions and equal employment regulation. But overall Japanese firms at home and abroad have been relatively more effective than other MNCs, European and American alike, especially in production management and engineering and in maintaining smooth relations with governments. Nonetheless, the validity of the proposal for the application of Japanese management principles to other societies must be questioned. A better understanding of Japanese problems to apply their practices in their own subsidiaries must be obtained before foreign firms try to adopt the successful aspects of JMPs. The case method is recommended to understand causes of phenomena not given by surveys.

Likewise, Bowman et al. (1986) maintain that adaptation is possible. They asked about the predominant managerial approach in Japanese-owned U.S. subsidiaries and offered a perspective on Japanese management in the U.S. from the perspective of officials in state government Departments of Commerce responsible for facilitating foreign investment. The predominant approached used by Japanese affiliates, it turns out, is a mixture of American and Japanese practices. Humanistic management style. Reject the argument that JMPs cannot transcend their cultural environment: adaptation is possible. Message to U.S. businesses: the real value of JMPs derives from the creation of mutual trust between management and labor. It clearly appears, according to the authors, that the Japanese have developed a management model similar to theory Z.

Transferability of JMPs to Australia is considered by two articles in this review. Shadur et al. (1995) ask weather international best practices can be transferred to Australia or elsewhere and explores the answer based on the four pillars of Japanese management. The author examines three Australian industries: automobiles, information, and tourism. Differences between Japanese and non-Japanese companies were more apparent in the automotive industry, especially in areas of unionization and management-union relations. Few differences were detected in: organizational structure, labor turnover, teams as part of the organizational structure, levels of training, ringi-system, security of employment,

welfare schemes, performance appraisal and performance-related pay, and quality systems. Differences are gradually declining. The general conclusion in that the three pillars of Japanese management are not being transferred and the authors cannot expect to see identical arrangements in other management practices. The main differences found were in union relations.

Purcell et al. (1999) studies HRM practices of Japanese companies and its transferability to Australia. The authors use data from a directory of Japanese business in Australia (1992); 69 firms are surveyed. The paper compares HRM practices in Japanese multinationals operating in Australia with those operating in North America and Europe and surveys the typology of HRM practiced by Japanese firms. In particular, the authors analyze the importance of firm size, industry sector, ownership and experience in Japanese HRM transfer. Two theories are used to establish the hypothesis of the article: 1. Internationalization theory: failure of markets to appropriate the returns from firm-specific competitive advantages, complemented by location factors and 2. Agency theory: The parent must build control systems that attenuate opportunistic behavior of the subsidiary and in the meantime provides incentives for the subsidiary to maximize the transfer of its competitive advantages. Japanese subsidiaries have adopted JMP as part of the transfer of the parent's ownership advantages and as a control and monitoring device: JMP include QCC, Kaizen, OJT. Replication of Japanese incentive systems (life-time employment, seniority wages) is not necessary or appropriate in Australia; but there is clear evidence to suggest a Japanese firm's approach to moral hazard and adverse selection issues. Attempts to reduce the number of intra-company unions are detected. Merit, not seniority, is the main determinant of wages. Does size, experience, ownership or industry impact the transfer process?: yes and no. It is concluded that key work and organizational JMPs are transferred as part of the realization of advantages. Incentive structures are more local. Other structures, such as life-time employment, were not transferred to Australia, although high levels of job security were sought. In summary, organizational practices are transferred in total, HRM practices, selectively. Firm size is not correlated to adoption, although experience, ownership structure and industrial sector are related to adoption decisions.

Evans (1993) explores HRM in overseas offices of two Japanese service-sector firms. She bases her conclusions on the comparative study of two Japanese financial

institutions in the City of London through the use of interviews and questionnaire surveys. Aspects considered include: recruitment and selection procedures, training methods, pay and promotion policies, employment security, company culture, and the position of workers within the organization. Employment and integration policies have changed during the 80's in response to a decision to increase localization. There are differences in employment practices from those encountered by White and Trevor (1983): the cases show more use of Japanese methods and more integration of British staff. The results suggest that international financial companies are localizing as part of the process of globalizing.

V.2.2.2. Conditions for successful transfer of JMPs

At any rate, what are the conditions for successful transfer of JMPs? Naylor (2000) considers several studies in order to determine whether Japanese management practices can be transferred abroad and analyses the conditions under which this transfer has been possible to Western companies. The author recommends caution in blindly copying Japanese practices and an effort to understand why some practices have been successful in the first place. His conclusion is that apparently Japanese practices can be successfully adopted in the West. However the different elements of a firm's business strategy must fit together. According to Naylor, convergence is taking place in world markets and technologies and this fact will make less relevant the issue of whether or not JMPs should be adopted.

Expectations of Japanese managers are used by Mahoney et al. (1993) to explain the success of some U.S.-Japanese joint ventures. The authors assert that Japanese management success derives from the higher expectations the Japanese managers held for their workers. They studied Bridgestone and Firestone in the tire industry and NUMMI and General Motors-Van Nuys in the automotive industry and in both cases Japanese management was more successful. Managerial values and beliefs are critical factors explaining success and failure. Four factors explain different performance at NUMMI/Van Nuys: Shock of plant closure; selective hiring; teamwork organization; layoff provisions. Explanation for the findings at Bridgestone-La Vergne are of a similar nature, in general.

V.2.2.3. Consideration of contingency factors

The transferability of the Japanese management syndrome is examined by Adbullah et al. (1995) through an analysis of the employment policies and practices of two Japanese MNC in Malaysia. Transferability must be considered in the specific historical context. Business objectives and local economic, political, and legal conditions, as well as socio-cultural values, condition employment policy and practice.

Morris et al. (1995) present debates on the transformations in management and organization over the period 1980-1993, especially on the transferability of a Japanese model. The question of transferability leads to the question of 'what is being transferred?' and 'what are we comparing?' According to the authors, we should not expect to see systematic transfer of the three treasures. We must consider industry specific differences and process-specific differences and country-specific differences due not only to culture but also to political economy, education, industrial relations. The new paradigm of production and work seems to be traveling everywhere with the Japanese. Importance of empirical research to back up theories of organizational transformations in manufacturing is mentioned.

Is success contingent upon the type of industry? Kennly et al. (1995) compare the transfer of Japanese industrial practices to the U.S. in two industries: automobiles and electronics. While in the auto industry Japanese manufacturers had been able to transfer most of the original systems, electronics companies present a different picture, since most of the subsidiaries had not transferred Japanese-style industrial relations. In conclusion, transfer of style is possible, but only when Japanese managers make a sustained effort to implant their system. In many electronics operations it seems that the Japanese managers did not make efforts to implement JMPs. In autos, they did and so the record is mixed.

At any rate, transferability is no easy task. Beechler et al. (1994) outlines contingency theoretical model that specifies the factors impacting (hypothetically) transfers of HRM practices from Japan to overseas subsidiaries. Ten Japanese subsidiaries are studied, five in manufacturing (Tennessee) and five in the service sector (New York City), in order to illustrate the theory. The authors present three schools of thought dealing with

the transfer of Japanese HRM practices abroad: the culturalist school, the rationalistic school, and the technology-HRM fit school. After that, they present a contingency model that links HRM practices and corporate strategies. The authors based their study on two fields: studies of transfer of JM overseas and field of strategic HRM. Key contingency factors considered were: parent firm's administrative heritage, subsidiary characteristics, host-country economic, social and cultural conditions, cultural distance between home- and host-country environments. The importance of several contingency variables in shaping the HRM practices that are transferred is studied. The transfer process is a complex one, depending on a number of internal and external contingencies.

Abdullah (1995) examines employment policies and practices of two Japanese electronics companies operating in Malaysia. He concludes that employment policies and practices are likely to be constrained by business objectives and local conditions and culture.

V.2.2.4. Transferability of elements of the system

Lowe et al. (2000) examines the transferability of a Japanese supervisory system, a central component of Japanese manufacturing. The author compares supervisory systems in three plants of a Japanese electronics firm located in Japan, Mexico and Britain. Supervisory systems, the results of the study suggest, have been established with more success in Mexico than in Britain. Main explanatory factors for this observation are the following: varying local labor market conditions, limits to managerial control on the shopfloor, the relationship between the product market and the organization of production, and local and expatriate management commitment to a Japanese system.

Sargent et al. (1998) study strategic international human resource management practices in Mexico. Among their target firms there were MNCs using Japanese management practices; a main challenge faced by these companies was cultural change for successful implementation. Company culture needed to be altered to fit the needs of the Japanese manufacturing techniques. Sargent studied in particular: staffing policies, conflict between Mexican and expatriate managers, and the efforts of firms to use JMTs: JIT Inspection at the source, continuous improvement, rapid changeover, preventive

maintenance, pull system. Mexican managers resist the cultural imposition represented by U.S. managers but at the same time attempt to change corporate culture to support adoption of JMTs. Managing this duality, the authors asserts, is one of the keys to success in Mexico.

Laws et al. (1999) study the impact of trade unions at Japanese automotive subsidiary plants operating in the U.S. through a case study of Nissan Motor Manufacturing Corporation. The study deals with the failure of unionization efforts at Nissan Motor Manufacturing Corporation and the authors conclude that manufacturers with no union at their plants will continue enjoying advantages over those with it.

V.2.2.5. Impact of JMPs beyond the firm

Rather than just looking at transferability, Reitsperger (1986 a) explores MNCs' contribution to British industrial relations and pays attention to management's role as a strategic decision maker in industrial relations. If British management does not integrate functional substrategies to gain competitive advantage, how have MNCs performed in that country? The author surveys two Japanese companies, one British company and one American company in the UK. Through taped interviews and questionnaires, the author tries to understand the processes related to some industrial relations policies. The results have been innovative approaches to industrial relations, especially talking about U.S. MNCs. How about the Japanese MNCs? The arguments center about culturally motivated behavior vs. strategic control in industrial relations. Only by looking at the process leading to concrete practices will we know how and why Japanese MNCs succeed in manufacturing in "declining" industries. Industrial relations are tightly integrated with marketing and manufacturing strategy. Industrial relations are perceived as a manufacturing substrategy: it is crucial for competitive advantage. Some policies and practices resemble home country practices. There is motivation behavior: merit promotional system; supervisory role for quality improvement. The author concludes that the industrial relations strategy is closely integrated with marketing and especially manufacturing strategies.

V.2.2.6. JMP and job satisfaction

Reitsperger (1986 b) studies job satisfaction and its relation to productive achievement in the context of two Japanese subsidiaries (named Japanese company 1 and Japanese company 2), one American and one British. The four companies belong to the TV manufacturing industry. The two Japanese companies employed different personnel practices, which produced different degrees of satisfaction in employees. Also, the paternalistic policies at one of the Japanese firms generated appreciative feelings among British personnel, but were not preconditions for high productive achievement. The study refutes some stereotypes about Japanese management. A ranking of the firms producing most job satisfaction would be as follows: 1. US company; 2. Japanese company 1 and UK company; 3. Japanese company 2. Future research could focus on how Japanese manufacturing adapts to West and to show consequences of adaptive patterns.

V.2.2.7. Transferability of JMPs to non-Japanese firms

Experiences in Eastern Europe and Brazil suggest that Japanese management technology can be transferred abroad. Harwit (1993) sustains that in Eastern Europe, Western companies --particularly GM and VW--are using lean production and JIT methods in the automotive industry with great success. He studies US and German companies moving into Eastern Europe. Have they moved to the most efficient production methods? How have the West influenced their progress? What does the future look like? Why are there no Japanese companies in the area? (There is a near absence of major Japanese investments.) According to this research, workers quickly learn principles and thus these principles are not culturally bounded. The VW experience shows that many lean production methods can be taught to workers and suppliers accustomed to socialist management. A larger lesson learned from this study is that JMP principles may play a role in restoring competitiveness.

Humphrey (1995) studies the role of labor relations in the Japanese model in Brazil and states that new competitive conditions in that country are leading companies to introduce Japanese management practices in order to increase productivity and quality. Discussions of cases of internal reorganization are presented. The question of why transformations are hard for many firms is addressed. Is systemic application of JIT/TQM possible? The extent of the transformation in production and labor relations is considerable. Poor labor-relations are not such a big problem as anticipated. Macroeconomic instability, however, is a conditioning factor. Brazilian firms are making radical changes to their production systems; in so doing, they can overcome educational problems and change labor relations practices in order to obtain some acceptance of change on the part of workers.

V.2.2.8. Reasons for adoption or non-adoption

Why are JMPs adopted abroad? Dedoussis (1995) studies the causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices abroad through the study of Japanese subsidiaries in Australia. In particular, he studies HRM and the reproduction in foreign countries of Japan's dualism in HRM and the development of core workforce-peripheral workforce dichotomy overseas. Traditionally, economic considerations are considered key determinants in the decision whether to adopt or not adopt these practices. The author provides a new perspective on the causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices abroad. The author suggests that "the overseas expansion of Japanese subcontracting networks including large-scale corporations as well as smaller size firms, produces conditions leading to the marginalization of segments of the local labor force and the emergence of the core-peripheral workforce dichotomy at the international level."

More recently, Tolich et al. (1999) assert that Japanese multinationals find difficulties in managing American managers in their US subsidiaries, due to different conceptions across cultures. These differences are related to the view Japanese and American managers have of themselves as managers and to the ideas on correct management practice. The paper explores de idea of "management self" and report research on management self-conception and style in Japanese factories in U.S. Three plants are studied in the USA through 34 interviews with 19 American and Japanese

managers. One of the factories was following JMPs, a second one, American practices, and the third one, a combination of management styles. Each factory has adopted different combinations or hybridizations of the management styles of the two countries. Four factors determine style: Nationality of the general manager, preference for bicultural management, control over budget-setting process, and strength of Japanese assignees.

Using case studies, Cunningham et al (1996) explores the ability to use or adapt practices employed in Japan. They study the implications of JMPs in non-Japanese and non-Western settings by utilizing Young's framework in Singapore. Three lines of questioning are pursued: (a) the individual's preferences and values, (b) the unique skills, practices and processes which were important for success, and (c) managers were asked to identify some of the ways they managed people, made decisions and managed their time. Characteristics of implementation of JMPs: Technological decisions, mechanisms for developing a direction, human resource characteristics. Companies successfully sought to modify features of the Singaporean environment to suit JMPs, but with some concessions to local conditions. The results question ideas such as that participation and teamwork are the most important ingredients.

Using a case study of a Japanese multinational subsidiary in the UK, Tayeb (1994) analyzes the applicability of Japanese management practices in a British context. Asking weather JMPs are compatible with British societal and business cultural characteristics. The author concludes that there may be cultural and organizational characteristics for Japanese firms not blending into their surroundings. Culture and social structure seem to have influenced the business culture of both countries. QC and JIT were more difficult to implement in the British firm than others such as open-plan and single union-agreements. Superior's behavior is interpreted differently in the two countries, according to cultural background. Sensitivity to local socio-cultural characteristics is a key factor to consider. Some practices, in short, have been successfully implemented in Britain, while others are not adopted by the Japanese managers at the subsidiary as they are incompatible with the foreign country's social and business culture.

V.2.2.9. The case of China

Taylor (1999) draws on an ongoing research project to study the operations of Japanese multinationals in China involving 31 manufacturing companies. He looks at the structure and pattern of managerial control in different locations and industries, with different patterns of ownership, size and age of investments, and discusses issues of managerial control, the significance of Japanese multinationals in East Asia to the Japanization debate, and finally he examines empirical evidence of patterns of control. Patterns of control are not unique and thus call into question much of the conventional wisdom related to Japanese internalization of management practices: production appears highly japanized, but this is not so for personnel management. Moreover, in their investment decisions, "localization" of control is ceded and perhaps actively sought by Japanese firms.

Taylor (2001) sustains that personnel policies were generally not transferred from Japan to Chinese plants. He studies personnel policies and practices, and, from these, their overall industrial relations strategies. Practices that may appear as Japanese inspired were often informed by local practices. There was diversity in the form of the practices used, indicating neither sophistication nor a singular recipe of management methods. The paper challenges the idea that JMPs are predicated on the construction of particular forms of social relations around work that allow sophisticated and integrated production-management systems to function.

V.2.2.10. Japanization

The issue of Japanization is taken by Wilkinson et al. (1995). What is the concept of Japanization? Can individual JMPs be transplanted into a different industrial culture? What are the responses of British workers to JMPs? How has the Japanese company adapted to British labor-force culture? The authors conduct a detailed case study of a Japanese subsidiary in the UK --named Japanco-- that addresses the issue of the responses of British workers to JMPs. Interviews and questionnaires are used. The paper stresses the

pragmatism of Japanese management and its willingness to adjust to British economic pressure and industrial culture. Japanco, a Japanese implant, is being changed by its British industrial culture just as this has been changed by Japanese influence and example. The paper makes contributions to different debates:

1. What does the concept of Japanization mean? Are there different types of it? Japanco does not fit an abstract model of Japanization, although as a direct implant is a good case of the strongest concept of Japanization.

2. Is Japanization a broad HR approach or a harsher model of scientific management? The answer seems to be: "Neither."

3. Is Japanization a re-labelling of old practices? Rather JMPs increasingly resemble older practices over time.

4. Can individual JMPs be transplanted into a different industrial culture? They have been both transferred and transformed.

Japanization is also taken by McKenna (1988), who assesses the utility of the concept by reviewing developments in British industry. He outlines what Japanese practices are perceived to be and concludes with thoughts on the concept of Japanization. Despite clear evidence suggesting that UK and foreign (not Japanese) companies operating in the UK are initiating new HRM practices (employment and working) there is little evidence of a direct Japanese influence in these developments, an influence that can be perceived as the most important single factor in changes taken place in Britain.

V.2.2.11. Other perspectives on Japanese management

International operations of MNCs can be addressed from a variety of angles. For example, Wright et al. (2001) discuss linguistic patterns at seven Japanese plants in Scotland. Their "significant finding is not that the expatriate managers are insufficiently prepared for an English speaking environment but that local personnel are not required or encouraged to acquire the language skills necessary for work at Japanese corporate headquarters. That is, these corporations are not extending the corporate culture to include non-Japanese. Therefore, local personnel would gain no benefit from learning Japanese." Forms of pidgin develop in co-operative working environments, but they are based on

English. The local dialect is used as a device to promote local workforce solidarity against expatriate management. These linguistics phenomena do not challenge Japanese managerial control, and so opposition between cultural and material power may be permitted.

Difficulties of localization of overseas management at JMCs is taken from a different perspective by Kase et al. (1996), who discuss the concept of networking structure for co-ordination in the corporate decision-making process. The authors present two levels of networking in Japanese firms: a macro-level (*keiretsu*) and micro-level (group consensus-making before reaching a formal decision). They use the concept of entrepreneurial networking and examine the apparent duplication of functions at the corporate and divisional levels in Japanese companies; rather than a case of Parkinson's disease, this duplication favors networking and thus is functional. Networking also explains other phenomena, such as the alleged inability of Japanese MNC to achieve "localization" of overseas management. Downsizing is also considered in the light of networking. The authors use case analysis.

V.2.3. Detailed issues and variables

Detailed issues dealt with in the articles, as well as variables used in them, were also organized using an affinity diagram. Seven groupings emerged from this exercise, as follows:

1. Main characteristics of Japanese management: the Three Treasures (17 references)
2. Secondary characteristics of Japanese management (28 references)
3. TQM/JIT and other production-related methods (17 references)
4. Theories and schools of thought applied or related to Japanese management (9 references)
5. Values associated with Japanese management (8 references)
6. Transferability to foreign countries and contingency factors (20 references)
7. Measures of the effectiveness of Japanese management and problem areas (9 references).

Let us discuss these points in some detail. Table 6, which has been condensed from Table A2 in Appendix II, shows the number of articles dealing with different variables and themes in each one of four five-year terms. Appendix III presents the way variables have been aggregated to produce Table A2. The production of these tables is not an automatic exercise, but it requires some trial and error (Miles et al. 1994).

Variables and themes	1985-1989	1990-1994	1995-1999	2000-2002	Total
Main characteristics of Japanese management	5	5	11	1	22
Secondary characteristics					
HRM	2	2	9	1	14
Control issues	0	0	5	1	6
Policy and decision making	3	2	5	1	11
Teamwork and labor flexibility, job rotation	3	3	10	1	17
Recruitment, selection, internal labor market	2	4	6	1	13
Training	4	3	6	1	14
Open communications	3	1	5	0	9
Position of workers	1	2	4	0	7
Supervision and performance review	3	1	2	1	7
Bonuses and rewards	2	1	3	0	6
Other	2	1	2	1	6
TQM, JIT and other production methods	3	2	9	2	16
Theories and schools	3	2	8	2	15
Values associated with Japanese management	1	2	3	2	8
Transferability to foreign countries and contingency factors	2	1	11	3	17
Culture, language, history	3	3	4	2	12
Measures of the effectiveness of Japanese Management and problem areas	4	2	6	1	13

Table 6. Evolution through time of the number of articles dealing with different variables.

From Table 6, it seems that the treatment of the "three treasures" is the most frequently tackled issue, followed by the study of transferability to foreign countries and teamwork and labor flexibility. The latter issue is part of a set of secondary characteristics that deal in general with HRM. Production technologies, such as TQM and JIT are well studied; particularly during the 1995-99 period. Among the less conspicuous variables is the study of values associated with the Japanese management system.

V.2.4. A summary of the review of EBSCO sources

As might be expected, there is a close resemblance between the findings in this section and those in section V.1.3. Table 7 presents a summary of the main findings of 29 selected articles from the EBSCO databases. Transplantability of JMPs is confirmed by studies 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 18, and 20.

Articles 9 and 17 suggests that the key pillars of the JMS are not being transferred. This is not surprising, but we have seen that a transfer of the principles of JMPs is possible.Transfer of the production paradigm seems to be easier (articles 17, 22), even in China. Different practices have different effect on job satisfaction (article 23).

No.	Author (year)	Main issues and conclusions
1	Wilkinson et al. (1995)	Japanese management adjusts to Britain. There is mutual influence.
2	Harwit (1993)	Principles of JM are adoptable at the automotive industry in Eastern Europe.
3	Johnson (1988)	What are JMPs? Are they exportable to the US? Adoption is possible and its degree depends on advantages.
4	Reitsperger (1986 a)	In a study on electronics manufacturers, MNCs' contribution to British industrial relations are considered. Some policies and practices applied by MNCs resemble home country practices.
5	Bowman et al. (1986	What is the predominant managerial approach in Japanese-owned U.S. subsidiaries? A mixture of JMPs and American management practices. Adaptation is possible.
6	Purcell et al. (1999)	HRM practices and its transferability to Australia, in manufacturing and service industries. Japanese subsidiaries have adopted JMPs.
7	Tolich et al. (1999)	American and Japanese conceive management and themselves differently, based on a study at factories in the electronics industry. Each factory has adopted different combinations of management styles.
8	Evans (1993)	Explores HRM in overseas offices of Japanese service-sector firms (financial services). The conclusion is that some JMPs are used.
9	Shadur et al. (1995)	Can international best practices be transferred to Australia or elsewhere? The key pillars of Japanese management are not being transferred.
10	Cunningham et al. (1996)	Explores ability to use or adapt practices employed in Japan at Singaporean firms of the electronics field, among others. Companies modify features of the Singaporean environment to suit JMP, with concessions.
11	Naylor (2000)	Can JMPs be transferred to Western countries or are there cultural limits? JMPs can be adopted in the West.
12	Sargent et al. (1998)	Study of strategic international human-resource management at Mexican manufacturing or assembly plants. Mexican managers attempt to change corporate culture to support adoption of JMTs.
13	Humphrey (1995)	Role of labor relations in the Japanese model. Is systemic application of JIT/TQM possible? A study of Brazilian motor components plants suggests that application of JIT/TQM is possible.
14	Lowe et al. (2000)	Examines the transferability of a Japanese supervisory system in the electronics industry in three countries. Japanese supervisory systems more successful in Mexico than in Britain.
15	Abdullah et al. (1995)	The transferability of the Japanese management syndrome to Malaysia in electronics plants is studied. Transferability must be considered in historical context.
16	Kennly et al. (1995)	Review the evidence on the transfer to the U.S. of Japanese labor management relations in automobile and electronics. Transfer is possible if managers make effort.

Table 7. A summary of selected articles on Japanese management abroad (EBSCO sources). (Continued on next page.)

No.	Author (year)	Main issues and conclusions
17	Morris et al. (1995)	Debates on the transformations in management and organization. The three treasures are not being transferred. Production paradigm, is.
18	Beechler et al. (1994)	Outlines contingency theory for factors impacting transfers of HRM practices at US service and manufacturing companies. The transfer process is complex, depending on many contingencies.
19	McKenna (1988)	Assess the utility of the concept of Japanization in British industry. There is little evidence of a direct Japanese influence on HRM practices in UK.
20	Negandhi et al. (1985)	Identify and discuss the JM problems of overseas subsidiaries in 13 countries. Only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced.
21	Taylor (2001)	Personnel policies and practices, and their overall industrial relations strategies at chemical, electric, and other industries in China. Personnel practices were generally not transferred from Japan to Chinese plants.
22	Taylor (1999)	Structure and pattern of managerial control in different locations and industries, etc. Electronics, chemical, and other industries are studied in China. Complex and varied array of patterns of control are identified. Production, highly Japanized,.
23	Reitsperger (1986 b)	Job satisfaction and its relation to productive achievement are studied at UK TV manufacturers. Different personnel policies lead to different job satisfaction.
24	Mahoney et al. (1993)	Managerial values and beliefs are critical factors explaining success/failure at the US automotive and tire industries. Values—it is concluded—are critical for success.
25	Wright et al. (2001)	Linguistic patterns accompanying activities of Japanese subsidiaries in Scotland. Electronics and other industries are studied. The local dialect promotes solidarity.
26	Laws et al. (1999)	Discuss failure of unionization efforts at NMMC in the US. Union-free automotive manufacturers are at advantage.
27	Mroczkowski et al. (1997)	Comparison of approaches to employment adjustment and rightsizing in Japan and the US. There seems to be a pattern of international best practice.
28	Dedoussis (1995)	Study of causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices in Australia (Electronics and other industries). There is the emergence of the core-peripheral workforce dichotomy at the international level.
29	Tayeb (1994)	Are JMP compatible with British societal and business cultural characteristics? According to this study, conducted at the UK electronics industry, culture and social structure have influenced the business culture of both countries.

Table 7 (cont.). A summary of selected articles on Japanese management abroad (EBSCO sources).

VI. IDEAS FOR A RESEARCH AGENDA

A research agenda can be built on different grounds. One of them is by gap-filling, that is, by identifying important topics of a theoretical or practical nature not sufficiently treated as yet in the literature. A research agenda of a general nature needs to have both a theoretical and a practical orientation. In addition, building reliable measurement systems and instruments is useful for both theory and practice, and often can be an important part of

a research agenda. Let us then examine the questions "What do we know?", "What we don't know?" in order to sketch a list of research topics.

VI.1. WHAT DO WE KNOW ABOUT JAPANESE MANAGEMENT?

The vast literature on Japanese management produced both in Japan and in foreign countries has allowed to accumulate a significant amount of knowledge that we try to summarize in this section. The presentation is divided into (a) knowledge about Japanese management in general and (b) knowledge about Japanese management abroad.

VI.1.1. About Japanese management in general

The contents in Figure 1 serve as a good roadmap to our knowledge on Japanese management. Therefore, expanding somewhat Figure 1, it can be said that we have a good understanding of the following aspects:

- The context of Japanese society, including its history and culture, its educational system, its governmental institutions, and its industrial organization (industrial groups, dual structure).
- Social and economic infrastructure.
- General understanding of the Japanese corporation, its structure, organization, strategy and processes.
- Specific understanding of planing, characterized for a long term approach; hoshin management, use of collective wisdom.
- Consensus-based decision making.
- Implicit control systems.
- Emphasis on production systems, including TQC, JIT, QC and continuous improvement, kaizen, and R&D emphasis, in addition to employee safety and health.
- Unique human-resource management, characterized by the three treasures, in addition to other related-issues such as the importance of training and development.

In addition to Figure 1 synthesis, our literature review reveals an understanding of the following issues:

- The importance of the group and its functioning in harmony.
- The importance of voice mechanisms rather than exit mechanisms.
- Participative management.
- Collective responsibility.
- The role of strategy, structure and systems (Hard skills, and not only soft skills) for success.
- The systemic nature of Japanese management, which has a "consistency of its own".
- Issues of governance, including recent reforms to the Commercial Code and the peculiar position of Japanese managers and workers vis-a-vis stockholders.
- Some understanding of the relationship between Japanese management and firm performance.
- Economic theories to explain Japanese management: Unified theory, incentive theory, principal-agent theory, X-efficiency theory
- Management theories to explain Japanese management: Evolutionary theory, contingency theory, studies of innovation.
- Cross-cultural perspectives on Western-Japanese inter-organizational conflict.
- Plant location decisions based on neo-institutional theory and political institutions.
- Organization-environment relations (from different perspectives).
- Some comparative studies of Japanese and American managers and CEOs in the way they decide and behave.
- Cost management Japanese style.
- Business education in Japan.
- The importance of internal and external networks to the Japanese corporation.
- The concern for innovation.
- Criticisms of the Japanese management system and of some of its sub-systems, such as TQM, or the role of women in Japanese industrial society.
- Changes occurring in Japan and their effects on the Japanese management system.

- The Japanese management system will change, but its core will probably remain (for example, the employment system).

- Incipient theories of convergence of industrial systems on a global scale.

- Cultural perspectives on Japanese management.

- Historical perspectives on Japanese management.

Nonetheless, the fact that a theme is the above list does not immediately exclude it from further research. For one thing, Japan and its management systems change with time, so a continuous actualization would be advantageous. On the other hand, some topics have been only superficially been studied. Let us turn now to the more specific question on Japanese management abroad.

VI.1.2. About Japanese management abroad

Table 8 presents a subjective evaluation of the extent to which different aspects of Japanese management have been studied in different geographical regions. The table is a preliminary exercise aimed at simplifying a complex field, and it should be interpreted with care in conjunction with qualitative information and other experts' criteria. The table is self-explanatory. The following numerical values are attached to the qualitative ratings: Good = 2; regular = 1; and poor = 0. Table 9, a subset of Table 4 (page 46), summarizes some of the main issues addressed by selected articles in the literature on Japanese management systems abroad.

Through mostly case studies and (fewer) surveys, we have a reasonable understanding of the operation of Japanese subsidiaries of MNC in the U.S., the U.K. and other European countries, and Australia. Likewise, we have a similar level of understanding regarding the implementation of JMPs in main markets such as those mentioned and in South Korea, Singapore, Hong Kong, other locations in Southeast Asia, China, and Latin America (specifically, in Mexico, Brazil, and Argentina). The industries most studied are automobiles and electronics, and there are some studies on service industries. There is a reasonably good understanding of Japanese manufacturing companies abroad and their problems but there is a thinner understanding of Japanese service companies abroad.

Geographical area / Item	US	UK and Europe	Austra-lia	South-east Asia	China	Latin America	Summa-ry score
Operation of Japanese manufacturing subsidiaries	Good	Good	Good	Regular	Regular	Regular	**1.5**
Operation of Japanese service subsidiaries	Regular	Regular	Regular	Poor	Poor	Poor	**0.5**
Use of production-related JMPs in non-Japanese firms	Good	Good	Good	Regular	Poor	Poor	**1.2**
Use of other JMPs in non-Japanese firms	Regular	Regular	Regular	Poor	Poor	Poor	**0.5**
Specific institutions of JM (unions, teams)	Good	Regular	Regular	Poor	Regular	Poor	**0.8**
Specific institutions of JM (supervisory system)	Poor	Regular	Poor	Poor	Poor	Regular	**0.3**
Transfer process to a foreign country (characteristics)	Good	Regular	Good	Regular	Poor	Regular	**1.2**
Transfer process to a foreign country (contingencies)	Good	Regular	Good	Regular	Poor	Poor	**1.0**
Impact on society as a whole	Regular	Good	Regular	Poor	Poor	Poor	**0.7**
Role of management´s values for transfer success	Good	Regular	Regular	Poor	Poor	Poor	**0.7**
Summary score (Good 2; Regular 1; Poor 0)	**1.5**	**1.3**	**1.3**	**0.4**	**0.2**	**0.3**	**0.84**

Table 8. Subjective evaluation of the extent to which different aspects of Japanese management have been studied in different geographical regions. Good=2; Regular = 1; Poor = 0. The average of column and file do not match due to round-off errors.

We know about specific institutions of Japanese management that have effectively been transferred abroad, such as the role of unions and the characteristics of teamwork, when they are compared with U.S. and Australian institutions. In other words, we know about the hybrid structure in countries such as the US and China. For example while in the US employment relations remain American, HR management, organizational learning, and the organization of work is basically Japanese. We know about the importance of the Japanese production system and the extent of its diffusion in the global industrial world. The supervisory system has also been studied comparatively (Japan, Mexico, Britain).

Country	Main issues	Conclusion in a nutshell
UK	Adaptation of company to British labor-force culture.	Japanese management adjusts to Britain. Mutual influence.
UK	MNCs' contribution to British industrial relations.	Some policies and practices resemble home country practices.
UK	Explores HRM in overseas offices of Japanese service-sector firms.	Some JMPs are used.
UK	Assess the utility of the concept of Japanization in British industry.	There is little evidence of a direct Japanese influence on HRM practices in UK.
UK	Job satisfaction and its relation to productive achievement.	Different personnel policies lead to different job satisfaction.
UK	Are JMP compatible with British societal and business cultural characteristics?	Culture and social structure have influenced the business culture of both countries.
U.S.	What are JMPs? Are they exportable?	Adoption is possible and its degree depends on advantages.
U.S.	What is the predominant managerial approach in Japanese-owned U.S. subsidiaries?	Mixture of JMP and American management practices. Adaptation is possible.
U.S.	American and Japanese conceive management and themselves differently.	Each factory has adopted different combinations of management styles.
U.S.	Review the evidence on the transfer to the U.S. of Japanese labor management relations.	Transfer is possible if managers make effort.
U.S.	Outlines contingency theory for factors impacting transfers of HRM practices.	The transfer process is complex, depending on many contingencies.
U.S.	Managerial values and beliefs are critical factors explaining success/failure.	Values are critical for success.
U.S.	Discuss failure of unionization efforts at NMMC.	Union-free automotive manufacturers are at advantage.
Singapore	Explores ability to use or adapt practices employed in Japan.	Companies modify features of the Singaporean environment to suit JMP, with concessions.
Mexico	Study of strategic international human-resource management	Mexican managers attempt to change corporate culture to support adoption of JMTs.
Malaysia	The transferability of the Japanese management syndrome.	Transferability must be considered in historical context.
Japan, UK, Mexico	Examines the transferability of a Japanese supervisory system	Japanese supervisory systems more successful in Mexico than in Britain.
Eastern Europe	Adoption of production methods in Eastern Europe.	Principles of JM are adoptable.
China	Personnel policies and practices, and their overall industrial relations strategies.	Personnel practices were generally not transferred from Japan to Chinese plants.
China	Structure and pattern of managerial control in different locations and industries, etc.	Complex and varied array of patterns of control are identified. Production, highly Japanized,.
Brazil	Role of labor relations in the Japanese model. Is systemic application of JIT/TQM possible?	Application of JIT/TQM in Brazil is possible.
Australia	HRM practices and its transferability to Australia.	Japanese subsidiaries have adopted JMPs.
Australia	Can international best practices be transferred to Australia or elsewhere?	The key pillars of Japanese management are not being transferred.
Australia	Study of causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices abroad.	There is the emergence of the core-peripheral workforce dichotomy at the international level.
13 countries	Identify and discuss the JM problems of overseas subsidiaries.	Only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced.
	Can JMPs be transferred to Western countries or are there cultural limits?	JMPs can be adopted in the West.
	Debates on the transformations in management and organization.	The three treasures are not being transferred. Production paradigm, is.

Table 9. Main issues addressed by selected articles in the literature on Japanese management systems abroad.

The extent of transfer of Japanese management practices abroad is well understood, at least in the main industrial countries for example, the U.S. (Bowman et al. 1986) and the U.K. (Tayeb (1994)). The conditions for successful and unsuccessful transfer of JMPs to foreign countries have also been studied (What systems could be transplanted without much change? What systems had to be changed? In what way?). In general, it can be concluded that adoption of JMPs is possible, with some conditions imposed by local variables. Problems faced by subsidiaries of Japanese MNCs abroad are understood, as well as some reasons for the success and failure of transplants (context, for example). For some countries such as Australia contingency variables for the transfer have been studied. Determinants to adopt or not JMPs have been studied in Australia (Dedoussis, 1995), as well as obstacles specific to less-developed countries. The transferability of JMPs to non-Japanese firms in Eastern Europe and Brazil has been the object of research. Likewise, the ability to use or adapt JMPs in non-Japanese and non-Western countries is studied by Cunningham et al. (1996) in Singapore.

The case of China deserves a separate notice. According to Taylor (1999, 2000), personnel practices were not transferred from Japan to China and only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced.

For some countries such as the U.K. the impact of JMPs on industrial society as a whole, beyond the individual firm, has been studied. On a more personal level, the impact of JMPs on job satisfaction has been studied in organization in the U.K. and India. We know that managerial values and managers' expectations influence success of adaptation. Differences in values among Japanese and American managers have also been documented (Tolich et al. (1999), Kagono et al. (1985)).

All of the above bring about the issue of Japanization and the debates that surround it. The debate continues to be open. We know about other perspectives on Japanese management: linguistic, the importance of networking, culture and history. Networking, in particular, is specially relevant for business administration studies.

VI.2. SOME OF THE ISSUES WE DON'T KNOW ABOUT JAPANESE MANAGEMENT ABROAD

Although almost by definition "ignorance" is unbounded, and any list of unknown topics will never be complete, somewhat arbitrarily we can make a list of problems that can be researched with reachable resources and that are both important and interesting for academia and industry. We "divide our ignorance" on Japanese management abroad into three chapters: strategic issues, operational issues, and methodological issues. A summary of these issues can be found in Table 10.

Nature of problem	Description	Examples

STRATEGIC	**Systemic study of Japanese management**	• General model of Japanese management abroad
		• Will the keiretsu continue their international expansion? To what extent?
		• Is adoption of only a few elements of the JMS possible?
		• Strategy making: how is it impacted by JMPs?
		• Governance of networks.
		• Is it possible to adopt operational JMPs if no strategic elements are in place?
		  • Under what conditions?
		• Is Japanese management in a foreign country integrated into a support network of suppliers, industry or trade organizations, educational institutions, professional or business associations?
		  • To what extent does this matter?
		• What contingency factors lead to the adoption of JMPs by non-Japanese firms?
		  • Are there differences by type of industry? (manufacturing or service)
		  • Are there differences by industry (cars, electronics, etc.)
		  • By size of firm?
		  • By "cultural regions"? (anglo-saxon world, SE Asia, Latin America) By country?
		  • By ownership structure?
		  • By socio-political situation?
		  • By educational level of the workforce?
		• The question of JMS and its value system.

	Impact on society in general	• Is there some strategic impact on the industrial or service structure of the host country due to the presence of Japanese MNCs? • Have other areas of society (for example, unions, non-Japanese industrialists, schools) been affected by the JMPs in the country? • In what way? Are there rival explanations such as convergence? • Is there a convergence of industrial systems on a global scale? • What is the role of country culture in these problems?
	Convergence of industrial systems	• What does convergence mean? • To what extent is it occurring? • Is convergence a universal phenomenon?
	Specific study of Japanese management in Argentina (strategic aspects)	• What is the strategic impact of JMPs in Argentina? • What is the impact of JMPs in service industries? • How are they perceived in terms of adaptability? • How has the economic crisis affected the aplication of JMPs in Argentina? • Networking in Argentina's industrial sectors and JMPs. • Planning approaches in local companies applying JMPs and at Japanese subsidiaries. • Decision styles. To what extent have they been copied from Japan?

Table 10. Tentative list of general topics that deserve further research, with specific examples (continued on next page).

Nature of problem	Description	Examples
OPERATIONAL	Management Processes	• Leadership style and effectiveness • Supervisory system • Communication style (internal and external) • Country culture and management: their relationships.
	R&D/ Learning processes	• How do Japanese companies manage the creation of new knowledge (hard and soft) at foreign subsidiaries?
	HRM	• Impact of different country contexts on HRM • Study of differences across industries • Study of differences in HRM at different functional levels of the same firm. • Application of Japanese principles, if not institutions: is it been done? • To what extent?
	Specific study of Japanese management in Argentina (operational aspects)	• Learning processes in Argentina's firm related to JMPs. • How are teams organized in Argentina? • Employee productivity at Japanese subsidiaries and at companies pursuing JMPs. • Learning processes.
METHOD	Methodological issues	• Integration of case studies with general surveys • Design of measurement instruments for input and output variables • How can we satisfactorily evaluate system performance?

Table 10. Tentative list of general topics that deserve further research, with specific examples.

VI.2.1 Strategic issues

The systemic nature of Japanese management. Japanese management is said to have a consistency of its own. All of its parts fit together as pieces in a jigsaw puzzle. Is it possible to adopt just one part of the Japanese management system? Under what conditions? Is there a set of elements in the JMS that must always be present for success in foreign lands?

More specifically, how can a non-Japanese corporation succeed outside Japan through the adoption of JMPs when the environment and institutions are non-Japanese? Internationalization is a strong force that moves companies to act in multiple fronts of a much diverse nature, but how can a Japanese MNC succeed through its subsidiaries in a foreign environment where culture, institutions and laws are different than in Japan? Will the keiretsu continue their international expansion? To what extent?

The Japanese management system operates in a specific country where a social network is taken as given. Is it possible to create in foreign countries a social support structure, such as a network of professional or business associations, such that JMPs can flourish with more energy? (There are cases of such networks, although incipient, such as AOTS Argentina.)

Convergence of industrial systems. There are in the literature references to convergence of industrial systems, but to what extent is this happening? More basically, what does convergence mean? Is it a universal phenomenon or is it just limited to the main industrial nations?

Considerations on JMPs in Argentina. What is the strategic impact of JMPs in foreign countries, more specifically, in Argentina? To what extent are they being perceived as "adoptable" and "adaptable"? Is it possible to take advantage of the Japanese management system in a country where economic structures are in disarray (high unemployment rates, low growth rates, social unrest)? What are the planning approaches used in companies applying JMPs and at Japanese subsidiaries? Do they use "visions" or are rather conservative?

The role of culture. The importance of culture in management ideas has been widely discussed over the last few decades. Theories on the impact of different national cultures and organizational cultures could be applied to the study of JMPs in an international setting. (For example, the reactions of Indian workers to JMPs could have cultural explanations.)

VI.2.2. Operational issues

Relation between systemic demands and operational possibilities. To what extent is the application of operational JMPs possible if no other JMPs of a higher level (i.e. strategic) are applied? Will the operational JMP survive or will it just fade away?

Contingency factors in Japanese human resource management. The context of international human resource management (IHRM) must be studied: economic and business environments differ among nations and they evolve. Therefore, IHRM should be studied accordingly. In addition, the study should pay attention to industry differences and to specific needs of a firm's operations, marketing, and finance functions. Multiple levels of analysis are required.

Japanese management abroad and R&D. Japanese management abroad is an important chapter of internationalization studies. Internationalization, in turn, often requires

some R&D activity in the foreign country. (Zander et al. (2000)). For example, the subsidiary might act as knowledge intermediary between know-how of the parent company and the network of suppliers in the foreign country. How does the parent company react to the acquisition of new knowledge (hard and soft) in foreign subdsidiaries?

Specific consideration of the Argentine case. A number of questions can be formulated. How are teams organized in Argentina? What is the role of Japanese leaders in teamwork in Argentina? Does it differ from the role of Argentinians? In what ways? How are decisions make in Argentine firms using JMPs? How about decision styles of Japanese subsidiaries vis-a-vis their Japanese parent companies? How does employee productivity at Japanese subsidiaries in Argentina compare with other international ventures? What are the reasons for this difference (if any)? Are HRM principles (if not institutions) such as job security applied? What would the effect of this application be?

VI.2.3. Methodological issues.

Japanese management is a system of interrelated variables. Training, for example, is interlocked with the HR development policy and with other elements such as life-time employment. Judging from the literature search, however, there is a lack of unifying methodological approaches linking strategic and operational aspects in foreign countries.

Performance evaluation is always a key and difficult question. Standard mehtods to measure it would prove useful for international (and inter-company) comparisons.

A combination of survey and case research has given good results in several studies. In addition to survey-based research, well-integrated case-based research should increasingly be used to develop theory.

VII.   GENERAL SUMMARY

This chapter has presented a literature review and a research agenda of Japanese management, considering in particular JMPs abroad. A systematic presentation was attempted and limitations exposed. A number of shortcomings will be overcome in future drafts.

A general research agenda is presented. It provides a number of topics that might be studied with benefit to multiple parties. Selection of topics is not only a matter of having a wide open theme to investigate, but also the resources and interests of involved parties, such as firms and other constituencies.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

Table A1. Summary information for 29 peer-reviewed, full-text articles. (Covers pages 86 a 91.)

Author and year	Country	Period	Industry	Approach	Tools	Issues	Themes/variables	Conclusion
Wilkinson et al. (1995)	UK	87-90	Heavy engineering	Case study	Interviews (20) with staff and questionnaire (49 returned completed)	Adaptation of company to British labor-force culture.	Workplace relations; role of the unions; functioning of the company council and other employee involvement activities (morning briefing and TQC); labor and employment practices: group focus; life time employment; seniority system; company union; single status; TQC; consensus; team work.	Pragmatism of JM and its willingness to adjust to British economic pressure and industrial culture. Japanco, a Japanese implant, is being changed by its British industrial culture just as this has been changed by Japanese influence and example.
Harwit (1993)	Eastern Europe	Ca. 89-92	Automotive industry	Literature-based research and interviews	Interviews and literature	US and German companies (especially GM and VW) move into Eastern Europe. Have they moved to the most efficient production methods? How have the West influenced their progress? The future? Why there are not Japanese companies in the area?	Principles of lean production: team work at assembly line; kaizen; JIT delivery of supplies; interfunctional cooperation. Selection of workers. Training. Reorganizstion of worker-management relation. Unions. Supply network.	Workers quickly learn principles (not culturally bounded).
Johnson (1988)	U.S.			Literature		What are JMPs? Are they exportable?	JMPs: morning excercises; company uniform for all; morning pep talk (briefing); no unions; loyalty to the company is valued; bonuses for extraordinary performance; vague job classifications; QCC and Zero Defects movements; one dining room for all; bottom-up consensus; overtime expected of all; JIT is used; no layoffs; no lawyers and lawsuits at the firm; afterwork drinks; compnay outings and retreats with family. Lifetime employment. Impact of Japanese culture: do JMPs reflect it? Late industrialization in Japan has shaped her institutions. Labor as a form of capital (not a separate factor of production).	The degree of implementation of JMPs in the US varies with the advantages a Japanese firm thinks it might gain in the market. Labor is a form of capital, which is cultivated and nurtured carefully.
Reitsperger (1986 a)	UK		Consumer electronics manufacturing	Case study of US, UK, Japanese (2) firms.	Taped interviews, examen of records, etc.	MNCs' contribution to British industrial relations. Only by looking at the process leading to concrete practices will show how and why Japanese MNCs succeed in manufacture, in "declining" industries.	Business strategy: motivation for direct investment in UK. Industrial relations strategy: change in work procedures; labor flexibility; processes for improved labor competence; labor unions; transferability among jobs. Quality, performance, productivity, rewards, absenteeism. Supervision	Industrial relations is perceived as a manufacturing substrategy: it is crucial for competitive advantage. Some policies and practices resemble home country practices. There is motivation behavior: merit promotional system; supervisory role for quality improvement.

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Bowman et al. (1986)	U.S.	84	Service, trading,	Survey: Uses information from	Mail questionnaire. Also, follow-up surveys.	What is the predominant managerial approach in Japanese-owned U.S. subsidiaries?	Characteristics of companies. Issues associated with Japanese management: 1. Fundamental nature; 2. Effectiveness; 3. Acceptance by U.S. workers; 4. Relevance to U.S. labor-management relations. Specific management techniques: long-term employment, selective hiring, extensive training.	The predominant approached used by Japanese affiliates is a mixture of American and Japanese practices. Adaptation is possible.
Reitsperger (1986 b)	UK		TV manufacturing	Case study: Sample of US (1), UK (1) and	Questionnaire survey.	Job satisfaction and its relation to productive achievement.	Personnel policies. Job satisfaction. Productive achievement. Causes for success: culture and tradition; rational reactions to environment. Job satisfaction variables: Supervision; the firm; pay; promotion; the job itself; coworkers.	The two Japanese subsidiaries employed different personnel policies, with different job satisfaction. Paternalistic Japanese style is not precondition for high achievement, but it generated appreciative feelings in the UK workforce.
Mahoney et al. (1993)	U.S.		Automotive and tire	Case study: Comparison of successful		Managerial values and beliefs are critical factors explaining success/failure at NUMMI/Van Nuys and Bridgestone/La Vergne.	Teamwork. Flexibility. Managerial values and beliefs. Hiring. Management values and orientation. Trust and cooperation. Unions. Quality. Job security. Long term orientation. High expectations. Quantity as performance measure. Productivity. Accident rate	Four factors explain different performance at NUMMI/Van Nuys: Shock of plant closure; selective hiring; teamwork organization; layoff provisions. Explanation for Bridgestone-La Vergne: similar nature.
Laws et al. (1999)	U.S.		Automotive manufacturin	Case study of Nissan Motor Manufacturin		Discuss failure of unionization efforts at NMMC.	Subtopics: Decline of union membership; Organizational culture: Language, selection process, training, job satisfaction, quality and continuous improvement, family orientation and loyalty, open communication, team approach, knowledgeable managers. Japanese transplants in U.S. Working environment	Union-free automotive manufacturers will continue to enjoy a decided advantage over those represented by unions.
Purcell et al. (1999)	Australia	94	Manufacturing and service sectors, small and large	Survey of 69 Japanese subsidiaries in Australia.		HRM practices and its transferability to Australia.	Management practices. HRM practices. Transferability to Australia. Internal-labor market practices: Life-time employment, seniority wages, enterprise union, communication channels between management and workers, bonus payments, recruitment. Work practices: OJT, multi-skilling, flexible work, work group, QCC, kaizen, JIT. Nature of the transfer process: Impact of size, industry sector, ownership and experience. Manufacturing and Services. Competitive advantages of Japanese MNCs: Firm-specific product or process, quality control, delivery time, after-sales service, reputation (financial firms), part of a global network (financial firms), service quality (financial firms), service quality (tourism), knowledge of language (tourism), konwledge of tastes (tourism). Control and monitoring apparatus. Classification of systems: 1. Unmodified Japanese. 2. Modified Japanese. 3. Modified local system. 4. Unmodified local system.	Japanese subsidiaries have adopted JMP as part of the transfer of the parent's ownership advantages and as a control and monitoring device.
Tolich et al. (1999)	U.S.		Electronics	Case studies	34 interviews with 19 U.S. and Japanese managers in 3 transplants	American and Japanese conceive of management differently and have different conceptions of themselves and of correct management practices. Explores de idea of "management self".	Different combinations or hybridizations. Factors determining style: Nationality of the general manager, preference for bicultural management, control over budget-setting process and strength of Japanese assignees. Integration of local managers. Language. Culture. Nature of management. Solidarity. Concensus decision-making. Group orientation. Agency theory. Social psychology. Concept of self. Japanese-dominant transplant, American-dominant transplant, hybrid transplant.	Each factory has adopted different combinations or hybridizations of the management styles of the two countries. Four factors determine style.

						Focus/Research question	Concepts/Variables	Findings
Taylor (2001)	China		Chemical, electrical.	Survey through interviews	Semi-structured interviews with managers in 20 plants, in three locations.	Personnel policies and practices, and from these, their overall industrial relations strategies.	Location decisions and product markets. Conflict and accomodation. Managerial values. Uniqueness of JMPs. Employment patterns. Recruitment. Training. Decision making and employee involvement. Trade unions. Barriers to transfer. Life time employment. Seniority pay. Enterprise unions. Hard systems. Soft systems. Adoption of JMPs. Adaptation of JMPs.	Personnel practices were generally not transferred from Japan to Chinese plants. Practices that may appear as Japanese inspired were often informed by local practices.
Taylor (1999)	China	96-97	Industrial electronics.	Case studies	Interviews with managers.	Structure and pattern of managerial control in different locations and industries, with different patterns of ownership, size and age of investments.	Structural control: share ownership, number of expatriates employed and functions they head. Procedural control: who initiates practices used and how Japanese or Chinese the practices are erceived to be. Personnel management. Production. Japanization. Adoption of JMPs. Ownership patterns. Strategic interests.	Rather than Japanization, a complex and varied array of patterns of control are identified. Production appears highly Japanized, but personnel management is not.
Wright et al. (2001)	Scotland	96	Consumer electronics.	Case study of seven plants.	Group interviews with Japanese managers, etc.	Linguistic patterns accompanying activities of Japanese subsidiaries in Scotland.	Linguistic patterns. Language. Culture. Power. Inter-group relations.	The local dialect is used as a device to promote local workforce solidarity against expatriate management., but this does not challenge Japanese managerial control.
Evans (1993)	UK	Late 90s.	Financial services	Case studies	Interviews and questionnaires	Explores HRM in overseas offices of Japanese service-sector firms.	Employment practices: recruitment and selection procedures, company culture, training methods, pay and promotion policies, employment security, position of workers within the overall organization. Position of local workers: integration at the local level, integration at the international level. Employee attitudes. Corporate strategy. HRM policies.	The two case-study firms utilize some aspects of JMPs, particularly related to selection procedures, training and company culture. There are differences in employment practices from those encountered by White and Trevor (1983): the cases show more use of Japanese methods and more integration of British staff.
Mroczkowski et al. (1997)	Japan and U.S.	Early 90s.		Third-party surveys		Comparison of approaches to employment adjustment and rightsizing.	Layoff, downsizing, HRM.	There seems to be a pattern of international best practice, although the lessons from each country are not the same.
Shadur et al. (1995)	Australia		Automotive, information.	Mail survey		Can international best practices be transferred to Australia or elsewhere?	The four pillars: security of employment, seniority system, enterprise unions, long-term horizons. Organizational features: ringi and decentralization, organizational relationships, R&D, absenteeism and labor turnover. HRM: Use of teams, training, employee welfare, hours worked by middle managers, performance pay. Quality systems.	Differences between Japanese and non-Japanese companies were more apparent in the automotive industry. The key pillars of Japanese management are not being transferred. Differences are gradually declining.

Author	Country	Years	Industry	Sample	Method	Research question	Concepts / Details	Conclusions
Cunningham et al. (1996)	Singapore		Electronics, refrigeration.	Case studies of five Japanese MNCs.	Grounded theory to identify the concepts from the data. Interviews with management , etc.	Explores ability to use or adapt practices employed in Japan.	Three strategies: Maintenance of Japanese practices, but modified. Modification of JMPs,but maintaining features of US environment. Modifying JMPs and features of US environment. JMPs: Kaizen, Kanban, TQC, JIT purchasing, behavioral control (work rules, group orientation training programs, union sentiment, plant location). Characteristics of the implementation process: 1. Technological decisions: New technologies, Diversified products, Job challenge and opportunities. 2. Mechanisms for developing a direction: Clear vision and direction, Customer service orientation. 3. HR characteristics: Career training, Information atmosphere and norms, Co-operative labor relations.	Companies successfully sought to modify features of the Singaporean environment to suit JMP, but with some concessions to local conditions.
Naylor (2000)				Literature research: Looks at a number of		Should Western managers be encouraged to adopt JMPs? Can JMPs be transferred to Western countries or are there cultural limits? Under what conditions are JMPs successfully transplanted?	Cultural limits. Conditions for successful transplantation. Corporate governance. Ethos. Personnel practices. Teamwork. Quality circles. Manufacturing methods: Cellular manufacturing; JIT. Convergence	JMPs can be successfully adopted in the West. In the future, there might be convergence of practices between JMPs and Western practices.
Sargent et al. (1998)	Mexico	93-96	Manufacturing or assembly plants	Survey through interviews	Semi-structured interviews at 57 plants.	Study of strategic international human-resource management	SIHRM: In particular: staffing policies, conflict between Mexican and expatriate managers, and the efforts of firms to use JMTs (JIT, Inspection at source, continuous improvement, rapid changeover, preventive maintenance, pull system. Soft HR practices: internal labor market, concern for employee, cooperation and teamwork. Open communication. Consensus decision making. Job rotation. Internal training. Work groups. Screening of job candidates. Seniority-based wages. Long term employment. Implicit performance evaluation. Small gap blue-white collar workers. Three schools: Culturalist, Rationalistic, Technology HRM school. Constraints to successful transfer of JMP to developing world	Mexican managers resist the cultural imposition represented by U.S. managers but at the same time attempt to change corporate culture to support adoption of JMTs. Managing this duality is one of the keys to success in Mexico.
Humphrey (1995)	Brazil	91-93	Motor components	Survey and follow-up visits of Brazilian and	18 companies studied	Role of labor relations in the Japanese model. Discussion of why transformations are hard for many firms. Is systemic application of JIT/TQM possible?	Industrial model. JIT. TQM. Discourse vs. practice. Japanization. Transfer to alien environments. Production organization. Design activities. Suppier relations. Labor relations. Waste avoidance. Quality at the source. Continuous improvement. Three treasures. Flexible work. Teamwork. Monitoring and control. Legal and institutional frame. Level of education and training. Poor labor relations	The extent of the transformation in production and labor relations is considerable. Macroeconomic stability remains a problem, as is educational level. Poor labor-relations are not such a big problem as anticipated.
Lowe et al. (2000)	Japan, Mexico, UK	96	Electronics	Case study of three plants of the same	Uses supervisory system of control for comparison.	Examines the transferability of a Japanese supervisory system	Supervisory system of control. Transferability of system. Labor market conditions. Managerial control on the shopfloor. Relationship between product market and the organization of production. Local and expatriate management commitment to a Japanese system. Supervisory responsibilities. Supervisory skill formation.	Supervisory systems have been established with more success in Mexico than in Britain.
Abdullah et al. (1995)	Malaysia		Electronics	Case studies (2)		The transferability of the Japanese management syndrome.	Transferability: the Japanese management syndrome: Three treasures, Mechanisms to minimize conflict of interests and soften status differentials, Mechanisms for collective responsibility: QCC, ringi,kaizen, Mechanisms to minimize employee mobility, Mechanisms to construct and reinforce social and economic relations between members, JIT/kanban/TQM. Historical context. Employment policy and practice: recruitment and selection, induction and training, rewards, managing the employment relationship. Local conditions. Control objectives: Labor cost minimization, Conflict avoidance, Employee integration.	Transferability must be considered in the specific historical context. Business objectives and local economic, political and legal conditions, as well as socio-cultural values condition employment policy and practice.

Author	Country	Years	Industry	Method	Method detail	Purpose	Concepts/Variables	Conclusions
Kennly et al. (1995)	U.S.		Autos Electronics	Literature: Review of the evidence on		Review the evidence regarding the transfer of Japanese labor management relations to the U.S.	Transferability of: Industrial relations, Management styles. Teamwork. QC activities. Rotation. Egalitarian management styles. Unions. Wages. Long-term employment. Turnover. Blue-white collar divide. Modernization theories. Cultural perspective.	Transfer is possible, provided Japanese managers make a considered and sustained effort to achieve it.
Morris et al. (1995)				Review of literature		Debates on the transformations in management and organization over the last decade, especially on transferability of a Japanese model.	Transferability of a Japanese model: 1. Continental European school. 2. Lean production and the Japanese model. Japanese institutional environment. Three treasures	We should not expect to see systematic transfer of the three treasures. We must consider industry specific differences and process-specific differences. Country-specific differences due not only to culture but to political economy, education, industrial relations. The new Japanese paradigm of production and work seems to be traveling everywhere.
Dedoussis (1995)	Australia	86-90	Consumer electronics, motor vehicle, wool	Case studies in 9 manufacturing firms.	Semi-structured questionnaires administered in interviews to managers, employees, etc.	Study of causes of the adoption of Japanese management practices abroad.	Transfer to subsidiaries. HRM practices: Tenured employment, Seniority-based remuneration, Welfare benefits, Job rotation, Internal training, Internal promotion. Recruitment and selection. Job assignment. Decision making. Small groups activities. Induction. Security of employment. Economic considerations. Social and cultural constraints. Theory: emergence of core-peripheral dichotomy of the workforce.	Traditionally, economic considerations are considered key to adopt or not adopt. The author suggests, however, that the expansion of Japanese subcontracting networks in foreign countries produces conditions that lead "to the marginalization of segments of the local labor force and the emergence of the core-peripheral workforce dichotomy at the international level."
Tayeb (1994)	UK		Electronics	Case study	Case study and survey of employee attitudes in Britain, etc.	Are JMP compatible with British societal and business cultural characteristics?	Ringi, nemawashi, single union, no physical barriers between management and employees, quality, zero defect and waste, QCC, JIT. Japanese culture, British culture: Collectivism-individualism dimension, Horizontal grouping vs. vertical groupings, impersonal vs. personal relations.	Culture and social structure seem to have influenced the business culture of both countries.
Beechler et al. (1994)	U.S.	87-90 and follow-up visits in 91.	Service industry (5) and manufacturing (5)	Field study and case studies.	Qualitative data Interviews	Outlines contingency theoretical for factors impacting transfers of HRM practices from Japan to overseas subsidiaries.	Contingency theory. Factors: Parent's firm administrative heritage, Subsidiary characteristics, Host-country economic, social and cultural conditions, Cultural distance home-host countries. HR paradigm: Internal labor market, Concern for employees, Cooperation and teamwork. Techniques: Open communications, Job rotation, Internal training, Workgroups, Appraisal system, Consultative decision making, Screening of candidates, Seniority wages, Small gap blue-white colllars. Schools: 1. Culturalist. 2. Rationalist. 3. Technology-HRM fit school. Sstrategy as a contingency to HR approach. Resource dependence perspective. Turnover rates, homogeneity of work force, cultural distance, non-unionized subsidiaries, resource dependence, degree of integration.	The transfer process is a complex one, depending on a number of internal and external contingencies.

						Purpose	Practices/Content	Findings
McKenna (1988)	UK			Literature		Assess the utility of the concept of Japanization by reviewing developments in British industry.	Three pillars. Secondary practices: recruitment and selection, salary and bonus, training and promotion, periodic monitoring, decision making processes, teamwork, quality conciousness. Flexible working. Multi-skilling. Team briefing. Employee communications. Employee participation and involvement. Profit sharing schemes. Staff/single status. Single unionism.	Despite clear evidence suggesting that UK and foreign (not Japanese) companies operating in UK are initiating new HRM practices (employment and working) there is little evidence of a direct Japanese influence in these developments.
Negandhi et al. (1985)	13 counties	68-84	Review of six works.			Identify and discuss the JM problems of overseas subsidiaries.	Japanese management problems. Life-time employment. Seniory. Performance review: infrequent. Consensus-based decision-making. Generalist vs. specialist orientation. Use of JMS or adoption of local management systems. Management and organizational effectiveness: planing, polici-making, Control methods (QC, cost, maintenance), Organizational set-up, Leadership style, Manpower management practices, Management effectivenes. Formalization of area policies. Centralization of decision making. Practices for satisfaction of employee's needs. Culture. Problem areas: Centralization of decision making, Low confidence in subordinate's abilities, Low trust for local managers, Ceiling on promotion for locally employed managers, Unions and equal employment regulation.	The management style of Japanese expatriate managers either try to adopt local management practices or try to keep the JMP as much as possible. In reality, only modified versions of the local or Japanese systems are practiced. Overall, it seems that Japanese MNCs find fewer problems in the developed countries than in less developed countries. Problem areas include: centralization of decision making; low level of confidence in subordinates' abilities; low level of trust for local managers; ceiling on promotion for locally employed managers; problems with unions and equal employment regulation. But overall Japanese firms at home and abroad have been relatively more effective than other MNCs, especially in production management and engineering and in maintaining smooth relations with governments.

VARIABLES/THEMES OF EACH PEER-REVIEWED, FULL-TEXT ARTICLE

Variable-Theme	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	Total
Main characteristics of Japanese management	*	*	*	*	*		*	*	*		*			*	*	*			*	*		*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	22
Secondary characteristics																														
HRM	*	*		*		*		*	*			*		*	*	*			*	*		*								13
Control issues								*				*					*			*	*	*								6
Policy and decision making	*		*							*	*					*			*						*	*	*	*	*	11
Teamwork and labor flexibility, job rotation	*	*	*	*			*	*	*	*						*		*	*	*		*	*		*		*	*		17
Recruitment, selection, internal labor market		*		*			*	*	*		*			*	*				*			*			*		*	*		13
Training		*		*	*			*	*			*		*		*			*			*			*		*	*	*	14
Open communications	*		*					*	*										*			*					*	*		8
Position of workers														*		*			*				*		*		*		*	7
Supervision and performance review				*				*											*		*						*	*	*	7
Bonuses and rewards			*						*					*		*						*						*		6
Other	*		*													*		*								*		*		6
TQM, JIT and other production methods	*	*	*	*				*	*					*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*				*		*		16
Theories and schools				*	*	*			*	*	*	*							*	*			*	*	*					12
Values associated with Japanese management			*				*	*		*	*	*		*					*											8
Transferability to foreign counties and contingency factors				*				*	*	*	*	*					*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*		*		*	17
Culture, language, history			*			*		*		*			*	*					*			*	*		*	*			*	12
Measures of the effectiveness of Japanese management				*	*	*	*	*		*	*					*			*	*		*					*		*	13

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APPENDIX III

CLASSIFICATION SCHEME FOR THEMES

This appendix provides a classification scheme that was used to establish the themes that were dealt with in each of the 29 peer-reviewed, full-text articles. Bold titles indicate the name of the theme class, and the number of papers dealing with it is indicated between brackets.

Main characteristics of Japanese management: the Three Treasures (17 references).

The Three Treasures are: company union, seniority-based wages, and life-time employment. Each one of them conforms an affinity group of variables in the affinity diagram. The company union group includes papers that consider unions and their role, lack of unions in foreign subsidiaries and decline of union membership in general in the U.S., as well as cooperative labor relations. The seniority group concentrates references to seniority, seniority payment, and compensation-related variables (bonus, wages, salaries, and profit sharing schemes). The life-time employment group is made of long term employment, security of employment, and a set of variables that is related to the firs two (no-layoffs policy, internal promotion, appraisal system, turnover and consideration of labor as a form of capital; in this group is also included a "fourth treasure" (Taylor, 1999), long-term horizons.

Secondary characteristics of Japanese management (28 references).

HRM: Involves the following variables and themes: employment patterns, work practices, management practices, industrial relations, intergroup relations, organizational relationships, staffing policies, workplace relations, reorganization of the worker-

management relationship, job assignment, change in work procedures, working environment.

Control issues: Includes structural control vs. procedural control, behavioral control (work rules, group orientation, training programs, union sentiment, plant location), monitoring and control, control objectives (labor cost minimization, conflict avoidance, employee integration).

Policy and decision making: Includes centralization of decision making, planing and policy making, formalization of area policies, consensus-based decision making, decision making and employee involvement, working environment, ringi and decentralization, nemawashi.

Teamwork and labor flexibility, job rotation: Includes teamwork, team approach, cooperation, group focus, use of teams, interfunctional cooperation, mechanisms to construct and reinforce social and economic relations between members, labor flexibility, flexibility of work, multiskilling, job rotation, transferability among jobs, vague job classifications.

Recruitment, selection, internal labor market: Includes mechanisms to minimize employee mobility, screening of candidates, recruitment and selection, hiring.

Training: Includes generalist vs. specialist orientation, training, induction, internal training, OJT, mechanisms for improved labor competence.

Open communications: Includes open communications, employee communications, communication channels between management and workers, information atmosphere and norms, mechanisms to minimize conflicts of interests and status differentials, employee participation and involvement.

Position of workers within the overall organization, concern for employees: Includes position of workers within the overall organization, small gap blue-white collar workers, blue-white collar divide, homogeneity of the work force, egalitarian management styles, employee welfare, concern for employees, practices for satisfaction of employees´ needs, welfare benefits, position of local workers (integration at the local level, integration at the international level).

Supervision and performance review: Includes performance review, supervision, supervisory responsibilities, supervisory skill formation, supervisory system of control, managerial control of the shop floor, knowledgeable managers.

Bonuses: Includes bonuses for extraordinary performance, rewards, performance pay, pay and promotion policies.

Other: Includes corporate governance, company council and other employee involvement activities, morning excercises, team briefing, staff, single status, company uniform for all, overtime expected of all, hours worked by middle managers, afterwork drinks, no lwyers and lawsuits at the firm, companyoutings and retreats with family, no physical barriers between management and employees.

TQM/JIT and other production-related methods (17 references)

Includes JIT, TQM, TQC, kaizen, kanban, quality, continuous improvement, quality at the source, QC, QCC, zero defects movements, small group activities, QC activities, inspection at source, rapid changeover, quality, quality conciousness, quality systems, JIT delivery of supplies, supply network, supplier relations, JIT purchasing, teamwork at assembly line, zero defect and waste, waste avoidance, control and monitoring apparatus, manufacturing methods, production, production organization, relationship between product market and the organization of production, control methods (QC, cost maintenance, preventive maintenance, mechanisms for collective responsibility: QCC, ringi, kaizen), delivery time, pull system, flexible work, change in work procedures, cellular manufacturing, multiskilling, design, R&D.

Theories and schools of thought applied or related to Japanese management (9 references)

1. a) Continental european school. b) Lean production and the Japanese model
2. a) Culturalist (culture and tradition). b) Rationalistic (rational reactions to the environment). c) Technology-HRM fit.

3. Competitive advantages of Japanese MNCs: firm-specific product or process, QC, delivery time, after-sales service, reputation, part of global network, service quality, knowledge of language (tourism), knowledge of tastes (tourism)
4. Contingency theory
5. Modernization theories
6. Resource dependence perspective
7. Agency theory
8. Social psychology
9. HR paradigm
10. Convergence
11. Economic considerations
12. Industrial model
13. Emergence of core-peripheral dichotomy of the workforce
14. Business strategy: motivation for investment in the UK
15. Other (discourse vs. practice, relevance of Japanese management to US labor-management relations, fundamental nature of Japanese management, concept of self).

Values associated with Japanese management (8 references)

Includes: values, management values and beliefs, ethos, trust and cooperation, high expectations, leadership style, solidarity, loyalty to the company is valued, family orientation and loyalty, employee attitudes.

Transferability to foreign countries and contingency factors (20 references)

Includes:
1. Japanization, transferability, adoption of JMPs, nature of the transfer process, barriers to transfer, conditions for successful transplantation, contraints to successful transplant to the developing world, transfer to alien environments, transferability of management style and of industrial relations.

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2. a) Unmodified Japanese b) Modified Japanese, c) Modified local system, d) Unmodified local system

3. a) Japanese dominant transplant, b) American dominant transplant. Japanese transplants in the US. Acceptance by US workers.

4. Modifying JMP and features of US environment. Maintenance of Japanese practices, but modified, modification of JMPs but maintaining features of US environment.

5. Hybrid transplant, different combinations of hybridization, use of JMPs or adoption of local management systems, adaptation of JMPs.

6. Contingency Factors: Legal and institutional framework, factors determining style (control over budget setting process, etc paper number 10), local conditions, Japanese institutional environment, social and cultural constraints, degree of integration, share ownership, ownership patterns, size, industry sector, ownership and experience, characteristics of Japanese companies in US, characteristics of subsidiaries, strategic interests, corporate strategy, number of expatriates employed, strength of Japanese assignees, nationality of the general manager, host-country economic, social and cultural conditions, local and expatriate management commitment to a Japanese system, level of education and training, poor labor relations, location decisions and product markets, parent´s firm administrative heritage, cultural distance home-host countries, characteristics of the implementation process (technological decisions, mechanisms for developing a direction, HR characteristics).

Culture, language, history

Culture, language, history

Measures of the effectiveness of Japanese management and problem areas (9 references)

Includes:

1. Management and organizational effectiveness, job satisfaction variables (supervision, the firm, pay, promotion, the job itself, coworkers), productivity, productive achievement, quality, performance, absenteeism, rewards, quantity as a performance measure, job satisfaction, accident rate, effectiveness.

2. Problem areas, Japanese management problems, integration of local managers, centralization of decision making, unions and equal employment regulation, low trust for local managers, ceiling on promotion for locally employed managers, low confidence in subordinate´s abilities, conflict and accomodation, conflict between Mexican and expatriate managers, level of education and training, absenteeism, labor turnover.

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NOTES

NOTES

[i] A cursory search on EBSCO's Academic Search Elite and Business Source Elite provides six time more references on Japanese management than on British management.

[ii] The JSTOR database was used, as well as a limited set of English and Japanese books, Argentine magazines, and a variety of Internet resources such as working papers from leading universities.

[iii] The author acknowledges the colaboration of Patricia Allende Sullivan for her advice and expertise on library issues.

[iv] Academic Search Elite is a multi-disciplinary database that offers full text for nearly 1,850 scholarly journals, including more than 1,250 peer-reviewed titles dating as far back as 1985. Business Source Elite is a business database that provides full text for more than 1,100 scholarly business journals, including full text for more than 450 peer-reviewed business publications dating as far back as 1985. Econlit, the American Economic Association's electronic database, contains more than 610,000 records covering 1969-present. EconLit covers virtually every area related to economics.

[v] See for example Shiba (1993) for a presentation of this methodology.

[vi] Similar kinds of exhibits are displayed in Ramarapu et al. (1995), and Golhar et al. (1991), for example. Sophisticated meta-analytical approaches of the kind used by Forza et al. (1998) are not applied in this review as they are not deemed necessary at this stage.

[vii] Section IV is based on Yacuzzi (2006) and Yacuzzi (2007).

[viii] The author links these key concepts to current practices in library administration, where the long term planning, so prevalent in Japanese management, is meaningful. Multiskilling, quality concerns, and other personnel issues, such as cooperative attitudes, are also discussed. Quality concerns are particularly clear in library administration, where, according to the author, "(r)eports that up to 50 percent of reference queries do no receive a complete and correct answer call into question the basis of many of our claims to professional expertise".

[ix] Performance of Japanese companies has been studied from a number of perspectives. For example, Ito (1997) studies the export behavior and resulting performance of Japanese manufacturing firms. Exports are not positively correlated with firm performance. The competitive environment in the domestic market, however, is correlated with export behavior. Finally, there appears to be an inverted U-shaped curve relating export ratio and relative size of companies, i.e., medium market share companies in the same industry tend to export more than smaller and larger firms.

[x] Questionnaires are used for evaluation when the JIT just starts and again two years later, when the line has stabilized. In general, positive changes in attitudes are detected during the implementation period and these attitudes do not drop off after to years of operation in the new JIT environment.

[xi] See for example Abegglen et al. (1985), who refers to different views on Japanese originality.

[xii] Main lessons of the TWI programs are as follows:
- Rather than problem-solving and consulting assistance, training should be the focus of national-scale improvements efforts on quality and productivity. In this way, resources are not dissipated.
- Training content is important and should go deeper than mere technique, instilling values and presenting common-sense methods and management principles.
- The courses should be generic.

- Government participation can act as a controller of content and licensing of instructors, but not in the day-to-day activities.
- All activities and results should be tracked at the company and national level and well documented.
- Revisions should be done at the national level, seeking consensus on contents.

[xiii] The American-British system, in very brief terms, is an "exit" system, while the German-Japanese system is a "voice" system.

[xiv] The authors say that the term "fad" is not dismissive, since fads like TQM can "profoundly change companies, for better or for worse. And they can introduce useful ideas that companies incorporate into practice." The authors give qualities of fads: simple, prescriptive, falsely encouraging, one-size-fits-all, easy to cut-and-paste, in tune with the zeitgeist, novel--not radical, legitimized by gurus and disciples. Characteristics of classics are also provided: demand real organizational changes at significant cost and have lasting effects, such as decentralization, outsourcing and supply chain management. There is overlapping between fads and classics.

[xv] Sethi et al. (1984 b) present four strategies Japanese firms take abroad: imperialist, enclaves, domestics, and acculturateds.