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MASTER'S THESIS

**AN ANALYSIS OF SLOVENIAN PERCEPTIONS OF EAST ASIA
WITH IMPLICATIONS FOR INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS**

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AUTHORSHIP STATEMENT

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

IB	– international business
CEE	– Central and Eastern Europe
FMRI	– Functional Magnetic Resonance Imaging
HRM	– human resource management
IHRM	– international human resource management
BE	– behavioral economics
GLOBE Project	– Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness Project
USD	– United States Dollar
EU	– European Union
MNC	– multinational companies
US	– United States
IMF	– International Monetary Fund
WTO	– World Trade Organization
OECD	– Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development
JICA	– Japan International Cooperation Agency
bill.	– billions
trill.	– trillions

INTRODUCTION

International business (hereinafter IB) has a non-disputably important, in some cases even primary role in the business world of nowadays. In the academic sense, Doz (2011, p. 582) labels IB as multidisciplinary, free from single core paradigm, not pursuing a single dominant central research question nor abiding by generally accepted simplifying assumptions. It can, therefore, be perceived as one of the fields of the business and economics studies that is the most open to acquiring and contributing knowledge to the other academic spheres and providing findings for the practical business application. The last is particularly important, since globalization provides potential benefits for the businesses, but there are also substantial challenges. When the (international) barriers for trade are lowered, clash of the different policies and cultures and different ways in doing business can, on one hand, result in a merger of values, but more often creates a shattered prism with irreversible societal differences (Iyer, 2001, p. 3).

New markets represent new challenges for Slovenian managers in order to compete on culturally and perceptually different markets. Looking from the European perspective, East Asian countries can definitely be placed in this group. Comparing them with Slovenia through the Hofstede cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 2001), one of the most comprehensive and standardized scale of national cultures, differences become even more evident. The closest denominator of Slovenia in relation to countries like China and South Korea is represented by (low) individualism and (high) uncertainty avoidance in the case of South Korea and China (Hofstede Insights, n.d.). From the business perspective, despite not in the forefront, East Asian countries are becoming more important part of the Slovenian business ecosystem in terms of the international trade, but the highest East Asian import figures to Slovenia, in the case of China, still represent only 1% of total Slovenian imports (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, n.d.).

From a wider perspective, it is indisputable that the core of the business is done by people. Therefore, it might seem a logical premise that understanding people – their behavior, actions, judgments etc. - helps in understanding how the business world functions. Even more, in the context of the IB when dealing with the environments in the international and culturally diverse contexts, people rely on their perceptions, which act as intermediaries in understanding the others, e.g., by making inferences about the people and predict their actions (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 2). Therefore, perceptions are a simplified view of the world around us, but in the core of the cognitive processes. However, the exact nature of perception can also lead to bias, stereotypes, prejudice, or even discrimination. In the IB sense, the findings suggest that a significant influence on negotiating deals and decision-making is caused by a manager's perception of the other country manager (Burns, Myers & Kakabadse, 1995).

The IB research, both in international and Slovenian academia, on managerial perceptions has tackled the issue of stereotypes (e.g., Zaidman, 2000; Lowengart & Zaidman, 2003;

Rašković & Vuchkovski, 2016). The studies proved the importance of assessing the aspects of the social cognition, in the IB context inevitably multidisciplinary and tied with the social psychology and sociology. As part of the social categorization - classifying self and others into broad social groupings with impact on our perception, cognitive, motivational and affective processes (Crisp & Hewstone, 2006, p. 4), stereotypes are in general public usually perceived negatively. However, based on the premises of Moskowitz (2005), stereotypes can rather reflect the coping mechanism of understanding and processing information about social groups than the (negatively) biased behavior. In the course of the IB research, another concept, social distance, which reflects the extent to which the two individuals have a sympathetic understanding (Kern, Lee, Aytug & Brett, 2009, p. 540).

In master's thesis, I investigate and analyze the perceptions, in the domain of stereotypes, potential reasons for stereotyping and social distance, of Slovenian business students (potential future business leaders) of East Asian countries with delivering implications and potential recommendations for the IB on the three East Asian countries, forming the biggest part in terms of economic patterns, geographical size and population: China, Japan and South Korea.

The purpose of the master's thesis is to derive understandable, useful and possibly applicable conclusions and recommendations for Slovenian and East Asian managers, academics and policy makers, based on the results of analyzed perceptions of the Slovenian business students. Main goals are to present the cultures of East Asia, key concepts, and role of perceptions and social categorization in international business and social psychology and to conduct an empirical research on perceptions, in the domain of stereotypes and ethnic distance together with interpreting the results.

Consistent with those, in the first part of the master's thesis, I am addressing the theoretical aspects, connected to the aspects of the perception and social categorization, relevant for the IB, East Asian cultures and the existing IB research on perceptions in the context of Europe (and Western countries) and East Asia. Within the second, empirical part, I am presenting the research questions and methodological approaches, pertinent to the study on stereotypes and social distance, results of the study and the discussion, consisting of recommendations and implications of theoretical, policy-wise and the managerial perspective.

1 PERCEPTIONS & SOCIAL CATEGORIZATION IN INTERNATIONAL BUSINESS

1.1 The role of perceptions in international business

The complexity of conducting business in international environments poses additional risk in terms of the employees and management of the companies. There is a big question on how to deliver at least satisfactory decisions in culturally and subsequently perceptually different markets. This is where the IB research works closely with the concepts of the social

psychology, including perception. Perception can be defined as “a process by which individuals organize and interpret their sensory impressions in order to give meaning to their environment” (Dhingra & Dhingra, 2011, p. 63). The premise for implications is therefore quite straightforward; if perceptions influence the way people see and evaluate the “outside world”, then they influence their behavior in all aspects of their life, including professional roles.

Nevertheless, the IB perspective on the perceptions, despite the recognition of its importance, can be contradictory in many cases. Aharoni, Tihanyi and Connelly (2011, p. 135) showcase the conflicting approaches based on the decision-making processes; headquarters make their internationally bound decision on models that usually stem from the Anglo-Saxon business culture that are static and do not include the influence of managers on decisions. This is the current reality and it further calls for an extended research on (managerial) perceptions in the IB. When assessing the potential of psychology-based concepts and contributions in business studies, Davidsson (2016), based on the research opportunities in entrepreneurship, even proposes further collaboration with psychologists on these topics due to their theoretical and methodological background.

From the emergence of the IB, this kind of cooperation has been very limited and mainly remained in the domain of borrowing the psychological concepts and frameworks. In this retrospective, drawing from the redefinition of ethnocentrism, Michailova, Piekkari, Storgaard and Tienari (2017, p. 349) warn that IB scholars should be more careful why and how they are adopting concepts from the other disciplines. Despite mentioned limitations, I do not imply there were no important research efforts and breakthroughs. In fact, studies on managerial perceptions have been of interest for decades in business studies.

When trying to identify and find studies about perceptions in international business and broader business context, it is important to note that there is a lack of any comprehensive overview of research. This can be attributed to the fact that perceptions are a concept and process that apply to a wide range of specific constructs, decisions and actions. Because it is nearly impossible to summarize all aspects of perception-related studies in the IB and related fields, I will focus on some of the most important and visible; behavioral economics, strategic management and decision making in the IB and studies on culture. While this kind of presentation might seem less structured, I use some of the academic overviews where those are applicable and can be found. I also note that the particular IB-related contributions on stereotypes are presented in the separate subchapters on stereotypes and the existing research on Europe and Asia.

1.1.1 Behavioral economics contributions

Behavioral economics (hereinafter BE) importantly contributed to the interest in studies on perceptions, including the IB perspectives. Since the BE relies on the topics of both psychology and business and economics studies, it is highly interdisciplinary. Core of the

BE is to change and advance the viewpoint of economics on people's perceptions of value and expressed preferences (Samson, 2014). Most of the conducted research is indeed following this paradigm. Etzioni (2011, p. 1100) notes that the notable achievement of the BE is a successful replication of the key findings. There is not a certain agreement on the starting era of the BE, but different sources point to the same two academics. Laibson and List (2015, p. 386) labeled as the "big bang" of the BE a study by Kahneman and Tversky (1979), that developed the prospect theory to explain choices under risk, also relying on the basic principles of perception. Etzioni (2011, p. 1100) points out the pioneering experiment by Kahneman and Tversky (1974), which basically showed that under uncertainty people tend to simplify their judgmental process, relying on heuristics.

In following decades, many other important papers and studies on the BE topics emerged - among the most important contributions of the next two decades the publication by Hogarth and Reder (1987), that included papers from different scholars on psychology and economics perspectives, and the 1997 special issue on the BE in Quarterly Journal of Economics (Camerer, Loewenstein & Rabin, 2004). While the BE is establishing itself as a separate academic field, several scholars from "mainstream" economics are pointing out the irrelevance of its emergence, for example, McChesney (2014). The contemporary research is mainly focused on highly specific topics, for example the studies on the effect of learning and forgetting dynamics on consumers minimizing their credit card fees (Agarwal, Driscoll, Gabaix & Laibson, 2013) or an experiment from Augenblick, Niederle and Sprenger (2015) on postponing the work tasks that are planned.

1.1.2 Strategic management (in international business) and decision-making contributions

Strategic management, that has been overlapping or in some cases even been perceived as the constituent part of the IB, is another field with interest in (managerial) perceptions. One of the latest overviews was made by Özleblebici and Cetin (2015), with identifying 22 studies on managerial perceptions in strategic management since the 1960s. Among the earliest efforts in understanding managerial perceptions is the study from Mahoney (1967), who focused on examining and analyzing perceptions and judgments of managers about organizational effectiveness. Based on the analysis of managerial judgments he sourced 24 dimensions that served as a basis for creating the model of organizational effectiveness. Despite five decades of research, scholars still need to put much effort into understanding the basic concepts and implications of perceptions in respect to the strategy. This is seen by the newer contributions, such as Siciliano's (2008) research on discrepancies between the CEO and director perceptions of board involvement in the strategic management or a more qualitative approach by Buss and Kuyvenhoven (2011) assessing the perceptions of European middle managers on their strategic role.

Some scholars, for example Aharoni, have dedicated most of their academic careers to study topics that represent another perception-oriented IB research interest; managerial decision-

making processes. Decision-making takes an important role within the IB. However, it is still dominated by the concepts building on the rationalistic presumptions, as already mentioned at the beginning of this chapter. The BE also had its part in a development of studies on decision-making, since most of the BE work is connected to making decisions of some kind. Donaldson (1985) noticed the issue of decision-making in the international environments due to the moral, legal and other factors. In the 45-years retrospective after his first work, *The Foreign Investment Decision Process* (one of the first direct IB decision making contributions), Aharoni, Tihanyi and Connelly (2011, p. 135) state that the IB research is in large part still limited when considering the decision-making and focus should be put on studying managerial perceptions (in relation to the decision making in MNEs).

1.1.3 Contributions on culture

IB-related research contributions have also shown their importance in assessing and understanding cultures, to which a lot of the perception-oriented IB studies can be connected. Hofstede (in Hofstede Center, n.d.) loosely defines culture as “the collective programming of the mind distinguishing the members of one group or category of people from others”. Combining it with the definition of perception, presented in the earlier sections of the subchapter, culture can be understood as some kind of collective perceptual set. All three steps of the human perceptual process, (1) selection, (2) organization and (3) interpretation are greatly affected by culture (Jandt, 2012). According to Graham (2003, p. 514), four kinds of problems arise in IB negotiations due to the cultural differences, at the levels of (1) language, (2) nonverbal behaviors, (3) values and (4) thinking and decision making processes. Therefore, even when not explicitly mentioned in academic works, culture itself substantially influences the perception of an individual.

Culture is mostly addressed as a relatively static concept. Leung, Bhagat, Buchan, Erez and Gibson (2005) notice that cultures can be much more dynamic and prone to changes as it is currently perceived by the IB literature and call for conceptual and empirical basis, based on which scholars could move into more complex conceptualizations of culture. Drogendijk and Slangen (2006) showed in their study on entry modes of MNEs, that different measures of culture, including managerial perceptions, deliver different results. On the other hand, it is important to note that the relatively standardized measures, universally applicable to national cultures, have gained a wide acceptance in the IB and are used or at least quoted in most of the literature on culture. Among the most widespread are Hofstede’s cultural dimensions and The Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (hereinafter GLOBE) Project, to some level an extension of the first.

Hofstede’s cultural dimensions were the first widely accepted academic effort to represent (differences among) national cultures based on the initial four, and later extended for additional two dimensions. Despite the conceptualization of dimensions, those are a subject of discussion. Critics either point out the weaknesses of the whole or individual dimensions. The latter was for example done by Fang (2003), explaining the flaws of the Long Term

Orientation through Chinese culture and philosophy (in which the dimension is rooted). This is partly the reason why Hofstede himself studied the applicability and further adaptation of dimensions to particular cultures. Among the latest, Minkov and Hofstede (2014) replicated Uncertainty Avoidance dimension across nationally representative samples in Europe.

The GLOBE Project is a competitor to the Hofstede's work, with nine dimensions of culture conceptualized and represented. The GLOBE 2004 study was the largest until now, based on ten-year quantitative survey studies of societal culture, organizational culture, and attributes of effective leadership in 62 countries around the world (Global Leadership & Organizational Behavior Effectiveness, n.d.). Later studies were focused on a smaller number of countries, while the latest focused on top management. Similar as Hofstede's cultural dimensions, The GLOBE Project has gained opponents. For a couple of years since 2006, Journal of International Business Studies witnessed a wide debate of scholars on the appropriateness of methodology, summarized by Taras, Steel and Kirkman (2010) on a dilemma of unexpected negative correlation between cultural values and practices. Hofstede (2010) even expressed doubts what the study was actually measuring. Nevertheless, GLOBE studies remain a widely accepted and used tool for cultural research in business and the IB academia.

1.1.4 Contributions of international human resource management

Human resource management (hereinafter HRM), or in the IB context, international HRM (hereinafter IHRM), deals with topics related to perception and other cognitive processes to a great extent. Graham (2003) notices that the HRM tasks and processes, such as the recruiting, training, motivating and compensation systems, are in the international environment strongly influenced by the culture and behavioral factors. HRM policies and practices are also attributed to have a vital role in affecting organizational success (e.g., Gibb, 2000). "There is a widely held belief that people management activities, which are directed at securing the commitment of employees towards the organization, will positively benefit both employees – through enhancing their well-being, and the organization – through enhancing performance and productivity outcomes" (Edgar, Geare, Zhang & McAndrew, 2015, p. 1248).

In recent work, there is a discussion on theoretical frameworks and subsequent views on employee's perception. Peccei, Van de Voorde and Van Veldhoven (2013) have presented models that showed the interaction of HRM (practices), the well-being of employees and organizational performance. Further tested by Edgar, Geare, Zhang and McAndrew (2015), models among other findings suggest that the commitment-oriented HRM increases the absence of work intensification and therefore employee's perception of pressure. It is also important to note that the HRM itself can have a substantial influence when addressing employees and management from different cultural backgrounds. Graham (2003, p. 529-530) briefly explains the compensation system of IBM, that since 1996 has adopted rather global than individual country approach. While this might seem inappropriate in terms of

cultural diversity, it was actually found that the compensation system allowed just enough flexibility to be successful in different countries.

HRM scholars have started to tackle the issue of age and gender attributes (stereotypes) and stereotypes in general in relation to the HRM practices. Oliveira and Cardoso (2018) were observing the negative age-based stereotypes and connected them with the undesirable work attitudes. Similar studies were conducted by Hennekam and Herrbach (2013, 2015). Gibb (2000) looked at the perceptions of managers and employees on the HRM and found that the stereotypes about HR departments were even affecting the way HR managers have seen their role in the organization. With this finding a paradox was observed, and has not been discussed much afterwards; stereotyping does not only affect the perception of the one stereotyping, but also perception and behavior of the one who is stereotyped.

1.2 Perceptions in (social) psychology

Perceptions have been among the core psychological constructs since the emergence of the modern psychology, with roots in philosophy. Aaronson (1914) vaguely defined it as “a process of a living organism that enables it to solve the problems set for it by its environment [...] a process of adjustment to the advantages and disadvantages, values and disvalues of the situation in which the organism fulfills its career” (Aaronson, 1914, p. 38).

What is common to this early attempts on definitions is that they all lack the cognitive component of human behavior or describe it as unexplainable. This is contributed to behavioristic scientific approach, based on rejecting introspection as inappropriate for scientific studies, relying on objective and external observation instead (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 13). Köhler (1930, p. 30) described approaches as the real experimentation in psychology with subjects treated like a system and behavior perceived like only being a subject matter. The approach towards psychological concepts, including perception, changed with the Gestalt psychology.

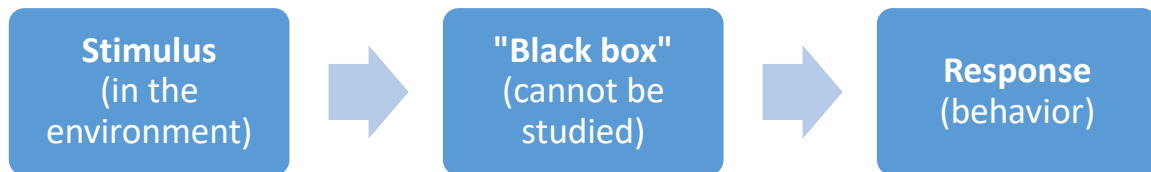
Gestalt approach to psychology opened the way to understanding perception. The core premise of Gestalt psychologists is that active human beings, process reality as a whole comprised of different parts (Salazar, 2017). Perceptions indisputably have a significant impact on behavior of every individual. Even the high cognitive processes, such as intelligence and thought in its basics rely on what is “seen and heard”, organized and interpreted in our mind. Since perception is a broad process, incorporating different stimuli (senses), depending on individual situations, the contemporary psychology actually recognizes and makes a distinction between the different “types” of perception.

This is another contribution, that was again first brought by the Gestalt scholars. The further breakthrough was achieved with the emergence of cognitive psychology and social psychology reaching their importance after the second half of the 20th century. Further stressed out in Figure 1, the difference between the behaviorist and cognitive understanding of the mental processes in terms of perception becomes even more evident. First seen as a

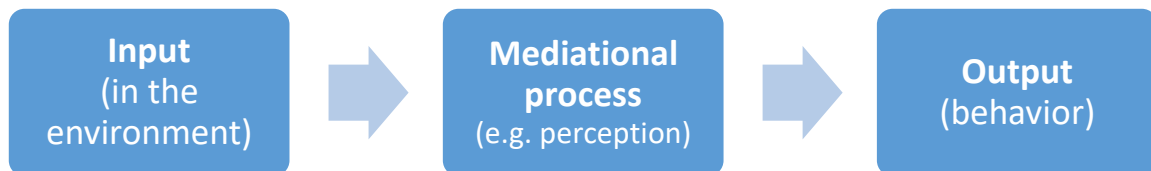
“black box”, standing between the stimuli and behavioral response, it became explainable and an integral part of the contemporary psychology sciences.

Figure 1: Difference between behavioristic and cognitive approach on mental processes

BEHAVIORIST MODEL (studying only observable)



COGNITIVE MODEL (scientifically studying internal behavior)



Source: Adapted from McLeod (2015).

1.2.1 Cognitive and social psychology views on perception

Cognitive psychology emphasizes explaining cognitive processes that cannot be observed through behavioristic approaches. As a contra-behaviorism force, cognitive psychology was established on “(a) emphasizing unseen knowledge processes instead of directly observable behaviors and (b) arguing that the relationship between stimulus and response was complex and mediated rather than simple and direct” (American Psychological Association, n.d.). Based on the prior knowledge and criticism of mentioned behavioristic, Gestalt and cognitive schools, social psychology emerged as a new psychological discipline.

Social psychology is the study of “how individuals affect and are affected by other people and by their social and physical environments” (American Psychological Association, 2011). Therefore, opposed to the previous approaches, social psychology focuses on examining and explaining psychology-associated processes and concepts in relation to the social interactions. New disciplines affected the new view of perception. Broadly speaking, cognitive and subsequently social psychology shifted the scientific approach to perception through making a division on object and person perception, on which I put more focus due to my master’s thesis topics.

In the contemporary social psychological theory, object and person perception are usually defined through examples rather than a strict definition. Object perception, as already implied by the name, is “the way” how people perceive objects. It allows individuals to categorize and classify objects based on the numerous properties, consequently triggering

an associated set of inferences, providing the perceivers with expectancies and information about how to act (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 16). Person perception functions under similar conditions, but with important differences. Intuitively, it is easier to “illustrate” and categorize relatively static objects than people and unpredictable determinants, associated to their behavior.

According to Moskowitz (2005, p. 14-15), the perception of people in social psychology is determined by the observed behavior, the situation in which the behavior occurs and biases, brought in the perceptual process by the perceivers. To the last determinant, from the social psychology perspective, we can definitely also count stereotypes. Since the perceptual processes are specific for every person, one could argue that it is therefore hard to generalize outcomes on person perception. Some scholars agree with these claims. Friedman and Wagonner (2006, p. 326) observe that studies associated with person perception mostly include the assumption that information processing is the same across individuals. This is understandable in that the premise of explaining the processes for delivering definitions of those. At the same time, it can also lead to bias or errors, since some traits or behavior may remain untraced due to the generalization.

Views on person perception are also challenged by the increasing interest of neuroscience. Study by Mitchell, Heatherton and Macrae (2002), relying on functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), implied that people use different regions in brains when perceiving people and objects. Benoit, Gilbert, Volle and Burgess (2010) examined parts of the brain in relation to self-perception and perception of other people and found out that the same centers might be used, when people perceive others as similar to themselves. These findings to some extent enhance correctness of the division on object and person perception, but also open the question whether and how should psychology further divide and redefine different types of perception.

1.2.2 Social cognition and perception

To better understand the social psychology and studies on social (person) perception, it is important to shed light on social cognition, a field of research within the discipline. The most notable contribution for the rise of the social psychology and social cognition was Allport's (1954) book “The Nature of Prejudice”. In this work, Allport (1954) presented views on group prejudice and intergroup relations, starting with the claim that while humanity has achieved much in terms of the civilizational progress, it is still in the “stone age” when it comes to studying human relationships.

The second important milestone, which finally named the field of research, was the Fiske and Taylor (1984) book “Social Cognition”, with several updated revisions, the latest one in 2016. This also influenced another important work, the same-named work “Social Cognition” by Moskowitz (2005). Based on the literature, social cognition is most simplistically defined as the study on “how people make sense of other people and

themselves” (Fiske & Taylor, 2016). It is therefore associated with perceptual and cognitive processes in terms of both social and intrapersonal relations. The question that can be observed in the social cognition as a study is also how the (social) cognition and perception are related and different. This dilemma has been discussed well back in the beginnings of the social psychology and social cognition by the scholars, e.g., Heider (1958), and is starting to get answers in the contemporary period.

Fiske and Taylor (2016) confirmed that the distinction between perception and cognition is difficult in practice, but perception involves stimulus features in responding to the environment, while cognition can rely on immediate automatic inferential activity. That is why, despite the defining elements, there are no strict margins between the perception and cognition. Following the mentioned explanation of person perception by Moskowitz (2005), the perceptual and cognitive processes are basically relying on one another. The process of forming perceptions contributes to building cognition, and cognition influences the perception. There are numerous approaches towards understanding the perception, and more specifically, person perception, but social psychology authors imply several characteristics.

An important perspective or determinant, focusing specifically on person perception or perception of people, are the intentions or behavior of the other people. Opposed to the object, which can harm or help people, but without an intent, of course, people are acting in a way to affect or influence (both positively and negatively) others (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 18). This notion was confirmed in the earlier era of the social psychology, but also pointed out that person perception is very static and hard to change once the impression is formed. Heider (1958, p. 30) observed that the attributed personal traits of the (other) person, that are through perception and impression formed by the perceiver, can hold over time, despite potentially obvious irregularities in circumstances and behavior.

1.3 Social categorization

Social categorization is a process of classifying self and others into broad social groupings (social categories), with impact on how people perceive, think and behave (Crisp & Hewstone, 2006, p. 4). A category is a grouping of similar objects/people in memory—a grouping based on the important or essential features that define the class of things constituting the category (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 111). Social categories therefore constitute an important role in helping to understand newly acquired (perceived) information about people. This was already confirmed by Allport (1954), who considered social categorization as vital for the human mind and ease of understanding and classifying people. Allport (in Nicolas, de la Fuente & Fiske, 2017, p. 621) also noted that through categorization people think of “us” and “them”, which influences the intergroup bias. The other important premise, drawn by the social psychologists, is that people usually classify others (and themselves) into more than one category. That’s why modern social psychology also deals with a study on multiple social categorization.

Multiple social categorization is referring to “any intergroup in a context that involves perceiving more than a single basis for social classification” (Crisp & Hewstone, 2006, p. 4). Nicolas, de la Fuente and Fiske (2017, p. 622) point out that the understanding of multiple social categorization has been mostly conceptualized through different models; crossed categorization approach has dominated the European academic sphere, while American scholars have relied on examining the consequences of belonging to salient social groups combinations (race, gender, age). There are also other approaches to understanding the multiple social categorization, but the common point is that most of those agree on observing categorization through in-group – out-group dynamics. I will briefly represent those through the crossed categorization approaches.

Crossed categorization is characterized by the two orthogonal dimensions of categorization, that are crossed and thus form four new category groups (Crisp, Hewstone & Rubin, 2001, p. 76). In explaining the crossed categorization, an example of age and gender is usually used (Crisp, Hewstone & Rubin, 2001; Crisp & Hewstone, 2006); when categorizing in terms of gender, usually only male and female would be considered, while adding age dimension (young and old) provides additional categories (e.g., young female, old male etc.). This, still relatively simple model, had an important role in further understanding the multiple social categorization and the logic behind cross-cutting dimensions. As Crisp and Hewstone (2006, p. 7) illustrate, the crossed categorization delivers composites that are either convergent and therefore different on both category dimensions (e.g., young males and old females) or divergent categories that share one dimension (e.g., young female, old female). Beside this, still relatively simplistic models, social psychologists have tackled the multiple social categorization more thoroughly.

Nicolas, de la Fuente and Fiske (2017, p. 623) list additive, averaging and non-algebraic models as more complex multiple social categorization models. The commonality of these, newer studies of categorization, is examining how individuals categorize others based on the in-group out-group dimensions. The categories are usually based on applying multiple in-group, out-group or mixed (in-groups and out-groups) traits to the categories. Urada, Stenstrom and Miller (in Nicolas, de la Fuente & Fiske, 2017, p. 624-625) conducted one of the most complex studies with multiple dimensions and established that individuals rate others with the dominant in-group dimension the same, no matter what the other dimensions are. People with the dominant out-group dimension, on the other hand, are further evaluated based on the number of other (favorable) in-group or (un-favorable) out-group characteristics.

Studies on (multiple) social categorization have also dealt with the topics of intergroup bias. Tajfel and Turner (1979, p. 281) confirm that the in-group bias is omnipresent in the intergroup relations. These findings relate to the older models of simple categorization. However, newer approaches confirm the presence of the bias. Crisp, Hewstone and Rubin (2001) conducted two experiments to specifically observe intergroup bias through simple, crossed and alternative multiple (i. e., five dimensions instead of two in a crossed

categorization) categorization. The findings suggested that a more complex, multiple categorization can lead to reduced intergroup bias, while there is no significant difference between simple and crossed categorization. However, the research also showed that while intergroup bias was reduced, it was not eliminated. This goes in line with the definitions of other scholars with bias being incorporated in the process of categorization. Moskowitz (2005), extensively quoting Tversky and Kahneman (1974), sees biases in social categorization as inevitable, since perfectly accurate inferences based on the already limited perceptions of the others cannot be achieved.

Due to the bias present, social categorization has a critical role in shaping social prejudice and discrimination (Dovidio, Gaertner, Hodson, Riek, Johnson & Houlette, 2006). Categorization is fundamental in the process of stereotyping, while a person is stereotyped only after being placed into categories (Taylor, 1981, p. 83). Kunda, Miller and Claire (1990, p. 574-575) showed that people use causal reasoning to deliver new combinations of attributes for conflicting crossed groups and implied that in case of groups with stigmatized category (e. g. blind lawyer, blind runner) those might not be dominant over the other categories, as it was a prevailing thought in the social psychology. Altogether, topics on bias in social categorization, based on the presented findings, remain open for the research with many concepts and questions to be answered and explained, and are connected with the social identity theory.

The social identity theory emerged in social psychology through works by Tajfel and Turner (e.g., Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The term social identity and subsequent social identity theory (it includes social identity concept) was established through studies of the intergroup behavior, or, more accurately, intergroup conflict. The theory relies on the importance of self-esteem. Moskowitz (2005, p. 229) explains that people usually interpret outside information in a way to enhance self-esteem, while self-esteem is attained to evaluate not only self, but also others.

Social identity theory is inseparably connected to social categorization. Two decades after observations and conceptual frame on categorization by Allport (1954), Tajfel (1974) described the role of social categorization through the prism of social identity, connection of the concepts together with the social comparison and psychological distinctiveness. “Social categorization must [therefore] be considered as a system of orientation which creates and defines the individual’s own place in society” (Tajfel, 1974, p. 69). This thought in social psychology established social categorization not only as a process, connected to social identity, but as a contributor and “creator” of the social identity of individuals.

1.4 Stereotypes

Through the previous subchapters I have examined constructs and processes that can lead to stereotypes. Mentioned for the first time by Lippman (1922) in the book “Public Opinion”, stereotypes have been of the interest not only for psychology, but many other studies and

disciplines, including the IB. Within this subchapter I present stereotypes from the social psychology and the IB perspective.

1.4.1 Social psychological perspective on stereotypes

Stereotypes might be labeled and perceived by the general public as not the most positive. “In our everyday, naive understanding of the concept, stereotypes are negative and harmful, and the people who rely on them are seen as hateful and ignorant” (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 438). This point of view holds partially, despite the fact that such extreme deviations could already rather be put in the domain of prejudice or discrimination. Social psychology represents stereotypes as a process native to all people. The first comprehensive work of social psychology on stereotypes was made by Allport (1954), who saw them as a set of beliefs, structuring our perception of a certain group based on their personal attributes. This view on stereotypes was a prerequisite for the contemporary definitions. Moskowitz (2005, p. 438) describes stereotypes as “expectancies about a social group, and about the extent to which the group’s probable behaviors, features, and traits can be generalized from the group to individual members of the group”.

While stereotyping has its own characteristics within cognitive processes, it consists of more mental processes rather than one. According to Moskowitz (2005, p. 452), stereotyping goes through phases of identification (identifying features of individuals and apply those to some preexisting categories), categorization (resulting in the spreading of activation), activation (contributing to perceptual readiness), and subsequently use of the stereotype. Therefore, the use of the stereotype directly biases the perception in interaction with the other people.

Social stereotypes, oriented towards a certain group, can be based on somewhat paradoxical premises. “For example, social stereotypes often ascribe a wide array of attributes to the members of some target group, even when these specific attributes would not normally be classified together on the basis of semantic meaning, frequency of co-occurrence, or even shared valence” (Jost & Hamilton, 2005, p. 212).

The mentioned contradiction was first seen in the famous study by Katz and Braly (1933) on racial stereotypes (also noted in Jost & Hamilton, 2005), where African Americans were historically (predominantly by the Americans of the European-ancestry) perceived as both unintelligent and musical. This implies that people intuitively form stereotypes in the unpredicted ways that are not necessarily in accordance with the general psychological conceptions of human behavior. Even with the negative stereotypes or prejudiced behavior towards certain social groups, those can change over time. As also noticed by Vuchkovski (2015, p. 31), the summarizing study of the “Princeton trilogy” by Madon, Guyll, Aboufadel, Montiel, Smith, Palumbo and Jussim (2001) explicitly showed a substantial change in stereotypes towards African Americans since the time of the first study by Katz and Braly (1933).

While stereotyping might be perceived differently by the people, it is present in mental processes of every person. Stereotypes can be implicit. “Because of the unintended nature of stereotype activation and use, stereotyping often proceeds without our awareness, biasing us in ways we would never suspect and may vehemently deny” (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 439). The concept of aversive racism explicitly addresses the issue of people, who perceive themselves egalitarian and non-prejudiced, but can in reality unconsciously exhibit prejudiced views against some (historically) disadvantaged groups (Dovidio & Gaertner, 2000, p. 315). However, especially when potential stereotyping becomes more explicit and visible, people might try to control it.

When people suspect “an unwanted influence is being exerted on their judgments, they attempt to remove the biasing impact of this influence through conscious effort” (Moskowitz, 2005, p. 492). The most illustrative example are the studies by Devine (1989), explicitly showing that low-prejudiced people, while still being subjected to automatic activation of stereotypes, suppress those and express more egalitarian views based on their personal standards. Nevertheless, there is little evidence for the conscious interventions in people that are high-prejudiced.

1.4.2 International business aspect on (national) stereotypes

As seen from the social psychological perspective in the previous part of the subchapter, stereotypes undoubtedly have an impact on people’s perception, behavior and interaction. It is also evident that the IB-related research puts an effort in explaining the topics related to perception and other cognitive processes. In the domain of the research in this master’s thesis I am mostly addressing national stereotypes, defined as a “generalization about a group of people coming from the same country” (Lowengart & Zaidman, 2003, p. 79) However, in assessing the (national) stereotypes, the IB research is somewhat limited. Historically there was a tendency to examine gender, age, race, and minority-focused stereotypes (Burns, Myers & Kakabadse 1995. p. 213). Somewhat surprisingly, very limited attention has been paid to examine the roles of national stereotypes in the IB (Lowengart & Zaidman, 2003, p. 79).

The role of stereotypes was observed by the scholars in the last two decades. Chattalas, Kramer and Takada (2008, p. 67) state that national stereotypes influence processes within the national or multinational companies, such as manufacturing, sourcing, investment and marketing strategies. Therefore, the (national) stereotypes strongly affect business in almost every aspect and performance of the companies. Furthermore, some authors argue the IB itself poses challenges for stereotyping. As Powell (1992, p. 79) notes, “[...] The increased internationalization of business has created new opportunities for stereotyping because more employees are working for foreign bosses than ever before”. In that way, the national stereotypes, perceived by employees and managers, can create barriers in the multinational business contexts.

Another issue, connected to the national stereotypes in the IB, is how to compare the stereotypes of international managers. On that note, Zaidman (2000, p. 46) observed that, despite the different cultural backgrounds and therefore influences on stereotyping, stereotypes of the international managers show that a common cultural code probably exists. The implication therefore is that the stereotypes of international managers, despite “standing” at different levels, offer the opportunities to be compared against each other. Study by Burns, Myers and Kakabadse (1995), for example, did exactly that, comparing national stereotypes of managers from different European countries, with managers responding on the perception distance scale, evaluating domestic and managers in foreign countries on a unified scale of twelve attributes/indicators.

However, despite the progress and contributions, the IB research on did not “come to life” completely despite the cyclical contributions. For example, Powell (1992, p. 53) recommended for the IB research on stereotypes to be extended on the non-managerial personnel and employees. Two decades later, the extent of work on this particular topic is still very limited. Looking at the Slovenian IB research, the studies directly connected to stereotypes have just emerged in the past decade (Rašković & Svetličič (2011); Vuchkovski (2015); Rašković & Vuchkovski (2016)). It seems that the already mentioned calls by Davidsson (2016) and Aharoni, Tihanyi and Connelly (2011) for a better cooperation of business studies with social psychology (and sociology) and further awareness might offer a breakthrough in the IB studies on stereotypes.

1.5 Ethnic distance

Ethnic or social distance (the term is usually used interchangeably, but with ethnic distance referring specifically to ethnic (national) groups) is a concept, that was first popularized by Bogardus in late 1920s and 1930s. Bogardus (1925, p. 299) defined social distance as “degrees and grades of understanding and feeling that persons experience regarding each other”. His work resulted in a 7-point scale, representing seven different types/levels in social relationships; from broader/superficial to more intimate (Bogardus, 1933, p. 265-269). Since the earliest research efforts, social distance was intuitively seen as related to stereotypes (and prejudice), however, views on their interaction remained disputable and vague. Viljoen (1974, p. 313), based on the qualitative approach in his study, suggested that the findings show only a limited relationship between stereotypes and social distance. In more contemporary works (e.g., Weaver, 2008), social distance also appears as a predictor or determinant of prejudice.

Social distance can be seen through four different research approaches or dimensions, according to Karakayali (2009, p. 543):

- Affective: a perspective based on the work of Bogardus (1925); people are socially close to those that they feel close to.
- Normative: social distance is based on norms of certain groups.

- Interactive: based on observing the frequency of interactions between groups.
- Cultural and habitual: based on different approaches, perceiving social distance mostly through cultural characteristics.

In sociology and social psychology, the (historical) research approaches were also met with the criticism. According to Weaver (2008, p. 780-781), there is a lack of satisfactory studies on social distance in the context of ethnic groups due to the factors, such as inadequate sampling (mostly students), inappropriate operationalization and too flexible interpretation of findings through statistical significance (even p-values, higher than 0.10, were sometimes considered as significant). The newer streams also further opened the question of interaction between the actual, physical distance and social distance. While new communication technologies give the impression of connecting people through distant physical locations, this does not necessarily mean for generally lower social distance. Won, Shriram and Tamir (2018) conducted a study about physical and social distance on a sample of students, communicating with assigned “people” (chat-bots) from different cities in the United States (hereinafter US), with the findings suggesting that the higher social distance (triggered by interactions) increases the perceived physical distance.

Social distance was, conceptually, of interest also for business and economics studies. Among them are also models of social distance and social decisions. Akerlof (2008), for example, focused on models of social distance and social decisions, somewhat “quantification” of the processes, laying on the premise that social decision processes influence subsequent decision making. From the IB perspective, part of the research is oriented towards “borrowing” the sociological and psychological aspects and methodology for social distance and connecting it with the business context (e.g., Rašković & Vuchkovski, 2016). On the other hand, more specific approaches are also brought to the spotlight, such as the influence of social distance on inter-cultural negotiations. On the latter topic, Kern, Lee, Aytug and Bret (2012) conducted a study on the sample of European American and Korean students at the university in the US and expectedly confirmed that the inter-cultural negotiators perform better than intra-cultural ones, while the elements such as language significantly contribute to less social distance.

1.6 Existing research on Europe and East Asia

Within this subchapter I am presenting selected studies on managerial perceptions in the domain of the IB, more specifically, stereotypes and associated topics, conducted in the domain of examining the nations of Europe (or Western countries) and East Asia. Since the research on cross-comparison between Europe and East Asia is fairly limited, I also include studies on USA-East Asia perceptions, since the American culture (due to the common civilizational roots) can be deemed as at least partially similar to the European. While I have already noted the research on managerial perceptions in the context of the IB appears to gain prominence cyclically in the last decades. In particular, it gained the prominence with the more in-depth perspective, also through studying stereotypes, through the 1990s.

Powell (1992) conducted a study on stereotypes of Japanese and American managers, as perceived by the American business students. For measuring those he applied the scales based on perception of performance, maintenance, masculinity and femininity. Relying also on measuring the scores for an ideal, good manager, Powell (1992, p. 52) found that the Japanese and American managers scored differently, while both being seen as inferior when considering also the construct of a good/ideal manager. The study also showed a discrepancy between the perceived capabilities of managers and preferences to work with them. While American students saw Japanese managers as superior in terms of overall results and productive employees, they still exhibited stronger preferences to work with the Americans (Powell, 1992, p. 52).

In a European perspective, Burns, Myers and Kakabadse (1995) conducted a study on national stereotypes among managers of five European countries (Great Britain, France, Italy, Spain, Germany), based on self-perception (rating domestic managers) and perception of other nations (rating foreign managers). The scale, used in the questionnaire, relied on a selection of stereotypes rather than on a wide list of personal attributes and characteristics, as observed in the social psychology (e.g., Princeton trilogy (Madon et al., 2001)). The 12 elements (e.g. competent, reliable, trustworthy, punctual) were chosen by the authors of the study, mostly based on their potential influence for negotiations (Burns, Myers & Kakabadse, 1995, p. 215). These results have several implications. Managers of some nations (e.g., Spain, Italy) in most attributes held themselves in higher regard than the others (e.g., Great Britain, Germany) perceived them, while some scored relatively high, but low in a certain element(s), such as the perception of German managers (not) being humorous. The results led to the conclusion that national stereotypes hold a potential to be discriminating, having potentially severe implications for business decisions (Burns, Myers & Kakabadse 1995, p. 216).

The work by Burns, Myers and Kakabadse (1995) also influenced the study by Lowengart and Zaidman (2003), exploring the stereotypes about Israeli managers on the sample of foreign managers. The authors conducted two studies. The first study was exploratory, to find the potential elements of stereotypes while the second study measured the stereotypes about Israeli managers based on the chosen stereotype elements. When assessing the first study, Lowengart and Zaidman (2003, p. 82) came to the conclusion that they could not replicate the stereotype elements, found in previous studies, including Burns, Myers and Kakabadse (1995). The results and analysis were, rather than only describing the perceptions on Israeli managers, aiming to finding the potential factors of stereotyping for international managers. Lowengart and Zaidman (2003, p. 89) concluded that some constructs can be understood as important structures in the stereotype construction of international managers. These are important for influencing the willingness to do business with the other countries.

Looking at the contributions from Slovenian IB academic sphere, the several stereotype-related works and studies were conducted just in the past years. One of the examples is a study by Rašković and Vuchkovski (2016), in which they measured social distance and

national stereotypes on Slovenian people, as perceived by the students of the former Yugoslav countries. The authors designed a questionnaire, that relied on several established and non-established measures. Among first were the approaches and scales, based on Katz and Braly (1933) and Bogardus (1933) social distance scale, with additional scales for measuring chosen attributes and IB-related statements (Raškovič & Vuchkovski, 2016, p. 1083). The results showed some interesting points on the perception of Slovenians by the young citizens of ex-Yugoslav countries. Notable observations, connected to the IB field, were that the social distance towards Slovenians and positive national stereotypes about Slovenians actually had negative correlation to the export share of the respective ex-Yugoslav countries to Slovenia (Raškovič & Vuchkovski, 2016, p. 1079).

Other work, associated with the topic of managerial perceptions of Western and East Asian countries is for example the research work on cultural adaptation, such as study by Francis (1991), and cultural and home country effects on performance and strategies, as explored by Brouthers, Werner and Matulich (2000). In the first mentioned study on cultural adaptation, Francis (1991) explored the perceptions of Americans on Japanese and Korean sales teams through different modes of cultural adaptation; no adaptation, modest and substantial adaptation. The study revealed that the efforts towards high adaptation are not necessarily observed as the most favorable. In fact, Americans perceived moderately adapted Japanese sales team as more attractive for conducting business than those with no or substantial adaptation, while the part of the study on Korean sales team did not deliver clear conclusions, implying that the unobservable factors, such as the lack of knowledge of Korean culture, might be the reason behind the inconsistencies (Francis, 1991, p. 421-422).

Brouthers, Werner and Matulich (2000) tackled the culture-bound issues through looking at the potential relationship between the home country competitive advantages, price/product strategy and firm performance by conducting an analysis on a sample of European, Japanese and American companies. The results indeed implied that country/region specific characteristics exist. Specifically, European multinational companies (hereinafter MNC) actually scored better on performance when choosing high price/high quality strategy, Japanese opted for low price/high quality and American MNCs for lower quality/low price strategy, implying that some countries specific determinants when considering MNC performance and strategies actually exist (Brouthers, Werner & Matulich, 2000, p. 53-56).

2 CHARACTERISTICS OF EAST ASIAN CULTURES

2.1 General overview of East Asian countries

There is no unified definition on which countries belong to East Asia. However, when looking through the literature, the areas and countries that are usually placed in the region, both culturally and geographically (see also United Nations Statistics Division, 2018; Hofstede, 2001) are: Mongolia, China (and Taiwan), Korean peninsula (North Korea, South Korea) and Japan. Culturally speaking, all of the East Asian nations possess some common

cultural elements, which can be traced back to the early emergence of Chinese civilization and empires.

2.1.1 Historical background of East Asia

East Asian countries share a lot of commonalities. While Mongolian nomadic culture is distinct from the others and is not part of the research focus of this thesis, I intend to broadly present cultural and historical background of these countries. This includes a general overview, the common grounds and potential differences. Nevertheless, it is also important to note that Mongolia was historically strongly connected with the region, both through the Genghis Khan's empire and as a part of the Chinese empire.

It is important to note that Japanese, Korean and Chinese culture are all closely tied to the Chinese civilization. Foundations of the Chinese cultural advancement can be traced to the era of Zhou dynasty. Through the Zhou reign of 900 years, significant changes in society, administration and thought occurred, with philosophies such as Confucianism and Taoism emerging (Theobald, n.d.). Both have quickly spread in the region and are up to date important determinants of personal, political and business life. Murphey (2001, p. 1-2) notes the early connectedness of most of East Asia in cultural elements such as language, and fast transmission of early civilizational advancements, mostly agricultural technics from China.

While 19th century in East Asia was marked by the exploration of the Western nations, also ending in conflicts such as Opium wars, where Chinese empire encountered sovereignty losses to the British, first part of the 20th century witnessed further dramatic changes. Prior to World War II, Japan forcefully colonized Korea and China (Facts and Details, n.d.). After the war further shift in terms of the territorial changes and political systems occurred; China became a communist country with the republican government fleeing to Taiwan, Japan shifted towards the parliamentary democracy, Korea split into the communist North and democratic South after a three-year Korean war, ending in 1953 (Millet, 2004). The postwar processes (and revolutions) shaped the national identities of people in East Asia. This process was strongly influenced by reactions on the other country actions in the region. According to available academic sources, one of the core elements in establishing East Asian separate identities is national pride. Ha and Jang (2014, p. 473) define national pride as an "emotional attachment" to one's country.

Emotional component is the main difference in relation to the national identity, more cognitive-oriented concept. Importance of the interconnection of both can be observed through the series of historical and ongoing actions in East Asia. As generally seen by the contributions by Bukh (2015) and Atanassova-Cornelis (2011), for example, most of the contemporary national identity building has been built on victimization, based on the past events of the previous century (e.g., Koreans and Chinese in relation to the Japanese and rising pride with the economic breakthroughs in the past decades).

2.1.2 Political and economic overview of the East Asian countries

There are substantial differences in political systems among the East Asian countries through the prism of political systems. While Japan, South Korea (and Mongolia) have established democratic parliamentary systems, China and North Korea have opted for a communist (socialist) form of state with a strong emphasis on the secularism. On the other hand, the East Asian specifics also challenge this very strict division, e.g., when looking at it from the perspective of the Chinese system. While still being a one-party state, there is also an increasing role of official and quasi-official research groups and other parts of the society in influencing the policy process (Dumbaugh & Martin, 2009).

According to the Freedom in the World Index (Freedom House, 2018), South Korea and Japan are labeled as “free” countries, with an aggregate score of 84 (out of 100) for South Korea and 96 for Japan (cf. Slovenia scores 93). On the other side, China and North Korea are scored 14 and 3, respectively. However, this does not mean that the political systems of those two countries are not stable. From the Chinese perspective, Zheng (2011) noted that after the political instability through most of the 20th century in the past decades Chinese people got used to the politically stable environment.

The East Asian political environment has been in the global spotlight in the current years, due to the many issues emerging. Among them are the constitutional changes in China, that abolished the presidential term limit and allow the current president Xi Jinping to rule for life (The Associated Press, 2018), North Korea-US relations with the first ever planned meeting of the country leaders (Nakamura & Wagner, 2018) and corruption scandal in South Korea in which the former president of the country is facing the conviction (The Associated Press, 2018a).

Different political and cultural systems led to different economic developments of the countries. While (People’s Republic of) China (until the 1980s) and North Korea led a very strict centralized planned economy, South Korea and Japan have opted for developing a market economy with national specifics. A system of keiretsu groups was built in Japan, that is, “clusters of independently managed firms maintaining close and stable economic ties, cemented by a governance mechanism” (Grabowiecki, 2009). Similarly, South Korea has built its success on chaebols, family-run conglomerates with strong ties to the governments (Pae, 2018).

On the other side, neighboring North Korea has remained very isolated to the day. Despite modest reforms for more decentralized environment, it remains a centrally planned economy with strong state control on public ownership (Guo & Stradiotto, 2007). With the communist regime seizing power, China was in the similar position until the market reforms. With the Deng Xiaoping in power, China underwent through a series of opening political and economic reforms, with the emphasis on economic growth and modernization (Atanassova-Cornelis, p. 98).

There is a relatively significant difference between the countries as far as the current state of economies and GDP growth are concerned. Chinese annual growth has slowly fallen below 7% in the 2014–2016 period, with South Korea staying around the 3% mark (World Bank, 2018). While Japan had the lowest growth rate of 1.032% in 2016, it has made the biggest improvement in comparison to the 2009 recession with annual negative growth of -5.4% (World Bank, 2018). In terms of the international trade, most of the East Asian countries are members of the organizations such as World Trade Organization (hereinafter WTO), the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (hereinafter IMF) (China, Japan, South Korea, Mongolia), while South Korea and Japan are also included in the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (hereinafter OECD).

2.2 A look at China

The territory of China was historically consistently an important and influential area in East Asia. After almost 4,000 years of ruling dynasties and a short period of the Republic, the contemporary People’s Republic of China was established in 1949 (Tsin, 1995). Throughout its 70-year existence, the country has undergone significant changes – from strict socialist policy towards a “market socialism” with Chinese characteristics.

2.2.1 Political and economic environment of China

People’s Republic of China is a country, based on the socialist, officially multi-party political system, under the leadership of the Communist Party of China (CPC). The highest organ of the state power is represented in the National People’s Congress (China.org.cn, n.d.). It meets every year, with one of the most important decisions of the 2018 Congress being the already mentioned controversial abolishment of the presidential term limits for the current president Xi Jinping. The National Congress of the CPC is the highest body of the CPC. The general secretary of the party is currently also the president of the country. The Congress of the Communist Party meets every five years; the last one took place in October 2017 and was considered as one of the most important, amending the CPC constitution with the thoughts of Xi Jinping (Xinhua, 2018).

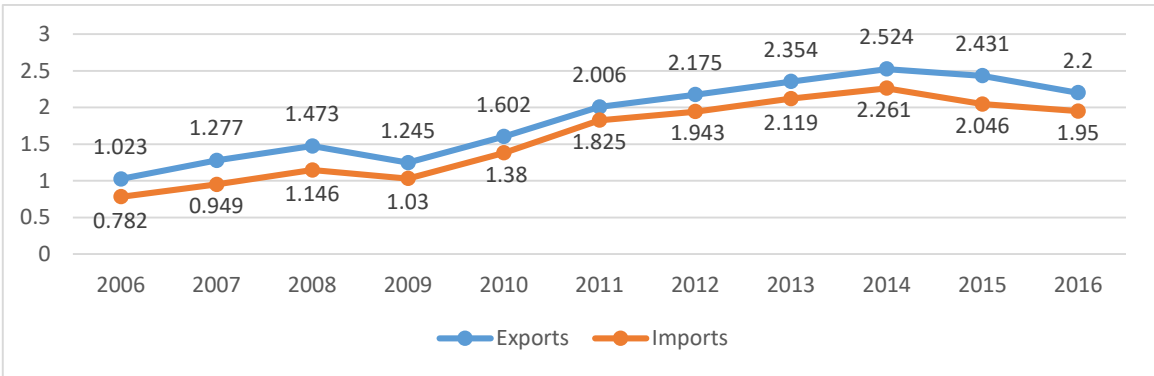
Beside the mentioned characteristics of the political environment it is important to note that China currently maintains “one country, two systems” policy. The principle was first introduced by Deng Xiaoping in the early 1980s, primarily addressing the former European colonies Macau, returned in 1999 from Portugal, and Hong Kong, returned in 1997 from the United Kingdom (The Economist, 2017). The maintenance of the autonomy has been, however, challenged in the past decade. Specifically, many activists in Hong Kong claim that China intentionally tries to further influence the politics in the SARs.

In international politics, the issue of relations between China and Taiwan persists, with China strictly maintaining the “one China” policy. While a very sensitive topic, it broadly represents a diplomatic acknowledgment of China’s position that there is only one Chinese government and represents the basis of policy-making and diplomacy of foreign countries

with China (BBC, 2017). The policy is important because of the status of Taiwan. Since the end of the Chinese civil war in 1949, the defeated nationalist government fled to Taiwan and established the “Republic of China” (BBC, 2017). Nowadays most countries, including Slovenia, do not maintain official diplomatic relations with Taiwan in favor of the People’s Republic of China, therefore conforming to the “one China” policy. Upon its establishment, the People’s Republic of China relied on a centrally planned economy. In 1978, under the rule of Deng Xiaoping, the economic reforms took place. Garnaut, Fang and Song (2013, p. 2) identify three “eras” of the Chinese economic reform; agricultural and rural growth from 1978 to 1984, investment expansion from 1985 to 2011 and the transition to a modern economy since 2012. The most current leap in the reforms resonated through the last CPC and National People’s Congress, with the “Xi Jinping thought on socialism with Chinese characteristics for a new era” was given place in the constitution (Buckley, 2018).

International trade in terms of exports and imports has also seen significant changes in a period 2006–2016. As seen from the Figure 2, in the whole period the value of exports of goods and services has overall increased from 1.023 in 2006 to 2.2 trillion USD in 2016 (World Bank, 2018), while the imports increased from 0.782 in 2006 to 1.95 trillion, with setbacks in both exports and imports in 2009, 2015 and 2016 (World Bank, 2018). Looking through the whole period, both exports and import shares dropped from 37.175% and 28.444% to 19.644% and 17.415% of the GDP, respectively (World Bank, 2018). The 2015 and 2016 figures could be seen as a part of the trade downturn. Glenn and Wong (2017) believe this can be partially attributed to the deteriorating trade relationships with the US, that remain problematic. According to the IMF (2016), the lower export and especially import figures can also be attributed to the change from relying on rapid investments and savings to the growing household consumption, nominally increasing from 1.055 to 4.055 trillion USD (World Bank, 2018).

Figure 2: Chinese exports and imports of goods and services in period 2006–2016 (in trill. current USD)



Source: Adapted from World Bank (2018).

In the past decade, China has started to gain importance also through numerous political and economic initiatives. Among the most notable are “One Belt, One Road” initiative and

“16+1” China-Central and Eastern Europe (hereinafter CEE) platform. Proposed by the current president Xi Jinping, the aim of the “One Belt, One Road” initiative is to create the largest platform in the world for economic cooperation, with policy coordination, trade and financing collaboration, social and cultural cooperation (Jinchen, 2016). “One Belt, One Road” initiative has resulted in further planning of the new Silk Road economic belt.

The “16+1” platform focuses on connecting China and CEE countries, including Slovenia. The main focus is on deepening the relationship between China and 16 CEE states (Eszterhai, 2017). The platform is seen as a part of the broader, previously mentioned “One Belt, One Road” Initiative. The cooperation has been mostly connected to the financing of the CEE infrastructural projects, such as the lately announced reconstruction of the Belgrade-Budapest railway through specially established Secretariat in Beijing and credit facilities (Eszterhai, 2017). While the initiative is aimed at the 11 European Union (hereinafter EU) and further 5 Balkan states, Kratz and Stanzel (2016) note that only a handful of countries (e.g., Poland, Czech Republic, and Hungary have significantly benefited from the cooperation with China). As I present further within the subchapter, the Chinese FDI to Slovenia was also relatively small, despite some larger investment projects or plans announced.

2.2.2 Culture specifics of China

Chinese culture is based on premises and thoughts dating well back into the era of the first civilizations. Among the most important cultural and philosophical thoughts in China is Confucianism. First introduced by Confucius (around 2500 years ago), it is a philosophy, based on the set of the principles, such as “Ren” (benevolence, kindness), “Yi” (be righteous) and “Li”, originally proposed to “remind the kings in his time to overcome the “way of despot,” or the way of force, by the “kingly way,” or the way of moral power and humane government.” (Xu, 2011, p. 645). While neglected for most of the 20th century, it has again gained importance before the end of the millennia.

In the contemporary context, modern Confucianism is defined through searching the Euro-American and traditional East Asian syntheses, with developing a system of values, ideas and concepts that could prove itself capable of resolving the social, political, and axiological problems of globalized modern societies (Rošker, 2017, p. 46). Confucianism also nurtures the concept of an ideal moral person. “Junzi” is a person, symbolizing the execution of virtuous acts consistently and relentlessly through the entire life and thus fits the attributes such as righteous, acting before speaking, showing filial piety to parents, loving learning and others etc. (Ip, 2009, p. 465).

Xu (2011) conducted a study to develop the Chinese academic leadership model by focusing on the Confucian values and showing that these are at the forefront of the values for the Chinese. Additionally, the Confucian principles of harmony resonate throughout every aspect of the Chinese culture, including politics and legal system. “Harmony, a cardinal

value of Confucianism, is seen as the primary goal of personal and social life” (Ip, 2009, p. 466). “[...] Chinese hate written laws and make theirs vague, allowing for flexible interpretations. The Chinese base their values on human feelings rather than on legal or even religious principles and are less concerned with what is right and wrong than what is “virtuous”” (Lewis (in Ooi, 2005, p. 118)).

Further important principles of the Chinese culture are “Guanxi”, “Mianzi” (Face), and “Renqing”, again with their roots in Confucianism. Chan (2005) argues that Guanxi is actually constituted and dependent of “Mianzi” and “Renqing”; the first being described by Goffman (in Chan, 2005, p. 34) as “an image of self-delineated in terms of approved social attributes,” while Renqing is described by Hwang (in Chan, p. 33) as a relatively complex set of social relationship, that can be seen as social favors that are exchanged in different forms. “Mianzi” and “Renqing” can therefore also be seen as some kind of tools for “Guanxi”; for example, if you contribute to someone losing face, this will most definitely affect the guanxi in a negative way, while saving face will be beneficial.

The contemporary Chinese culture is of course not only relying on the traditional principles, but also on the newer cultural premises, especially as a result of the specific political system and subsequent economic reforms. Looking from the state-wide perspective, contemporary Chinese culture can be divided into three coexisting cultures, according to Ning, Liu and Zhang (2007, p. 13-14):

- The dominant, mainstream culture, representing the authority, with foundations in the Mao Zedong’s age. Nowadays it recognizes the existence of the other two cultures, while it is outdated in sharing and producing cultural materials.
- Elite (intellectual) culture, mainly representing the intellectuals. While being subject to reformation and oppression in the past, they played a significant role in the 1980s and 1990s the open-door policies. After the mid-90s, their role decreased in favor of the rising mass consumerism culture.
- Mass (consumerism) culture of the general public, mainly consequence of the market reforms. Its role and importance can mostly be seen through the evaluation from the other two cultures. While intellectuals perceive it either as a “(petite) bourgeoisie” on one hand or a positive liberalizing effect on the other, the official (mainstream) culture has a relatively neutral stance on it, mainly because it helps to fuel the economy and does not impose ideological challenges.

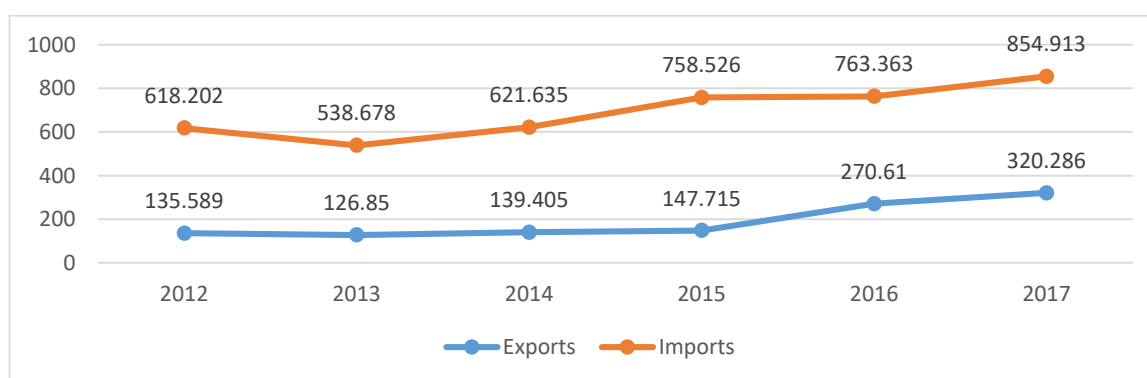
Mentioned characteristics of the Chinese culture have a profound influence on the business practices. In the international business context, Ooi (2005, p. 120-121) warns on “packing” the Chinese culture, since it is, as any other, complex and heterogeneous. However, as Rozman (2011, p. 92) notes, the building of the national identity in the past decades was closely associated with the CPC initiatives, perceived by Chinese as the examples of unity and neglecting cultural diversity to some extent.

2.2.3 Bilateral relations of China with Slovenia

Since the mutual recognition after the Slovenian independence, Slovenia and China have fostered cooperation in many areas. In terms of political and economic initiatives, the most important framework of cooperation between Slovenia and China is the “16+1” platform. Based on the data from the Ministry of Foreign Affairs of the People’s Republic of China (2017), the notable contributions between the countries were in the domain of agriculture and forestry initiatives and events (e.g., Memorandum and cooperation and hosting several high-level China-CEE meetings and events (symposium of think tanks, conference on tourism cooperation).

The cooperation within the platform is of interest to both sides. In 2017, when meeting with the Meng Jianzhu, special envoy of the Chinese president Xi Jinping, former Slovenian prime minister Miro Cerar stated that Slovenia, “[...] as a real partner of China, would continue supporting the Belt and Road Initiative and engaging in cooperation under the “16+1 mechanism” (Xinhua, 2017). On the Chinese side, in the light of the sixth “16+1” meeting in Budapest, Chinese ambassador in Slovenia Ye Hao also claimed that the relations between Slovenia and China are further advancing due to many signed agreements and projects, such as the Chinese investment in the Maribor airport, with “the spring of Chinese-Slovenian relations” beginning (Ye, 2017). Despite some other relatively high profiled foreign direct investments (FDIs) in the past years, beside the mentioned Maribor airport the Chinese takeover of Outfit7 (previously ran by Slovenes), Tam Europe and Slovenian joint ventures by Krka and Pipistrel, in terms of the international trade, China is not among the most important Slovenian partners. Figure 3 shows the Slovenian trade balance with China for the period 2012–2017.

Figure 3: International trade between Slovenia and China in the period 2012–2017 (Slovenian exports and imports, in mill. euros)



Source: Adapted from SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija (2018).

As seen from the data, despite the minor fall of both exports and imports in 2013, the overall figures have increased from roughly 618.2 million in imports and 135.6 million euros in exports to approximately 320.3 million and 854.9 million euros, respectively (SPIRIT

Slovenija, javna agencija, 2018). These figures show that in terms of the trade balance with China, Slovenia has a trade deficit. Looking back at the FDI, more specifically Slovenian inward FDI, it is noted that China represented a small portion of it. According to the latest “Direct Investment” report by the Bank of Slovenia (2017, p. 17), the most important investor was Austria, with inward FDI valued at almost 3.2 billion euros or 24.7% of all Slovenian inward FDI. China, on the other hand, held 11.2 million euros, representing 0.1% of total inward FDI (Bank of Slovenia, 2017, p. 19).

Cultural cooperation is another determinant of relations between Slovenia and China. Slovenia also hosts the Confucius Institute in Ljubljana, headquartered at the Faculty of Economics, “a non-profit organization established for the purpose of promoting and teaching Chinese language and culture” (Faculty of Economics, University of Ljubljana, n.d.). Further cooperation is also fostered in the academic sense, through departments such as the Department of Asian Studies at the Faculty of Arts and similar. Additionally, the relations are fostered with associations, such as Slovenian-Chinese Friendship Association.

2.3 A look at Japan

From the early emergence of the civilization, Japan was closely connected to the Korean and Chinese neighbors. “The Japanese culture is a multi-layered and complex system that has been developing within itself and forming new layers for thousands of years.” (Interactive Media Lab, n.d.). The Westerners associate Japan with high technology and superior production methods, however, despite being developed economy, contemporary Japan faces many challenges.

2.3.1 Political and economic environment of Japan

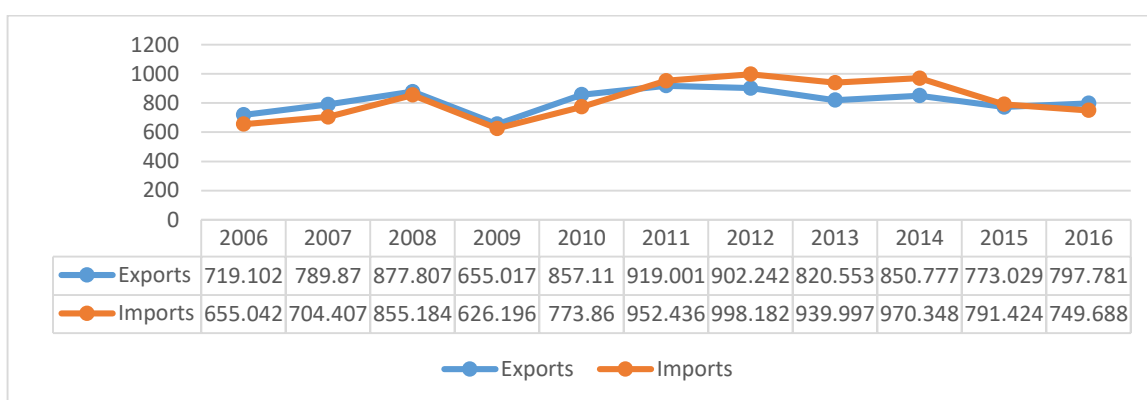
Japan is a constitutional monarchy, with the emperor being a ceremonial head of state with almost no constitutional powers (Neely, 2016), the consequence of the post-World War II constitution of Japan. From the emperor onwards governmental power is distributed between three branches, that are the National Diet, the Cabinet and the judiciary section of the government (Neely, 2016), while the prime minister is de facto the highest political figure of the state.

Traditionally, the politics of Japan in modern times have been dominated by the currently leading Liberal Democratic Party, which provided both stability of rule, but also many challenges for the country and democratic procedures in the sense that Japan, despite the cooperation with small Komeito party (25 seats in the lower house), has a one-party government (Takahashi, 2017). Current Prime minister Shinzo Abe has been known for some controversial actions, such as visiting the Yasukuni shrine, seen as a symbol of Japan’s past militant politics in South Korea and China, where convicted war criminals are also buried, thus sparking international protests, and strict anti-immigration policy, with accepting only 11 people of 5000 asylum applicants in 2015 (McCurry, 2015). Besides the political issues, the challenge in the sense of political, social-demographic and economic

environment of Japan is the ageing of the society. Lewis (2018) reports that demographics have passed the “line of return”, with an average rate of deaths outnumbering births at around 1,000 cases per day. In the economic sense, the ageing of the Japanese also puts a high pressure in terms of the pension system.

While the Japanese enjoy a relatively high standard of living, the economic stagnation in the past years can be contributed to more factors, including the already mentioned pride of the prior industrialization, Keiretsu structures. According to Amadeo (2018), the problem lies in the fact that innovative entrepreneurs cannot cooperate with the low-cost corporate giants and also discourages FDIs. The other, broader reason lies in the economic policies of the current Prime minister Shinzo Abe, named “Abenomics”, focusing on issues, such as reducing public debt, that delivered only moderate success (Amadeo, 2018). In terms of international trade in the period 2006–2016, Figure 4 clearly shows the close overlap of Japanese exports and imports. The most critical period was from 2013 to 2014, when each of the two years Japan suffered roughly 120 billion USD in the trade deficit (World Bank, 2018) and jumped in the green figures again in 2016. To put in the perspective, OECD (2018) notes that in 1995 Japan had 131 billion USD trade surplus. The reason behind the relatively jumping import figures is more evident when assessing the Japanese structure of the imported products.

Figure 4: Exports and imports of Japan in the period 2006–2017 (in current billion USD)



Source: Adapted from World Bank (2018).

According to the WTeX 2017 estimates (2018), top three import categories in Japan are mineral fuels (including oil), representing 21.1% of total imports, electrical machinery (14.5%) and equipment and computer machinery (9.7%). The unstable oil prices therefore have a significant effect on the value of total Japanese imports. Further, as Conca (2016) explains, Japan has focused on fossil fuels after the 2011 Fukushima “disaster” and the closing of all nuclear reactors in the country.

Japan fosters international economic and political cooperation also with establishing relationships with developing countries in terms of providing technical and financial aid. Among the most important organizations in this term is the governmental Japan International

Cooperation Agency (hereinafter JICA). JICA provides aid in terms of technical cooperation, development assistance loans and grants, disaster relief public-private partnerships and further (Japan International Cooperation Agency, n.d.). Of the particular interest for Japan in this kind of cooperation are Asian-Pacific countries. In that way, JICA carries out a development program and annual meetings of Pacific leaders, with topics on promoting renewable energy and supporting the development of human resources (Japan International Cooperation Agency, n.d.).

Japan-EU relations in terms of international trade have been further improved in the past years. One of the most important agreements is the EU-Japan Economic partnership agreement. The negotiations for the agreement were finalized in December 2017 and, at the EU side, the European Commission has proposed to the European Council and the European Parliament to approve the agreement (European Commission, 2018). The trade agreement should provide benefits for both sides. As the European Commission (2018) notes, the EU already exports more than 86 billion euros of goods and services, however up until now the EU countries faced trade barriers with respect to Japan.

2.3.2 Culture specifics of Japan

Japanese culture has been, although specific, also sharing the cultural elements with neighboring nations, especially China and Korea. Japanese are on one hand relying on some, even more than a thousand years old traditions, while on the other constantly adapt the culture to the rapid changes and technological changes (Kwintessential, n.d.). When honoring customs and rituals, foreigners are more likely to develop a prosperous long-term relationship with Japanese (Textappeal, n.d.). In terms of the cultural background, the oldest philosophy and religion in Japan is Shinto. In the context of Shinto, there is no absolute good or bad, humans are fundamentally good, and evil spirits are those that cause evil (Japan Guide, 2018).

Contrary to many other, monotheistic religions, Shinto does not have the highest entity in term of god. “Gods” (sacred ghosts) in Shinto religion are called “kami”, the deceased that form nature-related things and concepts such as rain, wind and fertility (Japan Guide, 2018). Shinto was both in conflict and coexistence with the other religions and philosophies. It was revived as a state religion for the last time in the Meiji period in the second half of the 19th century (Hirai, 1999). At the emergence of the secular state after the World War II, Shinto and the state were fully separated (Japan guide, 2008).

The second major influence came from Buddhism. While the religion was based in India and Nepal, it has spread to East Asia around 6th century through trade routes and evolved into many branches (Asia Society, n.d.). Among the notable ones are the Zen sect, originating from China, and the Nichiren sect, known for intolerance against other Buddhist sects (Japan Guide, 2018a). From a contemporary perspective, Shinto and Buddhism are separated, but complementary religions. In that way, Japanese wedding ceremonies are usually organized

in Shinto style, while death, considered as the impurity source, is assigned to Buddhism (Japan Guide, 2018).

Despite being “transmitted” from China, Confucianism also has an important role in the Japanese society. Introduced to the area in the mid-6th century, it had a major role in developing the Japanese ethic philosophy (Levi, 2013, p. 10). Through the course of the history, Confucianism in Japan has slowly merged with Shinto. Levi (2013, p. 10) notes that under Neo-Confucianism principles of Edo period (17th to 19th century) the values (similar to the already mentioned Chinese) of those have already merged in the society to such an extent that they were simply perceived as Japanese. The examples of traditional Japanese values overlapping with the modern society were noted by many scholars, also through the business perspectives. Minowa (2012) observed that the concepts of “Ki” (“Qi” in Chinese) – a concept, connected with the human mind and conscious and unconscious processing of information (Minowa, 2012, p. 30) – and yin-yang strongly affect the consumer behavior in Japan. The effects of globalization further contributed to the developments in Japanese culture.

Dal (2003) presented the globalization of Japanese culture in terms of economic and cultural power. As noticed in this sub-chapter, Japan has indisputably gained the economic power. From the perspective of the cultural power, Dal (2003) presented the attempts of the Japanese corporations, such as Sony and Matsushita, that invested heavily in Hollywood studios to enter the movie market. However, the investments were not among the most successful. There were multiple reasons for that, among which anti-Japanese sentiments, US domination on the East Asian media market and relatively low knowledge of Japanese on the global (media) cultural market, while some of the corporations, as Sony, managed to successfully diversify their portfolio with international TV channels (Dal, 2003, p. 339-341).

Looking on the culture from the managerial perspective, Li and Putterill (2007, p. 150) note that managing Japanese way is oriented more towards collectivistic principles of managing groups in order to create harmony in relations. While this premise could be deemed similar to the Chinese (or Korean) culture, there are differences in how the collective groups are managed. Both Chinese and Japanese culture are prone to collectivism, but it is manifested differently. Chinese loyalty is directed towards the individuals, while in Japan it is directed towards groups (Li & Putterill, 2007, p. 150). For additional comparison of Japanese managers in the regional context, Lee, Roehl and Choe (2000, p. 646) found that Korean managers perceive the role of employees in management and their suggestions less important than the Japanese counterparts. This of course implies for a lower power distance in the Japanese culture.

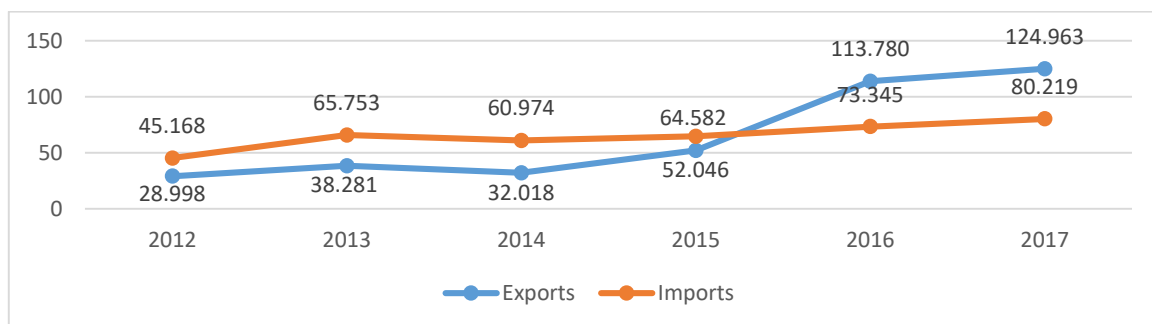
2.3.3 Bilateral relations of Japan with Slovenia

Slovenia and Japan maintain cooperation in the sense of political, economic and cultural cooperation since the ratified establishment of diplomatic relations in 1993 (Ius-Info, n.d.).

Diplomatic contacts between the countries have in most cases aimed at establishing better economic cooperation. In the past two years two high-profile Japanese investments in Slovenia have been announced; a 25-million euros worth investment in the new robotics factory by Yaskawa (Fajfar, 2017) and investment in new medical elastomer production facility, announced by Sumitomo Rubbers, worth 34 million euros (Slovenian Press Agency, 2017). An important part in the latest investments was probably also played by the Japan Slovenia Business Council, providing “the opportunities to exchange each country’s business related information” (Japan Slovenia Business Council, n.d.). Interestingly, the Chief Director of the Council is coming from the Yaskawa company.

In terms of international trade, Slovenian exports to Japan and imports from the country have both been growing for the past 6 years, as seen in Figure 5. While in 2012 Slovenia suffered a trade deficit in relation to Japan with 28.998 million euros in exports and 45.168 million in imports, this trend has reversed and Slovenian exports to Japan reached 124.963 million euros in 2017, while imports climbed to 80.219 million euros (SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija, 2018). However, the share of exports to Japan is still relatively small. In 2017 the export to Japan represented approximately 0.4% of total Slovenian exports (Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia, n.d.).

Figure 5: International trade between Slovenia and Japan in period 2012–2017 (Slovenian exports and imports, in mill. euros)



Source: Adapted from SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija (2018a).

Looking at the Slovenian inward FDI, as already stated, Japan announced and made some important investments in Slovenia. According to the Bank of Slovenia (2017, p. 19), Japan held 71.1 million euros in 2015 and 73.4 million euros of investments in 2016, in both cases representing 0,6% of Slovenian inward FDI. While still modest, Japanese share also represents the highest Slovenian inward FDI of the observed East Asian countries.

Slovenia and Japan also cooperate on the cultural level. The major organization on the Japanese side is the Japan Foundation, “dedicated to carrying out comprehensive international cultural exchange programs throughout the world” (Japan Foundation, n.d.). The Japan Foundation office in Budapest for example in 2018 provides grants for arts and culture and film projections (Embassy of Japan in Slovenia, n.d.). On the Slovenian side of

initiatives, there are associations such as Slovenian-Japanese Friendship Group (Embassy of the Republic of Slovenia Tokyo, n.d.).

2.4 A look at South Korea

The Korean peninsula has witnessed a lot of events in the past millennia: from the emergence of the Korean Joseon dynasty in the 13th century, Japanese and Chinese dynasties battling for the influence, Japanese occupation in the beginning of the 20th century and a violent split of Korea on North and South after the World War II (Culture of Korea, n.d.). As shown within this subchapter, South Korea (or the Republic of Korea) is relying on both tradition and modern approaches.

2.4.1 Political and economic environment of South Korea

South Korea, or the Republic of Korea, covers the southern part of the Korean peninsula, with the only land neighbor being North Korea. The division of the Korean peninsula on the US-backed South and the Soviet Union and China-backed North and heritage of the Korean war, resulting only in armistice (Millet, 2004) has already been mentioned in the general overview of East Asia. In the following decades, because of real or perceived threats on both Korean sides, there was little progress in negotiating the potential peace treaty or even the possible unification. However, some of the latest events, such as two meetings of South Korean president Moon Jae-in and North Korean president Kim Jong Un in May 2018, aimed at signing the peace treaty and denuclearize the peninsula (Kim & Waldrop, 2018), and the meeting of North Korean leader with the US president show some signs of the improvement and further potential for the relations of both Koreas.

South Korea (Republic of Korea) is a democratic presidential republic with a centralized government, head of which is the president of the country, elected for a five-year term (Sawe, 2017). In that way, the president of the country holds the most of the political (executive) power. Further legal and executive branches are represented by the unicameral National Assembly, also having the power to impeach the president of the country, and seventeen ministers, including the prime minister, appointed by the president (Sawe, 2017).

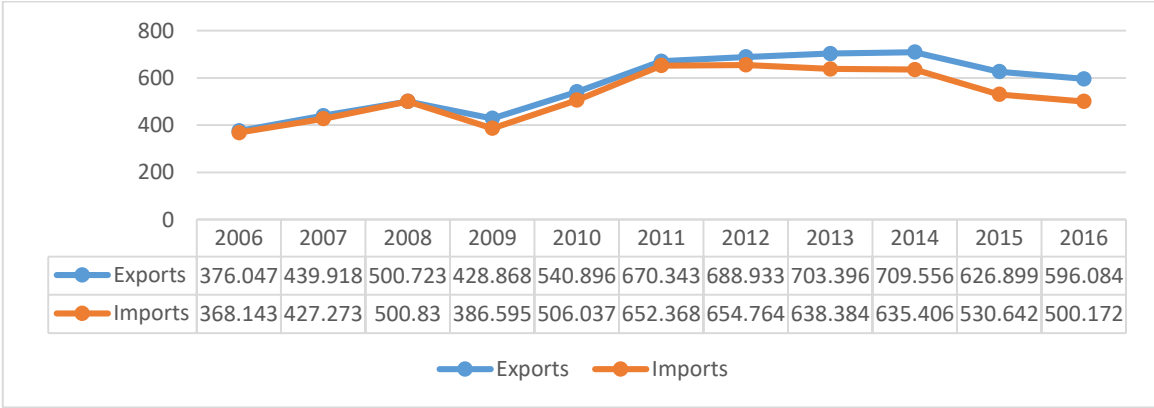
The National Assembly has exercised the impeachment of the president two times since its existence. First, it has impeached the former president Roh Moo-hyun in 2004, however, the decision was challenged by the Supreme court and Roh was subsequently reinstated to the position. The second, successful impeachment happened due to the biggest corruption scandal in the history of South Korea. Park Geun-hye became the first impeached president in Korea after the broad corruption scandal, through which it was revealed 2016 that her personal friend has been using the presidential influence mostly for raising the money from chaebols for various foundations (Padden, 2018).

Despite the corruption scandals of the past two years that influenced the economic policies of South Korea, the country is performing well in terms of the public debt. While the public

debt represents less than 40 % of the GDP, corporate debt is more challenging, amounting to 110% of the GDP (Santander, 2018). The debt could in large scale account for the chaebols, since those also constitute the most important part of the economy. There is not much data on the issue, but according to Premack (2017), the assets of chaebols (in 2016) equaled to around 110% of the South Korean GDP, with Samsung alone representing 42%.

From the international trade perspective, as seen in Figure 6, in the whole period 2006–2016 the value of exports has risen from 376.047 to 596.084 billion USD (highest value of 709.556 billion USD in 2014) (World Bank, 2018). The setbacks in the export value happened in 2009, 2015 and 2016. While the export growth in 2009 and 2015 was indeed negative (-0.325 and -0.131) (World Bank, 2018), the lower value in 2016, while at the same time the export growth of 2.145% was recorded (World Bank; 2018), can also be explained.

Figure 6: Exports and imports of goods and services for South Korea in period 2006–2016 (in bill. current USD)



Source: Adapted from World Bank (2018).

The reason behind the export growth and generally slower value growth since 2011 is that the South Korean currency won appreciated against the USD and the currencies of neighboring developed economies and important trade partners, such as Japanese yen, while also the prices of petroleum products, also part of South Korean exports, were falling in some of the periods (Statista, n.d.a). On the other side, the South Korean imports grew from 368.143 in 2006 to 500.172 billion USD in 2016 (with the highest value of 654.764 billion USD in 2012) (World Bank, 2018). A bit contrary to the exports, the import annual growth was positive for the whole period (with 4.469% in 2016), except in 2009 with -6.756% (World Bank, 2018). The last period also marked the stronger cooperation with the EU, based on the free trade agreement, signed in 2011, which removed all import duties between EU member states and South Korea in 2016 (European Commission, n.d.).

2.4.2 Culture specifics of South Korea

South Korean (and, historically speaking, Korean) culture is, similar as in its neighboring countries, a mixture of common East Asian influences, domestic tradition and modern

approaches. North and South Korea, despite of the political separation and cultural drift, in the sense of culture share the same traditional elements (Culture of Korea, n.d.). The foundations of the (South) Korean culture are resting on multiple philosophies and religions. According to Lee (1999, p. 183), Korean culture was originally based on Taoistic shamanism, later confronted with Buddhism and Confucianism. However, the dominant religion in South Korea nowadays is Christianity (catholic and protestant), but complementary Koreans still believe in numerous gods, fortune telling and spirits of the deceased (Transcultural Nursing, n.d.).

Confucianism is among the most important doctrines and was an important social and political determinant for more than a thousand years in the old Korea (Kim, 2003, p. 94). Confucianism has put harmony at the forefront when it comes to social relations. This is noticed in the concepts such as Gibun and Nunchi, the first one broadly meaning the ego and dignity of the person (“face” that should not be hurt), while Nunchi represents the way of assessing Gibun (relying on perceiving the visible features of others) (Transcultural Nursing, n.d.). The named concepts and Confucianist principles had an important influence on the culturally and socially desirable behavior.

Kim (2003, p. 94) notes that, based on traditional principles, Korean culture relies on silence and therefore limited verbal communication, since this kind of behavior is perceived as modest, humble and thoughtful. This of course implies for the potentially conflicting situations when members of more outspoken cultures come in contact with the Korean counterparts. This might be the partial reason why some Western business professionals with an extensive experience in East Asia, such as Doctoroff (2014, p. 225-226) perceive Koreans as more closed and isolated than, for example, Chinese and Japanese.

The other Korean cultural specific, laying on the grounds of Confucianism, is that Koreans are to a large extent putting emphasis to intra-group communication, to an extent where, for example, people will not greet others if they do not know them (Kim, 2003, p. 100-101). This clan-like logic held both positive and negative impacts on the Korean society, also noted by contemporary scholars. Bowon (2010, p. 832-833) presents this on the example of economic activities in (South) Korea; while the Confucianism cherished intellectuals, family and education, merchants were despised and at the bottom of the social order, the mentality, that did not fully change until the economic reforms in the 1960s.

Due to the historical events and relatively low ethnic diversity, South Korean national and ethnic identity mostly coincide (Countries and their Cultures, n.d.). The South Korean national identity reflects into many aspects of life. Ha and Jang (2014) showed with their study that the national identity pride and happiness are significantly correlated, however, no clear causality was observed. South Korean perception of their own national identity also bears significant implications in relation to the foreign nations. For example, it is considered a “norm that Koreans regularly criticize and discuss of their society, but it is not acceptable for them to hear critiques from other foreign people” (Transcultural Nursing, n.d.).

In contemporary South Korean culture, Confucian norms and values have moved to some newly acquired elements. When assessing seniority and relations in South Korean society, besides the factors, such as business hierarchy position and economic status, age and marital status are important for determining seniority and it is somewhat expected that those will influence relations (South Korea – Daily life and social customs, n.d.). Despite the modernization, a clash of traditional and modern cultural elements is present, also in the gender roles. While the South Korean constitution stipulates the equality of all citizens, in many cases women are still perceived as being obliged to do the housework, despite being employed (Countries and their Cultures, n.d.).

From the South Korean managerial perspective, culture has of course influenced the practices. The studies on South Korean managers have been mostly conducted as a cross-comparison with the Japanese managers. In one of such comparisons on business ethics, Lee and Yoshihara (1997, p. 9-16) found out that Korean managers were less strict in the ethical attitude than Japanese, while when facing ethical conflicts in terms of personal values they relied much more on the values than their Japanese counterparts. This can also be an example of how socially learned traditional values can overweight the modern approaches.

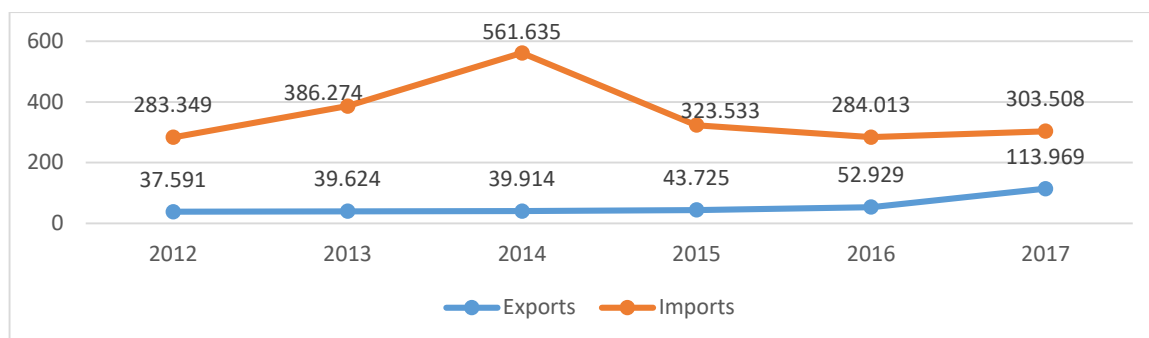
2.4.3 Bilateral relations of South Korea with Slovenia

In terms of the bilateral relations, South Korea and Slovenia have established diplomatic cooperation after the Slovenian independence and up to date documents on cooperation on different fields, such as culture, science and economic cooperation (Ius-Info, n.d.) have been signed. Slovenia, as the member of EU, is of course also part of the free trade agreement with South Korea, having free access to the market. However, the interaction of Slovenia with South Korea, also when compared to the already described bilateral efforts with Japan and China, is fairly limited. From the diplomatic perspective, this is noticed by the fact that South Korea does not have an embassy in Slovenia. Slovenian diplomatic ties are maintained through the consulate in Daegu and a non-resident embassy in Japan (Republic of Slovenia, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2018). The first official high-level Slovenian visit to South Korea happened in February 2018, with president Borut Pahor meeting Moon Jae-in after visiting the winter Olympics (Slovenian Press Agency, 2018).

The economic cooperation can be perceived as one of the most important determinants of Slovenia-South Korea relations. The South Korean honorary consul in Slovenia, Stojan Petrič, at the same time represents the most important Slovenian exporter to the country, Kolektor, one of the rare Slovenian companies with the FDI in Korea, and by his words accounting for more than 25% of total exports to Korea (Baković, 2017). The bilateral economic relations between Slovenia and South Korea in terms of exports and imports for the period 2016–2017 are shown in Figure 7. Looking at the 2012 and 2017 specifically, the imports reached approximately the same level, with the in-between highest peak of 2014. Imports from South Korea in 2014, worth almost 600 million euros can, according to Stojan Petrič, be attributed to the record-level imports of Korean cars through the Port of Koper,

that declined afterwards (Baković, 2018). The vehicles also represent the biggest import category up to date, accounting for 60% of imports from South Korea in 2017 (SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija, 2018b).

Figure 7: International trade between Slovenia and South Korea in the period 2012–2017 (Slovenian exports and imports, in mill. euros)



Source: Adapted from SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija (2018b).

On the side of Slovenian exports, those were having a slow growth until 2016, when they more than doubled from almost 53 to roughly 114 million euros in 2017. One of the reasons for much higher exports could be the mentioned 2017 elimination of all customs tariffs through the EU-Korea free trade agreement. However, according to the data of the Statistical Office of the Republic of Slovenia (n.d.), the exports to South Korea represented only 0.4% (similar to Japan) of total Slovenian exports. In terms of the FDI, Slovenian inward FDI from South Korea represented 3 million euros or less than 0,1% of total Slovenian inward FDI (Bank of Slovenia, 2017, p. 19).

3 METHODS

3.1 Research questions

Based on the topic of my master’s thesis and on the related IB research, mentioned and presented in the previous chapters, I have based the empirical part of the thesis on the following three research questions:

- What are the stereotypes and the level of ethnic distance of Slovenian business students related to East Asia and their potential reasons and sources for stereotyping?
- What are the differences of measured stereotypes and ethnic distance(s) perceived for the East Asian countries?
- Do Slovenian business students agree with and perceive East Asian countries mostly through positive and neutral or negative attributes/stereotypes?

The research questions were designed in order to enhance and serve the purpose of the thesis. On the basis of the research questions, a study on stereotypes and ethnic distance among the Slovenian business students was conducted. Business students represent the future leaders

(Hillman, Duchek, Meyr & Guenther, 2018, p. 462) and have many possibilities for international mobility and exchanges (e.g., Erasmus+ and other international exchange programs) already during their undergraduate and graduate studies. Therefore, using a sample of business students is fairly suitable for conducting research in the IB managerial contexts. In order to successfully conduct research in the domain of the thesis, I have put an emphasis on designing the questionnaire for the study on stereotypes and ethnic distance and, subsequently, analyzing the acquired data. I employed both quantitative and qualitative approaches in order to address the research questions. The existing IB research on stereotypes, as noted in the review, preferred quantitative over qualitative research methods. However, the calls from the more general academic sphere, such as Gal and Ograjenšek (2016), or more specific IB research on stereotypes, such as Zaidman (2000), prove that the need for qualitative techniques exists.

The study on stereotypes and ethnic distance, conducted among the business students of the leading business and economics school in Slovenia, therefore includes both qualitative and quantitative techniques. The latter are represented both by the established and newly-developed measures. Due to the study's mixed design and a relatively rich qualitative input, a relatively flexible approach was needed for analyzing the data. While complex in some parts, the study represents a key to answering the research questions, based on assessing the stereotypes and ethnic distance of Slovenian business students.

3.2 Study design and data analysis

The questionnaire (Appendix 2) was designed in order to address the research questions. For coding and analyzing the data, Microsoft Excel and SPSS computer programs were used. The first question is based on the Katz and Braly (1933) top-of-the-mind associations for attributes/stereotypes, the further replications of the Princeton trilogy (Madon et al., 2001) and critical examination by Philogene (2001). The respondents were asked to write four attributes/characteristics of Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans, however, the questionnaire design enabled to write less attributes for each nation, in case they could not recall more of those. While the previous IB research contributions (such as Rašković & Vuchkovski, 2016; Vuchkovski, 2015) have mostly included five attributes per each target country/nationality, I have reduced it for one per each country due to the length of the questionnaire. Four most frequently listed attributes for each country were used for the purpose of depicting the most common stereotypes and differences towards East Asian countries.

Furthermore, 7-level Bogardus (1933) social distance scale was employed to examine and interpret social/ethnic distance between Slovenians and representatives of the included East Asian countries. It comprises of the statements from the highest level of ethnic distance - having the specific national/ethnic group excluded from the country, to the lowest level of ethnic distance - accepting them as family members or spouses. Ethnic distance was assessed both through frequencies per scale items and mean scores per individual country. Pairwise

comparisons, based on repeated measures, were made in order to find the potential significant differences.

To enable a better comparison between the perceived attributes of the included East Asian countries, I have also deployed a 5-level Likert-type scale, based on twelve attributes/stereotypes, chosen from the study on the likeability list of 555 personal attributes by Anderson (1968). For the twelve attributes/stereotypes scale, I have included four with a positive (rating 1–50; sincere, trustworthy, intelligent, friendly), four with a neutral (rating 340–390; cautious, moralistic, inoffensive, prudent) and four with attributes with a negative (rating 505–555; unethical, impolite, rude, narrow-minded) connotation. When choosing the attributes, I have consulted the available literature from the IB and social psychology (i.e., Burns, Myers & Kakabadse, 1995; Zaidman, 2000; Crisp, Hewstone & Rubin, 2001), and cultural specifics of the East Asian countries. It is important to note that while neutral attributes are generally permitted in terms of the social psychology and sociology, some scholars (e.g, Lepore & Brown, 1997) have shown that people respond on these either closer to positive or negative connotation.

The scores of individual attributes and the connotation-based constructs in respect to chosen East Asian countries are assessed through mean scores. Significant (mean) score differences of individual attributes across East Asian countries were observed by employing, similarly as with the ethnic distance, repeated measures-based pairwise comparison. I also employ one sample t-tests for determining levels of agreements with the attributes. I am using the exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis), conducted in SPSS to identify the potential factors and connotations behind the scale-based responses. All emerging factors were also checked with Cronbach's alpha to establish their reliability.

In the mixed qualitative-quantitative part of the questionnaire, I am including the questions, related to the potential sources for stereotyping and self-perception of respondents on stereotyping. First, the respondents briefly defined the concept "stereotype". In the next question, the respondents assessed their perception on self-use of stereotypes in terms of judging the foreigners. Lastly, the potential "egalitarian" perspective of respondents in terms of business interactions was checked through the question about nationality-based coworker choice (Slovenians vs. foreigners). This part of the questionnaire stems from the social-psychological perspectives on implicit stereotyping and perceived egalitarianism (e.g., Moskowitz, 2005) that influence the perceptual process. Additionally, I have included a question regarding the respondents' primary daily sources of acquiring the information, consistent with further tackling the potential reasons and sources of stereotyping.

The quantitative part of the answers is assessed and depicted through the frequencies (percentage values) per items. The qualitative part is assessed through representing similar and/or different streams and themes in answers of the respondents on the selected representative answers, matching those with the answers of the quantitative part of the question, where applicable. Furthermore, I am using the multiple linear regression to

potentially explain the effect of self-perception on stereotyping towards the foreigners, the favorable perspective towards at least some foreigners and the egalitarian perspective on the positive and negative stereotypes towards the East Asian nations.

3.3 Sample characteristics

Upon the completion of designing the questionnaire in English, I have prepared and tested the electronic form, translated in the native language of the respondents, Slovenian, through the survey portal 1ka.si. The questionnaire was distributed among the undergraduate and master students of the Faculty of Economics in Ljubljana in the late summer semester of the 2017/2018 study year through invitations in person, by email and student interest groups on social media (e.g., Facebook). I translated gathered responses into English, consistently with the format of the questionnaire, with the emphasis on avoiding the potential translation-induced bias on the sample and data. In total, 104 useful and valid responses were gathered.

As seen in Table 1, the majority of the respondents are female students. The median year of birth among the respondents is 1994, but it is important to note that the number of respondents, born in 1992, 1993, 1994 and 1995 was similarly distributed and represents 60.5% of the whole sample, corresponding to the generations of graduate (master) students. Regarding the recent experience in regard to the East Asian countries, only a small number of respondents have stayed in China, Japan or South Korea within the past three years, with the highest percentage, 5.8% or 6 respondents, staying in China. Out of the respondents, staying in the named countries, two respondents (2%) had a long-term stay (more than 90 days) in China and Japan, respectively.

Table 1: Characteristics of the sample (n=104)

Gender	56.7% female, 43.3% male
Year of birth-median	1994 (16.3%)
Stay in China (in the past 3 years)	5.8% (4.8% short-term, 1% long-term)
Stay in Japan (in the past 3 years)	2% (1% short-term, 1% long-term)
Stay in South Korea (in the past 3 years)	2% (short-term)

Source: Own work.

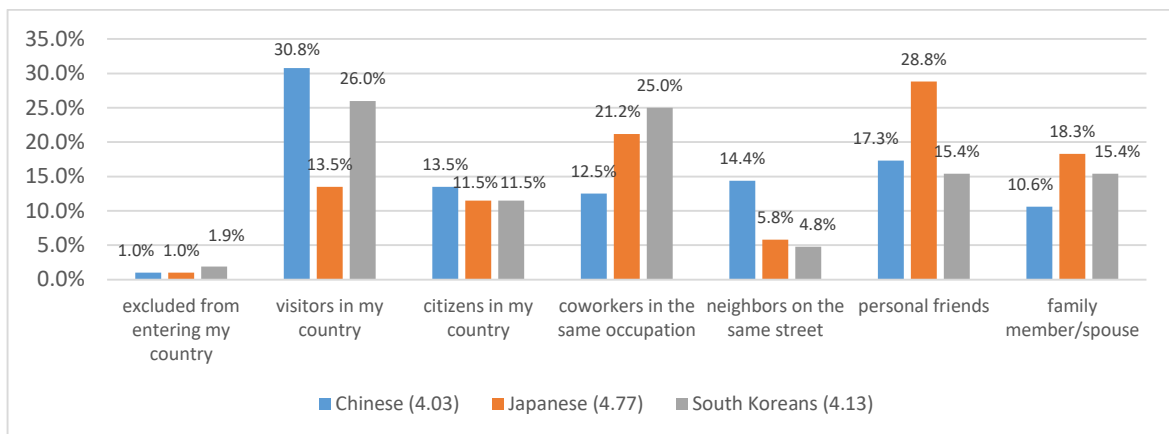
4 RESULTS

4.1 Ethnic distances of Slovenian business students

Ethnic distances of Slovenian business students towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans, based on the Bogardus (1933) social distance scale, are presented in terms of frequencies in Figure 8. Mean scores for the ethnic distance scales (higher mean score

indicates lower ethnic distance) are 4.03 in respect to the Chinese, 4.77 towards the Japanese and 4.13 towards the South Koreans. Based on the pairwise comparison (repeated-measures ANOVA), the mean score differences are statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) between the scores for the Chinese and Japanese and between the Japanese and South Koreans, respectively (Appendix 6). When looking at ethnic distance for the Chinese, the highest number of respondents would accept them as visitors in the country (30.8%), the second highest level of ethnic distance, followed by accepting them as personal friends (17.3%) and as neighbors on the same street (14.4%).

Figure 8: Ethnic distance towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans



Source: Own work.

In case of ethnic distance towards the South Koreans, most of the respondents would again, as with the Chinese, accept them as visitors in the country (26%), almost equally as coworkers in the same occupation (25%), while the equal percentage of the respondents would accept a South Korean either as a personal friend or a family member/spouse (15.4% for each statement respectively).

Partially expected from the mean scores and significant mean differences, ethnic distance towards the Japanese, perceived by the Slovenian business students, is somewhat more favorable in regard to the South Koreans and the Chinese. In that way, the highest percentage of the respondents would have Japanese as personal friends (28.8%), followed by accepting them as coworkers in the same occupation (21.2%) and as a family member/spouse (18.3%).

When assessing both extremes of the ethnic distance scale, the lowest level of ethnic distance is exhibited primarily towards the Japanese, followed by South Koreans and Chinese (10.6%), while a handful of the respondents would exclude Chinese (1%), Japanese (1%) and South Koreans (1.9%) from entering the country. Based on the results I can conclude that among the three East Asian nations, Slovenian business students generally exhibit the lowest level of ethnic distance towards the Japanese. Mean score-wise, Slovenian business students exhibit a similar level of ethnic distance towards Chinese and South Koreans, but

with the visible differences observed in the “middle” of the scale (accepting the respective nationals as coworkers and neighbors).

4.2 Stereotypes of Slovenian business students about Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans

In this subchapter I am presenting the stereotypes of Slovenian business students towards the Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans. In the beginning I’m presenting four of the most present stereotypes towards the above-mentioned nations, based on Katz and Braly (1933) top-of-the-mind associations approaches and subsequent revisions by Madon et al. (2001) and Philogene (2001), while in the further part I am presenting the results for the stereotype scale, based on Anderson (1968) attributes.

As shown in Table 2, there are both similarities and differences across the stereotypes about the Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans. The respondents foremost perceive Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans as hard-working (or diligent). Furthermore, the Chinese, South Koreans and Japanese are all also perceived to be advanced (or technologically advanced), appearing as the second most common characteristic for the Chinese and South Koreans and as a third for the Japanese. Both the Japanese and South Koreans are perceived as intelligent (smart), with this characteristic being second and third most common, respectively.

Table 2: Slovenian stereotypes about Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans (four most present top-of-the-mind associations, frequencies in brackets)

Chinese are:	Japanese are:	South Koreans are:
<i>Hard-working/diligent</i> (33.7%)	<i>Hard-working/diligent</i> (42.3%)	<i>Hard-working/diligent</i> (25%)
<i>(Technologically)</i> <i>Advanced</i> (9.6%)	<i>Intelligent/smart</i> (14.4%)	<i>(Technologically)</i> <i>Advanced</i> (13.5%)
<i>Short</i> (8.7%)	<i>(Technologically)</i> <i>Advanced</i> (12.5%)	<i>Intelligent/smart</i> (10.6%)
<i>Reserved</i> (7.7 %)	<i>Polite/well-mannered</i> (8.7%)	<i>Reserved</i> (7.7%)

Source: Own work.

In terms of a more physical characteristic and on this note race-based stereotype, Chinese are seen by the Slovenian business students as short. On the last place among the four most common characteristics, Chinese and South Koreans are perceived as reserved and Japanese are deemed to be polite and well-mannered. The most common stereotypes towards all mentioned East Asian nations are therefore, as observed, quite similar and mostly of the positive and neutral meaning (attribute “reserved” is for example ranked on the neutral side in the study by Anderson (1968)).

I have further addressed the stereotypes of Slovenian business students by deploying a 5-level Likert scale with twelve attributes, based on the study by Anderson (1968), as already described in the previous chapter. The mean differences between individual attributes were also assessed through the pairwise comparison (repeated measures). The results (mean scores) for the positive stereotypes/attributes and the aggregate score (the average of the individual attribute mean scores) towards the three East Asian nations are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Positive stereotypes/attributes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans

	Chinese	Japanese	South Koreans
	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score
sincere	3.81	3.91	3.88
trustworthy ⁺	3.73	<u>4.13</u>	3.82
intelligent ⁺	4.25	<u>4.45</u>	4.28
friendly	3.88	4.01	3.88
Aggregate score	3.92	4.13	3.97

Source: Own work.

The aggregate score for the positive attributes is the highest for the Japanese (4.13), followed by the South Koreans (3.97) and the Chinese (3.92). In the cases of all three nations, the respondents on average scored the Chinese (4.25), Japanese (4.45) and South Koreans (4.28) the highest on being intelligent. Chinese scored the lowest in being perceived as trustworthy (3.73), the Japanese as sincere (3.91), while the South Koreans are graded similarly on being sincere (3.88), trustworthy (3.82) and friendly (3.88).

In terms of the mean scores, the differences were significant for the attributes intelligent and trustworthy between the pairs of scores for the Japanese and South Koreans and the Chinese and Japanese, respectfully (Appendix 6). One-sample t-test (Appendix 17) indicates that all mean scores are significantly different from the test value 3 (“middle” of the Likert scale). Since the significant mean differences are positive, those indicate that Slovenian business students generally perceive the three East Asian nations through the positive stereotypes. Additionally, I can conclude while the scores between the nations are similar especially towards the Chinese and South Koreans.

The results based on the neutral attributes (Table 4) yielded similar results in terms of mean scores across the East Asian nations as it was the case with the positive ones, except for the attribute moralistic, that scored relatively low for the Chinese (2.43), Japanese (2.54) and the highest mean score for South Koreans (2.65). The aggregate (mean) score is again the highest in respect to the Japanese (3.63), who are seen primarily as prudent (4.13), followed by being cautious (3.96) and inoffensive (3.90). The mean scores of the three mentioned attributes are somewhat lower for the Chinese and South Koreans (the lowest), but follow a similar pattern, seen also through the aggregate scores (3.56 for the Chinese and 3.55 for the South Koreans).

When observing the mean differences of the scores towards the East Asian nations, only the difference for the attribute “prudent” between the scores towards Japanese and South Koreans was statistically significant (Appendix 6), indicating similarities in regard to perceiving the East Asian nations through neutral attributes. Through the t-test (Appendix 17) I can conclude that the mean differences (on the test value 3) are significant and positive for the attributes cautious, inoffensive and prudent, while also significant, but negative for the attribute moralistic.

Table 4: Neutral stereotypes/attributes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans

	Chinese	Japanese	South Koreans
	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score
cautious	4.02	3.96	3.93
moralistic	2.43	2.54	2.65
inoffensive	3.74	3.90	3.71
prudent*	4.05	4.13	3.90
Aggregate score	3.56	3.63	3.55

Source: Own work.

The mean scores of the negative attributes (Table 5) show more significant differences. Slovenian business students relatively strongly disagreed on perceiving the Japanese as impolite (1.79) or rude (1.91), which were also the lowest scores for the Chinese (rude: 2.17, impolite: 2.30) and the South Koreans (impolite: 2.19, rude: 2.27). The mean differences for these attributes, based on the repeated measures ANOVA induced pairwise comparison, including unethical, were also significant in regard to the Chinese and Japanese and the Japanese and South Koreans, respectively. Mean scores were higher for all three nations in terms of being narrow-minded, corresponding closer to the “middle” of the scale.

Table 5: Negative stereotypes/attributes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans

	Chinese	Japanese	South Koreans
	Mean score	Mean score	Mean score
unethical ⁺	2.37	<u>2.04</u>	2.29
impolite ⁺	2.30	<u>1.79</u>	2.19
rude ⁺	2.17	<u>1.91</u>	2.27
narrow-minded	3.23	3.02	3.25
Aggregate score	2.52	2.19	2.50

Source: Own work.

When assessing the aggregate scores for the negative attributes, those are put in the similar (reverse) order as for the positive attributes, with the lowest score for the Japanese (2.19), and higher and relatively similar scores for the South Koreans (2.50) and the Chinese (2.52).

The t-test (Appendix 17) shows that the mean differences (based on the test value 3) for the attributes unethical, impolite and rude are significant and negative, while in case of the attribute narrow-minded are significant and positive in the case of the Chinese and Japanese and non-significant in the case of the Japanese.

To summarize, the stereotype scale showed both similarities and differences in stereotyping towards the East Asian nations. The mean differences for the attributes clearly showed that while some were statistically significant, there were no significant differences between the scores for the Chinese and South Koreans, indicating that the latter nations might be perceived more similar, and, based on the higher scores especially for the positive and lower for the negative stereotypes, the Japanese are perceived slightly more favorably.

Based on the t-test results, Slovenian business students (through the stereotype scale) on average show the highest levels of agreement on the Chinese and South Koreans for attributes intelligent (the highest score for all nations), cautious and prudent. Similarly, Japanese scored the highest being perceived as intelligent (the highest overall score), prudent and trustworthy, also presenting the highest levels of agreement in respect to the positive and neutral attributes towards the nation. The attributes, associated with the highest levels of disagreement are all negative; impolite (the lowest score for the South Koreans and Japanese), rude (the lowest score for the Chinese) and unethical.

4.3 Factors of stereotype scale

Based on the exploratory research nature of the stereotype scale, I have conducted an exploratory factor analysis to notice the factors with the items (attributes) with significant factor loadings and, based on the Cronbach's alpha, internal reliability. The factor analyses for conducted on data from the stereotype scales towards the Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans separately. In all cases the Keiser-Meyer-Olkin test value was higher than 0.8, indicating an adequate sampling. As it is seen in case of the rotated component matrix (Appendix 7), based on the stereotype scale results towards the Chinese, two factors emerged (Appendix 10), but only one with more than one significantly high factor loadings, as seen in Table 6.

Table 6: Factor with significant Cronbach's alpha (stereotype scale for Chinese)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.904$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Chinese are sincere - Chinese are trustworthy - Chinese are prudent - Chinese are intelligent - Chinese are cautious - Chinese are inoffensive - Chinese are friendly

Source: Own work.

The first factor (Table 6), emerging from the factor analysis on the stereotypes towards Chinese, had a relatively high Cronbach's alpha in terms of the items/attributes checked, indicating the reliability of those. The attributes with the high loadings within the factor are all positive stereotypes, included in the scale (sincere, trustworthy, intelligent, friendly) and 3 out of 4 neutral stereotypes (prudent, cautious, inoffensive), which partially confirms the thesis from the previous chapter on the "neutral" attributes actually being perceived as closer to positive or negative attributes. Despite of the only one reliable factor, it is important to note that most of the negative attributes yield a negative factor loading in the same factor, including the attribute "moralistic" (also in the case of Japanese and South Koreans), therefore indicating for the opposite role and connotation in the terms of scale responses.

When conducting the factor analysis, based on the responses of the stereotype scale towards the Japanese, three factors have emerged (Appendix 8), with two proving a relatively high internal reliability (Appendix 11). In Table 7, the latter factors are presented. As seen from those, the attributes/items in the first factor are consisting of all the positive (sincere, trustworthy, intelligent, friendly) and two of the neutral (prudent, inoffensive) attributes, while the second factor included three negative attributes with high loadings (impolite, rude, unethical). The third factor (Appendix 11) includes the attributes cautious and narrow-minded, but with the Cronbach's alpha indicating low reliability.

Table 7: Factors with significant Cronbach's alpha (stereotype scale for Japanese)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.879$)	- Japanese are sincere - Japanese are trustworthy - Japanese are prudent - Japanese are intelligent - Japanese are inoffensive - Japanese are friendly
Factor 2 – Negative attributes ($\alpha = 0.824$)	- Japanese are impolite - Japanese are rude - Japanese are unethical

Source: Own work.

As seen from those, the attributes/items in the first factor are consisting of all the positive (sincere, trustworthy, intelligent, friendly) and two of the neutral (prudent, inoffensive) attributes, while the second factor included three negative attributes with high loadings (impolite, rude, unethical). The third factor (Appendix 11) includes the attributes cautious and narrow-minded, but with the Cronbach's alpha indicating low reliability.

The responses of the stereotype scale towards South Koreans yielded similar results as in case of the factors emerging towards the Japanese, as seen in Table 8. The responses of the stereotype scale towards South Koreans yielded similar results as in case of the factors emerging towards the Japanese, as seen in Table 8. The first factor, similar to the previous

two cases, consists of the positive and negative attributes, while it is the only factor with the positive attributes, not including the attribute “intelligent”, which is rather, together with the attribute “narrow-minded”, part of the third factor, that however failed to show internal reliability through Cronbach’s alpha (Appendix 11). The second factor included three negative attributes (impolite, rude, unethical), again pointing out to the common similar understanding of those.

Table 8: Factors with significant Cronbach's alpha (stereotype scale for South Koreans)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.889$)	- South Koreans are sincere - South Koreans are trustworthy - South Koreans are prudent - South Koreans are inoffensive - South Koreans are cautious - South Koreans are friendly
Factor 2 – Negative attributes ($\alpha = 0.775$)	- South Koreans are impolite - South Koreans are rude - South Koreans are unethical

Source: Own work.

4.4 Potential sources and reasons for stereotyping

In this subchapter I am presenting the results of the mixed qualitative-quantitative part of the study, aiming at showing some potential reasons of Slovenian business for stereotyping both towards the chosen East Asian nations and in general. The Question 6 of the questionnaire (Appendix 2) asked the respondents to provide their understanding of stereotype as a concept. Some of the answers, which are fairly representative for the sample, are shown in Table 9. It is important to note that there are differences in understanding and defining stereotypes.

Table 9: Representative examples of stereotype definitions by Slovenian business students

Shortly explain your understanding of the word “stereotype” and how would you define it.
<p>“Something we do not talk about.”</p> <p>“A belief about something, despite not having all information on the matter.”</p> <p>“Depictions of other people and their cultures.”</p> <p>“Stereotype is a perception, an opinion on somebody, something.”</p> <p>“True or false information about a person and/or society.”</p> <p>“Prejudice towards a certain group of people.”</p> <p>“Generalized (usually negative) understanding of a certain (ethnic) group.”</p> <p>“Stereotype is in a form of judgments generalized representation and understanding of social phenomena, social groups and their members.”</p>

Source: Own work.

Most of the respondents understand it very vaguely, referring to having beliefs, judgment about or simply describing stereotypes as “something”. Stereotypes are also seen as synonyms for prejudice, therefore possibly as close to discrimination. However, some of the respondents defined stereotypes as some kind of a process in relation to the people, social groups etc., therefore referring to the social constructs and elements.

Furthermore, some of the respondents also understand stereotype as a concept at least through basic elements - as generalized understandings, perceptions, depictions etc. in relation to “others” - social groups. In that way, some deviations obviously exist in the Slovenian business students’ understanding and definition of stereotypes, but with some at least partially in line with the existing social psychology definitions.

When looking at the self-perception of Slovenian business students on stereotyping towards the foreigners, the different answers and reasons emerge. As seen in Table 10, roughly a third of respondents perceives themselves as often using stereotypes towards foreigners. Through their answers (some of them are shown in Appendix 15) I have identified four relatively highly present themes or reasons in regard to their answers.

Table 10: Self-perception on stereotyping towards foreigners

Do you perceive yourself as a person who often uses stereotypes, when it comes to foreigners (e.g. to evaluating the foreigners, talking about them...)	
<i>Yes (34.6 %)</i>	<i>No (65.4 %)</i>
Reasons:	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Societal influence</i> - <i>Stereotypes are true</i> - <i>Stereotypes – process, pertinent to all people</i> - <i>Prejudice (towards foreigners)</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Inappropriateness of generalization towards people</i> - <i>Travel and globalization as factors for reducing stereotypes</i> - <i>Personal negative view/opinion on stereotyping</i>

Source: Own work.

Namely, societal influence is strongly seen as one of the reasons by a number of respondents and therefore stereotyping being a process, induced by the society. The reasoning for the acknowledged stereotyping is also that some respondents simply perceive stereotypes (towards foreigners) as being true. One of the pervasive reasons was also the understanding of stereotyping as a process, common to all people and therefore being unavoidable, with some strong opinions (e.g., “[...] Claiming you don’t have them [stereotypes], is a lie” (Appendix 15)). Lastly, the respondents also argument their answer by stating for themselves or people in general having a prejudice (or stereotypes) towards some foreign nations.

A majority, 65.4% of the respondents, perceives themselves as not stereotyping towards the foreigners. In this regard, part of the respondents perceives stereotyping or generalization

(of personal characteristics) as inappropriate, based on the differences of people or in regard to the acquainted people. Additionally, travel and globalization also emerge as the reasons for having less stereotypes towards foreigners. Negative view and opinion towards stereotyping were another among the reasons for a self-perception of not stereotyping towards the foreigners. The respondents mostly rationalize it on the basis of stereotypes not being true or their personal beliefs.

In the next question (Question 8, Appendix 16), the respondents were asked to choose the preferred coworker, representing one of the most pristine and direct contacts of business interactions, on the nationality-based in-group-out-group dynamics (Slovenians vs. foreigners). The most of the respondents clearly exhibit a more egalitarian or at least meritocratic perspective towards this kind of the business interaction. As noted in Table 11, the majority of the respondents (70.2%) would not make the choice for a coworker based on the nationality.

Table 11: The preferable nationality-based choice of coworkers

If you had an opportunity to choose between a Slovenian and a foreign coworker, who would be your choice?			
<i>Slovenian (13.5%)</i>	<i>Foreigner (10.6%)</i>	<i>Foreigner, but of a specific nationality (5.8%)</i>	<i>It does not matter (70.2%)</i>
Reasons:			
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Patriotic/nationalistic beliefs</i> - <i>Cultural barriers</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>New experience and perspectives (knowledge, competences)</i> - <i>Better knowledge and competences</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Better/worse experience with some foreigners/nationalities</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Globalization and/or meritocracy</i> - <i>Positive experience with foreigners</i> - <i>True egalitarian perspective</i>

Source: Own work.

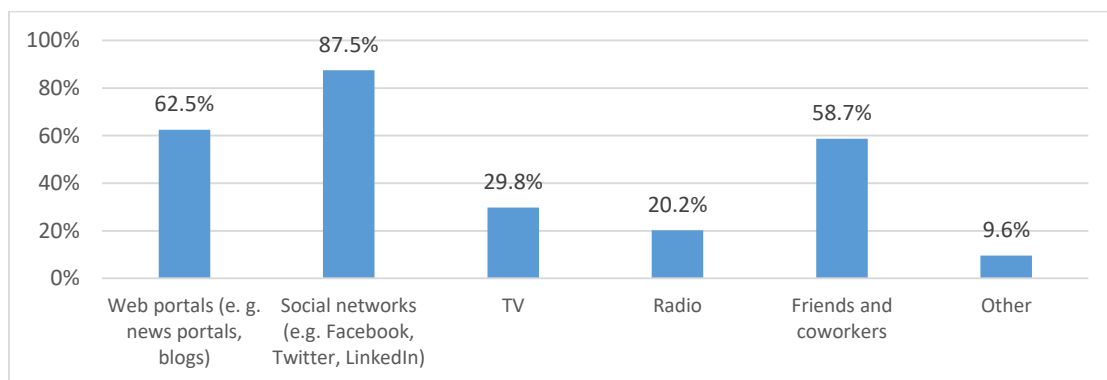
Among the most present themes and reasons are globalization, together with the meritocratic rationales (e.g., “It depends on the personal characteristics and knowledge of an individual” (Appendix 16)), a positive experience with the foreigners, also in the domain of work, while part of the respondents exhibited beliefs and values that can be contributed to a very clear egalitarian perspective. While this suggests that majority of the respondents do not put the nationality in front of the working and business environment, the rest expressed preferences either towards Slovenians or foreigners. When looking at the preferences towards having a foreigner as a coworker (Table 11), 5.8% of the respondents would choose the foreigners of a specific nationality. The argumentation was in this cases fairly similar, the respondents

either hold some nationalities in the higher regard or had a bad experience with some foreigners. However, in none of the cases the nationalities were clearly defined nor it was explained why they would prefer certain nationalities over the Slovenians. Furthermore, 10.6% of the respondents would generally choose foreigners. Among the predominant reasons are either potential new experience with foreigners and their better knowledge, competences and similar (as Slovenians).

Some of the respondents (13.5%) clearly express the preference of having a Slovenian coworker. The reasons for that kind of decision were relatively straightforward. One part of the respondents exhibited relatively nationalistic stands (e.g., “We need to take care of our nation first” (Appendix 16)) which guided their decision and could therefore be an important determinant in their future business career. However, the respondents, who opted for a Slovenian also stated the potential cultural barriers (language, values, customs) as the reason and rationale for their choice, indicating an importance of cultural elements and differences for their choice.

In the questionnaire part on the potential reasons and sources for stereotyping, the respondents also provide the answers about their primary sources of the daily information. The respondents were able to provide multiple answers. As seen in Figure 9, the largest share of the respondents listed social networks among their primary sources of acquiring information (87.5%). Those were followed by web portals (62.5%) and friends and coworkers (58.7%). The lowest share of the respondents relies on the TV (29.8%) and radio (20.2%), while some (9.6%) have also added other forms and channels: scientific articles and portals, international associations, NGOs and groups, faculty, and printed newspapers.

Figure 9: Primary sources of daily information for Slovenian business students



Source: Own work.

4.5 Influence of potential sources on positive and negative stereotypes

Through the course of the set research questions and the questionnaire part on potential reasons and sources on stereotyping, I have decided to choose some of the latter in order to check their effect on the stereotyping outcomes (stereotypes), through employing the

multiple linear regression. In order to detect possible influence, I decided to observe the potential influence of self-perception on stereotyping, favorable (business) perspective towards at least some foreign nations and egalitarian/meritocratic perspective towards the nations on the positive and negative stereotypes, the most “diametrically” opposite attributes of the already presented stereotype scale, towards the Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans. Additionally, I also included gender and stay (of the respondents) in target countries (based on the stereotyping towards each nationality, respectively) in the past 3 years.

To enable performing the regression, I first needed to recode most of the independent variables. I based the variable “Self-perception on stereotyping” on the Question 7 of the questionnaire (Appendix 15) quantitative response, recoded it as a dichotomous variable with the value 1 assigned to those respondents who answered “yes”, and 0 to those that answered with “no”.

In the similar manner, in line with the proposed regression model, I reordered the variables, based on the responses for the Question 8 (Appendix 16), into the categories and recoded them, where needed. In that way, I joined the groups of respondents, choosing the answer “Foreigner” or “Foreigner, but of a specific nationality”, assigned the value 1 for those in the categorical variable “Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations”, with others remained assigned to the value 0.

I dedicated the variable “Egalitarian perspective towards the nations” was to the answer “It does not matter” and therefore the values stayed the same. The value 1 was assigned to the respondents that chose this answer and the value 0 to the others. I also redesigned the control variables; for gender, I assigned the value 1 for female and the value 0 for male, while for stay in China, Japan or South Korea, I assigned the value 1 to the respondents that stayed in the individual countries and 0 to others. In all sets of regression analyses, I checked the variance inflation factor and the values do not indicate issues with multi-collinearity.

The first set of the regression analyses is aimed at observing the relationship between positive stereotypes (positive attributes aggregate scores) towards the East Asian nations as a dependent variable and self-perception on stereotyping, favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations, egalitarian perspective towards the nations as the independent variables, including gender and stay in the respective East Asian countries (Table 12). Regarding the regression analysis results for positive stereotypes towards the Chinese, beside the constant (significant at $p < 0.01$) only gender ($\beta = -0.360$, as a control variable) is significant at $p < 0.05$, while egalitarian perspective towards the nations ($\beta = -0.445$) is close to the named level of significance, but still only at $p < 0.10$. Two predictors prove to be significant, when assessing the regression results for positive stereotypes towards the South Koreans as the dependent variable, but at different levels; gender as a control variable again yielded a negative coefficient ($\beta = -0.347$), significant at $p < 0.05$, while egalitarian perspective towards the nations ($\beta = 0.549$) shows significance at $p < 0.01$.

Table 12: Regression analysis results for potential sources on positive stereotyping

	1. Chinese		2. Japanese		3. South Koreans	
R²	0.142		0.161		0.173	
F-statistic	3.233		3.765		4.092	
	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.
(Constant)	3.846	0.000	4.079	0.000	3.875	0.000
Gender	-0.360	0.021	-0.336	0.017	-0.347	0.015
Stay in: 1. China/2. Japan/ 3. South Korea	-0.433	0.172	-0.889	0.069	-0.477	0.345
Self-perception on stereotyping	-0.135	0.394	-0.197	0.170	-0.234	0.115
Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	0.480	0.088	0.402	0.111	0.377	0.146
Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	0.445	0.051	0.451	0.028	0.549	0.009

Source: Own work.

Similarly, in the case of positive stereotypes for the Japanese, gender ($\beta=-0.336$) and egalitarian perspective towards the nations ($\beta=0.451$) are both significant at $p < 0.05$, while stay (of the respondents) in Japan has a negative coefficient ($\beta=-0.889$), but significant at a $p < 0.10$ level. The regression model for the positive stereotypes towards the South Koreans also has the highest, albeit still relatively low R-squared value, while it is the lowest in case of the positive stereotypes towards the Chinese. This was not the case for results on negative stereotypes towards the East Asian nations (Table 13), where the model on Chinese has the highest R-squared value.

Table 13: Regression analysis results for potential sources on negative stereotyping

	1. Chinese		2. Japanese		3. South Koreans	
R²	0.171		0.029		0.063	
F-statistic	4.039		0.579		1.321	
	β	Sig.	β	Sig.	β	Sig.
(Constant)	2.732	0.000	2.192	0.000	2.494	0.000
Gender	0.287	0.038	0.095	0.476	0.174	0.198
Stay in: 1. China/2. Japan/ 3. South Korea	0.642	0.024	0.389	0.403	0.428	0.376
Self-perception on stereotyping	0.020	0.140	0.084	0.539	0.165	0.243
Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	-0.486	0.052	0.009	0.971	-0.129	0.603
Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	-0.497	0.015	-0.171	0.383	-0.267	0.180

Source: Own work.

In case of negative stereotypes towards the Chinese, beside the constant, gender ($\beta=0.287$), stay in China ($\beta=0.642$) and egalitarian perspective towards the nations ($\beta=-0.497$) are

significant at $p < 0.05$ level. Furthermore, favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations was significant at $p < 0.10$. For negative stereotypes towards the Japanese and South Koreans, none of the included predictors (except the constant) have proven to be significant, thus not showing an important influence on negative stereotypes towards the two nations.

5 DISCUSSION

5.1 Theoretical implications

The research on perceptions, and more specifically, stereotypes and ethnic distance in the domain of the IB is, as I already noted throughout the master's thesis, highly multidisciplinary. Therefore, the theoretical implications can be drawn not only for the IB, but also in relation to the social psychology and sociology studies. First, I draw the implications in regard to the stereotypes of the Slovenian business students. Through the factor analysis, the proposed stereotype scale, based on Anderson (1968) attributes, partially justified its applicability, however, it also shows that the connotations and the perceived connections of the attributes, at least in the regard to the East Asian nations, can be different from the expected ones. Furthermore, the factor analysis showed the tendency of the chosen neutral stereotypes to be perceived either closer to the positive or the negative stereotypes.

As noticed from the results, both on the Katz and Braly (1933) based approach and the stereotype scale, Chinese, Japanese, and South Koreans are perceived quite similarly and, mostly in terms of the stereotype scale, as seen with the t-test show the highest levels of agreement for the positive and most of neutral attributes/stereotypes. However, the stereotype mean scores and significant pairwise mean differences, that have occurred mostly in the domain of positive and negative stereotypes, also indicate a more positively-oriented perspective towards the Japanese. This was also showed by the results of the ethnic distance scale, where the lowest ethnic distance (and in that way the highest social "closeness") was again exhibited towards the Japanese. In this regard, the Slovenian perceptions seem to be in line with the already mentioned study by Francis (1991), where the Japanese management teams were preferred over the Korean ones. The favorable perception in case of the Japanese might partially also be explained with the longer presence on the Western markets. Generations, included in the sample of my research, could have been attained to some Japanese products and services (e.g. video games and consoles, movies) since the earliest age and therefore exposed to at least some elements of the Japanese culture.

Nevertheless, the results also imply that the East Asian nations could be perceived as a quite homogenous category in the eyes of Slovenian business students. From the social categorization viewpoint and simple illustrious explanation, the included nations, at least Chinese and South Koreans, therefore might be categorized as members of the superior category, such as "East Asians" or similar. This of course by itself poses the risk for the IB

practices towards the East Asian nations, that might be oriented and organized by the false predisposition of the same characteristics for the different nations.

The results also give an insight on the understanding of stereotypes and the actual self-perception on stereotyping towards foreigners. Slovenian business students exhibit limited knowledge about stereotype as a concept, and the perception on when the one acknowledges stereotyping varies. Perceiving oneself as “not” stereotyping can actually, observed from the qualitative-based responses, mean less or the efforts to avoid stereotyping. While it might seem as a paradoxical situation, I can explain it through the existing research contributions (e.g., Devine, 1989; Moskowitz, 2005); the low-prejudiced people will try to distance themselves from stereotyping and prejudices. On the other side, it is also a potential source of more stereotyping, especially towards the positive stereotypes, on the basis of the beliefs and values. The latter was furthermore observed on assessing the potential egalitarian perspective towards the nationalities in terms of the business interactions (choice of coworkers).

The Slovenian business students mostly exhibit meritocratic or egalitarian views on the basis of nationalities, but also preferences either towards foreigners or Slovenians. The basis of preferring an in-group (home nation) members is, based on the results, not only connected to the nationalistic traits, that can reduce the IB negotiations success per se, but includes perceived cultural barriers. Looking back to the first chapter, the cultural issues and barriers, according to Graham (2003), represent a further obstacle in the international negotiations. The egalitarian/meritocratic views are the sources of potentially better outcomes, with the preferences towards the foreigners showing that, at least business-wise, out-group favoritism can be present.

I find an important implication also in demonstrating, through the regression analysis, the actual importance of egalitarian/meritocratic perspectives in business spheres, having an effect especially on the positive stereotypes towards the East Asian nations. The positive coefficients in terms of the positive stereotypes therefore indicate the higher level of agreement when a person favors or perceives the foreigners as equal. Similarly, but only in the case of the negative stereotypes towards Chinese, the negative coefficients showed that the mentioned perspectives lowered the agreement with the negative stereotypes. The research efforts in this regard, suggest to a limited extent that egalitarian perspectives of an individual can serve as a “mediator” in terms of compensating and exhibiting less negative or more positive stereotypes towards certain nations, as one actually truly fosters.

However, the regression analysis, regarding the control variables, also revealed that the gender of the respondents, has influence especially on positive stereotypes towards the Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans. Namely, the structure of the dichotomous variable indicated that Slovenian female business students, with all the other predictors staying the same (in the domain of the regression), have lower scores on positive stereotypes than male counterparts. While I have not investigated the exact reasons, on the speculative level, I

could contribute those to the role of women in the modern East Asian societies, as I present it in the subchapter on South Korea. Therefore, the challenges of women emancipation in East Asia might resonate in Slovenia and influence the perception on East Asia.

The challenges are further represented by the sources of information for the generations of the future managers. The mass media, such as the television and radio, have evidently moved in favor of the internet sources, especially social media. The social media alone has sparked a research interest in the current time, with the latest contributions recognizing the potential effects on the perception of people. Despite the many benefits and widespread use, the danger of the social media and the other internet sources is the merge of providing both information and entertainment to the users.

The algorithms behind the social media sites, as Facebook, are able not only to predict the emotions, but even to mimic them (Sunstein, 2018, p. 3). Therefore, instead of acquiring the information to reduce bias, people can (unintentionally) get more biased due to the acquired information. Combining this with obtaining the information from friends or coworkers, also a preferred mode for the Slovenian business students, we can come to an “enchanted circle” of biased information. Again speculatively, but in line with the thesis, the perceptions and ethnic distance towards the foreigners, including East Asian nations, can be based on a very biased (or even untruthful) information, affecting not only business premises, but the very fundamentals of the cognitive processes and the everyday life.

5.2 Policy implications

The implications in relation to the policy-makers are presented in the sense of including and addressing both Slovenia and the East Asian countries – China, Japan and South Korea. When assessing the bilateral economic cooperation with Slovenia, there are differences among the three countries – China has the highest share of exports, Japan the highest share of the FDIs – however, those still represent a small share in terms of the Slovenian international trade and investments. The bilateral cooperation, as also seen from the second chapter of this thesis, relies on the activities of the state and para-state institutions, e.g., Confucius Institute (in the case of China) in Ljubljana. Nevertheless, further business cooperation, although formalized to some extent in forms of societies, associations and similar, remains fairly limited to a small circle of managers and entrepreneurs, mostly due to their personal involvement and investments in East Asian countries or vice versa.

The perceptions of the Slovenian business students imply that further and strengthened cooperation is possible. Since the positive stereotypes are pervasive in terms of perceptions of Slovenian business students towards the East Asian nations, this creates a prerequisite for the improved IB cooperation in the future. Furthermore, it offers an opportunity to East Asian initiatives to reach to the current business students and graduates, the managers of tomorrow, not only with simply aiming at the relatively promotional activities of presenting the culture, but with the current and future business opportunities in the respective countries.

South Korea, especially, has ample space to improve their presence in Slovenian business spheres, with the currently almost non-existent initiatives. Despite the free trade agreements between the EU and South Korea and, in the future, with Japan, those have failed to translate into fundamental increases of the business cooperation. The Chinese (state-backed) initiatives, namely “16+1” platform, are more specific in addressing Slovenia and the CEE region, but still only modestly utilized in the context of Slovenia.

However, the findings also point towards a fairly similar perception of the Slovenian business students towards the East Asian nations and the somewhat existing barrier in terms of ethnic distance, with the most positive perception and ethnic distance towards the Japanese. The results therefore also deliver the implications for the Slovenian educators in the business field to equip the students with a more bias-reducing perceptual mindset in respect to the East Asian markets and nations.

The issues of a potential prejudice should also be addressed; the high-prejudiced elements were relatively low in the conducted study, but still present. The branch and umbrella business organizations, such as the Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Slovenia, also having the role of assisting the government regarding the business policy decision (Chamber of Commerce and Industry of Slovenia, 2018), should take their part in cooperating with the educators and recognize the importance of reaching not only their members, but also business students. Connected with the East Asian nations, the deepened cooperation on learning and accepting the business specifics, could deliver a much more balance in terms of perception, lessen the ethnic distance, and in the end deliver a more vibrant business and general bilateral relations between Slovenia and China, Japan and South Korea.

Looking from the perspective of the policy-makers from both sides, the new generations also bring the challenges of using the right information channels for delivering their statements. The Slovenian future generations of managers are, as already observed, primarily acquiring information through social media or web portals. When trying to do so in the East Asian context, there are barriers existing, from the mostly blocked Western social media in China to the general language barriers towards the East Asian countries. In that way, the business, state and para-state organizations (in case of Japan and China already established in Slovenia), on both sides should or at least have the opportunity to also act as the channels for delivering “direct” information on business and wider topics.

5.3 Managerial implications

The managerial implications partially rely on the previously presented theoretical and policy implications. The predominance (top-of-the-mind associations) and the relatively high mean scores and level of agreement for positive attributions (the stereotype scale) indicate the positive attitude towards the East Asian nations. However, there are some differences, important from the IB context. According to Fells (in Burns, Myers & Kakabadse 1995), trust is fundamental in terms of factors for the business negotiations. My results (the

stereotype scale) showed that the Japanese ranked higher in the domain of being trustworthy in respect to the South Koreans and Chinese (with the similar mean scores).

Furthermore, in the other cases of the important attributes, such as ethics, politeness, prudence, the Japanese again scored higher (lower in the case of the negative stereotypes) in regard to the other two included East Asian nations. Loosely applying the findings by Lowengart and Zaidman (2003), the attributes with significant mean differences (of the stereotype scale) can approximately be placed in the dimensions of relationship (trustworthy, impolite, prudent), professionalism (intelligent, unethical) and power (rude). Beside those, the most present top-of-the-mind associations by the Slovenian business students also point to the work attitude, with the overall most present characteristic hard-working for the all three East Asian nations and the highest recall for the Japanese.

I find the results on stereotypes and ethnic distance to suggest that Chinese and South Korean managers might need to put more efforts in initiating the meaningful business relations than the Japanese counterparts. However, the positive stereotypes can be somewhat of a double-edged sword. Positive stereotypes often act prescriptively, that is how certain groups should be, and those can be “punished” when not acting according to the expectancies (Czopp, Kay & Cheryan, 2015). In this way, the higher positive stereotypes can actually contribute less to the potential cooperation than more modest expectations.

Based on the findings, gender equality issues might also be important for managerial interactions. While I base it on speculative assumptions, East Asian managers could perform better when explicitly showing their concern for the gender-egalitarian perspective in communicating with Slovenian female managers. Overall, this could further improve the Slovenian perceptions of East Asia. However, other factors, including the understanding self-perception on stereotyping and especially potential nationality-induced business interactions (coworker choice), suggest that the traits of implicit stereotyping are present. Similar perceptions imply for the similar categorization, most evident in the case of South Koreans and the Chinese. In this context and the low direct contact (e.g., by traveling) with the East Asian nations, the Slovenian companies – managers, HR departments, need to educate future managers on the East Asian business and cultural specifics. Based on the primary information sources, within which the friends and coworkers score relatively high, the managers need to be aware that their information could have an important effect on the perception of the coworkers and should therefore be given carefully and with arguments, when attained to the IB contexts.

Furthermore, in cooperation with the educators (academics) from the IB and other influential policy-makers, there is an opportunity to design and implement programs for educating managers. Those can tackle an understanding of the concepts of social cognition, e.g., recognizing and be aware of the presence of stereotypes, prejudices, and understanding how those can have consequences in terms of the business outcomes, already noted in the first chapter of the thesis. Nevertheless, the future generation of the Slovenian managers shows a

tendency towards an open and globalized mindset and should therefore be given an opportunity from the current business leaders to deepen the IB cooperation of tomorrow.

5.4 Limitations and future research

My master thesis of course includes several limitations. First, the inadequate size and non-representative sample indicate the inability to fully generalize the results on the population of the Slovenian business students. Due to the design of the questionnaire, the qualitative aspects also served more as an additional explanatory of the qualitative variables rather providing very specific insights on the potential sources of stereotyping. Since the mixed qualitative-quantitative part was fairly superficial in design, the corresponding results must be taken with caution. Regarding the methodological approaches for assessing the stereotypes, a two-step study on the top-of-the-mind associations and the further stereotype scale, based on the identified most frequent attributes (as conducted through some notable past IB contributions), could yield more thorough results and also leave more space for the analysis and interpretation of the respective individual methods. The stereotype scale, based on the Anderson (1968) attributes, proved to be of use at least to the extent of the positive and negative attributes, but also showed that the neutral attributes are actually not perceived as such. As the factor analysis showed, for the sake of identifying the connotation of the stereotypes and using the general attributes, that to some extent do not constitute the forefront of perceptions towards the East Asian nations, the more implicit dimensions could be overseen.

Additionally, I acknowledge that the study potentially lacks inclusion of further elements of the IB interactions, the effects of which I have therefore explained relatively intuitively and with the help of the existing literature, while I also do not tackle the relationship and correlations of stereotypes and ethnic distance. I can contribute the limitations, connected to the sample and questionnaire form, also to the limited timeframe I had for conducting the study and the period of the late summer semester, in which the study was conducted, coinciding with the beginning of the exam period. Nevertheless, the study sufficiently, while admittedly superficially in some cases (especially in case of the potential reasons and sources of stereotyping) addresses the research questions.

I find the future IB research opportunities on perceptions, even when mainly focusing on stereotypes, as very wide. Some of the potential future directions include the studies on the effects of stereotypes, social distance and other social cognition concepts on the decision-making in the IB context, national stereotypes and their influence in the diverse multinational companies, the differences between implicit and explicit national stereotypes and their influence on the preferred nations for conducting business, and many more. Consistent with the findings by Park (1992, p. 183), the research on stereotypes should focus more on addressing the means for reducing the negative effect of stereotypes.

New streams of the IB research will need to include experimental studies, which might also prove useful in further assessing the Slovenian perceptions of East Asian nations and also vice versa. I call for the replication and further studies on the perceptions towards the East Asian nations, potentially adding additional cultural and business determinants and comparison with the other nations around the globe. On this note, the potential impacts of a more globalized perspectives in the perceptual mindsets of the new generations of Slovenian managers could also be examined. I encourage both IB researchers and social psychologists/sociologists to more thoroughly examine the potential sources of stereotyping, including the influence of an egalitarian social perception. On a more far-fetched note, the connection and cooperation with the neuroscience experts, with some contributions presented in the first chapter of the thesis, could further contribute to explaining the “black box” of the perception studies in the IB context.

CONCLUSION

My master’s thesis focused on the perceptions of East Asia, based on the sample of the Slovenian business students. The findings, at least from the point of stereotypes and ethnic distance, indicate the potential for further business cooperation with East Asia. The most top-of-the-mind associations and the stereotype scale reveal, that the positive stereotypes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans constitute the highest level (of agreement). Based on the mean differences of the stereotype scale, the Japanese are perceived on a higher level of agreement (or disagreement in case of the negative stereotypes) in terms of the attributes, that in the business sense, based on the division by Lowengart and Zaidman (2003), point to the dimensions of relationship, professionalism and power, all of a fundamental importance. The premises behind the stereotype results are also confirmed by ethnic distance, where Japanese are again perceived socially closer than the Chinese and South Koreans. The differences therefore further depict dimensions that should be carefully addressed by the respective East Asian nations in the IB interactions with the Slovenian counterparts.

Nevertheless, while the differences in the perception of East Asian nations can be observed, those are mostly not fundamental. East Asian nations therefore seem to be categorized similarly in the perceptual mindsets of the Slovenian business students, which can also be attributed to the low direct experience and travel to the East Asian countries and, on the other hand, in the “global” scale of the Slovenian economy, still relatively low bilateral cooperation. This shows the need for further utilization of the variety of (business) policy initiatives, in the case of China also very specifically aiming at Slovenia. The potential problem and source of bias is also identified by the primary sources of information being the internet-based, in a lot of case far from the objective and therefore able to contribute to the perception bias.

While my research efforts in the domain of the thesis might be limited in the aspects of addressing the potential sources and reasons for stereotyping, the perspective towards

foreigners, be it centered towards in-groups, out-groups or fairly egalitarian in business spheres, the last perspective seems to have an effect, in the case of the master's thesis especially on the positive stereotypes towards the Japanese and South Koreans, and partially also the Chinese. Combined with the somewhat inconsistent self-perception on stereotyping, I find the findings calling for the IB educators to more holistically address the concepts of social cognition, aiming at the students being able to understand how cognitive processes work, their importance in the context of business premises and in that way to address their own biases.

The responsibility and opportunities for further sparking the interest of Slovenian business students, among which future business leaders, in doing business with East Asia are also on the side of the policy-makers and future or current employers. Since friends and coworkers are listed among the most common sources of information, the distorted perceptions of those in regard to East Asia can most definitely influence the perceptions of the others. This further obliges the current managers to, in a proverbial manner, "think twice" before acting or giving away biased information.

To conclude, the results, as already mentioned, show open gates towards stronger business cooperation between Slovenia and the East Asian countries. The Slovenian business students, future managers, in general exhibit egalitarian and meritocratic views towards the business interactions, fundamentals in the IB context. Nevertheless, further studies, including more refined qualitative approaches and an overall assessment of perceptions, relying on the sample of both Slovenian and East Asian business students and managers, whether the gates for business cooperation are wide or half-open.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Povzetek (summary in Slovene language)

UVOD

V okviru magistrskega dela se ukvarjam s preučevanjem in analizo percepcij oz. zaznav o Vzhodni Aziji s strani slovenskih študentov poslovnih ved ter posledičnimi implikacijami za mednarodno poslovanje. Pri preučevanju zaznav sem se osredotočil na stereotipe in etnično distanco.

Novi trgi, ki so kulturno in zaznavno drugačnih, predstavljajo nove izzive za slovenske managerje. Čeprav se vzhodnoazijske države ne uvrščajo med najboljše pomembne trgovske partnerje, pa je sodelovanje z njimi vse pomembnejše, prav tako pa se kulturno relativno pomembno razlikujejo od domačega okolja. Za potrebe magistrskega dela sem analizo zaznav (skozi stereotipe in etnično distanco) omejil na tri vzhodnoazijske države: Kitajsko, Japonsko in Južno Korejo.

Namen magistrskega dela je zagotoviti oz. izpeljati razumljive, koristne ter potencialno uporabne zaključke in priporočila za slovenske ter vzhodnoazijske managerje, akademike ter ustvarjalce politik. Ti temeljijo na rezultatih analiziranih zaznav s strani slovenskih poslovnih študentov. Med glavne cilje uvrščam predstavitev kultur Vzhodne Azije, glavnih konceptov in vloge zaznav ter socialne kategorizacije s strani mednarodnega poslovanja ter socialne psihologije, ter izvedbo empirične raziskave o zaznavah v domeni stereotipov ter etnične distance in razlago rezultatov.

Zaznave in socialna kategorizacija v mednarodnem poslovanju

V magistrskem delu naslavljam teoretične aspekte, povezane s temami o zaznavah in socialni kategorizaciji, relevantnimi za mednarodno poslovanje, vzhodnoazijskimi kulturami ter obstoječih raziskovalnih prispevkih o zaznavah v kontekstu mednarodnega poslovanja, povezanih z Evropo (oz. zahodnimi državami) ter Vzhodno Azijo. Drugi del magistrskega dela se nanaša na izvedbo empirične raziskave; raziskovalna vprašanja, metodološke pristope, ki se nanašajo na študijo stereotipov in etnične distance ter rezultate. Ta del posvečam tudi diskusiji, ki se nanaša na priporočila ter implikacije z vidika teoretskih, managerskih perspektiv ter (poslovnih) politik.

Kot ugotavljam v magistrskem delu, teme, ki se nanašajo na zaznave in socialno kategorizacijo, niso v ospredju raziskovalnih naporov mednarodnega poslovanja ter poslovnih ved na splošno, čeprav so zelo pomembne. Raziskovalci si zato v veliki meri pomagajo z dognanji socialne psihologije in sociologije, ki so pravzaprav v veliki meri pripomogla k znanstvenim prispevkom in študijam na strani poslovnih ved, oz. specifično, mednarodnega poslovanja. Raziskovalno delovanje mednarodnega poslovanja o zaznavah je torej multidisciplinarno.

V okviru znanstvenih prispevkov ekonomskih in poslovnih ved ter povezanih tem s sociologijo in socialno psihologijo nisem našel kakršnega koli pregleda prispevkov o zaznavah. V sklopu le-teh sem zato prepoznal več področij, posredno ali neposredno povezanih z mednarodnim poslovanjem; vedenjska ekonomija, strateški management, študije o kulturi ter mednarodno ravnanje z ljudmi pri delu. Nadaljnji interes za študije o zaznavah v okviru mednarodnega poslovanja je tudi posledica dejstva, da mnogi ekonomski in poslovni modeli, npr. modeli odločanja, težje pojasnijo delovanje v kompleksnem in raznolikem mednarodnem okolju.

S stališča psihologije so zaznave predmet raziskovanja in definiranja od začetka te znanstvene vede. Zaznavanje lahko opredelimo kot proces, preko katerega posamezniki organizirajo in interpretirajo dražljaje, z namenom, da osmislijo svojo okolico (Dhingra in Dhingra, 2011, str. 63). Te torej tvorijo pomemben temelj nadaljnjih kognitivnih procesov. V sodobni socialni psihologiji je pomembna tudi razmejitev zaznav oz. procesa zaznavanja na zaznave oz. zaznavne procese do ljudi in do objektov (predmetov). Kot ugotavlja tudi Moskowitz (2005), na socialne zaznavne procese vpliva več dejavnikov, vključno z opazovanim oz. zaznanim vedenjem, posameznimi situacijami ter pristranskostjo, ki vstopajo v proces zaznavanja. V tem kontekstu (predvsem pristranskosti) tudi stereotipi pomembno vplivajo na zaznave. Z novejšimi, tudi pristopi nevroznanosti (npr. Mitchell, Heatherton in MacRae, 2002), je postalo še bolj očitno, da se zaznavni procesi do objektov in do ljudi razlikujejo, saj potekajo v drugih možganskih regijah.

Preučevanje zaznav (do ljudi) je v veliki meri povezano s socialno kognicijo. Socialna kognicija (znotraj socialne psihologije), preprosto definirano, predstavlja študije o procesih, preko katerih ljudje "vidijo" sebe in druge ljudi (Fiske in Taylor, 2016). Predvsem v kontekstu socialne kognicije zopet stopajo v ospredje razlike med zaznavanjem objektov oz. predmetov in ljudi ter razmejitve med zaznavnimi in kognitivnimi procesi. Čeprav razlike med slednjimi niso popolnoma razjasnjene, je njihovo pojasnjevanje predmet zanimanja že od začetka socialne psihologije, zaznavanje pa velikokrat videno kot del kognicije. Vseeno pa je zelo jasno razvidna razlika ta, da so za zaznave oz. zaznavne procese nujno potrebni dražljaji, medtem ko se kognicija lahko odvija tudi preko avtomatskih procesov razumevanja (Fiske in Taylor, 2016).

Nadalje je za socialno kognicijo (in povezave s stereotipi) pomembno poznavanje še enega koncepta, in sicer socialne kategorizacije. Preko le-te ljudje razvrščajo sebe in ostale v različne socialne skupine, prav tako pa pomembno vplivajo na zaznave, miselne procese in vedenje (Crisp in Hewstone, 2006, str.4). Socialna kategorizacija torej neposredno vpliva na zaznavanje posameznikov kot znotraj ali izven matične skupine. Ker gre za zelo kompleksen proces, je v raziskovalni praksi velikokrat poenostavljen s primeri navzkrižne kategorizacije (angl. crossed categorization), kjer sta za razvrščanje v različne skupine uporabljeni dve ali več značilnosti, ki se medsebojno križata (npr. starost in spol). V socialno kategorizacijo (s stališča posameznika) je torej v večini primerov vključeno večje število dejavnikov, pa tudi

kategorij, zato se v (tuji) literaturi (npr. Crisp in Hewstone, 2006) vse bolj uveljavlja tudi koncept multiple oz. večkratne socialne kategorizacije (angl. multiple social categorization).

V teh procesih je ključnega pomena tudi pristranskost glede na (matično) socialno skupino. Pristranskost je namreč pri medskupinskih odnosih vedno prisotna (Tajfel in Turner, 1979, str. 281) in socialna kategorizacija lahko vodi do številnih posledic za družbene odnose, tudi predsodkov in diskriminacije (Dovidio et al., 2006). V tem kontekstu so stereotipi pomemben del kategorizacije. Preučevanje socialne kategorizacije, pa tudi pristranskosti v medskupinskih odnosih, je tesno povezano z družbeno (socialno) identiteto. Teorijo družbene identitete sta razvila Tajfel in Turner (1979) na podlagi preučevanja medskupinskih konfliktov. Družbena identiteta, pa tudi družbena primerjava in povezani koncepti oz. procesi (Tajfel, 1974) vplivajo ter so vplivani s strani socialne kategorizacije.

Omenjeni procesi zelo pomembno vplivajo na oblikovanje stereotipov, posplošena prepričanja (Allport, 1954) ali pričakovanja (Moskowitz, 2005) o socialnih skupinah. Stereotipi so v današnji družbi velikokrat sprejeti negativno ali pa kar neposredno pripisani konceptom, kot so predsodek in diskriminacija, kar pa ne drži popolnoma. S stališča socialne psihologije so namreč stereotipi prisotni pri vseh ljudeh. Hkrati formiranje stereotipov ni le posledica enega, temveč vključuje več miselnih procesov. Pred dejansko uporabo se stereotipi oblikujejo skozi faze identifikacije, kategorizacije in aktivacije (Moskowitz, 2005, str. 452).

Preko stereotipov se velikokrat oblikujejo na videz nasprotujoče si značilnosti o posameznih družbenih skupinah. Te povezave so bile opažene že v zgodnjih študijah o stereotipih, mdr. v študiji o rasnih stereotipih, ki sta jo opravila Katz in Braley (1933), ko so se v odnosu do afriških Američanov hkrati pojavljali tako negativni (npr. neinteligentni) kot tudi relativno pozitivne (npr. muzikalični) značilnosti. Hkrati so ravno ta študija in njene nadaljnje ponovitve, znane kot »Princetonska trilogija« (angl. »Princeton trilogy«), pokazale, da se stereotipi skozi čas lahko pomembno spreminjajo (Madon et al., 2001).

Stereotipov se v veliki meri lahko ne zavedamo in so implicitni. V zvezi s tem se lahko pojavlja tudi odklonilni rasizem, ko se ljudje zaznavajo kot egalitarne in z malo predsodki, v resnici pa nezavedno gojijo predsodke do določenih zapostavljenih skupin (Dovidio in Gaertner, 2000, str. 315). Ko so ljudje soočeni z lastnimi stereotipi v javnosti, so na njih lahko zelo pozorni. Še posebej to velja v primerih, ko stereotipi niso v skladu z osebnimi standardi oz. prepričanji, zato jih lahko zatrejo in izražajo bolj egalitarna stališča, kar je pokazalo tudi več študij (npr. Devine (1989)).

S stališča mednarodnega poslovanja so ravno zaradi velikega vpliva na zaznavanje, vedenja in interakcije, stereotipi zelo pomembni za preučevanje. Kljub nekaterim znanstvenim in raziskovalnim prispevkom na temo nacionalnih stereotipov, ki jih tudi preučujem v okviru magistrskega dela, so le-ti še vedno dokaj omejeni. Zgodovinsko gledano je bilo s strani mednarodnega poslovanja nacionalnim stereotipom namenjene zelo malo pozornosti

(Lowengart in Zaidman, 2003, str. 79), pa tudi sicer (tudi v kontekstu socialne psihologije in sociologije) so bili bolj v ospredju spolni, rasni, starostni in stereotipi do manjšin (Burns, Myers in Kakabadse, 1995, str. 213). V slovenskih akademskih sferah so se prispevki na to tematiko pojavili šele v zadnjem desetletju (npr. Rašković in Svetličič, 2011; Rašković in Vuchkovski, 2016; Vuchkovski, 2015).

Nacionalni stereotipi imajo pomemben vpliv na večino procesov v podjetjih; od proizvodnje, iskanja kadrov, do investiranja in trženjskih strategij (Chatallas, Kramer in Takada, 2008, str. 67). Prav tako so bile pri nacionalnih stereotipih pri mednarodnih managerjih opažene specifike njihove rabe. Te kažejo na nekakšen skupen kulturni kodeks, kljub temu, da managerji prihajajo iz različnih kulturnih okolij (Zaidman, 2000, str. 46).

V okviru socialnih zaznav in odnosov med socialnimi (in etničnimi) skupinami v magistrskem delu prav tako preučujem socialno oz. etnično distanco (pojma se velikokrat uporablja enoznačno, s tem, da se pojem »etnična distanca« uporablja v okviru etničnih oz. nacionalnih skupin). Med prvimi avtorji, ki so definirali socialno distanco, je bil Bogardus (1925, str. 299), ki jo je označil za stopnjo razumevanja med ljudmi ter občutij, ki jih gojijo do drugih. Njegov prispevek je tudi 7-stopenjska lestvica, ki je za določanje socialne distance v uporabi še danes.

Etnična (oz. socialna) distanca je neposredno povezana s stereotipi in predsodki, vendar si avtorji niso povsem enotni, kakšna je ta povezava. Tako je po nekaterih znanstvenih in raziskovalnih prispevkih povezava med stereotipi in socialno distanco zelo omejena (Viljoen, 1974), po drugih pa ima pomemben vpliv na predsodke (Weaver, 2008). Več različnih smeri preučevanja socialne distance je doprineslo k razvoju štirih večjih smeri oz. dimenzije socialne distance: afektivne (kamor spada tudi Bogardusova lestvica), normativne, interaktivne, in dimenzije, pogojeni s kulturnimi značilnostmi. V kontekstu mednarodnega poslovanja je socialna distanca v določeni meri predmet podrobnejšega preučevanja, npr. z modeli socialnega odločanja in njihovimi vplivi na sprejemanje odločitev (Akerlof, 2008). V večji meri pa se socialna ali etnična distanca uporablja v sklopu uporabe socioloških in psiholoških orodij za poslovne kontekste (npr. Rašković in Vuchkovski, 2016).

Med študijami v sklopu mednarodnega poslovanja, ki se nanašajo na stereotype in jih preučujejo v nacionalnih domenah Evrope (in »zahodnih« držav) ter Vzhodne Azije sem jih v magistrskem delu izpostavil nekaj. Powell (1992) je med ameriškimi študenti opravil študijo o zaznavah japonskih, ameriških ter idealnih managerjev, ki je pokazala razlike med ocenami prvih dveh, ki pa so bili ocenjeni nižje kot idealni managerji. Burns, Myers in Kakabadse (1995) so opravili eno prvih študij o nacionalnih stereotipih z lestvico značilnosti med evropskimi managerji, kjer so prav tako bile prisotne razlike med stereotipi za managerje različnih narodnosti, pa tudi med stereotipi, ki so jih managerji pripisali svoji ter drugim narodnostim.

Študija, ki sta jo opravila Lowengart in Zaidman (2003), je raziskovala stereotipe o izraelskih managerjih med tujimi managerji. Študija ni uspela replicirati preteklih lestvic nacionalnih stereotipov (tudi Burns Myers in Kakabadse, 1995), je pa pokazala, da nacionalni stereotipi pomembno vplivajo na pripravljenost za poslovanje z mednarodnimi managerji. V slovenski akademski sferi sta podobno študijo, ki vključuje merjenje stereotipov in socialne distance opravila Rašković in Vuchkovski (2016) med študenti poslovnih ved v državah bivše Jugoslavije ter med drugim zaznala negativno korelacijo med izvozom v Slovenijo ter socialno distanco in pozitivnimi stereotipi do Slovencev.

Poleg omenjenih je na nekoliko bolj široko tematiko zaznav managerjev bilo opravljenih še več študij, npr. o kulturni prilagoditvi japonskih in korejskih managerjev (Francis, 1991), kjer je bilo ugotovljeno, da so vsaj v primeru japonskih managerjev ameriški študenti bolje sprejemali managerske time z zmerno kulturno adaptacijo, kot tiste z brez ali skoraj popolno adaptacijo. Brouthers, Werners in Matulich (2000) pa so ugotovili, da obstajajo regionalne specifične karakteristike, preko katerih različne izbire cenovne in proizvodne strategije različno vplivajo na uspešnost poslovanja.

Karakteristike vzhodnoazijskih kultur

Pri predstavitvi vzhodnoazijskih kultur sem opredelil območje Vzhodne Azije glede na posamezne metodologije in literaturo (npr. UNSD, 2018; Hofstede, 2001) med sledeče države in območja; Mongolija, Kitajska (in Tajvan), Korejski polotok (Severna in Južna Koreja) ter Japonska. Pri opisu vzhodnoazijskih držav in kultur se posebej (glede na temo magistrske kulture) osredotočam na Kitajsko, Japonsko ter Južno Korejo.

Zgodovinsko gledano si omenjene države oz. kulture delijo veliko število kulturnih elementov (npr. konfucianizem), ki v veliki meri izvirajo iz stare kitajske civilizacije. Starodavne povezave so razvidne preko skupnih elementov, kot so jezik (Murphey, 2001, str. 1-2). Kljub temu so se, predvsem v zadnjih dvesto letih, ko so v regijo vstopili faktorji zahodnih držav, pojavile razlike in napetosti med državami. Konflikti v preteklem stoletju so tudi pripomogli k različnim ekonomskim in političnim sistemom; Kitajska je tako komunistična država, Japonska in Južna Koreja pa sta usmerjeni k parlamentarni demokraciji.

Kitajska (oz. Ljudska republika Kitajska) je kljub komunističnemu sistemu, ki je v preteklosti bil nagnjen k planskemu gospodarstvu (še vedno prisotno v Severni Koreji), doživela korenite ekonomske reforme. Po oceni nekaterih akademikov (Gang, Fang in Song, 2013) je država trenutno v fazi prehoda v tržno gospodarstvo. Kljub temu država v političnem smislu utrjuje sistem, v katerem prevladuje komunistična partija, kar je razvidno tudi iz nekaterih odločitev v preteklih letih (npr. dosmrtni mandat kitajskega predsednika). Kitajska je ena redkih držav, ki je beležila gospodarsko rast tudi med globalno recesijo, in ena najpomembnejših svetovnih uvoznic in izvoznic. V zadnjih letih namenja veliko

pozornosti tudi povezavam in sodelovanju s srednje in vzhodnoevropskimi državami, npr. preko platforme 16+1.

Za kitajsko kulturo je v preteklih desetletjih značilna obuditev konfucianizma ter njegovih vrednot. V osrčju konfucianizma je »Junzi«, koncept, ki simbolno ponazarja idealnega človeka, konsistentno zavezanega k moralno neoporečnim dejanjem (Ip, 2009, str. 465). Med koncepti konfucianizma se nahajajo npr. še »guanxi« (povezave z drugimi ljudmi) in »mianzi« (obraz), ki so pomemben del interakcije. Poleg tradicionalnih principov in konceptov se moderna kitajska kultura predstavlja kot sobivanje treh kultur; prevladujoče, glavne, ki se v veliki meri ozira na politične temelje, elitne, ki jo predstavljajo predvsem intelektualci, ter masovne potrošniške kulture kot posledice tržnih reform (Ning, Liu in Zhang, 2007).

Bilateralno sodelovanje Slovenije s Kitajsko v veliki meri poteka na kulturnem (npr. Konfucijev inštitut) in gospodarskem področju. Kljub nekaterim kitajskim neposrednim investicijam te predstavljajo majhen delež vseh tujih neposrednih investicij v Sloveniji, in nižje kot slovenske neposredne investicije na Kitajskem (Banka Slovenije, 2018). Prav tako je relativno nizka vrednost trgovske menjave med državama, pri kateri pa ima Slovenija deficit (SPIRIT Slovenija, javna agencija, 2018). Obe strani sta večkrat poudarili zavezanost k sodelovanju preko platforme 16+1, vendar pa so bili tako sodelovanje kot učinki do sedaj omejeni.

Japonska je država z razvitim gospodarstvom, vendar tudi izzivi, kar se odraža na relativno nizki gospodarski rasti. Na to mdr. vplivajo staranje prebivalstva, ki je prešlo »točko brez vrnitve« (Lewis, 2018), nekatere neučinkovite vladne reforme ter rigidne strukture keiretsu podjetij. Gospodarsko sodelovanje s tujimi državami je razvito in v veliki meri poteka preko vladnih agencij. V zadnjem času je kar nekaj pozornosti namenjeno tudi sodelovanju z Evropsko unijo. Obe strani sta namreč trenutno v fazi odobritve sporazuma o prostem trgu med Evropsko unijo in Japonsko (Evropska komisija, 2018).

Japonska kultura je mešanica tradicionalnih domačih, tujih (azijskih) in modernih potrošniških in tehnoloških vplivov. Poleg religij, kot so šinto in budizem, je prisoten vpliv konfucianizma. Moderna japonska kultura je zelo podvržena vplivom globalizacije. Na globalni prenos elementov japonske kulture so v preteklosti vplivali tudi prevzemi tujih (ameriških) medijskih hiš in filmskih studiev, ki pa v večini niso bili zelo uspešni (Jin, 2003). V poslovnem svetu je opazen kolektivističen pristop, lojalnost pa je usmerjena k skupinam, ne posameznim osebam, kot npr. pri Kitajcih (Li in Puterill, 2007).

Sodelovanje Japonske in Slovenije je vidno predvsem v gospodarstvu, kjer je bilo v preteklih letih najavljenih nekaj večjih japonskih investicij. Podobno kot v primeru Kitajske, je delež japonskih neposrednih investicij in izvoza v Slovenijo relativno nizek. Ne glede na to je japonski delež v okviru neposrednih tujih investicij v Sloveniji (Banka Slovenije, 2018) v

primerjavi s Kitajsko in Južno Korejo najvišji. Prisotno je tudi kulturno sodelovanje preko vladnih organizacij (npr. Japonske fundacije) in (poslovnih) društev.

Južna Koreja pokriva južni del oz. približno polovico korejskega polotoka, ki si ga deli s komunistično Severno Korejo. Takšna razdelitev je posledica korejske vojne, ki se je končala le se premirjem (Millet, 2004). Država danes spada med gospodarsko razvite, v veliki meri po zaslugi chaebolov. Le-ti, družinsko vodeni poslovni imperiji, predstavljajo tudi del problema, saj mdr. njihovi dolgovi presegajo BDP Južne Koreje (Santander, 2018), prav tako pa so bili vključeni v veliko korupcijskih škandalov. Kljub temu se mednarodno gospodarsko sodelovanje razvija, kar je razvidno tudi iz proste trgovine z Evropsko unijo.

Elementi južnokorejske kulture so, po eni strani, podobni drugim vzhodnoazijskim kulturam (japonski in kitajski), saj se prav tako tradicionalno nanašajo na konfucianizem. Številni koncepti, kot so npr. »obraz« (Gibun), so našli mesto in pomen tudi v korejski kulturi. Prisotna je (tudi na splošno v vzhodnoazijski kulturah) neenakopravnost žensk. Specifike korejske kulture so razvidne tudi s poslovnega vidika (npr. Doctoroff, 2014), predvsem v dokaj izolacionistični drži, ki se kaže tudi v zaprtosti oz. omejeni komunikaciji s pripadniki drugih skupin in tujci (Kim, 2003). Prav tako se pristopi korejskih managerjev v nekaterih razlikujejo od ostalih vzhodnoazijskih managerjev. Lee & Yoshihara (1997) sta tako ugotovila, da se korejski managerji v primeru etičnih konfliktov z osebnimi vrednotami na le-te zanašajo veliko bolj kot japonski managerji.

Bilateralno sodelovanje Južne Koreje s Slovenijo je, posebej v primerjavi z Japonsko in Kitajsko, zelo omejeno. Državi medsebojno nimata stalnih diplomatskih predstavništev, v gospodarskem smislu pa je vrednost korejskih neposrednih investicij skorajda zanemarljiva. Tudi sicer je neposredno gospodarsko sodelovanje omejeno na le nekaj podjetij, tako s korejske kot slovenske strani.

Metode

V okviru magistrskega dela in pripadajoče empirične raziskave zastavljam naslednja raziskovalna vprašanja:

- Kakšni so stereotipi in stopnje etnične distance slovenskih študentov poslovnih ved v odnosu do Vzhodne Azije ter potencialni viri in vzroki za stereotipiziranje?
- Kakšne so razlike izmerjenih stereotipov in etničnih distanc, zaznanih za vzhodnoazijske države?
- Ali se slovenski študenti poslovnih ved strinjajo z in zaznavajo Vzhodno Azijo večinoma preko pozitivnih in nevtralnih ali negativnih pripisanih lastnosti/stereotipov?

Za uspešno izvedbo raziskave oz. študije o stereotipih in etnični distance, izvedene med študenti vodilne ekonomske fakultete (kot bodočimi managerji) v Sloveniji, sem zasnoval vprašalnik, ki vsebuje tako kvalitativne kot kvantitativne prvine. Zaradi zasnove študije je bil potreben fleksibilen pristop k analizi pridobljenih podatkov.

V vprašalnik so vključene metode za navajanje in ocenjevanje stereotipov oz. značilnosti o Kitajcih, Japoncih in Južnih Korejcih, ki so zastopane s prilagojeno metodologijo po Katz in Bralyju (1933) (respondenti navedejo do 4 značilnosti za vsako narodnost ter (Likertovo) lestvico 12 izbranih Andersonovih (1968) pripisanih lastnosti s pozitivnim, nevtralnim in negativnim prizvokom. Pri zasnovi lestvice sem se zgledoval po obstoječih delih s strani mednarodnega poslovanja in socialne psihologije (npr. Burns, Myers in Kakabadse, 1995; Zaidman, 2000; Crisp, Hewstone in Rubin, 2001). Za merjenje etnične distance sem uporabil Bogardusovo (1933) 7-stopenjsko lestvico. V mešani kvantitativni in kvalitativni del vprašalnika sem vključil vprašanja, ki se nanašajo na razumevanje stereotipa kot koncepta, samozaznave uporabe stereotipov do tujcev in potencialne egalitarne perspektive v okviru poslovnih interakcije med Slovenci in tujci.

Pridobljene podatke sem analiziral s programoma Excel in SPSS. Poleg opisne statistike in kvalitativne analize sem opravil tudi faktorsko analizo za lestvico stereotipov, regresijsko analizo z izbranimi potencialnimi viri za pozitivne in negativne stereotipe do Kitajcev, Japoncev in Južnih Korejcev. Poleg tega sem za potrebe boljšega razumevanja rezultatov lestvice stereotipov uporabil še t-teste za opazovanje stopnje strinjanja s posameznimi pripisanimi lastnostmi ter primerjavo parov (multivariatna analiza variance) med rezultati posameznih pripisanih lastnosti za tri narodnosti. Vprašalnik sem, z namenom izogibanja morebitnim jezikovnim oviram pri respondentih, prevedel v slovenščino in ga objavil na spletnem portalu lka.si. Po pridobitvi podatkov sem le-te prevedel v angleščino. Potencialne respondente sem kontaktiral preko elektronske pošte, interesnih skupin na socialnih omrežjih ter osebno. Raziskava je bila izvedena v poznem poletnem semestru študijskega leta 2017/18. Skupno sem prejel 104 uporabne in veljavne odgovore. Za vzorec je značilen večji delež študentk ženskega spola, večina respondentov pa je bila rojena v letih od 1992 do 1995. Le zelo majhen delež respondentov je v preteklih treh letih bil na Kitajskem, Japonskem ali v Južni Koreji.

Rezultati

V sklopu rezultatov je pri etnični distanci slovenskih poslovnih študentov do Kitajcev, Japoncev in Južnih Korejcev prišlo do razlik med vzhodnoazijskimi narodnostmi. Povprečna vrednost v okviru 7-stopenjske lestvice je bila najvišja za Japonce, primerjava parov pa je pokazala, da obstajajo statistično značilne razlike med povprečnimi vrednostmi za Japonce v neposredni primerjavi z vrednostmi za Kitajce in Južne Korejce. Slovenski poslovni študenti med primerjanimi narodnostmi torej kažejo najmanjšo distanco do Japoncev. Glede na frekvence pri posameznih elementih lestvice bi največ študentov (glede na posamezne narodnosti) sprejelo Kitajce kot obiskovalce v državi (visoka stopnja distance), Južne Korejce s podobnim deležem kot obiskovalce ali državljane (relativno visoka stopnja distance), Japonce pa kot osebne prijatelje (druga najnižja stopnja distance).

Pri stereotipih so v sklopu metode po Katz in Bralyju (1933) štiri najbolj zastopane značilnosti oz. stereotipi zelo podobno razporejeni za vse tri narode. Slovenski poslovni

študenti so z najvišjim deležem (vendar razlikami glede na narodnosti) vse tri narodnosti označili kot delavne oz. marljive. V okviru lestvice stereotipov so bile povprečne vrednosti za vse tri narodnosti najvišje pri pozitivnih lastnostih/stereotipih, najnižje pa pri negativnih lastnostih. Vsi trije narodi so bili z največjimi povprečnimi vrednostmi (za posamezne narodnosti) zaznani kot inteligentni (pozitivna lastnost), z najnižjimi pa kot grobi (Kitajci) oz. nevljudni (Japonci in Južni Korejci). T-testi na podlagi povprečnih vrednosti so pokazali visoko stopnjo strinjanja s pozitivnimi in večino negativnih lastnosti, ter nizko stopnjo strinjanja za večino negativnih lastnosti. Primerjava parov je pokazala statistično značilne razlike med nekaterimi vrednostmi pripisanih lastnosti za Japonce in Kitajce ter Japonce in Južne Korejce, medtem ko med vrednostmi za Kitajce in Južne Korejce statistično značilnih razlik ni bilo. Agregatne vrednosti (povprečje povprečnih vrednosti za posamezne lastnosti) so bile za Japonce najvišje pri pozitivnih in nevtralnih lastnostih ter najnižje pri negativnih lastnostih. Analizirani podatki torej kažejo na nekoliko bolj naklonjeno zaznavanje Japoncev v primerjavi s Kitajci in Južnimi Korejci.

V sklopu lestvice stereotipov sem opravil tudi preiskovalno faktorsko analizo, in s pomočjo koeficienta Cronbach alfa identificiral en (notranje zanesljiv) faktor pri lestvici za Kitajce ter po dva pri lestvicah za Japonce in Južne Korejce. V vseh primerih imajo v prvem faktorju značilne vrednosti pozitivni in večina nevtralnih lastnosti, v drugem (za Japonce in Korejce) pa večina negativnih lastnosti. Faktorske vrednosti posameznih lastnosti (npr. »moralistični«, »ozkogledni«) in faktorji so nakazujejo tudi povezave izven konotacij lastnosti, vendar so šibke in nezanesljive.

Pri pregledu ter analiziranju potencialnih vzrokov je najprej razvidno, da velik del respondentov ne razume oz. definira stereotipov v skladu z obstoječimi definicijami. Vseeno del respondentov razume oz. navaja vsaj del konceptov, značilnih za stereotipe. Nadalje, v okviru samozaznave stereotipiziranja do tujcev, večina respondentov meni, da ne uporablja stereotipov v odnosu do tujcev, prepoznane skupine razlogov pa so različne (neprimernost posploševanja do ljudi, potovanje in globalizacija kot faktorji zmanjševanja stereotipov, osebno negativno mnenje o stereotipih). Večina respondentov, ki je sicer priznala uporabo stereotipov, vendar hkrati tudi (zavestno) zmanjševanje le-teh, je kljub temu odgovorila, da ne uporabljajo stereotipov. Poslovni stiki na temelju narodnosti, ki sem jih preverjal preko vprašanja o izbiri sodelavca glede na narodnost, kažejo, da za večino slovenskih poslovnih študentov (v vzorcu) narodnost pri izbiri osebe ni pomembna. Med skupinami razlogov so bile zelo prisotne perspektive egalitarizma, meritokracije (v povezavi z globalizacijo), pa tudi pozitivnih izkušenj s tujci. Za primarne vire, preko katerih pridobivajo dnevne informacije, so najvišji delež s strani respondentov zasedla spletna socialna omrežja, sledijo pa jim spletni portali ter prijatelji in sodelavci.

Za izbrane potencialne vire uporabe stereotipov sem, s pridobljenimi podatki, izvedel tudi regresijske analize z namenom pojasnitve potencialnega vpliva na pozitivne in negativne stereotipe oz. njihove zbirne vrednosti (lestvica stereotipov) za posamezne vzhodnoazijske narode kot odvisne spremenljivke. Med neodvisne spremenljivke uvrstil spol in bivanje v

ciljnih državah (na posamezne narodnosti) v preteklih treh letih kot kontrolni spremenljivki, samoznavo o stereotipiziranju do tujcev, naklonjeno perspektivo do vsaj nekaterih tujih narodnosti ter egalitarno perspektivo do vseh narodov. Spremenljivke sem primerno preoblikoval, kjer je bilo to potrebno.

V okviru regresijskih analiz v primeru pozitivnih stereotipov je bil spol statistično značilen za modele za vse tri vzhodnoazijske narodnosti z negativnim koeficientom (v spremenljivki je imel dominantno vrednost ženski spol, ki torej vpliva na nižjo povprečno vrednost za pozitivnih stereotipe). V modelih Japonce in Južne Korejce je bila s pozitivnimi koeficienti statistično značilna še egalitarna perspektiva. Slednja je bila v primeru regresijskega modela pozitivnih stereotipov do Kitajcev, skupaj z naklonjenostjo do vsaj nekaterih tujih narodnosti, prav tako s pozitivnimi koeficienti, le pogojno značilna. V primeru modela za Japonce je bila z negativnim koeficientom pogojno značilno še bivanje na Japonskem. V regresijskih modelih za negativne stereotipe v primeru le-teh do Japoncev in Južnih Korejcev razen konstant ni bilo statistično značilnih spremenljivk, v primeru Kitajcev pa so bile statistično značilne spol (pozitiven koeficient, torej vpliva na višjo povprečno vrednost za negativne stereotipe), bivanje na Kitajskem (pozitiven koeficient) in egalitarna perspektiva (negativen koeficient), pogojno značilna pa naklonjenost do tujih narodnosti.

Diskusija

Izsledki mojega magistrskega dela prinašajo zaključke in implikacije tako za mednarodno poslovanje (in akademske pristope) kot tudi za socialno psihologijo. Naslavljam jih v teoretičnih, managerskih, ter implikacijah za politike oz. ustvarjalce politik. Med teoretičnimi implikacijami je zagotovo pomembno izpostaviti, da sem z opravljeno regresijsko analizo prikazal pomen egalitarnih ali vsaj meritokratskih perspektiv (s poslovnega vidika) do vseh narodov na povečanje pozitivnih stereotipov, v primeru negativnih stereotipov do Kitajcev pa zmanjšanje le-teh. To je v veliki meri razvidno iz vrednosti regresijskih koeficientov ter njihove statistične značilnosti.

Pri slovenskih poslovnih študentih se je izpostavil tudi pomemben vpliv spola predvsem na pozitivne stereotipe do Kitajcev, Japoncev in Južnih Korejcev, saj, vsaj v okviru regresijskih modelov, študentke ženskega spola lahko izkazujejo nižjo stopnjo strinjanja s pozitivnimi stereotipi kot študenti moškega spola, seveda ob nespremenjenih ostalih pogojih. Ta rezultat je, sicer špekulativno, lahko povezan tudi z izzivi emancipacije žensk v vzhodnoazijski družbi, ki so, kot kaže, znani pri slovenskih poslovnih študentkah.

Metode za merjenje oz. identificiranje stereotipov so sicer na splošno pokazale več oz. višjo stopnjo strinjanja s pozitivnimi in večino nevtralnih lastnosti/stereotipov, kot pa z negativnimi. Stereotipi, skupaj z etnično distanco, kažejo na nekoliko bolj naklonjene zaznave do Japoncev, kar morda lahko pripišem tudi daljši prisotnosti delov japonske kulture (npr. preko proizvodov in storitev) na zahodnih trgih, ki so jim generacije slovenskih poslovnih študentov, vključene v raziskavo, izpostavljene praktično celo življenje.

Kljub razlikam pa rezultati po drugi strani kažejo na podobne zaznave vzhodnoazijskih narodov s strani slovenskih poslovnih študentov. Tako lahko posredno predvidevam, da je kategorizacija za vse tri narode podobna, ali pa so uvrščeni celo skupaj, v kako višjo kategorijo (npr. »Vzhodni Aziji«).

Dodatni pridobljeni podatki v okviru raziskave, kažejo na pomanjkljivo razumevanje stereotipov s strani slovenskih poslovnih študentov, s samoznave uporabe stereotipov pa se izogibanje oziroma manj uporabe enači z neuporabo le-teh. To kaže tudi na prisotnost implicitnih stereotipov. Čeprav morda kontradiktorno, so ti izsledki v skladu z obstoječo literaturo (npr. Moskowitz, 2005; Devine, 1989) saj se ljudje z nizkimi predsodki poskušajo distancirati od le-teh in stereotipov. Hkrati so pri večini slovenskih poslovnih študentov prisotne egalitarne ali meritokratske perspektive do narodnosti, ki so pomembne za uspešna mednarodna poslovna pogajanja. Izziv pa predstavljajo tudi viri pridobivanja informacij s strani slovenskih poslovnih študentov, ki jih v veliki večini predstavljajo socialna omrežja, spletni portali in prijatelji ter sodelavci. Ti lahko vplivajo na še več pristranskosti ter tako vplivajo tudi na zaznave o tujcih.

V sklopu implikacij za ustvarjalce politik poudarjam, da glede na zaznave slovenskih poslovnih študentov obstajajo možnosti za boljše sodelovanje. Večina že obstoječih (poslovnih) iniciativ, državnih in paradržavnih organizacij tako s strani Slovenije, kot tudi vzhodnoazijskih držav, se mora bolj osredotočiti na trenutne in bodoče poslovne priložnosti, ne le na promocijske aktivnosti. S strani Japonske in Kitajske (npr. Konfucijev inštitut) so tovrstne organizacije že prisotne, največ neizkoriščenih priložnosti ima v tem pogledu z vzhodnoazijske strani Južna Koreja, ki skoraj ni prisotna s poslovnimi iniciativami.

Morebitno pristranskost pri zaznavah slovenskih poslovnih študentov o Vzhodni Aziji bi morali nasloviti tako v izobraževalnem sektorju kot tudi že omenjenih organizacijah in iniciativah, kar bi posledično zopet lahko pripomoglo k boljšemu sodelovanju med državami. Prav tako pa lahko prav izzivi s pridobivanjem informacij in določene omejitve (npr. nekatera blokirana socialna omrežja na Kitajskem) s strani bodočih generacij managerjev postavijo deležnike ustvarjanja politik v ospredje, saj jim ponujajo priložnost za vzpostavitev neposrednih kanalov za posredovanje informacij o poslovnih in širših temah.

Pri managerskih implikacijah skupaj z že obstoječo literaturo (Burns, Myers in Kakabadse, 1995; Lowengart in Zaidman, 2003) ugotavljam, da pri nekaterih dimenzijah oz. lastnostih, pomembnih za mednarodno poslovanje, prihaja do razlik v zaznavah slovenskih poslovnih študentov. Te so še posebej razvidne v dimenzijah zaupanja (opisana v Burns, Myers in Kakabadse 1995), ter z druge perspektive (po Lowengart in Zaidman, 2003) dimenzij razmerij, profesionalizma in moči. Prav v teh so slovenski poslovni študenti nekoliko bolj naklonjeni Japoncem, kar nakazuje, da bi na splošno kitajski in korejski managerji morali vložiti nekoliko več navora v vzpostavitev poslovnih razmerij. Glede na primarne vire pridobivanja informacij morajo biti managerji občutljivi pri komuniciranju z zaposlenimi in prenašanju tem, pomembnih za poslovanje.

Slovenska podjetja se morajo zavedati prisotnosti implicitnih stereotipov in specifik socialne kategorizacije ter, tudi v skladu z relativno nizko neposredno izpostavljenostjo vzhodnoazijskim kulturam, ustrezno izobraževati kadre o kulturnih in poslovnih specifikah Vzhodne Azije. Zopet obstaja možnost povezovanja z izobraževalnim sektorjem in ustvarjalci politik, tudi v smislu širših tem, kot je socialna kognicija. Vzhodnoazijski managerji pa morajo v komunikaciji z managerkami, glede na izsledke, najverjetneje bolj poudarjati zavezanost k emancipaciji žensk.

V okviru magistrskega dela priznavam tudi prisotnost omejitev, ki se nanašajo na uporabljene metode pri raziskavi, na primer le pogojno dokazano uporabnost lestvice stereotipov z vnaprej ponujenimi lastnostmi, omejeno osredotočanje na perspektive interakcij v okviru mednarodnega poslovanja ter omejen vzorec, ki posledično ni reprezentativen. V okviru bodočih smeri raziskovanja izpostavljam izvedbo eksperimentalnih študij, replikacije in razširitve mojega prispevka o zaznavah vzhodnoazijskih narodov z vključitvijo dodatnih kulturnih in poslovnih določljivk. Prav tako pozivam k boljšemu sodelovanju raziskovalcev oz. akademikov iz vrst mednarodnega poslovanja ter socialne psihologije za bolj podrobne raziskave o potencialnih vzrokih za uporabo stereotipov.

ZAKLJUČEK

V okviru magistrskega dela sem preučil zaznave o Vzhodni Aziji s strani slovenskih poslovnih študentov. Ugotavljam, da rezultati kažejo na možnost nadaljnega poslovnega sodelovanja z Vzhodno Azijo. Čeprav so se razlike med stereotipi (pri nekaterih ključnih dimenzijah osebnostnih lastnosti za poslovanje) in etnično distanco do posameznih vzhodnoazijskih narodnosti kažejo nekoliko večjo naklonjenost do Japoncev, le-te niso tako fundamentalne. Podobna kategorizacija vzhodnoazijskih narodov ter na splošno omejen stik z vzhodnoazijskimi kulturami kažejo na potrebo po dodatnem izkoristku poslovnih in političnih iniciativ z obeh strani, pa tudi naslavljanje izzivov s strani pridobivanja neobjektivnih informacij, ki so jim lahko slovenski poslovni študenti podvrženi.

Odgovornost za večji interes slovenskih poslovnih študentov, bodočih poslovnih vodij, in manjšo pristranskost pri poslovanju v mednarodnem okolju, torej tudi z Vzhodno Azijo, na eni strani nosijo akademski kadri mednarodnega poslovanja, ki morajo več poudarka nameniti temam in razumevanju procesov socialne kognicije. Na drugi strani (in v sodelovanju z akademsko sfero) pa morajo tudi ustvarjalci politik in zaposlovalci poskrbeti za čim manjšo pristranskost bodočih managerjev, ki pa že kažejo egalitarne perspektive, uvrščene med temelje uspešnega mednarodnega poslovanja.. Vrata za še boljše poslovno sodelovanje z Vzhodno Azijo so odprta, potrebne pa bodo še dodatne študije, vključujoč vzorce slovenskih managerjev, ki bodo pokazale, ali so ta vrata odprta popolnoma ali le na stežaj.

Appendix 2: Study questionnaire

1. Name four associations or personal characteristics in relation to the following nations, that you think of first (e.g., “Slovenians are: diligent”):

Chinese are:

<i>Characteristic 1</i>	
<i>Characteristic 2</i>	
<i>Characteristic 3</i>	
<i>Characteristic 4</i>	

Japanese are:

<i>Characteristic 1</i>	
<i>Characteristic 2</i>	
<i>Characteristic 3</i>	
<i>Characteristic 4</i>	

South Koreans are:

<i>Characteristic 1</i>	
<i>Characteristic 2</i>	
<i>Characteristic 3</i>	
<i>Characteristic 4</i>	

2. Please mark ONE statement (for each nationality) you agree with the most:

I would accept/have Chinese:

<i>excluded from entering my country (1)</i>	
<i>as visitors in my country (2)</i>	
<i>as citizens in my country (3)</i>	
<i>as coworkers in the same occupation (4)</i>	
<i>as neighbors on the same street (5)</i>	
<i>as my personal friends (6)</i>	
<i>as a family member/spouse (7)</i>	

I would accept/have Japanese:

<i>excluded from entering my country (1)</i>	
<i>as visitors in my country (2)</i>	
<i>as citizens in my country (3)</i>	
<i>as coworkers in the same occupation (4)</i>	
<i>as neighbors on the same street (5)</i>	
<i>as my personal friends (6)</i>	
<i>as a family member/spouse (7)</i>	

I would accept/have South Koreans:

<i>excluded from entering my country</i> (1)	
<i>as visitors in my country</i> (2)	
<i>as citizens in my country</i> (3)	
<i>as coworkers in the same occupation</i> (4)	
<i>as neighbors on the same street</i> (5)	
<i>as my personal friends</i> (6)	
<i>as a family member/spouse</i> (7)	

3. In the following set of statements, please mark your level of agreement on the characteristics for the Chinese (5-point scale, 1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree):

Chinese are:

<i>sincere</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>trustworthy</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>impolite</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>moralistic</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>prudent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>rude</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>intelligent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>inoffensive</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>unethical</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>cautious</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>narrow-minded</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>friendly</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)

4. In the following set of statements, please mark your level of agreement on the characteristics for the Japanese (5-point scale, 1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree):

Japanese are:

<i>sincere</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>trustworthy</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>impolite</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>moralistic</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>prudent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>rude</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)

<i>intelligent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>inoffensive</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>unethical</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>cautious</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>narrow-minded</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>friendly</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)

5. In the following set of statements, please mark your level of agreement on the characteristics for the South Koreans (5-point scale, 1- strongly disagree, 5- strongly agree):

South Koreans are:

<i>sincere</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>trustworthy</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>impolite</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>moralistic</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>prudent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>rude</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>intelligent</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>inoffensive</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>unethical</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>cautious</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>narrow-minded</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)
<i>friendly</i>	1 (strongly disagree)	2	3 (nor agree nor disagree)	4	5 (strongly agree)

6. Shortly explain your understanding of the word “stereotype” and how would you define it.

7. Do you perceive yourself as a person who often uses stereotypes, when it comes to foreigners (e.g., to evaluating the foreigners, talking about them...)?

a) Yes

b) No

Why (not)?

8. If you had an opportunity to choose between a Slovenian and a foreign coworker, who would be your choice:

a) Slovenian

b) Foreigner

c) Foreigner, but of a specific nationality

d) It does not matter

Why?

9. What are your primary daily sources of acquiring the information:

a) Web portals (e.g. news portals, blogs)

b) Social networks (e.g. Facebook, Twitter, LinkedIn)

c) TV

d) Radio

e) Friends and coworkers

f) Other (please specify): _____

10. Gender:

a) male

b) female

11. Year of birth: _____

12. Have you been in any of the stated countries in the past 3 years:

China:

a) Yes b) No

If you answered »yes«, please indicate the length of your stay:

1 – Short-term stay (less than or exactly 90 days)

2 – Long-term stay (more than 90 days)

Japan:

a) Yes b) No

If you answered »yes«, please indicate the length of your stay:

1 – Short-term stay (less than or exactly 90 days)

2 – Long-term stay (more than 90 days)

South Korea:

a) Yes b) No

If you answered »yes«, please indicate the length of your stay:

1 – Short-term stay (less than or exactly 90 days)

2 – Long-term stay (more than 90 days)

Appendix 3: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards Chinese

Table 1: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards Chinese

Attribute	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
<i>Positive attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Chinese are: sincere	3.81	4	0.996
Chinese are: trustworthy	3.73	4	0.958
Chinese are: intelligent	4.25	4	0.833
Chinese are: friendly	3.88	4	0.958
<i>Neutral attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Chinese are: cautious	4.02	4	0.914
Chinese are: moralistic	2.43	3	1.139
Chinese are: inoffensive	3.74	4	0.955
Chinese are: prudent	4.05	4	0.852
<i>Negative attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Chinese are: unethical	2.37	2	1.053
Chinese are: impolite	2.30	2	1.060
Chinese are: rude	2.17	2	1.092
Chinese are: narrow-minded	3.23	3	0.997

Source: Own work.

Appendix 4: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards Japanese

Table 2: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards Japanese

Attribute	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
<i>Positive attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Japanese are: sincere	3.91	4	0.915
Japanese are: trustworthy	4.13	4	0.832
Japanese are: intelligent	4.45	5	0.709
Japanese are: friendly	4.01	4	0.887
<i>Neutral attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Japanese are: cautious	3.96	4	0.913
Japanese are: moralistic	2.54	3	1.230
Japanese are: inoffensive	3.90	4	0.950
Japanese are: prudent	4.13	4	0.860
<i>Negative attributes/stereotypes</i>			
Japanese are: unethical	2.04	2	0.835
Japanese are: impolite	1.79	2	0.921
Japanese are: rude	1.91	2	0.893
Japanese are: narrow-minded	3.02	3	1.132

Source: Own work.

Appendix 5: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards South Koreans

Table 3: Descriptive statistics for stereotype scale towards South Koreans

Attribute	Mean	Median	Std. deviation
<i>Positive attributes/stereotypes</i>			
South Koreans are: sincere	3.88	4	0.906
South Koreans are: trustworthy	3.82	4	0.932
South Koreans are: intelligent	4.28	4	0.782
South Koreans are: friendly	3.88	4	0.899
<i>Neutral attributes/stereotypes</i>			
South Koreans are: cautious	3.93	4	0.938
South Koreans are: moralistic	2.65	3	1.147
South Koreans are: inoffensive	3.71	4	0.982
South Koreans are: prudent	3.90	4	0.930
<i>Negative attributes/stereotypes</i>			
South Koreans are: unethical	2.29	2	0.900
South Koreans are: impolite	2.19	2	0.936
South Koreans are: rude	2.27	2	1.026
South Koreans are: narrow-minded	3.25	3	1.077

Source: Own work.

Appendix 6: Pairwise comparisons of mean score differences for stereotype scale attributes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans (SPSS outputs)

Within-Subjects Factors

trustworthy	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_sincere
2	Japanese_sincere
3	South Koreans_sincere

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) sincere	(J) sincere	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-,106	,072	,438	-,281	,070
	3	-,077	,071	,835	-,249	,095
2	1	,106	,072	,438	-,070	,281
	3	,029	,059	1,000	-,114	,172
3	1	,077	,071	,835	-,095	,249
	2	-,029	,059	1,000	-,172	,114

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,021	1,075 ^a	2,000	102,000	,345	,021	2,151	,234
Wilks' lambda	,979	1,075 ^a	2,000	102,000	,345	,021	2,151	,234
Hotelling's trace	,021	1,075 ^a	2,000	102,000	,345	,021	2,151	,234
Roy's largest root	,021	1,075 ^a	2,000	102,000	,345	,021	2,151	,234

Each F tests the multivariate effect of sincere. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

trustworthy	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_trustworthy
2	Japanese_trustworthy
3	South Koreans_trustworthy

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) trustworthy	(J) trustworthy	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.394	,070	,000	-.565	-.223
	3	-,087	,087	,959	-,297	,124
2	1	,394	,070	,000	,223	,565
	3	,308	,083	,001	,105	,510
3	1	,087	,087	,959	-,124	,297
	2	-,308	,083	,001	-,510	-,105

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,251	17,077 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,251	34,154	1,000
Wilks' lambda	,749	17,077 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,251	34,154	1,000
Hotelling's trace	,335	17,077 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,251	34,154	1,000
Roy's largest root	,335	17,077 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,251	34,154	1,000

Each F tests the multivariate effect of trustworthy. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

impolite	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_impolite
2	Japanese_impolite
3	South Koreans_impolite

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) impolite	(J) impolite	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	,510*	,105	,000	,254	,765
	3	,106	,097	,827	-,129	,341
2	1	-,510*	,105	,000	-,765	-,254
	3	-,404*	,093	,000	-,631	-,177
3	1	-,106	,097	,827	-,341	,129
	2	,404*	,093	,000	,177	,631

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,213	13,802 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,213	27,603	,998
Wilks' lambda	,787	13,802 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,213	27,603	,998
Hotelling's trace	,271	13,802 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,213	27,603	,998
Roy's largest root	,271	13,802 ^a	2,000	102,000	,000	,213	27,603	,998

Each F tests the multivariate effect of impolite. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

moralistic	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_moralistic
2	Japanese_moralistic
3	South Koreans_moralistic

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) moralistic	(J) moralistic	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-,106	,094	,783	-,334	,122
	3	-,221	,092	,053	-,444	,002
2	1	,106	,094	,783	-,122	,334
	3	-,115	,083	,509	-,319	,088
3	1	,221	,092	,053	-,002	,444
	2	,115	,083	,509	-,088	,319

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,055	2,956 ^a	2,000	102,000	,057	,055	5,912	,564
Wilks' lambda	,945	2,956 ^a	2,000	102,000	,057	,055	5,912	,564
Hotelling's trace	,058	2,956 ^a	2,000	102,000	,057	,055	5,912	,564
Roy's largest root	,058	2,956 ^a	2,000	102,000	,057	,055	5,912	,564

Each F tests the multivariate effect of moralistic. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

prudent	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_prudent
2	Japanese_prudent
3	South Koreans_prudent

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-,087	,077	,799	-,275	,102
	3	,144	,079	,212	-,048	,336
2	1	,087	,077	,799	-,102	,275
	3	,231*	,086	,025	,022	,439
3	1	-,144	,079	,212	-,336	,048
	2	-,231*	,086	,025	-,439	-,022

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,067	3,672 ^a	2,000	102,000	,029	,067	7,344	,664
Wilks' lambda	,933	3,672 ^a	2,000	102,000	,029	,067	7,344	,664
Hotelling's trace	,072	3,672 ^a	2,000	102,000	,029	,067	7,344	,664
Roy's largest root	,072	3,672 ^a	2,000	102,000	,029	,067	7,344	,664

Each F tests the multivariate effect of prudent. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

rude	Chinese_rude
1	Chinese_rude
2	Japanese_rude
3	South Koreans_rude

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) rude	(J) rude	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	,260	,102	,038	,011	,508
	3	-,096	,113	1,000	-,371	,179
2	1	-,260	,102	,038	-,508	-,011
	3	-,356	,099	,002	-,598	-,114
3	1	,096	,113	1,000	-,179	,371
	2	,356	,099	,002	,114	,598

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,123	7,185 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,123	14,371	,927
Wilks' lambda	,877	7,185 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,123	14,371	,927
Hotelling's trace	,141	7,185 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,123	14,371	,927
Roy's largest root	,141	7,185 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,123	14,371	,927

Each F tests the multivariate effect of rude. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

intelligent	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_intelligent
2	Japanese_intelligent
3	South Koreans_intelligent

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-.202	,065	,007	-.359	-,045
	3	-,029	,052	1,000	-,155	,098
2	1	,202	,065	,007	,045	,359
	3	,173	,065	,026	,016	,331
3	1	,029	,052	1,000	-,098	,155
	2	,173	,065	,026	-,331	-,016

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,091	5,116 ^a	2,000	102,000	,008	,091	10,232	,813
Wilks' lambda	,909	5,116 ^a	2,000	102,000	,008	,091	10,232	,813
Hotelling's trace	,100	5,116 ^a	2,000	102,000	,008	,091	10,232	,813
Roy's largest root	,100	5,116 ^a	2,000	102,000	,008	,091	10,232	,813

Each F tests the multivariate effect of intelligent. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

inoffensive	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_inoffensive
2	Japanese_inoffensive
3	South Koreans_inoffensive

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-,163	,076	,103	-,349	,022
	3	,029	,091	1,000	-,193	,251
2	1	,163	,076	,103	-,022	,349
	3	,192	,100	,175	-,052	,437
3	1	-,029	,091	1,000	-,251	,193
	2	-,192	,100	,175	-,437	,052

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,051	2,751 ^a	2,000	102,000	,069	,051	5,503	,532
Wilks' lambda	,949	2,751 ^a	2,000	102,000	,069	,051	5,503	,532
Hotelling's trace	,054	2,751 ^a	2,000	102,000	,069	,051	5,503	,532
Roy's largest root	,054	2,751 ^a	2,000	102,000	,069	,051	5,503	,532

Each F tests the multivariate effect of inoffensive. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

unethical	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_unethical
2	Japanese_unethical
3	South Koreans_unethical

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^b	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^b	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	,327	,090	,001	,108	,546
	3	,077	,088	1,000	-,138	,292
2	1	-,327	,090	,001	-,546	-,108
	3	-,250	,078	,006	-,440	-,060
3	1	-,077	,088	1,000	-,292	,138
	2	,250	,078	,006	,060	,440

Based on estimated marginal means

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,136	8,004 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,136	16,007	,951
Wilks' lambda	,864	8,004 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,136	16,007	,951
Hotelling's trace	,157	8,004 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,136	16,007	,951
Roy's largest root	,157	8,004 ^a	2,000	102,000	,001	,136	16,007	,951

Each F tests the multivariate effect of unethical. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

cautious	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_cautious
2	Japanese_cautious
3	South Koreans_cautious

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	,058	,104	1,000	-,195	,311
	3	,087	,089	,994	-,129	,302
2	1	-,058	,104	1,000	-,311	,195
	3	,029	,104	1,000	-,223	,281
3	1	-,087	,089	,994	-,302	,129
	2	-,029	,104	1,000	-,281	,223

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,009	,483 ^a	2,000	102,000	,618	,009	,965	,127
Wilks' lambda	,991	,483 ^a	2,000	102,000	,618	,009	,965	,127
Hotelling's trace	,009	,483 ^a	2,000	102,000	,618	,009	,965	,127
Roy's largest root	,009	,483 ^a	2,000	102,000	,618	,009	,965	,127

Each F tests the multivariate effect of cautious. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

narrow-minded	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_narrow-minded
2	Japanese_narrow-minded
3	South Koreans_narrow-minded

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	,212	,116	,211	-,070	,493
	3	-,019	,114	1,000	-,297	,259
2	1	-,212	,116	,211	-,493	,070
	3	-,231	,126	,211	-,538	,076
3	1	,019	,114	1,000	-,259	,297
	2	,231	,126	,211	-,076	,538

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,040	2,129 ^a	2,000	102,000	,124	,040	4,258	,428
Wilks' lambda	,960	2,129 ^a	2,000	102,000	,124	,040	4,258	,428
Hotelling's trace	,042	2,129 ^a	2,000	102,000	,124	,040	4,258	,428
Roy's largest root	,042	2,129 ^a	2,000	102,000	,124	,040	4,258	,428

Each F tests the multivariate effect of narrow-minded. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

Within-Subjects Factors

friendly	Dependent Variable
1	Chinese_friendly
2	Japanese_friendly
3	South Koreans_friendly

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Stereotypes	(J) Stereotypes	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig. ^a	95% Confidence Interval for Difference ^a	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	-,125	,076	,305	-,309	,059
	3	,010	,105	1,000	-,245	,264
2	1	,125	,076	,305	-,059	,309
	3	,135	,077	,255	-,054	,323
3	1	-,010	,105	1,000	-,264	,245
	2	-,135	,077	,255	-,323	,054

Based on estimated marginal means

a. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Noncent. Parameter	Observed Power ^b
Pillai's trace	,050	2,669 ^a	2,000	102,000	,074	,050	5,338	,519
Wilks' lambda	,950	2,669 ^a	2,000	102,000	,074	,050	5,338	,519
Hotelling's trace	,052	2,669 ^a	2,000	102,000	,074	,050	5,338	,519
Roy's largest root	,052	2,669 ^a	2,000	102,000	,074	,050	5,338	,519

Each F tests the multivariate effect of friendly. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a. Exact statistic

b. Computed using alpha = .05

**Appendix 7: Rotated component matrix for the stereotype scale towards Chinese
(SPSS output)**

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	2
Chinese are: sincere	,748	,369
Chinese are: trustworthy	,789	,250
Chinese are: impolite	-,710	,095
Chinese are: moralistic	-,547	-,416
Chinese are: prudent	,784	,239
Chinese are: rude	-,728	,027
Chinese are: intelligent	,737	,085
Chinese are: inoffensive	,742	,177
Chinese are: unethical	-,786	,013
Chinese are: cautious	,560	,464
Chinese are: narrow-minded	-,098	,897
Chinese are: friendly	,775	,213

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

**Appendix 8: Rotated component matrix for the stereotype scale towards Japanese
(SPSS output)**

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
Japanese are: sincere	,809	-,251	,049
Japanese are: trustworthy	,792	-,232	,192
Japanese are: impolite	-,226	,815	,042
Japanese are: moralistic	-,674	,370	-,146
Japanese are: prudent	,711	-,136	-,021
Japanese are: rude	-,439	,770	-,045
Japanese are: intelligent	,675	-,226	,218
Japanese are: inoffensive	,573	-,442	,138
Japanese are: unethical	-,218	,819	-,029
Japanese are: cautious	,306	-,006	,725
Japanese are: narrow-minded	-,029	-,015	,874
Japanese are: friendly	,832	-,269	,061

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations.

Appendix 9: Rotated component matrix for the stereotype scale towards South Koreans (SPSS output)

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component		
	1	2	3
South Koreans are: sincere	,783	-,241	,281
South Koreans are: trustworthy	,830	-,249	-,082
South Koreans are: impolite	-,158	,905	-,162
South Koreans are: moralistic	-,759	,297	-,045
South Koreans are: prudent	,742	-,239	,197
South Koreans are: rude	-,543	,570	,336
South Koreans are: intelligent	,393	-,505	,500
South Koreans are: inoffensive	,587	-,290	-,012
South Koreans are: unethical	-,519	,615	,101
South Koreans are: cautious	,736	-,038	,354
South Koreans are: narrow-minded	,041	,008	,878
South Koreans are: friendly	,793	-,249	-,028

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Appendix 10: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards Chinese)

Table 4: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards Chinese)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.904$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Chinese are sincere - Chinese are trustworthy - Chinese are prudent - Chinese are intelligent - Chinese are cautious - Chinese are inoffensive - Chinese are friendly
Factor 2	- Chinese are narrow-minded

Source: Own work.

Appendix 11: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards Japanese)

Table 5: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards Japanese)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.879$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Japanese are sincere - Japanese are trustworthy - Japanese are prudent - Japanese are intelligent - Japanese are inoffensive - Japanese are friendly
Factor 2 – Negative attributes ($\alpha = 0.824$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Japanese are impolite - Japanese are rude - Japanese are unethical
Factor 3 ($\alpha = 0.498$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Japanese are cautious - Japanese are narrow-minded

Source: Own work.

Appendix 12: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards South Koreans)

Table 6: Factors with significant items and Cronbach's alpha values (stereotype scale towards South Koreans)

Factors	Items
Factor 1 – Positive/Neutral attributes ($\alpha = 0.889$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South Koreans are honest - South Koreans are trustworthy - South Koreans are prudent - South Koreans are inoffensive - South Koreans are cautious - South Koreans are friendly
Factor 2 – Negative attributes ($\alpha = 0.775$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South Koreans are impolite - South Koreans are rude - South Koreans are unethical
Factor 3 ($\alpha = 0.399$)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - South Koreans are intelligent - South Koreans are narrow-minded

Source: Own work.

Appendix 13: Regression analyses - influence of potential sources on positive stereotypes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans (SPSS outputs)

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Chinese

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,376 ^a	,142	,098	,74832

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9,052	5	1,810	3,233	,010 ^b
	Residual	54,878	98	,560		
	Total	63,930	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Chinese

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,846	,252		15,274	,000
	Gender	-,360	,154	-,228	-2,339	,021
	Stay in China	-,433	,315	-,129	-1,375	,172
	Self-perception on stereotyping	-,135	,158	-,082	-,857	,394
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	,480	,279	,226	1,723	,088
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	,445	,225	,259	1,975	,051

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Chinese

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Japanese

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,401 ^a	,161	,118	,67196

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8,500	5	1,700	3,765	,004 ^b
	Residual	44,250	98	,452		
	Total	52,750	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Japanese

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4,079	,226		18,071	,000
	Gender	-,336	,138	-,233	-2,429	,017
	Stay in Japan	-,889	,483	-,171	-1,841	,069
	Self-perception on stereotyping	-,197	,142	-,132	-1,384	,170
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	,402	,250	,209	1,607	,111
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	,451	,203	,290	2,228	,028

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards Japanese

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards South Koreans

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,416 ^a	,173	,130	,68172

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	9,508	5	1,902	4,092	,002 ^b
	Residual	45,545	98	,465		
	Total	55,052	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards South Koreans

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	3,875	,236		16,432	,000
	Gender	-,347	,140	-,236	-2,471	,015
	Stay in South Korea	-,477	,503	-,090	-,948	,345
	Self-perception on stereotyping	-,234	,147	-,153	-1,592	,115
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	,377	,257	,192	1,467	,146
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	,549	,207	,345	2,656	,009

a. Dependent Variable: Positive stereotypes towards South Koreans

Appendix 14: Regression analyses - influence of potential sources on negative stereotypes towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans (SPSS outputs)

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Chinese

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,413 ^a	,171	,129	,66429

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	8,912	5	1,782	4,039	,002 ^b
	Residual	43,246	98	,441		
	Total	52,158	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Chinese

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Stay in China, Gender, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,732	,224		12,224	,000
	Gender	,287	,137	,201	2,103	,038
	Stay in China	,642	,280	,211	2,295	,024
	Self-perception on stereotyping	,020	,140	,013	,142	,887
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	-,486	,247	-,254	-1,964	,052
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	-,497	,200	-,321	-2,488	,015

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Chinese

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Japanese

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,169 ^a	,029	-,021	,64567

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	1,207	5	,241	,579	,716 ^b
	Residual	40,855	98	,417		
	Total	42,062	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Japanese

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in Japan, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,192	,217		10,107	,000
	Gender	,095	,133	,074	,716	,476
	Stay in Japan	,389	,464	,084	,839	,403
	Self-perception on stereotyping	,084	,137	,063	,616	,539
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	,009	,240	,005	,037	,971
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	-,171	,195	-,123	-,877	,383

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards Japanese

Variables Entered/Removed^a

Model	Variables Entered	Variables Removed	Method
1	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations ^b		Enter

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards South Koreans

b. All requested variables entered.

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	,251 ^a	,063	,015	,65224

a. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	2,809	5	,562	1,321	,262 ^b
	Residual	41,691	98	,425		
	Total	44,500	103			

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards South Koreans

b. Predictors: (Constant), Egalitarian perspective towards the nations, Gender, Stay in South Korea, Self-perception on stereotyping, Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	2,494	,226		11,053	,000
	Gender	,174	,134	,132	1,296	,198
	Stay in South Korea	,428	,481	,090	,889	,376
	Self-perception on stereotyping	,165	,140	,120	1,174	,243
	Favorable perspective towards at least some foreign nations	-,129	,246	-,073	-,522	,603
	Egalitarian perspective towards the nations	-,267	,198	-,187	-1,352	,180

a. Dependent Variable: Negative stereotypes towards South Koreans

Appendix 15: Self-perception of Slovenian business students regarding the stereotyping towards foreigners with some representative answers (Question 7)

Table 7: Self-perception on stereotyping towards foreigners with some representative answers

Do you perceive yourself as a person who often uses stereotypes, when it comes to foreigners (e.g. to evaluating the foreigners, talking about them...)	
<i>Yes (34.6 %)</i>	<i>No (65.4 %)</i>
Why (not)?	
<p><i>“Because of the influence of others and the society.”</i></p> <p><i>“A lot of times they [stereotypes] are true.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because they [foreigners] really have some specifics.”</i></p> <p><i>“Everybody has stereotypes. Claiming you don’t have them is a lie.”</i></p> <p><i>“You find yourself in it whether you want it or not.”</i></p> <p><i>“I have prejudices, based on stereotypes, to some nationalities.”</i></p>	<p><i>“When I know a member of a certain group, it is better not to use them [stereotypes].”</i></p> <p><i>“Because every person is different.”</i></p> <p><i>“I travel a lot, I have less and less stereotypes.”</i></p> <p><i>“I try not to, because I know they [stereotypes] create wrong picture”</i></p> <p><i>“Because times are different as they were. Globalization breaks stereotypes.”</i></p> <p><i>“I don’t stand it and don’t allow others to do this with me.”</i></p>

Source: Own work.

Appendix 16: The nationality-based preferred choice of a coworker with some representative answers (Question 8)

Table 8: The preferable nationality-based choice of coworkers with some representative answers

If you had an opportunity to choose between a Slovenian and a foreign coworker, who would be your choice?			
<i>Slovenian (13.5 %)</i>	<i>Foreigner (10.6 %)</i>	<i>Foreigner, but of a specific nationality (5.8 %)</i>	<i>It does not matter (70.2 %)</i>
Why?			
<p><i>“Because I support Slovenians at Slovenian workplaces”.</i></p> <p><i>“We need to take care of our nation first.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because I live in this environment.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because of the same language and customs.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because of easier communication.”</i></p>	<p><i>“A coworker can bring a lot of experience from the other parts of the world, which I find important at work.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because of a new and better experience.”</i></p> <p><i>“They are more hardworking and possibly have more skills and competences.”</i></p>	<p><i>“Because I have a better experience regarding the working habits.”</i></p> <p><i>“Because I had a bad experience with certain nationalities.”</i></p>	<p><i>“Because the nationality does not mark the work abilities of a person.”</i></p> <p><i>“The globalization of the world demands competent people, not choices, based on nationality.”</i></p> <p><i>“It does not matter, as long as a person is good in a field.”</i></p> <p><i>“It depends on the personal characteristics and knowledge of an individual.”</i></p> <p><i>“I currently work in an international team and I have a great time.”</i></p> <p><i>“We need to give an opportunity to everyone.”</i></p> <p><i>“A person is a person.”</i></p>

Source: Own work.

Appendix 17: T-test results for attributes of the stereotype scales towards Chinese, Japanese and South Koreans (SPSS outputs)

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Chinese are sincere	8,271	103	,000	,808	,61	1,00
Chinese are trustworthy	7,782	103	,000	,731	,54	,92
Chinese are impolite	-6,752	103	,000	-,702	-,91	-,50
Chinese are moralistic	-5,081	103	,000	-,567	-,79	-,35
Chinese are prudent	12,546	103	,000	1,048	,88	1,21
Chinese are rude	-7,721	103	,000	-,827	-1,04	-,61
Chinese are intelligent	15,300	103	,000	1,250	1,09	1,41
Chinese are inoffensive	7,904	103	,000	,740	,55	,93
Chinese are unethical	-6,149	103	,000	-,635	-,84	-,43
Chinese are cautious	11,378	103	,000	1,019	,84	1,20
Chinese are narrow-minded	2,360	103	,020	,231	,04	,42
Chinese are friendly	9,413	103	,000	,885	,70	1,07

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
Japanese are sincere	10,182	103	,000	,913	,74	1,09
Japanese are trustworthy	13,782	103	,000	1,125	,96	1,29
Japanese are impolite	-13,417	103	,000	-1,212	-1,39	-1,03
Japanese are moralistic	-3,826	103	,000	-,462	-,70	-,22
Japanese are prudent	13,460	103	,000	1,135	,97	1,30
Japanese are rude	-12,402	103	,000	-1,087	-1,26	-,91
Japanese are intelligent	20,887	103	,000	1,452	1,31	1,59
Japanese are inoffensive	9,698	103	,000	,904	,72	1,09
Japanese are unethical	-11,741	103	,000	-,962	-1,12	-,80
Japanese are cautious	10,741	103	,000	,962	,78	1,14
Japanese are narrow-minded	,173	103	,863	,019	-,20	,24
Japanese are friendly	11,611	103	,000	1,010	,84	1,18

One-Sample Test

	Test Value = 3					
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
					Lower	Upper
South Koreans are ...: sincere	9,953	103	,000	,885	,71	1,06
South Koreans are ...: trustworthy	8,940	103	,000	,817	,64	1,00
South Koreans are ...: impolite	-8,804	103	,000	-,808	-,99	-,63
South Koreans are ...: moralistic	-3,077	103	,003	-,346	-,57	-,12
South Koreans are ...: prudent	9,914	103	,000	,904	,72	1,08
South Koreans are ...: rude	-7,262	103	,000	-,731	-,93	-,53
South Koreans are ...: intelligent	16,687	103	,000	1,279	1,13	1,43
South Koreans are ...: inoffensive	7,389	103	,000	,712	,52	,90
South Koreans are ...: unethical	-8,067	103	,000	-,712	-,89	-,54
South Koreans are ...: cautious	10,146	103	,000	,933	,75	1,12
South Koreans are ...: narrow-minded	2,367	103	,020	,250	,04	,46
South Koreans are ...: friendly	9,918	103	,000	,875	,70	1,05