

1 CHAPTER 5

3 EFFECTUATION SPECTRA IN
5 CHINESE HIGH-TECH
7 ENTREPRENEURSHIP: DOMAIN-
9 SPECIFIC LOGIC ORIENTATIONS
11 AND CROSS-BORDER M&A
13

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17

19 ABSTRACT

21 *As the developing nations grow and experience rapid institutional trans-*
23 *formation, research has begun to investigate the roles of culture, cogni-*
25 *tion and institutional context on entrepreneurship and innovation. This*
27 *chapter aims to advance the entrepreneurial cognition literature by juxta-*
29 *posing entrepreneurial effectuation, domain-specific expertise and ambi-*
31 *guity. By conducting a qualitative study of Chinese high-tech domestic*
and returnee entrepreneurs, the authors propose a spectrum between cau-
sation and effectuation and argue that the entrepreneur's perceived level
of ambiguity may better explain differing logic orientations among

33 [☆] Both authors contributed equally to this chapter.

1 *entrepreneurs, contributing to our understanding of entrepreneurial cog-*
 3 *nitition. The authors theorize that (1) individual actors and the level of*
 5 *institutional development jointly comprise the entrepreneur's logic orien-*
 7 *tation; (2) the level of perceived ambiguity mediates the strategy*
 9 *adopted by high-tech entrepreneurs; (3) the entrepreneur's logic orienta-*
 11 *tion can be regarded as a continual spectrum from effectuation to causa-*
 13 *tion. Finally, the logic orientation concept is applied to the context of*
 15 *cross-border mergers and acquisitions (M&A) from a process perspec-*
 17 *tive and the implications and fit of logic orientation with the stages of*
 19 *cross-border M&A are discussed.*

11 **Keywords:** Entrepreneurial cognition; effectuation; ambiguity; China;
 13 high-tech entrepreneurship; mergers and acquisitions

17 INTRODUCTION

19 Institutional transformations driven by the open door policy and more
 21 recently globalization have had an enormous impact on entrepreneurship
 23 in China (Ahlstrom & Bruton, 2010; Bruton, Ahlstrom, & Obloj, 2008).
 25 Recent developments in entrepreneurship theory range from the individual-
 27 opportunity nexus (Shane, 2003) to effectuation (Sarasvathy, 2001),
 29 transnational entrepreneurship (Drori, Honig, & Wright, 2009) and the
 31 entrepreneur–environment nexus (York & Venkataraman, 2010).
 33 Effectuators can be seen as a subset of entrepreneurs that exhibit a tendency
 35 to control the future, so they do not need to predict it (Sarasvathy, 2001;
 37 Sarasvathy & Dew, 2005a, 2005b, 2007; Sarasvathy, Dew, Velamuri, &
 39 Venkataraman, 2010; Sarasvathy, Kumar, York, & Bhagavatula, 2014). The
 theory of effectuation is still relatively new and this literature stream is just
 beginning to unfold: only a small number of empirical papers exist while the
 theory moves from the novice to an early intermediate stage (Grégoire,
 Corbett, & McMullen, 2011). A burgeoning body of research centers on
 developing or testing the theory of effectuation (Chetty, Ojala, & Leppäaho,
 2015; Ciszewska-Mlinaric, Obloj, & Wasowska, 2016; Dew, Sarasathy,
 Read, & Wiltbank, 2009; Honig & Samuelsson, 2009; Read, Song, & Smit,
 2009; Roach, Ryman, Makani, Kalantaridis, & Kalantaridis, 2016).

39 Currently, most such studies fail to differentiate research subjects by cul-
 tural background. One exception is Chetty et al. (2015), who find evidence

1 from software firms in Finland and New Zealand that entrepreneurs who
3 have existing relationships in foreign markets tend to use effectuation to
5 select and enter foreign markets. Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2010)
7 argue that behavioral science experiments must stop focusing almost exclu-
9 sively on “WEIRD” research subjects (Western, Educated, Industrialized,
11 Rich, and Democratic). Surprisingly, however, to our knowledge, there is
13 almost no study of effectuation in the context of Chinese high-tech entre-
15 preneurs and no such study derives the implications for the M&A process.
17 Therefore, we suggest that Chinese high-tech entrepreneurs may offer an
19 important empirical setting to generate some revealing insights to facilitate
21 theory development from a behavioral science perspective. Madhok and
Keyhani (2012) conceptualized acquisitions as an act of entrepreneurship,
as a competitive catch-up mechanism and way to capture innovation
through opportunity discovery and creation. Utilizing a multi-level
approach, we aim to explore the interaction of insights gained from recent
diverse research streams on entrepreneurial cognition (decision-making
and effectuation), biculturalism (identity integration and cultural frame-
switching), and the entrepreneur’s institutional environment (mainly the
level of institutional development) and their combined impact on high-tech
entrepreneurship and its implications in the context of cross-border M&A.

These aims lead us to explore the following research questions:

- 23 1. Why and when do high-tech entrepreneurs adopt different logic
orientations?
- 25 2. What are the potential determinants for the adopted strategies?
 - 27 a. How can different institutional contexts influence the entrepreneur’s
29 decision about which strategies to employ?
- 31 3. Which decision-making frames should potential entrepreneurs interna-
lize or pursue strategically: causation, effectuation, or a (domain-
specific) mix between both?
- 33 4. Finally, what implications can be derived from entrepreneurial effectua-
tion for cross-border M&As?

33 In this chapter, we propose a conceptual framework underlining the
35 entrepreneur’s chosen strategy. Different theoretical backgrounds are juxta-
37 posed leading to the concept of a continuous spectrum from effectuation to
39 causation. As a metaphor, consider the frequency spectrum in mobile com-
munications: quad-band cellphones are capable of operating nearly world-
wide in different frequency ranges depending on the context in question –
in this case the geographic region and supporting infrastructure. We argue
that effectuation and causation tends not to be demarcated with clear

1 boundary. Entrepreneurs are generally capable of *both* causal and effectual
3 strategies (and patterns of thinking) but the ability to switch between these
5 varies: the choice or mix of logic orientations employed facing a given pro-
7 blem or decision seems to be driven by a combination of individual factors,
9 context, and cultural heritage. As a result, we propose that entrepreneurs
11 favor a particular strategic orientation composed of different proportions of
13 effectuation and causation, pursuing one or the other (or a blend) depend-
15 ing on the decision-making domain in question.¹ It is argued that bicultural
17 integration and cultural frame-switching and related cognitive differences
19 play vital roles in the availability and selection or usage of different logics
21 among entrepreneurs, leading to specific behavioral responses, such as
23 approaches to the integration of acquired innovative high-tech firms.
25

17 THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

19 On the individual level, cognition and culture go hand in hand, and are
21 together responsible for the usage of different decision-making heuristics
23 under uncertainty, in this case effectuation. Drawing on theories and evi-
25 dence from research on bicultural bilinguals, this study differentiates
27 between monocultural Chinese entrepreneurs and those with strong expo-
29 sure to Western logic (coined “*Chinese Argonauts*”) that typically enjoy
31 high standing or respect in Chinese firms for their international experience
33 (Weidenbaum & Hughes, 1996). We review selected literature on institu-
35 tional context and ambiguity, as well as on culture and cognition that,
37 taken together with our empirical evidence, lead to the proposition of a fra-
39 mework that attempts to mirror the complexity and heterogeneity of how
41 entrepreneurs act and think given different perceptions, cultural heritage,
43 institutional environments, and ambiguity. As it is central to the arguments
45 of this chapter, the next section delves more deeply into the theory of
47 effectuation.

35 *Effectuation*

37 Effectuation represents the decision-making employed by expert entrepre-
39 neurs when goals, markets, or products do not exist (at all or fully) in an
41 ambiguous and dynamic decision-making landscape (Sarasvathy, 2001).
43 Beginning with available means and what they can afford to lose,

1 effectuators attempt to control outcomes to avoid or free themselves from
having to predict them. Effectuation is actor-centric (Sarasvathy & Dew,
3 2005). Moreover, Sarasvathy and Dew (2005a) identify the opportunity
creation process as “the result of a series of transformations on the original
5 reality, caused by cognitively bounded and idiosyncratically motivated
agendas trying to solve a variety of problems in a local and contingent
7 fashion” (p. 539). In a study of 27 expert entrepreneurs employing protocol
analysis, Sarasvathy (2001) found that over 63% of the subjects used an
9 effectual logic more than 75% of the time (in contrast to utilizing rational
and predictive “causal” logic).

11 The main principles of effectuation outlined by Sarasvathy are (1) “pilot
in the plane” (the principle that people are behind the wheel together, bor-
13 rowing from stakeholder theory), (2) “bird in hand” (when entrepreneurs
focus on the resources they have at their immediate disposal), (3) “afford-
15 able loss” (when people invest only what they are prepared to lose), (4)
“crazy quilt” (the notion of co-creation), and (5) “lemonade” (when entre-
17 preneurs are continuously prepared for surprises and ambiguity).
Sarasvathy specifies three groups of means that effectuating entrepreneurs
19 start from: who I am (personality and preferences or experience), what I
know (knowledge and memory), and whom I know (social networks and
21 strong or weak links). In addition, effectuators view the future as coming
from what people do for the time being, not from inevitable trends or pre-
23 dication. Effectuation research has now entered into the intermediate stage
that awaits scholarly endeavors to explicate the preliminary testing of new
25 propositions (Perry, Chandler, & Markova, 2012).

This chapter relates especially to the “lemonade” principle and empha-
27 sizes the means groups “who I am” and “whom I know.” Based on both
the sample studied and existing literature, it is argued that the entrepre-
29 neur’s logic orientation in a given context is critical to his or her ability to
embrace surprise (and thus ambiguity both from the perspective of the
31 unknown nature of outcome alternatives as well as the unknown probabili-
ties of a presumably known set of outcomes) and that this ability varies
33 with who the entrepreneur is, which is at least in part culturally determined
 (“who I am,” following Sarasvathy’s categorization scheme). As will be dis-
35 cussed, different institutional environments influence the usefulness of the
entrepreneur’s social networks (the set of means Sarasvathy describes as
37 “whom I know”) and it is later argued that the cultural diversity of the
entrepreneurial team influences the firm’s approach toward ambiguity.
39 First, a brief overview of expertise and how it relates to the entrepreneur’s
decision-making and strategic orientation is provided.

Domain-Specific Expertise

1
3 Experts are individuals who possess a high level of individual competence
5 in a given domain, due largely to length and breadth of experience
7 (Foley & Hart, 1992). Researchers have also found that domain expertise
9 improves to the ability to construct complex cognitive representations of
11 uncertain and dynamic decision tasks, which in turn results in improved
13 decision performance (Charness, 1991; Macdonald, Hannah, & Ounis,
15 2008; Wiggins & O'Hare, 1995). Experts “know more” (Fiet, 2002) and
17 employ different cognitive processes compared to novices (Adelson, 1984;
19 Dew, Read, Sarasvathy, & Wiltbank, 2009; Gustafsson, 2006). Further,
21 expertise seems to reduce behavioral bias in the face of decision-making
23 uncertainty (Kaustia, Alho, & Puttonen, 2008). However, too much exper-
25 tise with an extremely strong geographical or industry focus could lead to
27 restricted vision regarding opportunities in other industries or areas; con-
29 sider the phenomenon of *Fachidioten* which is German for “subject-matter
idiots,” a negatively connoted term used to denote extreme subject-matter
experts, people whose views are so narrow, they can be restricted to a cer-
tain subject and do not want to look left or right but only straight ahead.²
Thus there is room for debate and research in entrepreneurship and
management science regarding the potential benefits and drawbacks as
well as the direction of causality of subject-matter expertise and behavioral/
decision-making biases. Another central aspect of strategy and decision-
making is the concept of uncertainty and ambiguity; we attempt to
articulate the various notions of ambiguity and uncertainty from the points
of view of management and cognitive neuro-science leading us to take a
rather broad view of the construct, with the goal of understanding how entre-
preneurs in rapid environments (such as Silicon Valley) interact with ambigu-
ity and uncertainty given their logic orientations at a given point in time.

Perceived Level of Ambiguity

31
33 Knightian uncertainty in economics (Knight, 1921) is a relatively narrow
35 concept that essentially describes unknown risks or more precisely
37 unknown probabilities of outcomes, as in the case of the Ellsberg Urn.
39 Ellsberg demonstrated experimentally that people are ambiguity averse to
differing degrees; thus, most people tend to prefer certain outcomes to
uncertain gambles, even if both have the same expected value (Ellsberg,
1961). In economics therefore, ambiguity usually refers to Knightian

1 uncertainty. Both Knight and Ellsberg apply an old concept, that of
 2 predictable versus unpredictable variation, to decision-making (Deming,
 3 1975; Keynes, 1921; Leibniz, 1703). In management theory, psychology
 4 and neuro-science, more multi-dimensional concepts of uncertainty and
 5 ambiguity that better reflect environmental and cognitive decision-making
 6 complexity are commonplace and the concepts remain “fuzzy” and difficult
 7 to disentangle. One study unpacks uncertainty as a multi-dimensional con-
 8 struct composed of state, effect, and response types of uncertainty
 9 (Milliken, 1987) to investigate the relationship between uncertainty and
 10 entrepreneurial action (McKelvie, Haynie, & Gustavsson, 2011) (Table 1). AU:2

11 The authors find that the “type” of uncertainty matters, and that entre-
 12 preneurs make different decisions with regard to exploitation of opportu-
 13 nities depending on the type of uncertainty involved in the process
 14 (McKelvie et al., 2011). Milliken differentiates between three types of
 15 uncertainty that decision-makers experience: state, effect, and response
 16 uncertainty. State uncertainty is the inability to predict how the compo-
 17 nents of the environment (states of the world) are changing. The effect

19 **Table 1.** Overview of Uncertainty and Ambiguity in Economic and
 20 Business Literature.

21 Authors	22 Research Focus	23 View of Uncertainty
24 Milliken (1987)	Types of uncertainty	Differentiation between <i>state</i> , <i>effect</i> , and <i>response</i> types of uncertainty
25 Eisenhardt (1989)	Executive decision-making (DM) in high- velocity industries	Leads to difficulty to reach decisions
26 Kahnemann and Tversky (1992)	General DM process	Defined as source- dependent variable
27 Boulding et al. (1994)	DM process	Must be deconstructed
28 Papadakis et al. (1998)	DM framework	Both external and internal
29 and Elbanna and Child (2007)		
30 Hsu et al. (2005)	Neural circuitry of ambiguity and risk	Internal variable in form of uncertain DM probabilities
31 McKelvie et al. (2011)	Interpretations of uncertainty	Multi-dimensional construct
32 Burghart, Epper, and Fehr (2015)	Ambiguity and ambiguity attitudes	Multi-dimensional construct (“ambiguity triangle”)

AU:3

1 uncertainty describes the inability to predict how changes in the environ-
2 ment will influence the firm (firm outcome uncertainty, i.e., performance,
3 success, failure, etc.). Finally, response uncertainty describes a lack of
4 information regarding potential response options given a changing environ-
5 ment and the inability to predict the likely consequences of a chosen
6 response. In Milliken's model, the types of uncertainty can be distinguished
7 by the nature of the information shortage represented by each type
8 (Milliken, 1987). A recent study utilizing the three different types of uncer-
9 tainty found out the culture influences on the way entrepreneur deals with
10 uncertainty in the context of supplier-entrepreneur relationship (Liu &
11 Almor, 2016). Finally, a working paper by Burghart et al. (2015) examines
12 the links between expected utility theory and revealed preferences for (or
13 against) ambiguity; the authors find preference heterogeneity among 60%
14 of research subjects concerning their attitude toward uncertainty, lending
15 weight to the notion that uncertainty should be viewed as a multi-
16 dimensional phenomenon.³

17 In this study, the notion of uncertainty is transposed to perceived ambi-
18 guity, which can be influenced by both individual-level and institutional-
19 level factors, while the perceived ambiguity itself plays the role of a
20 mediator in entrepreneurial decision-making.⁴ Further, the role of percep-
21 tion as a mediator between actual ambiguity and that which is perceived
22 by the entrepreneur is emphasized. Sitkin and Weingart differentiate
23 between risk perceptions and risk propensity (Sitkin & Weingart, 1995),
24 drawing on prospect theory (Kahneman & Tversky, 1979) which suggests
25 that the framing of decisions impacts the perceived risk, specifically that
26 negatively framed risk probabilities are perceived as weighing more than
27 those positively or neutrally framed. This differentiation seems to find
28 support in neuro-economics (De Martino, Kumaran, Seymour, & Dolan,
29 2006), De Martino et al. find a strong role for the emotional system in the
30 brain in mediating decision biases in their fMRI⁵ study. In a related
31 study, Tom, Fox, Trepel, and Poldrack (2007) find support for prospect
32 theory (hereafter PT) and attempt to map-related factors to areas of the
33 brain. While it is not yet clear how accurate the predictions of PT are as
34 neuro-economics is still in its early footsteps as a field, the vital role of
35 perception or framing as a mediating factor is becoming increasingly clear.
36 While most research on decision-making and the brain continues to study
37 subjects with a single nationality and cultural background, at least a
38 few studies have begun to explore the role of culture in cognition, which
39 strikes the authors as highly relevant to understanding different strategic
orientations among entrepreneurs with varying degrees of exposure to

1 Western and Chinese cultures and decision-making styles, such as bilin-
3 guals or expatriates.

5 *Culture and Cognition*

7 Mitchell defines entrepreneurial cognitions as: “the knowledge structures
9 that people use to make assessments, judgments, or decisions involving
11 opportunity evaluation and venture creation and growth” (Mitchell et al.,
13 2002). According to Duening, recently studied cognitive biases common to
15 the way entrepreneurs think include the “law of small numbers,” “reason-
17 ing by analogy,” and “overconfidence” (Balcetis, Dunning, & Miller, 2008).
19 In addition, entrepreneurs have different cognitive heuristics (mental
21 habits) which aid them in governing risk and ambiguity and in overcoming
23 failures. This cognitive strategy selection process is believed to occur in
25 individuals largely at the sub-conscious level (Zuk & Carpendale, 2007).

17 In this chapter, we argue that national culture, which includes norms,
19 language and symbols, and rituals or patterns of behavior, has a major
21 impact on cognition: from reasoning styles (Ketay, Aron, & Hedden, 2009;
23 Norenzayan, Smith, Kim, & Nisbett, 2002) to perception and visual atten-
25 tion (Boduroglu, Shah, & Nisbett, 2009; Ketay et al., 2009). Such research
27 often utilizes less controversial variables from established intercultural fra-
29 meworks such as “individualism versus collectivism” (Hofstede & Bond,
31 1984)⁶ and “high-context versus low-context” (Hall, 1966; Hall & Hall,
33 1990) which both have implications for decision-making heuristics and strategies under uncertainty (Chen & Li, 2005). Chen and Li find that Chinese
35 people in their study make less cooperative decisions than Australians in
37 mixed-motive business situations in which no formal or informal sanction
39 systems are in place and that the nation effects on cooperative decision-
making are partly mediated by individual cultural orientation.

31 In general, while individual identity-driven, low-context national cul-
33 tures such as the United States and Australia emphasize causality, whereas
35 high-context, collectivist cultures utilize more holistic approaches which
37 seem to place greater emphasis on contextual variables. The “logical” or
39 causative reasoning style following the ancient Greeks is widespread in
Western Europe, Australia, and the United States, whereas people in Asian
countries seem to approach reasoning from an entirely different perspec-
tive: in China, for instance, dialectical reasoning is common, which seems
to be a more holistic approach to strategic decision-making. Varnum and
colleagues find that when comparing Chinese and American subjects,

1 Chinese prefer dialectic arguments, while Americans prefer more “linear,”
2 logical arguments (Varnum, Grossmann, Nisbett, & Kitayama, 2008).

3 These differences find support in recent cross-cultural, neuro-scientific
4 studies: a large-scale study by Henrich and colleagues finds that low-level
5 perceptual processing and spatial cognition differs considerably between
6 Western versus non-Western and industrial versus small-scale societies
7 (Henrich et al., 2010). This finding lends credence to the argument that
8 both cultural differences (such as common levels of cooperation and the
9 degree a culture values money as an end as opposed to as a means) and dif-
10 ferences in the level of institutional development of a geographic region
11 play major roles in decision-making and strategic orientations. Further
12 support for such differences can be found in neuro-scientific studies. For
13 instance, a transcultural neuro-imaging study demonstrated that one’s
14 cultural background can influence the neural activity that underlies both
15 high- and low-level cognitive functions (Han & Northoff, 2008). Park and
16 colleagues go even further in the journal *Nature*, demonstrating strong evi-
17 dence that “Culture Wires the Brain,” focusing on substantial differences
18 found between Westerners and East Asians in focal object processing,
19 attention, and categorization (Park & Huang, 2010).

20 Two studies on affect and reasoning find links between positive versus
21 negative affect and adherence to cultural norms and reasoning styles,
22 that is, analytic versus holistic (Ashton-James, Maddux, Galinsky, &
23 Chartrand, 2009; Koo, Clore, Kim, & Choi, 2012). Others report that
24 cognitive structures derived from organizational identity and cued by
25 strategic frames influence salience of an issue among managers (Bundy,
26 Shropshire, & Buchholtz, 2013). Novaes studies culture-task alignment in
27 firms and finds that when culture and tasks align, performance tends to be
28 higher (Novaes, 2013), replicating previous findings on corporate culture.
29 Woo and colleagues show that cultures differ on openness to experience
30 (Woo et al., 2014), with implications for opportunity recognition. Finally, a
31 recent study examines expatriate adaptation during early phases of interna-
32 tional assignments (Firth, Chen, Kirkman, & Kim, 2014) (Table 2).

33 Given these major – and as yet poorly understood – differences in rea-
34 soning, it can be argued that national culture and resulting tendencies to
35 decide and act according to certain dominant patterns in a given context
36 must indeed be instrumental in determining an individual entrepreneur’s
37 logic orientation. It further seems likely that an individual should be cap-
38 able of different reasoning styles to some degree, much like a person may
39 have different moods evoked by a certain situational context. Thus, one
40 should generally be capable of using differing reasoning styles given a

Table 2. Overview of Recent Studies on Culture and Cognition.

Authors	Research Focus	Key Arguments
Han and Northoff (2008)	Cognitive neuro-science	Cultural background found to influence both low- and high-level cognition: need for a transcultural approach to neuro-imaging
Henrich, Heine, and Norenzayan (2009)	Norms, behavior and decision-making in small-scale versus industrial societies	Differences in spacial and low-level cognition: need for cross-cultural differentiation in subject-pools
Ashton-James et al. (2009)	Affect and reasoning	Find that positive affect allows individuals to explore novel thoughts and behaviors that depart from cultural constraints, whereas negative affect binds people to cultural norms
Park and Huang (2010)	Cognitive neuro-science	Differences in focal object processing and attention allocation: culture “wires” the brain
Koo et al. (2012)	Affect and reasoning	Find that, using a global-local processing task and inclusion and exclusion tasks, in happy (compared to sad) moods, Koreans engage in more holistic reasoning, whereas Americans engaged in more analytic reasoning
Bundy et al. (2013)	Issue salience among managers	Study how a firm’s cognitive structures of organizational identity and strategic frames use different core logics to influence managerial interpretation of an issue as salient
Novaes (2013)	Culture-task alignment	Find when culture and task align, there is a performance gain from an activity
Firth et al. (2014)	Expatriates	Study expatriate adaptation during early phases of international assignments
Woo et al. (2014)	Culture and learning	Show that cultures differ on openness to experience
Oyserman (2015)	Culture and cognition	Propose culture as situated cognition theory (CSC)

1 certain task, situation, and environment. It also seems likely that individuals have tendencies toward (or preferences for) a certain mixed strategy
3 of reasoning styles available to them in their personal reasoning set at a given moment in time, due largely to their upbringing in a certain culture
5 (i.e., beliefs and genetic markers of social sensitivity, see, e.g., Chiao & Blizinsky, 2010). In this section and the analysis that follows, the concept
7 of mixed strategies from game theory is borrowed purely in a loose sense as a metaphor about how to think about the strategy selection process, that
9 is, entrepreneurs are not necessarily trying to make their competitors indifferent about their pure strategies and may not even be consciously aware of
11 which logical heuristics (or strategic orientations) they are utilizing in a given situation. In light of these findings, the authors differentiate in the
13 sample between different types of Chinese entrepreneurs, based on their exposure to Western culture and decision-making practices and then
15 further develop the link to the level of institutional development and the entrepreneur's resulting logic orientation.

17

19 *Chinese Argonauts versus Domestic Chinese Entrepreneurs*

21 Recent studies emphasize the danger of oversimplification and the importance of examining the degree of entrepreneurial heterogeneity (Honig &
23 Samuelsson, 2009). Weidenbaum and Hughes (1996) argue that expatriate entrepreneurs are creating a new superpower in Asia. In this study, these
25 notions are used as an inspiration and differentiate between globalized entrepreneurs (i.e., *Chinese Argonauts*) with strong exposure to western
27 logic and institutional environments and *domestic Chinese entrepreneurs* with more traditional orientations as significant differences in cognitive
29 framing and perception are assessed regarding opportunity recognition and the pursuit of opportunities. Expatriates are people temporarily or perma-
31 nently residing in a country and culture other than that of the person's upbringing. The term *Argonauts* (the Argonauts were sailing heroes in
33 Greek mythology) here refers to a subgroup of these – the expert entrepreneurs among the expatriates.

35

37 *Institutional Context*

39 Institutional environments in emerging economies differ greatly from those of established economies with various implications for entrepreneurship

1 (Ahlstrom & Bruton, 2010; Bruton, Ahlstrom, & Li, 2010). Here, it is
3 important to distinguish between formal and informal institutions as there
5 is a major difference between what some large groups in a particular society
7 understand as *legalized* (and legitimized) by laws and regulations and what
9 they consider to be *legitimized* (but not legalized) by norms, values, and
11 beliefs – the informal institutional boundaries (Dowling & Pfeffer, 1975).
13 Entrepreneurs “... rely on cooperative groups to recognize and exploit
15 opportunities in the informal economy” (Webb, Tihanyi, Ireland, &
17 Sirmon, 2009). Webb and colleagues argue that collective identity plays a
19 major role in how entrepreneurs pursue opportunities through formal versus
21 informal institutions. Further, they argue that different types of entre-
23 preneurs are attracted to the resulting informal versus formal economies.⁷

13 Puffer and his colleagues argue that informal institutions, such as Blat,
15 Guanxi, and trust, play critical roles in filling institutional voids, such as
17 missing property rights protection and enforcement (Puffer, McCarthy, &
19 Boisot, 2010). This parallels the idea of structural holes in network theory
21 (Burt, 1995). Puffer et al. (2010) emphasize that in the foreseeable future
23 the institutional environment in China will differ from the form preminent
25 in today’s western world, due to deep Chinese social and cultural roots.
27 Institutions in the BRICs are facing fast-paced changes in transitional
29 environments that involve high degrees of uncertainty and change, while
31 entrepreneurs in established economies can rely on a relatively certain
33 environmental and market stability (i.e., the political, legal, and financial
35 environments are established and largely stable and norms and routines are
37 often deeply rooted). Recent field-based survey research suggests that a
39 dominant logic characterized by (1) external orientation, (2) proactiveness,
and (3) simplicity of routines significantly influence the performance of
entrepreneurial firms in emerging economies (Obloj, Obloj, & Pratt, 2010).

29 Within one emerging economy, the regional differences can manifest the
31 variations of institutional contexts. The development phases of marketiza-
33 tion and industrialization differ greatly across regions (Redfern &
35 Crawford, 2010). A recent study profiles this variation in comparing two
37 Chinese high-tech parks (Liu, 2011). The National Economic Research
39 Institute (NERI) Index of Marketization for China’s Provinces has
been developed to track marketization development over time (Ganga,
Xiaolua, & Guangrongb, 2011). Marketization has made progress with
remarkable achievement in the non-state enterprise sector (Wang, Fan, &
Zhu, 2007). A survey study of 2,854 respondents from 20 Chinese cities
demonstrates the strong role of the institutional environment as a key
determinant of entrepreneurial decision-making in China (Lu & Tao,

1 2010). Most recently, effectuation scholars highlight that the realm of inter-
2 national entrepreneurship might offer the opportunity to move inquiry on
3 effectuation forward (Sarasvathy et al., 2014).

4 Further, a comparative study of business systems investigates the rela-
5 tionship between institutional elements and entrepreneurial cognition (Lim,
6 Morse, Mitchell, & Seawright, 2010). It is argued that founder perceptions
7 of an ambiguous institutional environment determine the variance in choice
8 of organizational form for social entrepreneurial ventures (Townsend &
9 Hart, 2008). In line with this argument, the framework presented in this
10 chapter generalizes this notion: it argues that individuals and institutional
11 contexts each can be seen as pursuing a (domain-specific) mixed logic
12 orientation moderated by the degree of perceived ambiguity involved in the
13 decision-making process.

15

Biculturalism and Bicultural Identity Integration

17

18 Bicultural individuals are individuals who identify with two or more dis-
19 tinct cultures because of having internalized more than one set of cultural
20 schemas (Brannen & Thomas, 2010). A cultural schema is a socially con-
21 structed cognitive system that represents one's knowledge about values,
22 attitudes, beliefs, and behavioral assumptions of a culture as well as the
23 relations among these attributes (Fiske & Taylor, 1984). Bicultural employ-
24 ees and managers are a growing demographic due to globalization and play
25 an important role in boundary spanning of organizations (Brannen &
26 Thomas, 2010). An influential bidimensional model studying acculturation,
27 Berry (1990) suggests distinct patterns of assimilation (identification with
28 mainstream culture only), integration (identification with both cultures),
29 separation (identification with culture of origin only), or marginalization
30 (lack of identification with either culture). This framework has been utilized
31 as a basis for studying biculturals equating integration with biculturalism
32 (Nguyen & Benet Martínez, 2007). Further, scholars (Bochner, 1982) have
33 argued that marginals have bicultural competence such that they alternate
34 between two cultures that are perceived as having salient but mutually
35 incompatible norms.

36 Research on bicultural identity integration (hereafter, "BII") has
37 extended the understanding of bicultural individuals to show how the
38 degree of integration of bicultural identities relates to behavioral, cognitive,
39 and other psychological variables. In Table 3, we provide an overview of
40 literature streams on bicultural identity integration. In general, individuals

Table 3. Overview of Literature on Bicultural Identity Integration.

Authors	Research Focus	Key Arguments
Bochner (1982)	Biculturals	Marginals have bicultural competence, alternate between two cultures that are perceived as having salient but mutually incompatible norms
Berry (1990)	Bidimensional model studying acculturation	Distinct acculturation patterns of <i>assimilation</i> (identification with mainstream culture only), <i>integration</i> (identification with both cultures), <i>separation</i> (identification with culture of origin only), or <i>marginalization</i> (lack of identification with either culture)
Nguyen and Benet Martínez (2007)	Biculturals	Following Berry's framework (1990), equate integration with biculturalism
Benet Martínez and Haritatos (2005)	Bicultural identity integration (BII)	High BII may allow individuals to be more effective in appropriately employing their cultural knowledge in specific contexts
Cheng et al. (2008)	BII among Asian-Americans	High BII Asian-Americans come up with more innovative ideas (creative fluency and originality)
Brannen, Garcia, and Thomas (2009)	Identity conflicts	Degree of conflict between cultural identities is positively correlated with a self-report of a higher order cognitive skill called <i>cultural metacognition</i>
Hong, Wan, No, and Chiu (2007)	Identity negotiation	Integration, in which elements from multiple cultures fuse into a <i>unitary</i> (multicultural) identity, alternation, which involves switching among cultural identities according to context and synergy, in which new identities emerge which cannot be reduced to the sum of their parts
Tadmor and Tetlock (2009)	Cognitive complexity	Biculturals not only develop more complex cultural representations, but also they seem to develop increased cognitively complexity across domains
Brannen (2010)	Biculturals	Bicultural employees and managers play a role in boundary spanning; growing demographic due to globalization
Mok and Morris (2010)	Creativity	High BII helps cross-cultural creativity performance
Friedman et al. (2012)	Biculturals	in Taiwan, cultural frame-switching occurs only among managers with both foreign experience and high BII

Table 3. (Continued)

Authors	Research Focus	Key Arguments
Mok and Morris (2012)	BII among Asian-Americans	Examine Asian-Americans and view BII as a global processing style, that can be enhanced by situational/environmental cues
Fitzsimmons (2013)	Multicultural employees	Theorize about how multicultural employees contribute to organizations
Lakshman (2013)	Culture and attribution	study the link between cross-cultural leadership effectiveness and attributional complexity
Lücke, Kostova, and Roth (2013)	Management of multinational corporations (MNCs)	Use connectionism perspective to explain how sociocultural experiences interact with existing individual cognitions to form different patterns of multiculturalism yielding differential managerial effectiveness
Molinsky (2013)	Cultural frame-switching	Describe the underlying psychological processes of cultural retooling as they relate to management and the workplace
Mok and Morris (2013)	Biculturals/ decision-making	Assimilation for high BII applies to consumer information-seeking and decision-making
Saad et al. (2013)	Creativity	Greater bicultural identity blendedness predicts domain-general creativity in bicultural but not in monocultural contexts, mediated by ideational fluency
Chand and Tung (2014)	Biculturals/ investment behavior	Cultural boundary spanners are more likely to invest in their country of origin
Burks, Karlesky, and Lee (2015)	Identity conflict	Psychological bricolage, the process through which an individual integrates previously unrelated knowledge to create novel solutions
Aydinli and Bender (2015)	Biculturals/acculturation	Culture can be primed and therefore is more than a categorical variable that is stable over situations, but rather dynamic
Wry and York (2015)	Identity and social enterprise	How different BIIs perceive the conflict between social and commercial goals and recognize and develop social enterprise opportunities

35

37 that score highly on the overall BII measure perceive their two identities as
 39 largely compatible and complimentary, while those who show lower values
 on BII feel caught between their two cultural identities and prefer to keep
 them separate. In later work, BII has been shown to be composed of two

1 components: cultural blendedness and cultural harmony (Benet Martínez &
2 Haritatos, 2005). Research has shown that high BII can allow individuals
3 to be more effective in appropriately utilizing their cultural knowledge in
4 specific contexts. In one study, high BII Asian-Americans came up with
5 more innovative (in terms of creative fluency and originality) fusion restau-
6 rant dishes than did low BII Asian-Americans (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks, &
7 Lee, 2008; Sanchez-Burks, Karlesky, & Lee, 2015). The authors find that
8 high bicultural identity integration (BII) moderates the effect of attribution
9 (the process of how individuals explain the causes of behavior and events)
10 such that attributions are congruent with cultural norms, while low BII
11 participants exhibit a reverse effect. Burks, Karlesky, and Lee define psy-
12 chological bricolage as the process through which an individual integrates
13 previously unrelated knowledge to create novel solutions –This bricolage is
14 facilitated when individuals can integrate social identities that are often
15 considered separate (Sanchez-Burks et al., 2015). A separate study investi-
16 gates how BII effects creative performance and finds that high BII is help-
17 ful for cross-cultural creativity (Mok & Morris, 2010). In a follow-up
18 experimental study with Asian-American subjects, the authors find that BII
19 can be viewed as a global (cognitive) processing style that can be enhanced
20 by situational or environmental cues (Mok & Morris, 2012), Friedman and
21 colleagues study attribution patterns among Taiwanese managers who have
22 both worked and studied abroad and specifically, in which situations over-
23 seas experience changes how managers with foreign experience think. They
24 find that cultural frame-switching only occurs among managers with both
25 foreign experience and high BII (Friedman, Liu, Chi, Hong, & Sung, 2012).

26 In contrast to the cultural integration perspective, which finds positive
27 affects of BII on frame-switching for some individuals and not for others,
28 research on identity conflicts finds positive affects of multiculturalism on a
29 more general level: Brannen et al. (2009), for example, find that the degree
30 of conflict between cultural identities was positively correlated with self-
31 report of a higher order cognitive skill called cultural metacognition. Thus,
32 those biculturals who confront the most difficult time dealing with or inte-
33 grating their cultural identities may develop higher levels of certain skills
34 and are ultimately more effective in a variety of cross-cultural contexts.
35 Hong and colleagues identify three modes of identity negotiation that indi-
36 viduals seem to use over the course of their lives (Hong et al., 2007). These
37 are labeled *integration*, in which elements from multiple cultures fuse into a
38 unitary (multicultural) identity, *alternation*, which involves switching
39 among cultural identities according to context and *synergy*, in which new
40 identities emerge which cannot be reduced to the sum of their parts.

1 Biculturals not only develop more complex cultural representations, but
2 they also seem to develop increased cognitive complexity across domains
3 (Tadmor & Tetlock, 2009). Studies indicate that biculturals bear certain
4 characteristics, such as greater empathy (Brannen et al., 2009), flexibility
5 (Chiu & Hong, 2005), and the ability to integrate ideas in more novel and
6 creative ways (Leung & Chiu, 2010). Wry and York extend the identity-
7 based approach to social enterprises and study how managers with differ-
8 ent levels of BII perceive the goal conflict between welfare and commercial
9 goals (Wry & York, 2015). Mok and Morris find that high BII may affect
10 consumer information-seeking and decision-making (Mok & Morris, 2013).
11 Chand and Tung study subjects from the Indian diaspora in Canada and
12 the United States who have spent at least four years in their country of resi-
13 dence (rather than country of origin) and find that cultural distance and
14 cultural conflict and their interaction have a significant impact on economic
15 engagement behaviors such as trade and investment: cultural boundary
16 spanners are more likely to invest in their country of origin (Chand &
17 Tung, 2014). Lücke and colleagues employ a connectionism perspective to
18 explain how specific sociocultural experiences interact with existing indi-
19 vidual cognitions to form different patterns of multiculturalism yielding dif-
20 ferential managerial effectiveness depending on the task involved in
21 managing MNCs: global integration of dispersed operations, cross-border
22 transfer of management practices, and learning across different environ-
23 nments (Lücke et al., 2013). Finally, Aydinli and Bender note that culture
24 can be primed and therefore it is necessary to perceive culture as more than
25 a categorical variable that is stable over situations, but rather dynamic,
26 that is, domain-specific, situated, and constructed over time (Aydinli &
27 Bender, 2015).⁸

AU:4

29

METHODS

31

Research Design

33 To examine the interplay of effectuation and causation logics in the
34 Chinese high-tech sector and the resulting strategies employed, we adopted
35 a qualitative research approach, as both the research stream on ambiguity
36 in entrepreneurs' decision-making and on testing the theory of effectuation
37 are still in the emerging phase (Bansal & Corley, 2011; Edmondson &
38 McManus, 2007). This stage calls for methods that allow us to explore the
39 phenomenon in depth and to capture a large degree of contextual informa-
tion missing from most quantitative studies. Further, international business

1 (IB) scholars urge researchers to (re)apply qualitative methods in interna-
2 tional studies (Birkinshaw, Brannen, & Tung, 2011). The empirical sample
3 studied in this chapter contains overseas high-tech entrepreneurs who can
4 be characterized as biculturals (Brannen & Thomas, 2010). Semi-structured
5 interviews were conducted using the case study method which is the sug-
6 gested approach when building new theory (Eisenhardt & Graebner, 2007;
7 Siggelkow, 2007). The case study approach can also be very helpful when
8 studying complex phenomena (Vissak, 2010) and can help bridge the gap
9 between academia and industry (Simon, Sohal, & Brown, 1996), a second-
10 ary goal of both entrepreneurship and M&A research. Further, narrative
11 stories about decision-making were solicited (Gartner, 2007): At the end of
12 the interview, participants were asked to fill out two scenarios (“Wearable
13 Computing” and “Small Recording Label”) of the entrepreneurial scenario
14 survey (Wiltbank, Read, Dew, & Sarasvathy, 2009), a research instrument
15 is used to measure the degree of effectuation among research subjects. The
16 interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed, after which cross-case ana-
17 lysis was performed using the qualitative research software Atlas TI
18 (Gibbert, Ruigrok, & Wicki, 2008).

19

20

Data Collection and Sample

21
22
23 Given the research design, the sample under investigation manifests the
24 variation between two groups, namely domestic and overseas entrepre-
25 neurs, as well as a third group, government officials in the high-tech sector,
26 which were examined to capture the institutional environment. One author
27 visited China twice from July 2010 to Aug 2011; thus, the data collection
28 phase contains two phases. During the first phase, a snowball approach
29 was pursued, in which entrepreneurs were asked to recommend other entre-
30 preneurs as potential informants; this was done to initially obtain a breadth
31 of information on the phenomena under study. In phase two, data was col-
32 lected by following a quasi-random approach; this allowed us to triangulate
33 on our research setting in a more focused way, while assuring the novelty
34 of the information and a balanced approach. For this step, the authors
35 obtained access to an overseas entrepreneurs association, through which
36 interviews were arranged by randomly calling individuals in the associa-
37 tion’s membership database. In total, 10 interviews with entrepreneurs and
38 5 interviews with governmental officials were conducted over 12 months in
39 China (Table 4). These lasted between 60 and 120 minutes each and pre-
sented us with a wealth of information on our research questions.

Table 4. Semi-Structured Interviews Conducted from August 2010 to July 2011 in the PRC.

Interviewee (with Degrees)	Industry	Date (dd/ mm/yy)	Venue	Length (Min.)	Type
CEO, Dr.-Ing	ICT: wireless sensor design house	31/08/10	CEO's office in Wuxi New District High-Tech Park	90	Overseas
CEO, MBA	ICT: mobile Internet application provider	01/09/10	CEO's office at Wuxi (National) Industrial Design Park, Wuxi	120	Domestic
CEO, Ph.D.	Biotech: biotech production materials provider	03/09/10	CEO's office at Wuxi Bio-pharmaceutical R&D Outsourcing Service Park, Wuxi	90	Overseas
CEO, MD, MBA	Biotech: outside test products provider	03/09/10	CEO's office at Wuxi Bio-pharmaceutical R&D Outsourcing Service Park, Wuxi	120	Overseas
CEO, Dr.-Ing	ICT: financial service software developer in Wuxi	05/09/10	Coffee shop in Shanghai Pudong District	60	Overseas
CEO, M.S.	Energy: solar PV cell and module	18/07/11	CEO's office in Jiangsu	60	Domestic
VP, COO, M.S.	Energy: solar PV cell and module	20/07/11	COO's office in Zhejiang	60	Domestic
Marketing Director, M.S.	ICT: software outsourcing	25/07/11	Office in Wuxi T-Park	60	Domestic
CEO, M.S.	Energy: bio-energy cell	26/07/11	Coffee shop near Wuxi T-Park	60	Overseas
CTO, founder, Dr.	ICT: mobile Internet	26/07/11	Office in Wuxi T-Park	60	Overseas

RESULTS

1

3 The interview data suggests that individuals and institutions each have
 5 inclinations toward certain logic orientations, pursuing mixed strategies of
 7 effectuation and causation. National culture (and resulting cognitive heuristics or mental habits) can be seen as the driving force behind logic orientations at the individual level. Globalized entrepreneurs (i.e., Chinese Argonauts) with significant exposure to Western logic and domestic
 9 Chinese entrepreneurs are differentiated here. At the institutional level, one
 11 can distinguish between domestic Chinese entrepreneurs (which are entrenched in a transitional economy) and Chinese Argonauts that have had significant exposure to Western logic (and to the corresponding established economies). Both levels impact the resulting logic orientation (or logic orientation mix), which is mediated by the level of perceived ambiguity (i.e., of the environment). In the framework presented below, the perceived level of ambiguity is multi-faceted, comprising both individual
 13 ambiguity and institutional ambiguity (Fig. 1).
 15
 17

19 The logic orientation spectrum can be seen as the spread between “full effectuation (100% effectuating),” “balanced effectuation (50/50),” and “full causation (100%).” Effectuators tend to choose those strategy mixes that more frequently select the effectuation approach while causators tend
 21

23

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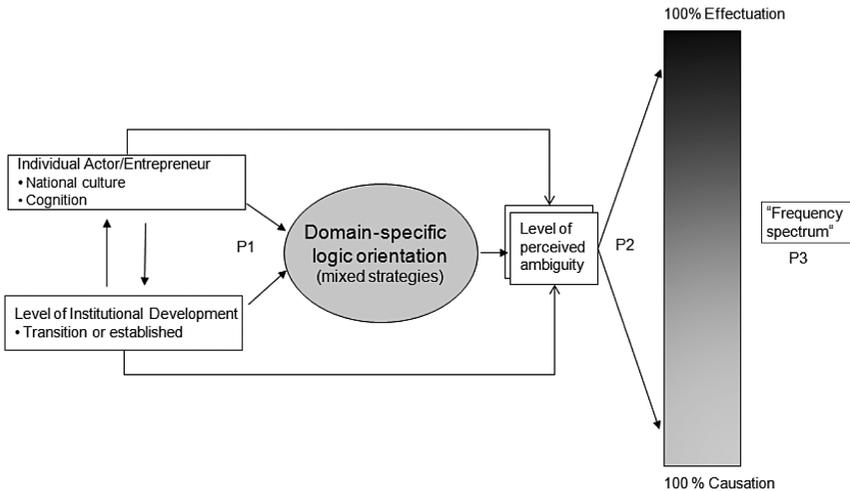
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39 Fig. 1. A Model of Domain-Specific Logic Orientation Linking Effectuation to Causation.

1 to choose strategy mixes that assign higher probabilities to causal
2 approaches. The authors argue that as the level of perceived ambiguity (on
3 behalf of the entrepreneur) rises, the chosen strategy is driven closer to the
4 effectuation, and closer to causation as perceived ambiguity decreases.
5 Further, it is maintained that the logic orientations utilized are likely to be
6 domain-specific. Cognitive frame-switching (especially resulting from bicultural
7 identities) is identified as a potential mechanism underlying the
8 domain-specific logic orientation. The findings here lend support to a recent
9 study that identifies the complementary effects of effectuation and causation
10 from a behavioral perspective (Fisher, 2012). Next, based on the discussion
11 so far, propositions are set forth and preliminary conclusions
12 are drawn.

13 As acknowledged in the literature, bicultural individuals swiftly use
14 frame-switching strategies in different contexts. Following this line of argument,
15 the returnee entrepreneurs studied should bear the characteristics of flexibility.
16 The empirical evidence here partly confirms this argument.
17 Another approach, seemingly more effective, is a complementary composition
18 of the venture team. One co-founder in the bio-pharmaceutical industry
19 explains,

21 We have three founders, and we three have complementary skill sets: I am specialized
22 in technology, but don't know much about marketing, especially marketing in China.
23 [...] is more experienced for business operation in China, while I have been overseas for
24 too long. He is more familiar with the domestic market situation. [...] is specialized in
25 economics, so he is an expert about international trade.

26 The authors argue that the founders internalize knowledge and use frame-
27 switching on the team-level. Bicultural individuals can understand each other
28 well due to their similar multicultural exposure and cognitive roots within
29 the team. The individuals who are more familiar with the Chinese business
30 environment channel knowledge to other founding team members who are
31 more competent in other areas, that is, international trade. This synergy is
32 achieved on the team-level rather than on the individual-level. Biculturalism
33 can facilitate such synergy creation processes. Hence, the authors attempt
34 to address the questions of biculturalism:

- 35
- 36 1. Do biculturals possess unique skills and abilities that allow them to
37 function more effectively in global business environments?
 - 38 2. Do the different ways in which bicultural individuals experience their
39 multiple identities result in distinct skill sets for today's complex global
40 organizations?

1 The study presented here covers both entrepreneurs from a variety of
3 regions in China as well as government officials from a concentrated
5 region, Wuxi. Wuxi is a city, where the local government proactively
7 promotes technology entrepreneurship by attracting overseas technology
9 entrepreneurs. The data analysis from the in-depth interviews with local
governmental officials indicates that regional characteristics impact the
entrepreneurial decision-making process. One co-founder, for instance,
claims the following regarding the choice of location for their technology
venture:

11 Although Dalian is becoming the center of chromatographic research and development,
12 the city has very little government support for venture creation. Additionally, we did
13 not choose this metropolis as our corporate location because the starting cost would
14 have been extremely high. Another advantage is that Wuxi is pretty close to Shanghai,
15 where many biochemical companies are located.

15 In addition, the local government of Wuxi seems to create a friendly
16 environment for high-tech entrepreneurs and to strongly support them.
17 One director of the Wuxi 530 Entrepreneur Service Center explains in an
18 interview:

19 We feel that the 530 Plan brings positive effects. Wuxi definitely bolsters a good reputa-
20 tion luring talented overseas entrepreneurs. We are the first and enjoy the first-mover
21 advantage.

23 The first-mover effect affects follow-up entrepreneurs when they decide
24 where to start their venture and formulate strategies. Based on the data
25 analysis conducted, the authors posit the following:

27 **Proposition 1.** Individual actors and the level of institutional develop-
ment jointly compose the logic orientation.

29 The level of perceived ambiguity varies among returnee entrepreneurs
30 and domestic entrepreneurs. The multi-dimensionality of the uncertainty
31 construct is acknowledged. The actors therefore chose to resort to the
32 definition suggested by Santos and Eisenhardt “ambiguity as lack of clarity
33 about the meaning and implications of particular events or situations (Santos & Eisenhardt, 2009, p. 644). Ambiguity leads to confusion and
34 multiple potential interpretations (Santos & Eisenhardt, 2009) and differs
35 from uncertainty, which refers to the inability to predict the probability of
36 specific outcomes (Davis, Eisenhardt, & Bingham, 2009). **AU:5**

37 In comparison to overseas entrepreneurs, domestic entrepreneurs in the
38 sample studied here seem to follow more conservative strategic approaches
39 in deciding which markets to enter.

1 One domestic CEO explains:

3 I will not choose any industry; I refer to industry reports and believe that the mobile internet market is huge and uprising.

5 In contrast, an overseas entrepreneur reveals his attitudes toward risk:

7 I am not risk-averse. But I set an upper line. For instance, if I can afford a loss of 50 thousand, I will not hold back before I reach that amount. If I have not succeeded after spending 50 thousand, I will simply stop.

9 This statement reconciles directly to the “affordable loss” principle of
11 effectuation theory. The evidence from this study suggests that overseas
(Chinese) entrepreneurs decide and act in line with effectuation theory
13 more frequently than do domestic (Chinese) entrepreneurs.

15 **Proposition 2.** The level of perceived ambiguity mediates the strategy
adopted by high-tech entrepreneurs.

17 An individual’s causal reasoning is to a degree cognitively hardwired
and possibly even genetically pre-disposed (de Geus, Wright, Martin, &
19 Boomsma, 2001; Fugelsang & Dunbar, 2009). However, recent studies
demonstrate the aptitude of biculturals of engaging in cultural frame-
21 switching; even individuals exposed only to one culture have tendencies to
“switch cognitive gears,” from habits of mind to active thinking (Louis &
23 Sutton, 1991). This implies that entrepreneurs that engage in effectuation
strategies in some circumstances or domains may still retain more causal
25 logic orientations toward decision-making in other domains. Thus, serial
entrepreneurs may engage in effectual reasoning when pursuing new busi-
27 ness ventures (Morrish, 2009), but may employ more predictive, causal rea-
soning in another context, that is, marriage or when buying a house. Thus,
29 while many entrepreneurs are apt to be dominantly of one type – effectua-
tors or causators (Chandler, DeTienne, McKelvie, & Mumford, 2011), the
31 authors theorize that it should be possible for some individuals to access or
select from multiple types of logic orientations, forming a type of spectrum
33 or gray area of logic orientations.

35 **Proposition 3.** A given logic orientation is a continual spectrum from
effectuation to causation.

37 Opportunity recognition is a creative process (Singh, Hills, & Lumpkin,
1999) that involves the detection of meaningful patterns and the exploita-
39 tion of accessible social networks (Singh, 2000). Baron and Ensley argue
that the detection of meaningful patterns is facilitated by subject- or

1 industry-specific expertise: “cognitive frameworks acquired through experi-
2 ence (e.g., prototypes) play a central role in this process” (Baron & Ensley,
3 2006). The authors of this chapter argue that overly causal logic orientation
4 limits opportunity recognition via an inability to connect the dots between
5 seemingly unrelated events or trends; innovative opportunities typically
6 result from novel combinations of seemingly unrelated ideas or from apply-
7 ing existing processes from one field or technology to another field. As an
8 extreme illustration, consider how some (often autistic) “savants” can inte-
9 grate incredibly large numbers in the blink of an eye without a calculator,
10 but can show difficulties maintaining an everyday conversation. The
11 savant’s knowledge is extremely specialized and related business opportu-
12 nities are apt to lie on a narrow path. For effectuators, goals emerge by
13 imagining courses of action which start from available means: “who I am,
14 what I know, and whom I know” (Sarasvathy et al., 2010). By pursuing an
15 effectuation strategy and by controlling rather than predicting the future,
16 entrepreneurs may remain more open to opportunities in their immediate
17 or extended environment as they emerge.

18 **Proposition 4.** The more one uses effectuation strategy, the more opportu-
19 nities emerge that are less densely connected; the more one uses causation,
20 fewer opportunities emerge that are on clearly defined, narrow paths.
21

22

DISCUSSION

23

24 These findings imply that effectuation leads to breadth of opportunities
25 and to a higher volume of innovation. Conversely, causation should lead to
26 less innovation but also to more iterative, incremental types of innovation
27 that are narrowly focused by subject or industry (Abernathy & Utterback,
28 1978; Ettlie, Bridges, & O’keefe, 1984). A good example for iterative inno-
29 vation resulting from causation logic is a new type of buffer on an Intel
30 computer chip, while effectuation should lead to more radical, disruptive
31 innovation (O’Connor & McDermott, 2004; Schumpeter, 1942) such as the
32 usage of military networks to create new public goods like email and the
33 Internet. (O’Connor & McDermott, 2004) in a 6-year longitudinal study of
34 12 radical innovation projects in 10 large established US-based firms, find
35 that radical innovators are characterized by (1) multiplicity of roles (2)
36 diverse team composition during both initial and mature phases of a given
37 project and (3) thriving informal networks both internal and external to the
38 organization. The researchers also find that members of radical innovation
39

1 projects face significantly higher risks and that there is a mismatch between
2 these risks and current incentive structures, implying difficulties with
3 employee retention and motivation.

4 Thus, managers interested in strengthening new business or new product
5 development, as well as those involved in cross-border transactions (such
6 as M&As) should pay special attention to differences in logic orientations
7 during the recruitment process but also during employee retention. The
8 proposed differences in logic orientations could help explain why good
9 people (or matches for a certain position and firm) are hard to find. This
10 seems especially relevant in the case of biculturals, many of whom can
11 select from different cultural frames and related logic orientations in the
12 face of uncertainty; the implication is that biculturals are more valuable to
13 international firms not only because of their understanding of and experi-
14 ence with cultural differences (e.g., corporate cultures in the United States
15 versus in China, see Tellis, Prabhu, & Chandy, 2009) but also that bicultur-
16 als should have a larger set of response strategies to select from than mono-
17 culturalists as a result of cultural frame-switching. The ability to cope with
18 different types of uncertainty is especially important in dynamic emerging
19 markets with rapid growth rates such as the BRICs.

20 Devine, Gladino, and Lamont (Conditionally Accepted) based on a
21 review of M&A literature, find evidence that managerial retention is more
22 important in poorly developed institutional environments, where manage-
23 rial expertise helps the acquired firms navigate the institutional environ-
24 ments and overcome institutional voids, such as the lack of market
25 intermediaries or contract enforcement and regulation (Khanna & Palepu,
26 1997). This lends weight to our finding that the context matters in entrepre-
27 neurial (and managerial) cognition, especially in international situations or
28 transactions.

29 An increasing number of overseas Chinese entrepreneurs flock back to
30 China to utilize the growing number of entrepreneurial opportunities: local
31 governments attempt to employ novel instruments to attract and retain
32 these talents. This presents opportunities for both domestic Chinese enter-
33 prises and foreign SMEs, because these overseas Chinese entrepreneurs
34 seek opportunities for cooperation to start or grow technology ventures.

35 As for policy implications, it is argued that transitional institutional
36 environments can offer the right momentum in favor of effectuation. Given
37 the importance of property rights protection and enforcement (De Soto,
38 2000), local governments should improve the institutional environment
39 which promotes and protects entrepreneurship and innovation in the long-
term. In addition, the authors believe that effectuation strategies associated
with less densely distributed opportunities may result in greater job

1 creation for local economies. Next, we discuss the impact of logic orientations and context on the process and performance of cross-border M&As.

3 Taking a process perspective (Jemison & Sitkin, 1986), including pre-M&A (target search and planning), during M&A (deal closure), and post
5 M&A (integration)-phases, it is suggested that different phases of M&A require different levels of cognitive complexity. As illustrated in Fig. 2, in
7 Stage I the key strategic activities include searching for potential acquisition targets and performing valuations of the target. Extant literature
9 regards acquisitions as a means to reach innovation, that is, to gain novel ideas or technology by acquiring innovative firms (Öberg, Conditionally
11 Accepted). Hereby, the multi-faceted search process requires openness to opportunities which are facilitated by a mix of causation and effectuation.

13 In Stage II, key tasks consist of due diligence, employee retention planning (e.g., compensation); this stage is largely associated with end-goal
15 orientated activities; hence, causation constitutes the key mindset for this stage. Stage III, post-acquisition integration, primarily focuses on sociocultural
17 integration of the acquired firm, especially on integration of corporate cultures and on the streamlining and realignment of human resources.
19 Planned and evolving HRM practices can emerge during the integration phase. Importantly, the quest for flexibility and agility can smooth the
21 integration process, especially when the agreed upon plans encounter difficulties during their implementation. (Bauer, Uzelac, King, & Schriber,
23 Conditionally Accepted) emphasize the inherent difficulty in fully predicting or controlling all relevant variables during the acquisition process
25

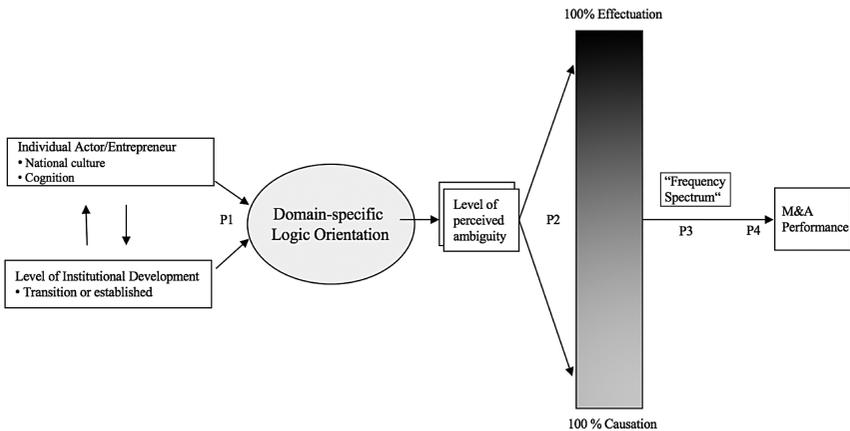


Fig. 2. Impact of Domain-Specific Logic Orientation on M&A Performance.

1 (Schweiger & Very, 2003), leading them to argue that entrepreneurial skills – the ability to make decisions under uncertain conditions – contribute to M&A goal achievement of internal reorganization and market expansion and therefore contribute to creating value from acquisitions. In addition, the authors distinguish four integration strategies: autonomy, socialization, absorption, and formalization and suggest that acquirers that pursue social and structural integration of a target benefit from ambidexterity (Bauer et al., Conditionally Accepted; Lubatkin, Simsek, Ling, & Veiga, 2006; Mihalache, Jansen, Van den Bosch, & Volberda, 2014) (Fig. 3).

11 Therefore, a mix of available logics (acquired by learning and adaptation mechanisms) may be helpful to navigate through the complexities involved during post-merger integration. In a longitudinal study of over 2,000 acquisitions by Dutch firms, Nadolska and Barkema (2014) find evidence that top-management learning affects both the success and frequency of acquisitions. In a nutshell, we suggest that both logic orientations (causation and effectuation) can facilitate the cross-border M&A process and that there is a need to align available logic orientations with M&A stages, so as to improve M&A outcomes (e.g., profitability and chances of survival of the resulting larger firm) by leveraging the advantages of both causation and effectuation. In order to build and maintain both logic orientations, it is postulated that appropriate team

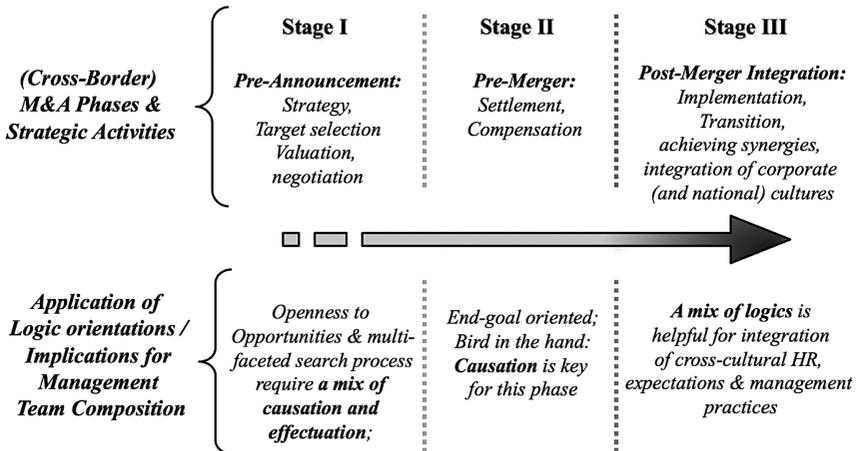


Fig. 3. Logic Orientation Fit with Stage of Cross-Border M&A.

1 compositions (at both the management levels and below) can offer the
2 potential intellectual pool to offer a mixture of effectuation and causa-
3 tion. For the hiring process, this implies that firms that are planning to
4 merge or tend to grow via acquisition, should factor in or even screen
5 candidates for the required logic orientations. This could be done via
6 questionnaire or using tasks that test for causal versus effective logics,
7 respectively (such as asking candidates to imagine a specific scenario and
8 describe their approach).

11 12 **LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH**

13
14
15 In this chapter, due to resource constraints, the research design is limited to
16 a qualitative analysis of a small group of high-tech entrepreneurs in main-
17 land China. The research aim was not to provide quantitative evidence
18 from a large database of entrepreneurs to support or counter one indivi-
19 dual theoretic argument in entrepreneurship or management theory, but
20 rather to provocatively enliven debate on the causes and nature of the
21 entrepreneur's chosen logic orientation. Nonetheless, the authors realize
22 the need to both enlarge the size of the sample and the geographic regions
23 employed in the analysis.

24 Another limitation of this chapter is that a large number of variables
25 were simply out of scope. One of the factors that were not yet sufficiently
26 analyzed for this reason is the research stream on domain-specific expertise
27 and how this may affect effectuation and entrepreneurial logic and
28 domain-specific decision-making under uncertainty.

29 The framework and arguments presented suggest the following questions
30 for further research:

- 31 1. When may deep industry expertise hinder or facilitate the entrepreneur's
32 tendency to effectuate and what is the effect on the ability to switch
33 between cognitive frames? Is it possible that entrepreneurs that are
34 active chiefly in a narrow industry can switch from initial effectuation to
35 an increasingly causal logic orientation over time?
- 36 2. To what extent is cognitive frame-switching successful in the entrepre-
37 neurial setting and between cultures?
- 38 3. Are there similar results between mono- and bicultural high-tech entre-
39 preneurs in other parts of Asia? (i.e., in regions with different institu-
tional environments: Russia, Japan, etc.)

1 CONCLUSION

3 This chapter contributes to the emergent study on entrepreneurial effectua-
 5 tion by juxtaposing cultural, cognitive, and institutional theoretical lenses
 7 (Sarasvathy et al., 2014). Based on a qualitative study in the context of
 9 Chinese high-tech entrepreneurship, an integrative conceptual framework is
 11 proposed, contrasting domestic entrepreneurs with overseas entrepreneurs.
 13 The study reveals interesting findings on context-specific entrepreneurial
 15 decision-making processes. It can be concluded among the subjects studied,
 17 that returnee entrepreneurs who are profiled as bicultural individuals are
 19 more likely to adopt effectual strategies because they can either swiftly
 21 switch frames to the corresponding contexts or are able to internalize
 23 frame-switching into their entrepreneurial teams. Institutional context,
 25 namely the development phases across regions, impact the formation
 27 of domain-specific logic orientations and perceived levels of ambiguity.
 29 The perceived level of ambiguity, as a proxy for uncertainty, is a multi-
 31 dimensional construct and mediates the strategies that entrepreneurs draw
 33 from in the pool of domain-specific logic orientations.

19 Our framework may help explain the results of two recent empirical
 21 studies that find that entrepreneurs seem to shift between the logics of effec-
 23 tuation and causation (Ciszewska-Mlinaric et al., 2016; Reymen et al.,
 25 2015). The implications of context-specific logic orientations for the man-
 27 agement of the cross-border M&A process are discussed and imply that
 29 heterogeneous and cognitively flexible top-management teams with interna-
 31 tional experience are beneficial to the integration of the acquired firm, fill-
 33 ing a gap in extant research on effectuation and M&A. We thus contribute
 to the process perspective of acquisitions (Jemison & Sitkin, 1986) but also
 to research on heterogeneity and cognition in top-management teams
 (Ensley & Pearce, 2001; Smith & Tushman, 2005). The authors hope that
 this study will inspire further scholarly inquiry into unpacking the cultural
 and cognitive processes surrounding context-specific decision-making in
 high-paced environments and that it may further contribute to the micro-
 foundations of the theory of effectuation.

35 NOTES

37 1. It is worth noting that the word “strategy” implies a conscious process; as in
 39 cognitive science, such processes are likely to be only partly conscious and partially
 ingrained from learning and adaptation. This difficulty applies similarly to the con-
 cept of choice underlying decision-making, especially given contextual ambiguity.

1 2. The closest translation in English is “nerd” but it does not capture the full
meaning in terms of the implied narrow-mindedness.

3 3. The authors report that in their study, 48% of subjects were ambiguity averse,
22% were ambiguity seeking, and 30% were close to ambiguity neutral. In addition,
5 for a portion of subjects, ambiguity attitudes seem to be variable depending on the
probability of receiving a good outcome, which may be explained by prospect
theory.

7 4. Consider, for instance, a consumer choice situation between three mobile service
providers – if the consumer is only aware of two of these, the choice set
9 reduces to only two; clearly perception and awareness play a key role here.
Decisions, much less strategies, however, are rarely as simple as this example.

5. fMRI is short for “functional magnetic resonance imaging.”

11 6. Geert Hofstede’s cross-cultural studies of IBM employees have been highly
influential on a macro-level but continue to be controversial in their details;
13 Hofstede’s framework continues to be widely used due to its intellectual prowess
and for a general lack of alternatives; for notable exceptions see work by Edward T.
Hall and Fons Trompenaars.

15 7. A discussion of the suggested types of entrepreneurs (i.e., growth-oriented
entrepreneurs are argued to be attracted to informal economies; *Ibid.*) is outside of
17 the scope of this chapter.

8. A summary of the literature on bicultural identity integration is included in
19 Table 5 of the appendix.

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