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Selection and Cross-Culture Training and Their Relevance on Women Expatriates in India

Olivia J Benedek

The Pennsylvania State University

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Olivia J Benedek
The Pennsylvania State University
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Abstract

This research paper aims to explore the challenges of sending an employee from their parent country to a subsidiary in a host country, on an assignment called expatriation. By reviewing methods of selecting expatriates and constructing a picture of the different types of cross-cultural training available, it has been observed that there is no single method for all situations. Selection and cross-cultural training are key, not only for the transition into the new workplace, but also for the transition into the new host country. This paper will use India as a practical example to demonstrate that selection and cross-cultural training are vital in preparing United States expatriates for a culture that can be very different from their own. Gender has become a growing topic in the research world of expatriation and this paper also aims to review the issues that women face in being selected, trained, and finally working as an expatriate in India.

Keywords: selection, cross-cultural training, women expatriates, India

Introduction

Today, corporations are rapidly expanding as the race to provide the best product or service, at the lowest cost, continues to gain speed. Production, services, development of new concepts and ideas, are all part of "Global business," as defined by Tung and Thomas (2003). In industries that we never thought could be outsourced, ways have been found to outsource their services overseas. But how do we trust the employees to whom we send our business? To remain competitive companies send talent from the parent country to the host country on an international assignment that is called expatriation. Expatriate assignments serve multinational corporations as a beneficial tool in maintaining control in overseas ventures (Bjorkman, et al, 2004). An expatriate is defined by Reiche & Harzing (2009) as, "any employee that is working outside his or her home country…working in foreign subsidiaries of the MNC for a pre-defined period, usually 2-5 years" (pg. 5).

Brewster, et al (2011) lists promoting culture, development of future leaders and talent, and knowledge sharing as some of the reasons as to why expatriate assignments are utilized. In many multinational corporations company culture is carefully constructed in the parent country and expatriates play a key role in introducing and continuing on the legacy of that culture in the host country (Harris, et al, 2003). While spreading culture on an international assignment, top talent also has the best opportunity to gain full knowledge of the business, and to hone in on cross-cultural communication skills. Expatriates not only gain skills that they will personally use in other ventures, but they also gain key knowledge on the local labor market and the way local business is conducted in the region they enter. This knowledge helps headquarters to fully gain control of the subsidiary because they are able to choose if they wish to use this information to devise the best business approach in each location (Brewster, et al, 2011). Without an expatriate's first hand experience, headquarters may never fully understand why certain practices fail in some regions and succeed in others. If a business does not wish to change their approach to local business, expatriates are especially necessary to be able to continuously teach the headquarters' values and norms to the host country nationals (Brewster, et al, 2011). After completing an expatriate assignment, future leaders should be better equipped to address external international issues as well as tackle internal challenges with a wider perspective through their global exposure.

In this research paper the reader should gain insight on the importance of selection methods and cross-cultural training for an expatriate assignment. The importance of both practices lies within the high costs of expatriation and the vast differences in country customs that expatriates must adjust to. It is the multinational corporation's obligation to create a thorough selection process and offer cross-cultural training. Expatriates, as well as their families, have the same obligation to be honest in their recruitment process and take advantage of cross-cultural training that have been made available to them. Through an example of expatriates entering India, the reader will quickly learn that India may appear to have certain customs yet when working and living in the Indian culture it has been noted that these customs are actually quite different than research suggests. The final piece of this paper searches for answers regarding the disparity between the growing female workforce and the small number of women expatriates in India. Failure is always a possibility, whether in India or as a female expatriate, but this paper aims to explore expatriate failure and show that selection methods and cross-cultural training can aid in the reduction of failed assignments.

The cost of expatriation

While expatriates are expected to make an impact and yield a high return, they come at a high price. A quote from Black, et al (1999) reads, "An international assignment is the single most powerful experience shaping the perspective and capabilities of effective global leaders. It also happens to be the single most expensive per-person investment that a company makes in globalizing their people. It is

unfortunate that most firms are getting anemic returns on this substantial investment" (pg. 2). Expatriate costs include: planning of assignment, selection, training, relocation, salary, family support, repatriation, and retention (McNulty & Tharenou, 2005). The evidence from McNulty & Tharenou (2005) shows that some of the listed costs, such as a thoroughly planned assignment, have the potential to aid in the return on investment of the expatriate.

Human resource departments have the ability to gain knowledge of laws and customs in the subsidiary's country and create appropriate selection and training methods that align with their corporate strategy and the host national society. Unfortunately, it is not uncommon that information listed above on expatriate costs, benchmarked by the human resources department, goes ignored by other members of the organization (Bonache et al, 2001). Disregarding key information from human resources may also play a key role in the expense of an expatriate.

Another important reason for understanding how to correctly plan and execute an expatriate assignment is the prevalence of failure. Employers invest a great deal into an expatriate assignment because they expect that the headquarters and the subsidiary will benefit long after the expatriate has returned to the headquarters. Today, it is hard to understand what failure of an assignment actually is. Yeaton & Hall (2008) define expatriate failure as, "the premature end to the assignment, the premature return of an expatriate to his or her home country, or the resignation of the expatriate employee…rates are estimated to range from a low of 25 percent to a high of 70 percent.." (pg. 75). Although a brief stay may be the result of a failure, there can be other reasons for cutting the assignment short. One reason may be the completion of the job prior to the end of the time allotted for the assignment. Harzing (1995) believes that we should do away with time being a determinant of a failed assignment, arguing that completion of the planned time does not necessarily mean that the job was completed.

A failure can occur for many reasons. In a lengthy list that defines failed assignments, Briscoe, et al (2012) helps us to paint a fuller picture of why there are assignments that fail. If an expatriate is unable to complete the assignment, or completes it with little satisfaction to the headquarters and subsidiary, this is considered to be a failure. Whatever the unfulfilled duties may be, whether it be bridging the cultural gap between the subsidiary and the headquarters or implementing a new IT system, companies lose money on the investment of a failed expatriate. One goal of an expatriate assignment is knowledge sharing. Whether headquarter wants to learn more about a subsidiary's culture, or the expatriate is there to learn new technical skills from the subsidiary to share with a headquarters, new knowledge is meant to be exchanged between the two sites. Sometimes problems arise when employees who travel to a subsidiary end up not sharing or gaining the intended information and therefore are not able to complete their assignment (Briscoe, et al, 2012). This could be an issue that the headquarters have little control over, as the subsidiary employees may be very resistant to a foreign person managing them. Later, this paper will review the role a family plays in an early departure. Continuing with personal dissatisfaction, the inability to adapt to the local culture and not feeling accepted by the locals can result in an early termination (Briscoe, et al, 2012).

Interestingly, a failure of an expatriate assignment may result after the expat returns to their home country. Harzing (1995) would argue, that because an assignment lasted the allotted time does not automatically mean a successful trip. A failed assignment can occur if they neglect to recognize a local who can take over their position when they leave, and the subsidiary eventually abandons all lessons learned from the expatriate (Briscoe, et al, 2012). On the flip side, if the expatriate returns and does not use any of the knowledge they gained from their foreign experience, this can also be considered a failure. An answer to what constitutes a failed expatriate assignment does not need to be clear to understand that results can be costly. With costs of an expatriate being anywhere from $200,000 to $1,000,000, it is important to understand the direct and indirect costs to see if sending an expatriate to subsidiary is the best business decision (Harvey & Moeller, 2009; Selmer, 2001).

The direct cost of expatriate assignments

The very obvious costs of selecting an employee, relocating them, training them, compensating them, and the costs of bringing them back to the headquarters are all direct costs that the employer will pay (Harvey & Moeller, 2009). These direct costs are more complex than the selection, training, and compensation costs that those employees who stay in the parent country or locals in the host country demand. As we will learn in the selection section, the selection process of finding a qualified individual who is willing to move, who also has a family willing to relocate, can be quite a costly process (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). When it comes to relocation, the price can easily climb when moving overseas. From selling their local house to sending the expatriate and their family on a trip to their new destination, there are many logistics and dollars that need to be spent on the relocation process. Training for a position within the parent country may include technical training, but expatriate training must go beyond that. Eschbach, et al (2001) explain that cross-cultural training aims to, "develop interaction, relational and perceptual skills, to receive accurate information about the host-country people, the host culture, and about the changes which would be required in their daily life in the new country…" (pg. 272). Since 10-50% of assignments end early, cross-cultural training is a very useful tool for companies to invest in (Eschbach, et al, 2001). Compensation of expatriates is also different than their subsidiary counterparts in the host country and can sometimes be up to three times higher their counterparts (Bonache, et al, 2009). Direct costs are not the only investment that MNCs need to prepare for, as hidden costs are sure to be incurred.

The indirect cost of expatriate assignments

Indirect costs are costs that do not have a monetary value, but may contribute to the loss of overall profit. Many of the below indirect costs occur as a result of an incomplete assignment. McNulty & Tharenou, (2005) list some possible indirect costs of expatriate assignments as, "loss of intellectual knowledge and disruption to global leadership due to labour turnover, poor cross-cultural adjustment leading to poor performance, and disrupted relationships with host nationals" (pg. 1310). A premature departure, or leaving the host country before the allotted time of the assignment is complete, can have an indirect toll on relationships, or networks, that the expatriate has formed in the host country (Harvey, et al, 2001; McNulty & Tharenou, 2005). The host country nationals may have become accustomed to this expatriate and skeptical to let the next expatriate pick up where the last one left off. This indirect cost results in halted work and projects that the expatriate leaves, as well as a link to the host country nationals' network. Some expatriates whom cut an assignment short may chose to leave the organization upon their return, but this is not always the case; however, the employees that do return to headquarters may suffer feelings of inadequacy and may experience that they are never given the opportunity to make up for their early departure from the subsidiary (Dowling et al, 2008). Feelings of inadequacy can result in the loss of future global leaders, if projected leaders are not perceived to be successful on assignment. Motivation and lowered moral will affect that employee for the remainder of their time with the corporation.

The most highly cited indirect cost is the cost of a family's inability to adjust while on assignment; one reason for their inability to adjust is culture shock, which is a phenomenon that hits all members involved in the move, sometimes after a period of excitement and before a period of adjustment to the host country (Dowling et al, 2008). If adjustment is not achieved and a family must return home, or the expatriate must terminate their assignment, a job could be incomplete leaving the subsidiary sometimes worse off than when they started. If the expatriate must leave for family reasons, but would have remained in the host country otherwise, they most likely formed positive working relationships with the locals. Positive relationships can be broken if an expatriate must unexpectedly leave their job in the subsidiary country. During the selection process, it is of the utmost importance to not only view the expatriate as an individual, but as a unit with their family.

A statistic cited by Collings et al (2007) shows that 20% of expatriate managers who return to the parent country upon completion of their assignment are unhappy and have desires to leave the firm. This statistic shows that companies need to focus as much of their energy on the transition of bringing the expatriate back, as they do with initially sending them to the host country. The indirect cost is a result of knowledge being lost when an expatriate terminates their employment and brings their new skills to another firm. It seems to have a snowballing effect, as other employees are able to see the unhappiness of the expatriate upon their return and be less likely to accept an overseas assignment as a result (Collings, et al, 2009). This snowballing effect can also occur if an expatriate and their family also returns before expected due to an inability to adjust. The loss of knowledge and shrinkage of the talent pool willing to accept overseas assignments are both indirect costs that companies experience.

Gender gap in expatriate assignments

The talent pool can become wider if opportunities were more available to members of both sexes. Unfortunately, we see that that the majority of managers and expatriates around the world are made up of men. According to data from the 2012 Grant Thornton International Business Report, 21% of workers in senior management positions around the world are women (Grant Thorton International, 2012). With only a 5% difference over the past 9 years, there has been little change in the presence that women have had in upper level management. While 64% of the workforce today is made up of women, we see a disproportion in the role that they play within a company (Grant Thornton International, 2012). The Global Relocations Trends Survey shows that for 2012, 20% of expatriates were women. This is a rising number, up 2% from last year and up 4% from the overall average and is also consistent with the number of women around the world in senior management positions (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012). Although these current trends do not provide us with encouraging data, we see an immense change from Nancy Adler's 1975 survey that showed only one woman in the survey of American MNCs whom had been sent on an overseas assignment for longer than 6 months (Adler, 1984).

With only a fifth of expatriates being represented by women today, it is natural to ask why this disparity exists. Nancy Adler's (1984) work provides some suggestions to this. She found that the possibilities for a lack of female representation in expatriates included, "women not [being] interested; that women lack the necessary preparation, managerial experience, and technical background; that women are not yet high enough in the managerial ranks; that their commitments to husbands and children limit their mobility; and that they believe that foreigners will not accept them" (pg. 79). Today we see that some suggestions may be true, while others are not. The Global Relocations Trend Survey especially gives evidence against Adler's proposition that marital status and children limit women from taking abroad assignments. With the 65% of overall women expatriates being between the ages of 30-49 we also see that 60% of the total women expatriates are married. The two groups between the ages of 30-49 had the highest percent of children that followed their parent to the host country. These numbers lead us to believe that married women with children are in fact taking global assignments without being restricted, unlike Adler's proposed possibility for lack of women expat representation. To further disprove that marriage and children are the only reasons for the restraint of women taking expatriate assignments we see a rise in the number of expats aged 20-29 and a decline in the number of children accompanying expats. These statistics may suggest that overall women expats are able to complete assignments with their families; however, with the rise in a younger population of women expatriates, without children, there may be a greater chance of success and later more opportunity for women based on the success of this younger generation. Finally, the Grant Thornton International Business Report and Global Relocation Trend Survey show that not only are 21% of senior managers women, but 20% of expatriates are women. This seems to show consistency with Adler's (1984)

suggestion that women do not have adequate preparation, experience, or high enough managerial ranks (Grant Thornton International, 2012; Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012). Without the management experience, women may be overlooked or ignored when being considered for an international assignment. If women obtain more managerial positions then they may be more qualified to take an assignment, as well as more visible in the organization when selection processes begin.

Other research by Adler (1993) reviewed two myths that aid in the prevention of women going abroad. The first myth is that women are not interested in embarking on an expatriate assignment and second is that the host country is not interested in working with females. Both of these myths were proven to be untrue by Adler (1993) herself, as well as other researcher like Taylor & Napier (1996) and Westwood & Leung (1994). Adler (1993) disproves the notion that women are not interested in taking international assignments, reporting that women had the same desire as men to be an expatriate. Research by Taylor & Napier (1996) and Westwood & Leung (1994) showed that in Asian countries, male managers believed in the decisions made by headquarters to hire women and were respectful to them. Interestingly it was found that, "Asian businessmen tend to view a female expatriate first as a parent-company representative, second as a foreigner and third as female" (Caligiuri & Tung, pg. 764). This quote is also contradictory to Adler's (1984) proposal that foreigners have no desire to accept women expatriates into their workplace.

Ensuring expatriate success through selection and cross-cultural training

With possibilities of failure, which turn an investment into a cost, MNCs have the ability to negate negative impacts through selection and cross-cultural training. Among other presumptions, MNC's first assume that the expatriate understands the MNC's values and intentions, that the expat is loyal to the corporation and its values, and finally that the expat is prepared to spread these values in the subsidiaries (Fenwick, et al, 1999 pg. 112). To ensure these presumptions are true and can come to fruition, employers should be careful in their selection process. Selecting the right expatriate is key in avoiding direct and indirect costs to the MNC. With the correct selection method, expatriates should be evaluated as one unit with their family. If they are properly reviewed and deemed to be fitting for the job, the company will have addressed the largest risk for expatriate failure and could potentially avoid high direct and indirect costs. Cross-cultural training will also greatly help to avoid these costs. Cross-cultural training will make the transition into a new environment much smoother. Expatriates will have less chance for surprise from the new culture, and it may also help them create work relationships and networks more quickly than if no training occurs. Creating networks more quickly could translate into the expatriate's immediate impact on the subsidiary. There are many approaches to cross-cultural training so having a proper selection process can aid in choosing the right training for each expatriate and their family. I will continue below with further explanations on how selection and cross-cultural training support the overall success of an assignment.

Selection

Harvey & Novicevic (2001) spell out a formal process of selection through an eight-step process. The first step is the determination and makeup of the expatriate pool; will they be sought after from outside or within the company? There are costs and benefits with hiring internally as well as with hiring externally. Knowledge about the candidate and their background, lower costs, and the candidates knowledge of company culture and values are listed by Harvey & Novicevic (2001) as a few of the reasons why hiring internally are beneficial.   Opening up the candidate pool to external candidates costs money and time to recruit suitable candidates. These external candidates will have little time to assimilate to company culture before being expected to spread the culture in the subsidiary. Many times finding the right external candidate at the right cost is not attainable (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001).

Furthermore, internal employees may interpret a negative message if they are not hired for expatriate roles, causing a possible low morale within the parent MNC.

The second step in Harvey & Novicevic's (2001) selection process tests the IQ competencies of the candidate. They have laid out eight IQ competencies that include: cognitive IQ, emotional IQ, political IQ, cultural/social IQ, organizational IQ, network IQ, innovative IQ, and intuitive IQ (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). Chen et al (2005) also agree that personal factors like, "flexibility, willingness to learn, openness, sense of humor, adaptable, ability to handle ambiguity, and interest in others…" (pg. 4), which should be tested through the above eight IQ tests, are key to the selection process. Employee competencies should also include language skills (Chen, et al, 2005).

This list of competencies is quite long and corporations may have an endless selection process if they are looking for candidate to fulfill all eight. The next two step in the process are evaluating the candidate's way of learning (step three) and evaluating their way of thinking (step four) to form conclusions of the potential that they have to learn the above eight IQs (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). This method, of using situational and behavioral questions, is very similar to the methods used in interviews for local and expatriate jobs alike. Situational interviews present hypothetical issues that may occur in the future job and ask the candidate to give their hypothetical response (Ivancevich, 2010). It is assumed that by giving candidates hypothetical situations, interviewees will be able to understand their thought process and see their potential as Harvey & Novicevic's (2001) tests requests. Behavioral interview questions look to appropriate and real past experiences rather than future hypothetical experiences (Ivancevich, 2010). Behavioral interviews are often utilized to give interviewers concrete evidence of traits such as adaptability, openness, and an interest in others, which are also suggested by Chen et al (2005) to be contributing factors of expatriate success.

Step five of this formal process selection model is the designation of the expatriate's assignment and evaluation of the external factors that may inhibit the expatriate from accomplishing their assigned task (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). Every culture is different: we must evaluate our own culture against the culture where the subsidiary resides to properly train the expatriate. This step is why the need for cross-cultural training is necessary and will be discussed in more details later in this paper

One of the most highly cited reasons for a premature end to an expatriate assignment is the unhappiness of an expatriate's family (Kupka and Cathro, 2007). This brings us to step number six in the selection process. Kupka and Cathro (2007), report that corporations all too often fail to recognize the needs of the expatriate's family. Harvey & Novicevic (2001) state that this is not only a problem for failure rates, but also in the initial stages of attracting and creating a candidate pool of employees and families who are willing to work abroad. This step reminds us that the expatriate comes as a package with their family, and family needs should also be assessed during the selection process.

The seventh step in this model is creating a plan for the repatriation of the expatriate before the assignment begins (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). Oftentimes companies are so focused on sending the expatriate on assignment that they do not consider what that employee's role within the company will be when they return. One example is of an expatriate who was on assignment in Saudi Arabia for four years, gained many new skills, and formed relationships with those he worked with. The company had spent four million dollars over the course of the four years he was on assignment, but once he returned to the parent country he was not treated well and resigned. He took another job, taking the newly gained skills paid for by his previous employer with him (Black & Gregersen, 1999). Another issue is the cultural shock that the expatriate and their family face when they first arrive to the host national country. After they overcome this shock, they then have to return home and be reacquainted with home customs, which may also take time to readjust to.

The final step in this selection process is the actual selection of the candidate for the expatriate position. After compiling a candidate pool, considering related costs and benefits to hiring externally or selecting from within; measuring the eight different competencies; reviewing the candidates learning

and thinking through structured interviews; creating the assignment and reviewing the external factors; understanding the openness the family is to also living abroad; and creating a plan for repatriation, the appropriate candidate should be identified (Harvey & Novicevic, 2001). Harvey & Novicevic have outlined a lengthy process for selecting an expatriate. Due to the length of this formal process, informal processes have become a more widely used method of selection.

One informal method of selecting expatriates is through Harris and Brewster's (1999) "coffee-machine system." This system says that expats are chosen through an informal selection process. The example shows how informal interactions, such a small talk at the coffee-machine, can create connections and possible opportunities may arise. Through an informal system such as this one, you may be able to discover that the expatriate holds the corporations values, but there is little way to determine if they will successfully transition into a new country and be effective in the subsidiary. Informal methods of selection are usually one sided, meaning a manager or supervisor chooses an employee without their knowledge and is elected for an international role. Once the supervisor or line manager approves the candidate, they will be informed that they were chosen to be a reputable candidate for an international assignment. The Global Relocation Trends Survey by Brookfield shows that only 19% of companies have a formal pool of candidates to choose from, proving that informal selection occurs frequently (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012). Without a formal pool of candidates to chose from, you have a greater chance that the candidates will be homogeneous and reflect the manager's favored characteristics (Harris and Brewster, 1999). A homogenous pool that reflects the manager's ideal candidates may never address the needs of the subsidiary country, and may never give other managers the chance to see the different type of employees who may have the potential for international success.

Bonache et al (2001) report that many decisions on who to send on an expatriate assignment are based on an employee's technical skills and their past performance in the parent country. Informal decisions, such as these, do not recognize that the environment in other countries can be quite different. Harris and Brewster's (1999) study, found that informal selection processes fail to take all necessary skills needed to fulfill the international assignment into consideration when selecting candidates. They found one company, using an informal model, classified being mobile, along with domestic accomplishments, as the only criteria to go on an international assignment, whereas the company who used a formal selection method looked at over ten characteristics. This method gives no projection of whether the informally selected candidate would be able to manage effectively or have an impact on the subsidiary. Companies should be wary that their decision to cut their selection processes short might yield in long-term issues and possibly a failed assignment.

Women and selection
In Harvey & Novicevic's (2001) sixth step, issues related to family are cited for lowering the candidate pool and willingness of an employee to work abroad. Many of these issues could stem around family adjustment in the host country, but more and more this problem could be arising from the increase in dual career couples (Selmer, 2001). In our society, traditionally the man is financially depended upon, while the woman may stay at home or hold a job with less financial value as her husband. Harvey &Wiese (1998) cite that the change in these ideologies, which have shifted to women also possibly bringing in just as much or more money, have aided in marital stress and the husband feeling a loss of masculinity. These stresses on women can halt thoughts of taking an international position for the fear of the strain it could put on her relationship. If the woman does in fact choose to take an assignment abroad, then other issues also ensue. Employees, in this case the wife/woman, tend to have an easier time adjusting in the new culture because of the connections they are able to make through work; while men, knowing that they left a job and social life in the parent country, have a more difficult time adjusting to trailing their spouse (Harvey &Wiese, 1998).

A proper formal selection method should be an unbiased approach and a full investigation into a man or woman's work and personal life should be conducted. After a formal process occurs, the best candidate should be chosen regardless of their gender. Unfortunately, informal processes create more room for unsaid biases to occur because little investigation of the candidate as an overall person occurs. One reason for lack of women informally being chosen for assignments is the lack of mentoring they receive within a company (Linehan, et al, 2001). Mentoring can lead to greater visibility and a more likely chance of being recognized as a high potential employee if your mentor has proven their worth to the company.

Cross cultural training

If using a formal selection process, you may have already gained information about the employee's way of learning and thinking. Employers should not neglect this information when it comes time to implement cross-cultural training, as it can be very useful in choosing the appropriate training for each potential expatriate.

The recognition of the need for cross cultural-training, and the development of various methods, dates back to the 1950's (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). Cross-cultural training attempts to fill the void of the unknown for the expatriate in the host country. There are varying degrees of training, outlined by Tung (1998), starting with the most intense, "area studies programs, culture assimilator, language training, sensitivity training, and field experience" (pg. 31). Some of the earliest research on culture suggests that there are both formal and informal cultures, where formal culture is the basis for all informal actions that occur as a result (Hall, 1959). Cross-culture should aim to address formal cultural differences, as violations of formal culture have a deeper meaning and can cause long lasting hostility from the host country national to the expatriate (Hall, 1959). Training is an effective tool in preparing expatriates for their assignments and the formal cultural change, but having prior experience traveling abroad will also aid in a successful expatriate assignment, even if it is not in the host country specifically (Moon, et al, 2012).

There are ways of conducting cross-cultural training through gaining as much information about the country as possible prior to an assignment. An example of this type of cross-cultural training would be fact-acquiring training, where expatriates learn about the environment and cultural norms of the host country (Ko & Yang, 2011). This type of training is expected to yield employees who are well prepared to work and manage in the new environment (Ko & Yang, 2011). Bhawuk & Brislin (2000) explain that the university model, where employees learn in a university lecture environment, is an example of fact-acquiring cross-cultural training. However, cognitive approaches may not be the most effective approach now (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000), especially as we have the ability to provide expatriates with more personal means of training.

A more personal and "active" type of cross-cultural training is through cultural assimilation (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Ko & Yang, 2011). Through cultural assimilators, trainees are given scenarios that are meant to bring attention to differences in culture and then go through possible ways to bridge the gap between the differences (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). Not only does the trainee give their own solutions at the end of the process, they are also provided with other ways to solve the issues that arose in the assimilation. A cultural assimilator can be an easy tool for employees and their families, because they can go through the process on their own time and at their own speed (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000).

Language can be learned through various training services, Rosetta Stone being a very popular method. Spoken language can be taught, but body language and unspoken methods of communication are also important in a smooth transition into the new country. This type of training is a way to teach cultural sensitivity. Bhawuk & Brislin (2000) investigate a four-step behavior modification training program and identify it as one way to be trained in nonverbal forms of communication. This training shows that through four steps of examination and consciousness a trainee will be able to best learn

about a culture. The four points are attention, retention, reproduction, and incentive. Attention is awareness of the new behavior and forming links to prior experiences with a similar behavior. Retention is the step in which you focus on reinforcing the behavior so it is not to be forgotten once the training is over. Retention is accomplished through repeating the behavior. Reproduction is reciprocating the behavior. Finally, incentives can be both internal, through the satisfaction you receive from learning, and also external incentives that your employer gives to you for learning the new behavior (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000).

Ability to adjust
Moon, et al (2012) defines cross-cultural adjustment as, "the adaptation process of living and working in different cultures and is the perceived degree of psychological comfort and familiarity that a person has in different cultures" (pg. 286). Cross-cultural training is meant to make for an easier adjustment to the new culture that the expatriate will be living and working in. Moon, et al, (2012) explain that cross-cultural training is effective, but it is most effective when paired with cultural intelligence, which should be investigated through the selection process. In a study conducted by Moon, et al, (2012) they found that the best way for firms to aid in a smooth adjustment was to send the expatriates to the country to experience the culture before they move. They are meant to gain field experience, as suggested by Tung (1998), in the country on a non-work related trip that they call a developmental assignment (Moon, et al 2012). This developmental trip, which seems to be cross-cultural training through assimilation and cultural intelligence, was the most effective in an expatriate's ability to adjust when they arrived in the host country for their work-related assignment (Moon, et al, 2012). The problem with a developmental trip is that many times, it is often understood that, expatriates are unable to take advantage of training though assimilation or other methods at home or in their host country. Before departure an employee is responsible for reaching an end point on projects in their local office; during this time they may also be in the process of selling and packing up a house. If a family is involved, then kids need to be taken from their home school and registered for a school in the host country. The list of preparing for an expatriate assignment can seem endless, and cross-cultural training or a developmental trip may cause even more stress for the expatriate and their family. Neglecting cross-cultural training inhibits the expatriate and their family from adapting to the new environment as easily as they may have if they completed training.

No matter what country an MNC wishes to enter, there will be multiple costs associated with the planning of an expatriate assignment. The hope is that using the correct selection methods and cross-cultural training will decrease the costs and increase the rewards of the assignment. Choosing the correct methods will be dependent on information obtained about the host country.

The characteristics of the country of India will be described in the next section. This example will show that US human resource departments must engage in heavy understanding of a culture that is much different from their own in order to create a successful expatriate trip. The first expatriate that is sent to India may be difficult to select and train because the human resources department may only have limited outsider information on employment practices in the country. It may take the HR department different expatriates' perspectives to fully understand the best employment practices to implement domestically before sending their expatriates internationally.   The goal is to make conclusions on the best selection and cross-cultural training methods for US corporations entering India based on prior research.

The Indian perspective
With India being one of the largest emerging markets in the world, multinationals are eagerly investing the South Asian country (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, 2009). It is no surprise that they are quick to invest: not

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only does India provide a large pool of available workers, they also, "have the largest pool of scientific and technical personnel in the world" (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, pg. 5). This pool of labor is much less expensive than labor in the United States, as the minimum wage for all manual working sectors is just 29.7 US dollars per month (The World Bank, nd). As of 2008, companies from the United made up eight percent of the foreign investors in India, making it one of the largest foreign direct investors (Embassy of India, nd). The largest challenge for US and other foreign companies in their quest to successfully produce profits is correctly integrating their expatriates to properly manage their Indian subsidiary (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, 2009), thus the need for this research paper.

The demographics in India are very different than in the United States. There are 1.241 billion people and it is high on the list of most populous countries in the world, being only second to China (van Klaveren, et al, 2010; Nasa, 2010; The World Bank, 2011). Of the 1.241 billion Indian people 397 million of them are in the workforce (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, 2009). To put that into perspective, that is 87 million more than the total number of Americans living in the United States. Along with the available knowledge comes a population whose median age is 24.8; India is said to have the largest pool of working-age people in the world (Budhwar & Varma, 2011). The nature of the work in India is also quite different as they have the vast majority, 92 percent, of their workforce in the informal sector (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, 2009). The unorganized/informal sector is made up of small businesses that are not recognized by the state or work on a contingent basis; much of the unorganized work in India is through work with family (Kulshreshtha, 2011).

The percentage of workers in the informal sector is an incredible number. This shows that MNCs operating in India do not employ a significant proportion of locals; however, with access to young and less expensive labor it is very appealing to MNCs. Since it has been deemed an emerging market, it is important to understand the different cultural dynamics so that companies can remain competitive in the global market. Fortunately Hofstede, and others researchers have produced statistical data about India, but the data and the reality of common work practices in India may not always match. Understanding expatriation in India is what could set one MNC's success apart from the next.

Culture and practice in India

Through the famous work of Geert Hofstede, we are able to gain knowledge about countries through certain cultural characteristics. In Hofstede's (1980) original work and creation of the Cultural Dimensions Theory he first judged countries on four different cultural dimensions. The dimensions are power distance, individualism, masculinity, and uncertainty avoidance. Power distance shows us the degree to which individuals in a country accept unequal distribution of power. Individualistic societies place little value on "in-groups," and instead people tend to be more independent. A masculine society thrives on monetary competition and strives to be the "winner." Finally, a culture that ranks high in uncertainty avoidance does not fare well in ambiguous situations; they like directions and carefully planned guidelines. When placed in context, these dimensions help us to make the correct selection of expatriates and provide the appropriate cross-cultural training for each selected expatriate before they embark on their assignment.

Based on the work of Hofstede (1980) India proves to have a high power distance, scoring 77 on the scale. This high score shows us that hierarchies are prevalent in India, "control is familiar, even a psychological security, and attitude towards managers are formal even if one is on first name basis" (Hofstede, nd). In the United States we score a low 40 in Power Distance. This means that we put less emphasis on hierarchies and consider most in the workplace to be more or less our equal. Budhwar (2009) comments that Indian workers seem to control those working below them but are completely subservient to their supervisors, teachers, and those older than they are.

According to research by Budhwar, Bjorkman, & Singh (2009), managers have a mean of 12.4 years of working experience. This piece of information may be helpful for US human resource managers to keep in mind when going through the selection process of choosing the right candidate to send on assignment in India. Knowing that, by default, the Indian culture is more apt to respond to someone older who is in a manager or supervisor position is a key piece of information in selection and cross-cultural training. Expatriates should be trained to respect the local Indian workers who are older and in higher positions than themselves. Problems may arise if US managers take a similar approach to communicating and taking direction from people more senior in India as they would in the US. Americans are not afraid to tell their boss their opinions on how the business should be run, and many times the boss embraces the feedback. This type of feedback does not seem as if it would fare well in India, and this should be emphasized in cross-cultural training.

Without selecting an expatriate with previous experience and the proper cross cultural training that reviews the interactions between managers and their subordinates, expatriates will have less of a chance of a smooth transition into their new roles and more importantly will have a higher chance of failing. Another issue that arises from this high power distance culture is retaining employees, Budhwar & Varma (2011) say, "it is often a massive challenge to attract and promote genuine employee involvement and participation" (pg. 321). In other words, attracting employees who say that they wish to be involved and committed, but who will leave if a better opportunity arises, may be easier than finding an employee who is genuinely committed. If during cross-cultural training an expatriate is not informed of a high resignation rate, they may feel that they are not being affective managers and become frustrated with themselves, when in actuality it is a phenomenon of the country.

More information gathered from Hofstede (1980) reveals that in the Individualism dimension, India has a medium score of 48. India is a country where individual's focus on the needs of their "in-group" rather than the needs of themselves (Hofstede, nd). With a large volume of family run businesses, this is of little surprise.   In business, relationships are imperative to promotions and it is assumed that the employee will be loyal while the employer will protect them. However, Kim & Tung (2013) have cited that this Hofstede score of India being more collectivists than individualists is not an accurate picture; they explain that when it comes to business, the individual relies on these relationships for personal promotions, rather than for the good of the business as a whole. Compared to India, there is no doubt that the United States is a country that places higher value on the individual. We see this through an extremely high Hofstede (1980) score of 91. Although, the United States is such a strong individualistic country, we still use the help of our peers and because of our low power distance are much less hesitant to ask our superiors for help which may not be the case in India. Expatriates should be trained to understand and provide solutions for locals who may not be vocal when they are having trouble with their work.

Another piece to this individualistic/collective society is that although the worker may be individual, they also have family and community ties and may take time off work for family events of celebrations. A study by Aycan, et al (2000) found that Indians are both highly paternalistic and are very loyal to their community. They also reported that the best practices for managers are to be empowering, and offer performance-reward possibilities. Employees respond well when they are recognized for their individual performance and are encouraged to continue their work through performance rewards. Finally, because of the paternalistic characteristics of India, the study found that employees responded well when their opinions were taken into consideration, even if managers did not utilize them. These should be critical pieces of information taught in cross-cultural training.

Next, India is said to be a masculine country with a score of 56 (Hofstede, 1980). The research points out that although this score may seem to be in the middle range, India follows the traditional masculine definition of the display of power and success. The United States scores very closely to India

on the masculinity scale, with a score of 62. In both results-driven societies, it should not be very difficult to integrate masculine characteristics each possesses.

Through data from the World Bank (nd), we learn that the average paid days off do not increase with the amount of loyalty or years with the company. Workers who stayed with a company for one to ten years all received fifteen paid days of vacation (The World Bank, nd). This does not seem to align with the emphasis that they put on titles and high power distance, but it does show that the masculine country is still driven by success and achievement which may not be accomplished if an employee is more absent.

Selecting an expatriate with leadership qualities and training them to continue to work with the Indians in the push for success is necessary. The two cultures may not vary in the fact that they both strive for excellence, but the motivating tools may be different and this is an important aspect that should be expanded upon in cross-cultural training. Employees in the United States are motivated by monetary incentives. In India, because of their medium collectivist society, managers can motivate their subordinates with communal, personal, and possibly spiritual incentives (Budhwar & Bhatnagar, 2009). In relation to motivation in the workplace, Indian workers still have inclinations to thrive off of monetary benefits, most likely because of the masculine characteristics that they possess; these personal and spiritual incentives may be an additive to motivating Indian employees in the workplace (Kim & Tung, 2013).

The last dimension is uncertainty avoidance, which shows how a country deals with ambiguity. India has a score of 40 and is "a patient country where tolerance for the unexpected is high; even welcomed as a break from the monotony…there is a saying that nothing is impossible in India, so long as one knows how to adjust" (Hofstede, nd). Adaptable United States expatriates should be selected for assignments in India. Again, MNCs should not have a problem fulfilling this requirement, as the US score only 6 points away from India with a score of 46 (Hofstede, 1980). India's acceptance of new ideas and ability to quickly adapt to change, may be a reason why they have the most scientific and technical pool of workers in the world, which shows us why MNCs are so eager to work in India.

American expats should be prepared that although the acceptance of ambiguity may be helpful in day-to-day management of Indian workers; this also means that turnover is high. With the high workforce pool that is available in India to MNCs, Budhwar & Varma (2011) suggest that the qualified individuals also have a huge number of MNCs to gain employment from which aids in the lack of retention of employees. If employees find another opportunity, they are not afraid to take that opportunity most likely because of their low uncertainty avoidance.

Expatriate women In India

As many multinational corporations move into India, it is important to take the advice of Adler (1984) and understand how locals will respond to women who are sent on expatriate assignments. To explore the role that US expatriate women may face in India, it may be helpful to seek information from the overall position of women in society. According to The World Bank (nd), in 2011 women held eleven percent of parliament seats in 2011. In 2011, women made up 25.33% of the workforce, which is lower than twenty years prior in 1991 when they made up 29.66% (The World Bank, nd). Agriculture is the largest sector in India, making up 60% of the workforce. In roles not in the agricultural sector, women only make up 18% of the workforce. Unfortunately, it is unclear if this statistic demonstrates information from both the informal and formal sectors, which is an important piece of information to obtain as we see how prevalent the informal market is in India. Since the informal sector is so large, we can assume that the majority of that 18% is included in the informal sector, leaving very few women employed in MNCs.

With the small number of women represented in the Indian workforce, it may be assumed that they have the possibility of being discriminated against for not being in the "in-group," consisting of Indian men who have been in the workforce for decades. Women expatriates may be even further discriminated against because not only are they not locals, but they also are sent into managerial positions which Indian men are presumably not accustomed to. Not being accepted into the in-group can affect the adjustment and success that a woman is meant to have in the host country, no matter how much selection or training they have. Varma, et al (2006) conducted a study that specifically researched the issues around US women expats entering India. Based on the possibility of women's exclusion from the "in-group" of local business men and the women's lower chance of adjustment, it is surprising that Varma, et al (2006) found that women expatriates were favored over men expatriates by both men and women host country nationals in India. This study points to the medium collectivist state that India tends to be and says that it matches better with traditional female traits than the traditional male traits (Varma, et al, 2006).

Findings from research by Varma, et al show that women are not being discouraged from taking expatriate jobs based off of the treatment they will receive in India. It forces us to look at the barriers that the United States are creating for women, instead, such as Adler's (1984) assumptions that women do not want to go and will not go because of family holding them back.

Conclusion

While expatriation can be a highly effective tool, rates of failure as well as direct and indirect costs of an assignment can be high. Failure can be classified based on a wide scope of outcomes ranging from an assignment cut short to an assignment that fails to gain new knowledge of the subsidiary. The most cited reason for failure is the inability of an expatriate's family adjusting to the new culture. Utilizing proper formal selection methods, most importantly looking at an expatriate as a unit with their family rather than a single individual, will aid in ensuring that an assignment does not fail based on family needs. Cross-cultural training also needs to be made available to an expatriate's family to ensure that a smooth adjustment into the new culture is made. Although both formal selection process and cross-cultural training can be time consuming, the result is less occurrences of a failed assignment and therefor less direct and indirect costs for MNCs.

In this global economy, MNCs face various challenges as they enter new markets. Through a comparison of Indian and United State cultural characteristics, we see that different characteristics make certain business behaviors more prevalent in each country. The use of expatriates can be key to tapping into new resources such as the young, highly intelligent, and available workforce that India provides. Human resource managers at the headquarters have access to information on almost any country in the world through sources like Hofstede (1980), but through this research paper we can conclude that recorded information on culture may be different than actual practice. If the selection process matches the right employee and family with the right job, and they are able to gain knowledge about the new culture through cross-cultural training, then an expatriate can serve as a bridge between two nations and two cultures. MNCs need expatriates to gain and share knowledge for the overall success of the entity.

Finally, one of the most interesting points that can be taken from judging a culture from the outside versus having insider expatriate knowledge, is the Indian attitude toward women expatriates. Local Indian women's low representation in the formal sector, their equally small representation in government, and India's medium collectivist society that places emphasis on the family, may lead some to believe that women expatriates would not be accepted or successful in Indian subsidiaries. These beliefs were proven to be false, and will hopefully open up the candidate pool to include members of both sexes when selection of an expatriate occurs. The conclusion that this paper can form, based on

gender, is that if MNCs shy away from popular informal ways of selecting expatriates, women will have a greater chance to break assumptions that they are not welcomed and, therefor be placed on more assignments abroad.

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