

INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

**ProQuest Information and Learning
300 North Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346 USA
800-521-0600**

UMI[®]

**EXPATRIATE SELECTION: ARE HIGH
SELF-MONITORS BETTER EXPATRIATES?**

Christine Péron

**A Thesis
In
the John Molson School of Business**

**Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements
for the Degree of Master of Science in Administration at
Concordia University
Montreal, Quebec, Canada**

August 2001

© Christine Péron, 2001



**National Library
of Canada**

**Acquisitions and
Bibliographic Services**

**395 Wellington Street
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada**

**Bibliothèque nationale
du Canada**

**Acquisitions et
services bibliographiques**

**395, rue Wellington
Ottawa ON K1A 0N4
Canada**

Your file Votre référence

Our file Notre référence

The author has granted a non-exclusive licence allowing the National Library of Canada to reproduce, loan, distribute or sell copies of this thesis in microform, paper or electronic formats.

The author retains ownership of the copyright in this thesis. Neither the thesis nor substantial extracts from it may be printed or otherwise reproduced without the author's permission.

L'auteur a accordé une licence non exclusive permettant à la Bibliothèque nationale du Canada de reproduire, prêter, distribuer ou vendre des copies de cette thèse sous la forme de microfiche/film, de reproduction sur papier ou sur format électronique.

L'auteur conserve la propriété du droit d'auteur qui protège cette thèse. Ni la thèse ni des extraits substantiels de celle-ci ne doivent être imprimés ou autrement reproduits sans son autorisation.

0-612-64052-3

Canada

ABSTRACT

Expatriate Selection: Are High Self-Monitors Better Expatriates?

Christine Péron

Conducting business on an international scale has been the reality for large corporations for many years. To penetrate these new markets abroad, many firms have decided to use expatriates. It has been well documented in the literature that expatriate assignments are subject to very high failure rates. In the literature on expatriate adjustment several personal dimensions have been studied to see if they influence an individual's adjustment to life overseas. Some of the characteristics that are investigated time and again are cultural empathy, adaptability, cultural flexibility, diplomacy, social orientation, and willingness to communicate. A related individual characteristic is self-monitoring ability. Self-monitoring ability is the ability to observe and control one's behaviour to behave appropriately. This study examined the predictive power of self-monitoring ability on an expatriate's interaction adjustment, work adjustment, general adjustment, and job performance. The results indicate a significant positive relationship between self-monitoring ability and interaction adjustment and a significant negative relationship between self-monitoring ability and work adjustment.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I'd like to thank my thesis supervisor, Dr. Stéphane Brutus, for his support throughout this process. I also appreciate the insightful comments provided by the committee members, Dr. Sheila Webber and Dr. Ron Ferguson.

Completion of my thesis would not have been possible without the support of my husband, Araz Jakalian, and the many hours of babysitting provided by mother, Martha Worsley. I'd also like to thank my daughter Lara just for being the wonderful little girl that she is.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES.....	VII
LIST OF TABLES.....	VIII
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. EXPATRIATE.....	4
2.1. WHO ARE THEY?.....	4
2.2. HOW MANY ARE THERE.....	5
2.3. CHARACTERISTICS OF AN EXPATRIATE ASSIGNMENT	5
2.4. FAILURE RATES.....	7
3. EXPATRIATE SELECTION.....	10
3.1. WHAT ARE COMPANIES CURRENTLY DOING FOR EXPATRIATE SELECTION.....	10
3.2 PAST RESEARCH ON EXPATRIATE SELECTION	13
4. SELF-MONITORING OF EXPRESSIVE BEHAVIOUR	19
4.1. INTRODUCTION TO SELF-MONITORING ABILITY.....	19
4.2. DEFINITION OF SELF-MONITORING CONSTRUCT	20
4.3. MEASUREMENT OF SELF-MONITORING ABILITY	21
4.4. PAST RESEARCH ON SELF-MONITORING ABILITY	22
5. ADJUSTMENT.....	26
5.1. HISTORY OF CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT.....	26
5.2. DEFINITION OF ADJUSTMENT.....	26
<i>Adjustment</i>	26
<i>Adaptation</i>	27
<i>Effectiveness</i>	28
5.3. ADJUSTMENT CONSTRUCT	29
5.4. JOB PERFORMANCE CONSTRUCT	30
6. HYPOTHESES	31
6.1. SELF-MONITORING AND INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT.....	31
6.2. SELF-MONITORING AND WORK ADJUSTMENT	31
6.3. SELF-MONITORING AND GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	32
6.4. SELF-MONITORING AND JOB PERFORMANCE	32
7. METHODS.....	33
7.1. SAMPLE	33
7.2. MEASURES.....	36
<i>Self-Monitoring</i>	36
<i>Adjustment</i>	37
<i>Job Performance</i>	38
8. RESULTS.....	39
8.1. HYPOTHESIS 1	41
8.2. HYPOTHESIS 2.....	41
8.3. HYPOTHESIS 3.....	42
8.4. HYPOTHESIS 4.....	42
8.5. EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS.....	43

9. DISCUSSION.....	45
9.1. HYPOTHESIS SUPPORT.....	46
9.2. EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS.....	51
9.3. LIMITATIONS.....	52
9.4. FUTURE RESEARCH	53
APPENDIX A – SHORT LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE	55
APPENDIX B – ORIGINAL 18 ITEMS FOR SELF-MONITORING FROM SNYDER & GANGESTAD (1986)	61
APPENDIX C - ORIGINAL 13 ITEMS FOR ADJUSTMENT FROM BLACK (1990)	62
REFERENCES	63

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURE 1 REGRESSION EQUATIONS	48
FIGURE 2 TIME, SELF-MONITORING ABILITY, AND ADJUSTMENT	52

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE 1 PREDICTORS, CRITERION, AND RESULTS OF LITERATURE	15
TABLE 2 SAMPLE DETAILS.....	35
TABLE 3 MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND CORRELATION'S FOR ALL VARIABLES	39
TABLE 4 REGRESSION RESULTS.....	41
TABLE 5 INFLUENCE OF TIME AND SELF-MONITORING ABILITY ON INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT.....	43
TABLE 6 INFLUENCE OF TIME AND SELF-MONITORING ABILITY ON WORK ADJUSTMENT.....	43
TABLE 7 INFLUENCE OF TIME AND SELF-MONITORING ABILITY ON GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	44
TABLE 8 INFLUENCE OF TIME AND SELF-MONITORING ABILITY ON PERFORMANCE.....	44

1. Introduction

Conducting business on an international scale has been the reality for large corporations for many years. To penetrate these new markets abroad, many firms have decided to use expatriates.

According to the Merriam-Webster on-line dictionary, the official definition of an expatriate is "one who has taken up residence in a foreign country". Here we are concerned with the expatriate that is not only living in the foreign country, but is also working in the foreign country.

Working in a foreign country poses some unique challenges that corporations must take into consideration when selecting the individual for the assignment. However, research on expatriate selection has been less than adequate. Most studies in this area often simply asked respondents to rate the importance of various characteristics in order to successfully adjust to a new culture, but did not conduct any testing to see if there was indeed any relationship between certain abilities and adjustment (Black, 1990). These assignments involve substantial investment from organizations and much of the international growth of organizations rests on their success. Therefore, when an expatriate does not complete an assignment, by returning earlier than expected, or fails to meet the objectives of the organization, it is very costly for the company.

It has been well documented in the literature that expatriate assignments are subject to very high failure rates (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Henry, 1965; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1981; Zeira, 1975). An expatriate assignment was, and still is, considered one of great prestige and was often awarded to individuals for dubious reasons rather than for reasons of technical competence or other legitimate know how. What is meant by dubious, is that very often the human resource department had very little say in making these kinds of decisions. It was usually the CEO, or another very senior person in the organization, that handpicked the person they wanted. This decision was not based on technical competence. It was based on the desire to award a senior person in the company with a cushy position abroad with a lot of perks. These selection practices

are surely at least partially responsible for the poor success rate of expatriates. Given the importance of overseas assignments, it would be very useful for selection purposes to understand how individuals adjust to new cultural environments and what factors contribute to their success and failure.

In the literature on expatriate adjustment several personal dimensions have been studied to see if they influence an individual's adjustment to life overseas. Some of the characteristics that are investigated time and again are cultural empathy, adaptability, cultural flexibility, diplomacy, social orientation, and willingness to communicate (Harvey, 1985; Black, 1990; Shilling, 1993; Arthur & Bennett, 1995). A related individual characteristic is self-monitoring ability. Self-monitoring ability is the ability to observe and control one's behaviour to behave appropriately. An individual with high self-monitoring ability would possess all of the aforementioned characteristics for the simple fact that high self-monitoring individuals always attempt to behave in a socially appropriate manner. A high self-monitoring person would be sensitive to different cultural norms, he would seek social interactions, he would be an excellent communicator being especially sensitive to the feelings of others, and he would avoid and help resolve conflicts.

Other factors that have been identified in the literature as important to overseas adjustment are predeparture training, previous international experience, time in the host country, and organizational and educational level (Black, 1990; Lobel, 1990; Caudron, 1991; Porter & Tansky, 1999). These are all important areas for future research into the dynamics of expatriate adjustment, but it is this researcher's intent to focus on the individual's personal characteristics, rather than external factors such as training and previous experience, that may contribute to success or failure overseas. It has been decided to focus on the individual's personal characteristics because success or failure begins with the individual. Of course there are things the organization and even the individual can do to increase the chance of success, as has already

been mentioned, but the question asked here is “Are there certain types of people that are inherently more likely to succeed?” To be more precise, it is the objective of this research to determine if self-monitoring ability is useful in predicting expatriates' job success. To do this, let's first examine what it means to be an expatriate, who is the typical expatriate, and what it is really like living and working in a foreign country. Second, the unique aspect of expatriate selection will be explored, how organizations are selecting candidates for these posts, and what they should be looking for in candidates according to existing research. Third, the self-monitoring construct will be explained, and a closer look will be taken at some studies that explain the difference between high and low self-monitoring individuals. Fourth, the definition of expatriate adjustment and success overseas will be discussed. Next, the various hypotheses can be found, followed by the methods section. And finally, the paper concludes with the results of the study and a discussion of the findings.

2. Expatriate

2.1. Who are they?

There are many business reasons to send employees on an expatriate assignment. Such as developing high potential employees, exerting control and oversight in overseas business interests, coordinating global activities, opening new markets, transferring skills to locals, facilitating a merger or acquisition, and setting up new technologies and systems (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Halcrow, 1999; Kobrin, 1988; Tung & Miller, 1990; McCauley & Brutus, 1998). Therefore, organizations need to send all kinds of employee's abroad. They send senior managers, sales staff, engineers, IT programmers, scientists, etc., but they most often send middle managers (Halcrow, 1999). For a typical organization, more than 90% of their expatriates are male and a typical assignment can vary anywhere from one year to five years or more. Although the average expatriate is in his early forties, there are expatriates of every age just as we see in the Canadian workforce. Most expatriates are married and bring their spouse and children abroad as well (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Kealey, 1989; Cui & Van Den Berg, 1991; Cui & Awa, 1992; Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Deller, 1997). Therefore, the typical expatriate is a married man in his early forties working in middle management, and he will be abroad for approximately one to five years with his family.

Women represent a very small, but important, percentage of employees being sent abroad. In 1987, women held 37% of domestic U.S. management positions, but only 3% of international management positions (Adler, 1994). It is encouraging to see that these numbers have grown. In 1999, women represented 10% of expatriates (Halcrow, 1999). As women with advanced University degrees continue to enter the workforce in increasing numbers, these numbers are sure to be on the rise.

2.2. How many are there

It is impossible to get an accurate count of expatriates worldwide, but according to the U.S. Department of State's Bureau of Consular Affairs, there are more than 3 million U.S. citizens residing in a foreign country. Of course, only a portion of the estimated 3 million are actually working in the foreign country, but this figure certainly indicates that we are talking about a very large population of expatriates worldwide.

2.3. Characteristics of an expatriate assignment

The key factor that will determine the success or failure of an expatriate assignment is the expatriate's ability to adapt his behaviour to the host culture. The differences between home and host cultures can be great. Caudron (1991) outlines some of the differences an expatriate might encounter while on assignment. First, negotiation styles differ greatly. Russians prefer conflict oriented negotiations, while Italians argue strongly about points an American might consider trivial, and Asians prefer a consensus oriented approach in which everyone shares their opinion and the outcome must meet everyone's needs. Second, communication in the workplace must be handled appropriately. A common mistake is an American's assumption that people from other cultures appreciate their informal way of addressing each other. In France, it may take 3-6 months before business associates feel comfortable addressing each other without a formal title. Also, standing too far from an Arab or too close to a Spaniard can be interpreted by both as a lack of interest. Third, social relations must be handled with the proper etiquette. Americans generally place high value on informality and casualness as a means of creating a comfortable social environment. Europeans are typically more formal, both in dress and in demeanor, while entertaining guests. An American's casualness may be interpreted as rude. Fourth, family lifestyle requires a lot of adjustment. Questions like where to shop, how to get the kids to school, how to use public transportation, are usually "the straw that breaks the camel's back".

What is life really like working in a foreign country? According to Wavell (1991), it can be dangerous to your mental health. At least that is the case for Paris. Dr. Ota has treated over 139 disturbed Japanese businessmen working in Paris. Two of which tried to kill themselves. He calls this “the Paris syndrome”. Apparently it is not only the Japanese that suffer in Paris, but also Germans, Scandinavians, British, and Americans. It is blamed on the French arrogance, hostility, rudeness, and bureaucracy. A 39-year-old British computer engineer explains how several small incidents have convinced him that the French are out to get him.

“The other week my car was towed away because my French neighbour complained about it to the police, although it was parked perfectly legally. My upstairs neighbour stamps on the floor at six in the morning to punish me for other tenants’ noise. Once she leapt out and attacked me on the stairs. And someone keeps ripping my name off the entryphone. Parisians are so bloody rude. I speak good French, but if you stumble over a word in a shop, they’ll cut you dead and turn to the next customer.” (Dowling et al, 1994, p. 62).

Obviously this is not everyone’s experience, but unfortunately it is also probably not the worst experience. An expatriate must be very sensitive and receptive to the host cultures method for conducting business. He must be flexible and adaptable in his style of negotiating and in the way he communicates and relates with others. However, there is a reason that the home office has chosen an expatriate to do the job rather than selecting a local individual. The purpose of the assignment may be to bring about a change in attitudes or work ethic amongst the local employees, or to impart some other special quality or expertise that the expatriate possesses. Therefore, while the expatriate still needs to be sensitive to the local culture it is important that he doesn’t completely assimilate because then he would be unable to effect the change needed. This

is an interesting paradox that the expatriate must deal with in his role. To facilitate the transition to the new environment, Caudron suggests that the solution is to offer culture specific training to expatriates and their family members prior to the assignment. Training does play an important role, but the selection process must first identify candidates that would be receptive to cross-cultural training. Without first selecting an individual that is open to behavioural change, training programs, no matter how culture-specific, would be virtually useless.

2.4. Failure rates

Organizations face many obstacles when conducting business overseas. There can be political turmoil, economic crises, complex labour laws, poor infrastructure, etc, but the reason for most failures can be blamed on sending the wrong person to do the job (Halcrow, 1999). Solid empirical research on this topic is needed because of the extremely high failure rates among expatriates and the high cost associated with those failures. Expatriate failure is defined as the premature termination of the assignment by the employer or the employee (Tung, 1988). Failure rates have been estimated at between 15% and 70% (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Copeland & Griggs, 1985; Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou, 1987; Torbiorn, 1982; Tung, 1981) with an estimated cost of \$55,000USD to \$250,000USD for each expatriate failure (Copeland & Griggs, 1985; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1982; Wederspahn, 1992; Zeira & Banai, 1985), not to mention the lost business opportunity, lost goodwill with locals, loss of company reputation, failed negotiations, etc. A U.S. aerospace company with 150 expatriates worldwide reported that its average one-way international relocation cost per family is \$99,000. Also, a major electronics company spent more than \$1 million on a two-year assignment of a \$55,000-per-year salaried technician in Tokyo (Wederspahn, 1992). More recently, Guy and Patton (1996) estimate that 30-50% of expatriates are ineffective or only marginally effective. They attribute culture shock and adjustment as the prime determinants of expatriate job performance and turnover. Although it is

impossible to get an exact number of expatriate failure rates, it is safe to say that the number is much too high.

On a more personal note, a failed assignment could also mean damage to one's career, family problems, loss of self-esteem and self-confidence, and the loss of prestige among peers (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). One tends to focus on the dollars involved in failed assignments and all the costs to the company, but these are real people that are being sent abroad. Everyone wants to do well and succeed personally and professionally. Imagine the embarrassment and the humiliation expatriates face when their assignments have failed and they must return to the head office where word of the failure has surely spread like wildfire, that is if the expatriate still has a position to return to. He could also be facing a demotion in responsibility and/or title, which is an added burden to the psyche. The expatriate also has to deal with the guilt of uprooting the entire family, perhaps against their will, selling the family home, moving away from friends and family, etc, in order to pursue a career opportunity that has turned into a big failure.

According to Hamill (1989), the effective management of international human resources is recognized as a major determinant of success or failure in international business. Katz and Seifer's (1996) survey of multinational managers indicates that the primary reasons for failure are: inability to adapt rapidly to a new culture; the expatriates personality or emotional characteristics; and the inability to cope with the complex job-related responsibilities posed by the foreign environment. Hogan and Goodson (1990) believe that a significant consideration for expatriate failures is a lack of understanding of the new country's culture and a lack of acculturation. That is, the efforts to adopt the cultural traits or social patterns of the host country. Acculturation can mean the difference between success and failure. Expatriates must possess the ability to modify their behaviour to fit their new environment with the caveat to remember the expatriate paradox. It is important for expatriates to adjust to the new environment, but they must

be sure to keep that “special something” that they possess which made head office select them rather than a local.

3. Expatriate Selection

Selection can be defined as “the process of collecting and evaluating information about an individual in order to extend an offer of employment.” (Gatewood & Feild, 1994 p.3). Simply stated, the objective is to identify the best person for the job from the pool of applicants. There is a need to identify those that have the necessary knowledge, skills, abilities, and other characteristics (KSAO's) to perform well on the job. However, before that can be done the KSAO's that are relevant to the position and will predict success in the new position must be identified. This is important for legal and practical reasons. Legally, an organization can be sued for discriminatory practices if it is found to be collecting information on candidates that are not relevant to performance on the job. Practically speaking, an organization would not want to overlook a qualified candidate because they erroneously included, in the selection process, some elements that are not relevant to job performance.

The KSAO's that are relevant for predicting success on the job for expatriates must be identified. What's interesting about the expatriate population is that they not only have to be successful on the job, and will therefore require the necessary expertise that would be required for the same position in the home country, but they will also have to adjust to the new culture which requires its own set of KSAO's. It is the later point that this study is attempting to address. In the following sections, there is a review of how organizations are currently selecting expatriates, and an examination of the state of research on this topic.

3.1. What are companies currently doing for expatriate selection

In 1982, Tung conducted a study of selection procedures for U.S., European, and Japanese multinationals (MNCs). She separated the types of expatriate positions into four categories: CEO, functional head, troubleshooter, and operative. American MNCs cited adaptability and

communication as the most important criteria for the CEO, while the European and Japanese MNCs cited managerial talent as the most important quality for CEO. Technical knowledge was cited as the most important criterion for the functional head, trouble-shooter, and operative positions in the European and Japanese MNCs. Besides technical knowledge, Japanese firms considered "experience in company" as a very important criterion for all job categories except technician. This has perhaps changed since 1982, because it is more reflective of the old ways in Japan when employees used to have lifetime employment. It is important to mention that adaptability/flexibility was rated as important by a majority of the firms for each of the four job types, although it was not always seen to be the most important. In the West European sample, for example, 77% cited adaptability/flexibility as a very important criterion for CEO, 81% found it to be very important for the functional-head, and 62% also believe it to be very important for the trouble-shooter category.

Tung also asked respondents if tests were administered in order to measure relational abilities of candidates. Only five percent of the U.S. firms and twenty-one percent of the European firms said yes. None of the Japanese firms reported using such tests which is at least consistent with their beliefs that technical knowledge and seniority are most important. Although they must realize the importance of relational abilities since fifty-seven percent of the firms surveyed provided cross-cultural training programs to prepare their expatriates for the host country. When the U.S. and European firms did test for relational abilities, they relied on judgement by seniors, psychological appraisals, and interviews by psychologists (Tung, 1982).

Although even as far back as 1982, firms acknowledged the importance of relational abilities, the priority for most organizations when selecting candidates for expatriate positions is still their technical, management, or other job-related skills (Halcrow, 1999; Hays, 1971; 1974). In an article by Frazee (1998), Dr. Paula Caligiuri, a researcher on the topic of managing global

assignees, says: "Frequently, an assignee is chosen within the business unit based only on the person's technical or managerial skills. HR has little involvement, except to process the appropriate paperwork."(p. 28). A survey conducted by Workforce magazine, in conjunction with Prudential Relocation International, found that a candidates' personality traits, such as adaptability and flexibility, were given much less priority than job-related skills. Even though research has shown that personality traits play a larger role in the employee's ability to adapt to the new culture and work productively in the new environment.

Another discouraging reality, according to some researchers in the field of expatriate selection, is that of all the parties involved in the selection process of expatriates, the HR professional often has the least influence on the decision (Caligiuri in Frazee, 1998; Halcrow, 1999). Senior management or line managers in the home or host country, primarily make the selection decision. Of course, it's not always appropriate for HR professionals to make the selection decision. After all, HR managers cannot possibly understand all the various technical requirements needed to perform in some of these expatriate positions. But, HR should be intimately involved in the selection process from the very beginning. The "soft" aspect of expatriate selection may be neglected by a lack of HR involvement.

In a study conducted by Stone (1991), Asian managers ranked "technical competence" as the most important criteria in the selection of an expatriate. Interestingly, the expatriate managers surveyed ranked "ability to adapt" as the most important criteria. It is interesting that the individuals that are actually on-the-job realize that their adaptability has played a more crucial role than their technical competence. Similar studies conducted by Brewster (1988) and Tung (1982) reveal that technical knowledge is still, in practice, the most important selection factor. Stone (1991) also asked respondents to rank the causes of expatriate failure. Interestingly, the same Asian managers that ranked "technical competence" as the most important criteria in the

selection of an expatriate, ranked “inability to adapt” as the prime cause for failure. Therefore, it would seem that Asian managers are overlooking the importance of adaptability when making their selection decisions. When comparing the rankings of managers Stone (1991) surveyed with the rankings of American managers Tung (1982) surveyed, the results are very similar. While firms seem to be aware of the importance of adaptability, it is apparent that they are not given much weight in the final selection decision (Stone, 1991).

3.2 Past Research on Expatriate selection

Very little research exists on the topic of expatriate selection. Of the research that exists, only a small proportion of it is empirically based. The literature on the topic is mostly qualitative in nature often consisting of long lists of criteria perceived to be crucial to expatriate success (Deller, 1997). Valid and reliable selection instruments are needed in the area of expatriate selection. Unfortunately, the empirical research available on this topic is limited and has produced mixed results. The human resources practitioner needs to know which KSAO's are useful in predicting success on the job for an international assignment. Useful selection and training strategies should increase the potential for expatriate success. This section focuses on the predictors of expatriate adjustment that have been investigated in the literature.

Ruben and Kealey (1979) conducted one of the first studies on expatriates (see Table 1 for a detailed listing of predictors, criterion, and results of the studies discussed in this section). They investigated the effect of seven interpersonal communication skills on expatriate adjustment. The study found that each of the predictors predicted success and failure with varying degrees of adequacy. Orientation to knowledge, empathy, and relational role-behaviour were correlated to culture shock; respect correlated with adjustment; and task role behaviour, self-centered role behaviour, and interaction posture predicted effectiveness. Black (1988) investigated the impact of prior knowledge, family adjustment, different aspects of the expatriates new role, etc, on

expatriate adjustment. He found that role ambiguity had a significant negative impact on work adjustment, role discretion and previous overseas experience had a significant positive impact on work adjustment, while pre-departure knowledge had a significant negative impact on work adjustment, however it also had a significant positive impact on general adjustment. In Kealey (1989), some of the predictor variables were self-monitoring ability, interpersonal skills, motives and attitudes. His findings suggest that individuals with high expectations and those that are highly self-centered have less difficulty adjusting to the new culture. Also, persons that are caring, desire contact with locals and have high expectations are more likely to seek contact with local culture. In terms of cross-cultural understanding, positive expectations, self-monitoring ability (this finding is discussed in more detail in the self-monitoring section of this paper), and low concern for upward mobility were the best predictors. Cui and Van Den Berg (1991) examined the effects of communication competence, personality traits, cultural empathy, and communication behaviour on intercultural effectiveness. They found that communication competence, cultural empathy, and communication behaviour were good indicators of intercultural effectiveness. Cui and Awa (1992) looked at the influence of interpersonal skills, social interaction, cultural empathy, personality traits, etc, on cross-cultural adjustment and job performance. The study found that for cross-cultural adjustment, 5 factors emerged (listed here in decreasing order of importance): personality traits, interpersonal skills, social interaction, managerial ability, and cultural empathy. Together, these factors explained 59.7% of the variance in cross-cultural adjustment. For job performance, 4 factors emerged (listed in decreasing order of importance): interpersonal skills, cultural empathy, managerial ability, and personality traits. Together, these factors explained 51.6% of the variance in job performance. It is interesting that for cross-cultural adjustment and job performance the predictors with the most influence were personality traits and interpersonal skills. It makes intuitive sense for cross-cultural adjustment, but for job performance one might expect managerial ability to be more important than interpersonal skills. More recently, Deller (1997) investigated the influence of extroversion,

agreeableness, flexibility, tolerance, etc, on adaptation, and work-related effectiveness. He found that extroversion and agreeableness were correlated to adaptation and self-report effectiveness, while only cognitive ability was correlated to supervisor-report effectiveness.

This illustrates the plethora of predictors that have been investigated as potentially influencing expatriate adjustment. Many deal with personal characteristics of the expatriate, while others focus on external items such as training and specific job factors (e.g. role novelty, role ambiguity, etc). As indicated in the previous paragraph, some encouraging results were obtained for the impact of personal characteristics on adjustment.

Table 1 Predictors, Criterion, and Results of Literature

Study	
<p>Ruben & Kealey (1979) Sample=19 Longitudinal design</p>	<p>Predictors: Empathy, respect, role behaviour, flexibility, orientation to knowledge, interaction posture, interaction management, tolerance for ambiguity.</p> <p>Criterion: Culture shock, psychological adjustment, interactional effectiveness.</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Orientation to knowledge, empathy, and relational role-behaviour correlated to culture shock. • Respect correlated with adjustment. • Task role behaviour, self-centered role behaviour, and interaction posture predicted effectiveness.
<p>Black (1988) Sample=67 Concurrent design</p>	<p>Predictors: Role novelty, role ambiguity, role conflict, role overload, role discretion, previous transfers, pre-departure knowledge, family adjustment, interaction with host nationals.</p> <p>Criterion: Expatriate adjustment (i.e. work adjustment, interaction adjustment, general adjustment).</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Role ambiguity had a negative impact on work adjustment. • Role discretion and previous overseas experience had a positive impact on work adjustment. • Pre-departure knowledge had a negative impact on work

	<p>adjustment.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pre-departure knowledge had a positive impact on general adjustment.
<p>Kealey (1989) Sample=277 Longitudinal design (n=89) Concurrent design (n=188)</p>	<p>Predictors: Field-dependence-field-independence, self-monitoring, social participation, adroitness, conformity, social desirability, peer-rated caring, peer-rated self-centered, peer-rated active, self-rated caring, self-rated self-centered, self-rated active, desired contact, attitudes to development, predeparture expectations, family closeness, motivation, security, upward mobility, adventure, altruism.</p> <p>Criterion: Adjustment, acculturative stress, satisfaction, contact with locals, cross-cultural understanding, effectiveness at transfer of skills and knowledge.</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Individuals with high expectations and those that are highly self-centered have less difficulty adjusting. • People that score high on social desirable responding, have a strong desire for contact with locals, a sense of adventure, little fears for security, and high social participation, are more likely to be satisfied overall. • Persons that are caring, desire contact with locals and have high expectations are more likely to seek contact with local culture. • Caring, non self-centered, active individuals with little concern for upward mobility are more likely to be peer rated as effective at transferring skills to the locals. • Positive expectations, high self-monitoring ability, and low concern for upward mobility were the best predictors of cross-cultural understanding. • Individuals that are highly self-centered, have liberal attitudes to development, lack of a spirit of adventure, and have an emotionally distant family relationship are more likely to experience acculturative stress.
<p>Cui & Van Den Berg (1991) Sample=70 Concurrent design</p>	<p>Predictors: Communication competence, personality traits, cultural empathy, communication behaviour.</p> <p>Criterion: Intercultural effectiveness.</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Communication competence, cultural empathy, and communication behaviour were good indicators of intercultural effectiveness.
<p>Cui & Awa (1992) Sample=257 Concurrent design</p>	<p>Predictors: Language skills, interpersonal skills, social interaction, cultural empathy, personality traits, managerial ability.</p>

	<p>Criterion: Cross-cultural adjustment, job performance.</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Personality traits, interpersonal skills, social interaction, managerial ability, and cultural empathy predicted cross-cultural adjustment. • Interpersonal skills, cultural empathy, managerial ability, and personality traits predicted job performance.
<p>Deller (1997) Sample=36 Concurrent design</p>	<p>Predictors: Extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, neuroticism, openness, self-acceptance, dominance, flexibility, tolerance, tolerance for ambiguity, cognitive ability.</p> <p>Criterion: Adaptation, work-related effectiveness.</p> <p>Results:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, tolerance for ambiguity and cognitive ability were all correlated to self-report adaptation. • Agreeableness, neuroticism, self-acceptance, and cognitive ability were correlated to supervisor-report adaptation. • Extroversion, and conscientiousness were correlated to self-report effectiveness. • Cognitive ability was correlated to supervisor-report effectiveness.

Shilling (1993) states that an effective selection process should consider whether candidates have abilities in 3 areas: self-orientation, others orientation, and perceptual orientation. Self-orientation includes activities and attributes that strengthen the expatriates self-esteem, self-confidence and mental health. Others orientation includes activities and attributes that enhance the expatriate's ability to interact with host-country nationals. Perceptual orientation is the ability to understand why foreigners do what they do. Guy and Patton (1996) summarize some of the findings of previous research on this topic by stating that various personal characteristics affect expatriate adjustment. They say that open-mindedness, empathy, cultural sensitivity, resiliency, and low ego identity are associated with less culture shock. During the selection process, substantial emphasis should be placed on the candidate's personality traits, foreign language

skills, relational abilities, emotional stability, education, past experience with host or other cultures, and the ability to deal with stress.

Research on this topic certainly indicates that an expatriate's personality characteristics can influence his ability to adjust to the new culture and succeed in his role. Variables or constructs like cultural empathy, respect, extroversion, caring, communication competence, social interaction, etc, were all found to influence expatriate adjustment. Self-monitoring ability, which is the ability to control the impressions others form of one's self, taps into these kinds of personality characteristics that were found to be important factors for expatriate success. The self-monitoring construct measures an individual's ability to change their behaviour to fit new social situations. High self-monitors are acutely aware of social cues that indicate what behaviour is appropriate and are able to modify their actions to behave in the appropriate manner. It is a natural extension to investigate the predictive validity of self-monitoring for predicting expatriate job success. This study proposes to investigate the predictive power of self-monitoring ability on cross-cultural adjustment.

4. Self-Monitoring of expressive behaviour

4.1. Introduction to self-monitoring ability

Individuals can express various emotions through verbal and non-verbal means. Researchers have proposed that the ability to manage one's expressive behaviour is a prerequisite to interacting in socially appropriate ways (Snyder, 1974). Goffman (1955) has compared social interaction to that of a theatrical performance in which an individual's lines are written to fit the situation. There are, however, differences in the extent to which each person is able and willing to monitor their expressive behaviour (Snyder, 1974). The essence of self-monitoring ability, according to Snyder, is the ability to modify one's behaviour to fit different situations. He suggests that some people are better able to monitor (observe and control) their behaviour to be more socially appropriate. A high self-monitoring individual always tries to be the type of person that a situation calls for, whereas a low self-monitoring individual does not vary their behaviour depending on the situation.

Studies on expatriate selection indicate that certain predictors facilitate the adjustment and effectiveness of expatriates. Some of these predictors that were presented in a previous section include cultural empathy, relational role behaviour, respect, communication competence, interpersonal skills, extroversion, and agreeableness. A high self-monitoring individual would display cultural empathy and respect for the culture in order to fit into the new environment. Such an individual would be an expert communicator and would display this ability during interactions with others. Persons high in this ability would also have great interpersonal skills, as they are very good conversationalists and are extroverts by nature. Given this impressive match between qualities that expatriates must possess and the characteristics of high self-monitoring individuals, it is a logical progression to ask: "Do high self-monitors make better expatriates?"

4.2. Definition of self-monitoring construct

Snyder first suggested the existence of a self-monitoring construct in 1974. He proposes that it is composed of 5 separate components. The first component is “concern with the social appropriateness of one’s self-presentation”. In social situations, a high self-monitoring individual is always aware of his conduct. He is always trying to behave in an acceptable manner. However, a low self-monitoring individual would just be himself. He wouldn’t change his behaviour to fit the situation. The second component is “attention to social comparison information as cues to appropriate self-presentation”. A high self-monitoring individual is a keen observer of others’ behaviour and he mimics others behaviour in order to fit in. At the other extreme, a low self-monitoring person would be almost oblivious to the behaviour of others and would certainly make no attempt to copy them. The third component, “the ability to control and modify one’s self-presentation and expressive behaviour”, deals with the ability to modify behaviour. Many people may attempt to do so, but some are particularly good at it. The fourth component is “the use of this ability in particular situations”. This goes one-step further than the third component. It deals with actually using the ability to modify your behaviour in various social situations. An example would be being friendly with people you really dislike. Separating components three and four seems a little like overkill. They could be combined into one component. In fact this is one of the main criticisms with the self-monitoring construct. Factor analysis of the construct often reveals that it is comprised of only three components, not five as Snyder suggests. This is addressed in more detail in the next section. Finally, the fifth component is “the extent to which the respondents expressive behaviour and self-presentation is cross-situationally consistent or variable”. This is the ability to act very differently in various social circles. Some individuals will act like themselves regardless of their surroundings. While other’s almost have chameleon type personalities. They completely change the way they act

depending on who they are talking to. Arguably, this component does not seem very different from component three.

4.3. Measurement of self-monitoring ability

Snyder's self-monitoring scale initially contained 41 true-false self-descriptive statements addressing each of the 5 components described above. Also using University students, Snyder refined the scale until finally 25 statements remained with a Kuder-Richardson 20 reliability of .70 and a test-retest reliability of .83. Hence, the first self-monitoring scale was born.

Shortly following the publishing of Snyder's article with the first self-monitoring scale, researchers began to take an interest in the self-monitoring construct and of course some of the interest was of a critical nature. In 1984, Lennox and Wolfe criticized Snyder's original scale and attempted to improve it with a new revised scale. Their main criticism was that 4 of the 5 components were positively correlated to social anxiety, something that is incompatible with high self-monitoring ability. They devised a two-factor model a) ability to modify self-presentation b) sensitivity to expressive behaviour of others, comprised of 13 face valid questions. This revised scale has an internal consistency of .75 and shows no significant positive correlation to social anxiety. Snyder and Gangestad (1986) responded to criticisms by Lennox and Wolfe and other authors concerning the self-monitoring scale. Snyder points out that criticism is a necessary part of refining a construct. He admits that his first attempt at defining the self-monitoring construct, was just that, a first attempt. Only with on-going research into the nature of the self-monitoring construct, will it be possible to improve the definition of the construct. Snyder and Gangestad agree that the evidence generally indicates the presence of 3 factors, but sometimes as few as 2 and as many as 4, rather than their proposed 5 factor construct. They continue to say that when constructing a measure you never know for sure what the measure taps, but that the goal of research should be to bring the measure closer and closer to the truth. And this is precisely what

is happening. Snyder and Gangestad question the difference between the revised Lennox and Wolfe scale and the original Snyder 1974 scale. They administered both questionnaires to 313 students and found an estimated correlation of .72. They raise 3 main criticisms of the Lennox and Wolfe scale: a) many questions are restatements of one another, b) all but 2 questions are keyed in the same direction possibly leading to response bias, c) the questions are long and do not use everyday language. Snyder and Gangestad then propose a new 18 item scale doing away with questions that did not differentiate between high and low self-monitors very well. This new scale has an internal consistency of .70. Several studies have been conducted using Snyder's self-monitoring construct to predict different behaviours. Therefore, perhaps the most persuasive evidence of its predictive and construct validity stems from over 25 years of research indicating that there are behavioural and attitudinal differences between high and low self-monitors (Kilduff & Day, 1994).

4.4. Past research on self-monitoring ability

In the years that followed Snyder's introduction of the self-monitoring construct, it quickly gained popularity. A number of articles featured Snyder's self-monitoring construct to investigate many types of behaviours. The next section looks at different studies that have made use of the self-monitoring construct.

Self-monitoring ability has been used in a wide variety of contexts. It has been used to predict religious behaviour (Zanna, Olson, & Fazio, 1980), voting in an election and usage of marijuana (Ajzen, Timko, & White, 1982), marijuana and alcohol use (Wolfe, Lennox, & Hudiburg, 1983), cooperative behaviour (Danheiser & Graziano, 1982), choosing social situations (Snyder & Gangestad, 1982), the psychology of advertising (Snyder & DeBono, 1985), romantic relationships (Snyder & Simpson, 1986), the outcome of an expatriate assignment (Kealey, 1989),

leadership emergence (Zaccaro, Foti, & Kenny, 1991), and number of career promotions (Kilduff & Day, 1994), to name a few.

In the majority of these studies, differences were found for high and low self-monitors. High self-monitoring individuals were more likely to modify their behaviour depending on the social appropriateness of the situation, while low self-monitoring individuals were more likely to behave in their predisposed manner regardless of the situation. Zaccaro et al (1991) conducted a study in which they investigated the relationship between self-monitoring ability and leadership emergence. They found that even across different group situations, high self-monitoring individuals were more likely to be identified as leaders. Four group situations were created to reflect four different leadership requirements: initiating structure, consideration, persuasion, and production. High self-monitoring individuals were more likely to modify their leadership style depending on what the situation called for. Although expatriates may not always be in so-called leadership positions, being a leader and being able to modify one's leadership style to fit the situation, is a very useful trait for an expatriate to possess. To further illustrate the point that high self-monitors are more likely to modify their behaviour to fit the situation than are low self-monitors, let's examine the Kilduff and Day (1994) study. MBA students were given the self-monitoring survey to complete during their second year of the MBA program. The revised eighteen-item scale was used. A reliability alpha of .75 was obtained, which is in line with Snyder's findings. The study tracked 139 graduates of the same MBA program for 5 years. For each respondent, they tracked the number of promotions within the same company, and the number of promotions in moves to another company. Job mobility was also tracked, which is defined as the number of times an individual changes employers, and geographic mobility, which measures the number of moves across state or country. The researchers found that high self-monitors were more likely to achieve cross-company promotions, change employers, and make geographical moves than were low self-monitors. When they looked at individuals that did not

change employers, they also found that high self-monitors were more likely to get promoted. Most people like to believe that we get ahead in life because of our education, training, or hard work. We don't like to think that our career outcome is also influenced by our personality. There now exist a handful of studies that offer some evidence that we just might be slaves to our personality (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982; House et al, 1991; Kilduff & Day, 1994). This is also what is proposed here. It is an expatriate's personality, self-monitoring ability in particular, and not his education or technical ability that will determine if he can adjust to his new environment.

In 1989, Kealey conducted the only study investigating the predictive power of self-monitoring ability on the outcome of an overseas assignment. The total sample size was comprised of 277 individuals. Respondents were Canadian technical assistance advisors sponsored by the Canadian International Development Agency. The individuals were professionally diverse and were sent to Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean. The criterion Kealey was interested in predicting was adjustment, acculturative stress, satisfaction, contact with locals, cross-cultural understanding, and effectiveness at transfer of skills and knowledge. To measure satisfaction they used the Memorial Scale of Happiness (Kozma & Stones, 1980) and they created a scale to measure job satisfaction. The Cawte (1972) scale for mental health was used to measure acculturative stress. Kealey developed open-ended questions to measure adjustment. He also developed an index to assess cross-cultural understanding, and effectiveness at transferring skills and knowledge. Tucker's 1974 scale was used to measure contact with locals. Regression analysis revealed that self-monitoring ability was only influential for the criterion variable "cross-cultural understanding". Even though it wasn't found to be influential for the other criterion variables, it is still an interesting finding that merits further exploration.

Although few of the articles on self-monitoring touch on selection, and expatriate selection in particular, one can see that possessing the abilities of a high self-monitoring individual would be

beneficial for an expatriate. If an expatriate were a low self-monitoring individual with no concern for appropriateness of social behaviour, no attention to social comparison information, no ability to control or modify self-presentation, no cross-situational variability of social behaviour, he would most assuredly fail on his expatriate assignment. When working and living with people of another culture, an individual needs all of the abilities of a high self-monitoring individual in order to adjust and succeed in their venture abroad.

5. Adjustment

The issue of expatriate adjustment is a big concern for companies. The amount of money involved and the high failure rates of expatriates make this a particularly interesting topic for research. When tools are found to be useful at predicting expatriate success, there is the potential for companies to save a lot of money by avoiding, or greatly diminishing expatriate failures.

5.1. History of cross-cultural adjustment

Researchers have been studying cross-cultural adjustment for several decades. The first studies were conducted on Norwegian students (Lysgaard, 1955). A few years later, Oberg coined the term “culture shock” referring to an individual's attempt at adjusting to a new culture (e.g. customs, language, norms, etc.). Culture can be described as the acquired knowledge a person uses to interpret his experiences and to guide his behaviours (Katz & Seifer, 1996). Researchers began to notice that the extent to which individuals experienced culture shock differed. Some individuals had more difficulty adjusting than did others. Researchers have since been trying to figure out exactly what it is that helps people adjust to new environments. Also, until recently, adjustment has been measured as a unitary phenomenon. It is now widely accepted that adjustment is multi-faceted.

5.2. Definition of Adjustment

One of the problems with the literature on expatriate adjustment is that researchers often use the terms adjustment, adaptation, and effectiveness interchangeably. Before examining the criterion used in this study, let's first review the definitions of these terms.

Adjustment

Adjustment has been defined as “a condition of harmonious relation to the environment wherein one is able to obtain satisfaction for most of one's needs and to meet fairly well the demands,

physical and social, put upon one.” (English, 1958, in Hannigan 1990 p.90). English also defines the term *relative adjustment* as the process of changing oneself to fit the environment. In 1972, David defines the concept of *social adjustment* as the expatriates interaction with host nationals. He would argue that the more often an expatriate interacts with the locals, the more likely he is to experience social adjustment. Adler (1975) views *cultural adjustment* as learning the local language, recognizing the names of cities and local historical persons, and having a working knowledge of local customs and habits of the people. This definition only comprises the intellectual dimension of adjustment. It excludes the whole emotional component. In 1979, Ruben and Kealey define *psychological adjustment* as the individuals general psychological well being, satisfaction, contentment, etc, with their new environment. They consider adjustment to be only one component of cross-cultural adaptation. Torbiorn (1982) proposes a similar definition of *subjective adjustment* as the individuals general satisfaction in the host country. In the same year, Church (1982) broadens the definition of *sojourner adjustment* to include both academic/professional performance and overall satisfaction. Black (1988) proposed that there was both a subjective and objective definition of adjustment. He says that subjectively, degree of adjustment is the amount of comfort the incumbent feels in his new role, and that objectively, adjustment is the degree to which the incumbent has mastered the role and that this mastery is proven via his performance in the job.

In summary, based on the above citings, adjustment can be described as an individuals ability to change oneself in order to obtain satisfaction in the new culture, the ability to meet performance expectations, and it also involves interaction with locals, both socially and in the work setting.

Adaptation

Nash's (1967) definition of adaptation involves a process a change, and the change is only complete when the individual feels at-home in the new environment. Klein (1979) proposes a

similar definition for adaptation as a process of behavioural change. In 1978, Pruitt proposes a two-dimensional view of the adaptation construct. According to Pruitt it is composed of adjustment-a feeling of satisfaction-and assimilation-interacting with locals and accepting the culture. The following year, Ruben and Kealey (1979) propose that *cross-cultural adaptation* is comprised of three separate dimensions. Namely, culture shock, psychological adjustment (see previous section for definition), and interactional effectiveness (see following section for definition). Grove and Torbiorn (1985) view adaptation as a process of changing ones mental frame of reference, which is similar to Nash's (1967) and Klein's (1979) definitions. According to Cui and Awa (1992) cross-cultural adaptation is comprised of adjustment and job performance.

In summary, all the definitions cited above deal with the same issues defined as adjustment, or they include adjustment as a component of adaptation. This is certainly a weakness in the state of terminology in this area. However, it can be concluded that adaptation involves the "cognitive, attitudinal, behavioural, and psychological changes in an individual who lives in a new or foreign culture." (Hannigan, 1990 p. 92).

Effectiveness

The terms effective, successful, or competent are often used to describe the desired behaviour of persons working abroad. Hammer, Gudykunst, and Wiseman (1978) believe that *intercultural effectiveness* is comprised of four skills. Namely, the ability to enter into meaningful conversations with locals, the ability to initiate interaction with a stranger, the ability to deal with communication misunderstandings, and the ability to deal effectively with different communication styles. This is a very narrow definition focusing entirely on communication. Cui (1989) also defines intercultural effectiveness as the ability to communicate effectively across cultures, while Cui and Van Den Berg (1991) propose that it is comprised of three factors, namely, communication competence, cultural empathy, and communication behaviour.

Most of the research in this area is conducted by social scientist, and in terms of effectiveness, they are more concerned with the ability to communicate effectively, than job performance. However, research on Peace Corps volunteers defines effectiveness as the successful completion of training. Successful completion of assignment or performance evaluations would be more stringent criteria than successful completion of training, but at least it is more all-encompassing than communication effectiveness. If an individual successfully completed training, then they must have been successful in several different areas, not only in communication. Ruben and Kealey (1979) consider *interactional effectiveness* as the third component to overall adaptation, and they define it as participation in the local culture, interaction with host nationals, and the transfer of skills to the locals. Here also we see how the definitions for effectiveness and adjustment become intertwined. Participation in the local culture and interaction with locals are already included in the definition for adjustment. Even the aspect of job performance is included in the definition of adjustment, but it is an important measure that often gets overlooked if it is grouped into the adjustment definition. Therefore, job performance should be treated separately.

In summary, effectiveness can be described as successful job performance, which should include aspects of communication competence, and transfer-of-skills if relevant to the position.

5.3. Adjustment construct

Black (1990) proposed a three-faceted adjustment construct that addresses the entire definition of adjustment (see above section). It is comprised of interaction adjustment, general adjustment, and work adjustment. These 3 facets are explained in the following paragraphs.

Interaction adjustment has to do with interacting with the host nationals (locals) in both the work environment and outside the work environment. Depending on how culturally different the home and host countries are, there will be more or less interaction adjustment to cope with. For example, if the home country is the United States and the host country is Pakistan, whose culture

and customs are markedly different than the United States, there will be more interaction adjustment to cope with than if the host country was Canada or another country that is not so culturally different from the United States.

General adjustment deals with everyday life in the new country, using the transportation system, shopping, buying food, seeking entertainment, and coping with the weather. As in the case with interaction adjustment, cultural distance (the degree to which two cultures differ) between the home and host cultures also affects general adjustment. Depending on how culturally different the home and host countries are, there will be more or less general adjustment with which to cope.

Work adjustment has to do with the individual's adjustment to their new job. Black (1990) describes it as the person's adjustment to their new job responsibilities, new performance standards, and new planning responsibilities. Of course, if the new position is the same as the old position except for the fact that it is in a new country, then the individual may have to worry less about work adjustment and focus more on interaction and general adjustment.

5.4. Job Performance construct

Although Black's (1990) adjustment construct includes the aspect of work adjustment, it does not specifically measure job performance. Black's definition of work adjustment only deals with the individual's adjustment to the new work setting. It does not attempt to measure how the individual is performing on the job. An objective measure of job performance should include all behaviours and all measurable outputs that are relevant to the job. This can include items like communication competence and transfer of skills mentioned in the effectiveness section above.

6. Hypotheses

6.1. Self-Monitoring and Interaction Adjustment

Individuals that are high in self-monitoring ability are very flexible in their style of interacting with others. They are able to change their behaviour to fit different social situations. Zaccaro et al (1991) found a significant correlation between self-monitoring ability and leadership rankings across several group situations. This chameleon-like ability would be very helpful when interacting with people of a different culture because it gives the individual the sensitivity needed for understanding that sometimes, in order to act in a socially appropriate way, one must alter their behaviour. In a 1982 article by Ajzen, Timko, and White they cited that Snyder argued that low self-monitoring individuals were more likely to act in accordance to their attitudes and beliefs, whereas high self-monitoring individuals were more likely to act in a socially desirable way in spite of their attitudes or beliefs.

H1: Self-monitoring will be positively related to interaction adjustment.

6.2. Self-Monitoring and Work Adjustment

Self-monitoring ability really deals with the interactions among individuals, whereas work adjustment focuses on adjustment to work responsibilities, performance standards, and the demands of supervisors. It is true that adjusting to the work environment does take a certain amount of interaction among co-workers and others. In fact, for certain job types the majority of the responsibilities may be to conduct negotiations, make contacts, forge deals, which require a lot of sensitive interactions with local politicians, senior officials, local business people, etc. Therefore, it is expected that there will be a positive relationship with self-monitoring ability and work adjustment.

H2: Self-monitoring ability will be positively related to work adjustment.

6.3. Self-Monitoring and General Adjustment

General adjustment taps into an individual's adjustment to a new transportation system, new shopping styles and experiences, new weather climate, a new local cuisine, and new types of entertainment. The cross-situational adaptability high self-monitors are known for, also helps them adjust to the general environment. Therefore, self-monitoring ability and general adjustment are positively related.

H3: Self-monitoring ability will be positively related to general adjustment.

6.4. Self-Monitoring and Job performance

To perform successfully in a job it takes a certain level of technical competence regardless of your work location (at home or in a foreign country). When working in a foreign culture, in addition to technical competence, it requires the ability to interact with coworkers, superiors, and subordinates in an appropriate manner. Since the literature clearly shows that technical competence is usually the main criteria when selecting an individual for a job, it is quite safe to assume that most individuals possess the required technical competence. Therefore, the factor that will differentiate between good and bad performers is their ability to interact with others. It is predicted that self-monitoring ability influences job performance since interaction with others is the core of self-monitoring ability.

H4: Self-monitoring will be positively related to job performance.

7. Methods

7.1. Sample

Church (1982) in Black 1990 notes that most research on cross-cultural adjustment used students as the sample population. Students are often used because they are a convenient source of information. However, the use of International students as substitutes for expatriates is not that much of a stretch. Both samples are living and working/studying in a foreign culture, and both must face similar adjustment issues. Such as new responsibilities, new performance standards, interacting and working with the locals, different transportation system, local cuisine, a change in climate (weather), different entertainment opportunities, shopping, etc. There are certainly many similarities, but differences do exist between expatriates and International students and to ignore them would be overly simplistic. Firstly, the average expatriate is in his early forties, while International students tend to be in their early twenties. A person in their forties tends to also have a spouse and children and a home. Someone in their early twenties is generally single with no dependants and living at mom and dads or in an apartment with a lease that can be broken. These are very different circumstances. For an expatriate to accept an International assignment it generally means the entire family is uprooted, whereas a student can practically just pick up and go. This puts a lot of additional pressure on the expatriate not only to succeed on the job, but also in terms of family harmony. There may be a lot of resentment from the spouse and kids depending on how willing they were to join the adventure. Another fundamental difference with the two samples is in the selection procedure itself. Expatriates are selected by the company, while students have decided for themselves that they would like to study in a new country. Therefore the students are willing and eager to tackle the challenges of living and studying abroad, while the expatriate may feel somewhat forced to accept the position. In accepting the position abroad, the expatriate has his career in mind as his #1 priority, while students go abroad

for many reasons. Experiencing a new culture, or improving a language may be a students #1 priority. Therefore, the underlying motivation for both populations may differ. Also, most of the studies on the topic of expatriate selection have been conducted on English speaking individuals going to a non-English speaking environment, while this study is mainly comprised of non-English speaking individuals (English is not the mother tongue) going to an English speaking environment. Another difference worth noting between the samples is the measure of performance. For expatriates, a work performance measure would be used, while for the students a measure of academic performance was used. There are fundamental differences between the two. Work often involves working with others and depending on others. However, studying and academic performance is usually done by oneself.

There appears to be many differences between expatriates and International students. However, the similar adjustment issues that both must face will likely override these differences. In fact, this study using International students produced the same results as Kraimer (2001) which used expatriates (see details in Discussion section).

For this study, Concordia and McGill International students were contacted by e-mail requesting their participation in the study. The students were not compensated for their participation in the study. However, a small prize was offered to encourage their participation. One-hundred-and-fifty students indicated their interest to participate in this study. A questionnaire and a short letter from the researcher were sent to participants (see Appendix A); both were only available in English. This was deemed suitable since the focus was on English language Universities and both schools require that International students first pass an English competency exam before being admitted. The questionnaire was pilot tested with a small group of International students at Concordia University. From the feedback received, some minor changes were made to clarify a few questions. Also based on the feedback, it was decided to incorporate a 4-point Likert scale

for the self-monitoring questions rather than the dichotomous True/False answer system used by Snyder and Gangestad (1986). This is discussed further in the measures section for the self-monitoring scale.

One-hundred-and-thirty-one completed surveys were received, reflecting an 87% response rate for those who expressed an initial interest (Table 2). One of these students belonged to a worldwide organization of International students, and he forwarded our e-mail message to other students around the world. Requests were received to participate in the study from International students all over the world. Forty two “Other” International students indicated their interest to participate, and 26 completed surveys were returned.

Table 2 Sample Details

School	Interested	Replied	percentage
Concordia & McGill	150	131	87%
Other	42	26	62%
Total	192	157	82%

Sixteen of the respondents were from the US. When these individuals were removed from the sample, some results changed. Since it would be difficult to argue that the US is a culturally distant country when compared to Canada, it was decided to perform all analyses without these individuals in the sample.

The final sample was 49% female and 51% male. On average the respondents were 23 years old and had been in their new city (Montreal or elsewhere) for an average of approximately 8.5 months. A total of 40 countries are represented in the sample. However the top five countries, listed in descending order, France, Brazil, Germany, Mexico, and Denmark account for more than 50% of the entire sample.

7.2. Measures

Self-Monitoring

In this study, the Snyder and Gangestad (1986) eighteen item measure of self-monitoring was used since the questions are clear and concise. Questions that are easy to understand are very important since the sample is mainly comprised of students that speak English as a second language. The internal consistency numbers of the Snyder (1974) and the Snyder and Gangestad (1986) studies are similar and are therefore not an issue in deciding which scale to use. Both these scales used a True/False response option. It was felt this dichotomous answering system did not give respondents enough flexibility. Therefore, a 4-point Likert scale (False, Mostly False, Mostly True, True) was used. Briggs, Cheek and Buss (1980) tested whether a Likert response format was comparable to the True/False format. They found a correlation of .72 ($p < .001$). This indicates that using a Likert scale is an acceptable alternative to the True/False format. They also separated the data by gender to see if there was any kind of gender bias, but found so little difference that they combined the data.

Snyder and Gangestad (1986) worded 10 of the 18 self-monitoring items negatively to reduce the likelihood of response bias. Minor modifications were made to 5 of the 18 items to make them easier to understand. For example, question 15 was changed from “At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going” to “At a party I let others tell jokes and stories instead of me”. Refer to Appendix B to see the original 18 items from Snyder and Gangestad and section 3 of Appendix A to see the revised 18 items used in this study. Their 18-item measure had an internal consistency of .70. For this study, the reliability coefficient was a similar .68.

Adjustment.

Black (1988) developed an 11-item scale to measure the three facets of adjustments. He found reliability coefficients of .80, .83, and .30 for general, interaction, and work adjustment respectively. In 1989, Black and Stephens investigated the influence of the spouse on expatriate adjustment using a new, although some items were taken from Black's 1988 study, 14-item scale. They found reliability coefficients of .82, .89, and .91 for general, interaction, and work adjustment respectively. One year later, Black investigated the adjustment of Japanese expatriate managers. He used the same 6 items to measure general adjustment as in the two previous studies, but used 4 new items for interaction adjustment and 3 new items for work adjustment. This time he found reliability coefficients of .90, .88, and .90 for general, interaction, and work adjustment respectively.

The questions in all 3 scales are very similar, but based on the reliability coefficient numbers, it was decided to use the Black 1990 scale to measure adjustment. A few modifications were made to make the items relevant to our sample. For example, rather than asking respondents how adjusted they felt in terms of their "job responsibilities", they were asked how adjusted they felt in terms of their "school responsibilities". Also, some items had to be changed altogether because they were irrelevant to our sample. Item 3 from Black 1990, adjustment to planning responsibilities, became adjustment to demands of professors. Refer to Appendix C to see the original 13 item measure of adjustment from Black 1990 and section 5 of Appendix A to see the revised 13 items used in this study to measure the 3 facets of adjustment. Our somewhat modified 13-item measure of adjustment has reliability coefficients of .78, .86, and .89 for general, interaction, and work adjustment respectively. The scale as a total has a reliability coefficient of .85.

Job Performance

In order to measure job performance, respondents were asked two questions concerning their scholastic performance. This is a self-report measure, which is vulnerable to dishonesty, but is often used in studies due to the difficulty in obtaining confidential performance information from official sources such as human resource departments and University Registrar's. Every possible step was taken so that respondents had absolutely nothing to gain by inflating their reported performance level. This measure has a reliability coefficient of .84.

8. Results

Some interesting correlations were found between a few of the variables (see Table 3). Age is negatively correlated with self-monitoring ability and to general adjustment. The number of months an individual has spent in the new environment is positively related to school performance and work adjustment. The implications of these findings are discussed in more detail in the Discussion section of this paper.

Table 3 Means, standard deviations, and correlation's for all variables
(numbers in parentheses are intrascale reliabilities)

Variables	Mean	Std. D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. Age	23.42	3.99	-						
2. Months	8.60	11.93	.40**	-					
3. Self-monitoring	2.48	.36	-.25*	-.18*	(.68)				
4. School performance	3.58	.95	.15	.25**	-.08	(.84)			
5. Work adjustment	3.82	.89	.15	.22*	-.17*	.55**	(.89)		
6. Interaction adjustment	3.38	1.11	-.05	.02	.19*	.26**	.37**	(.86)	
7. General adjustment	3.93	.74	-.21*	-.05	.09	.16	.28**	.44**	(.78)

* p<.05 (2-tailed); ** p<.01 (2-tailed)

If we look at the validity coefficients in Table 3, only work adjustment and interaction adjustment have significant correlations with values of -.17 and .19 respectively. It should perhaps be noted that the validity coefficient for work adjustment is negative which is opposite to what was hypothesized. A possible theory for this is explored in the Discussion section of this paper. All the dependant variables are significantly positively correlated, with the exception of school performance and general adjustment, which was not significant. However, the intrascale reliabilities are all higher than the interscale correlations. This suggests an acceptable level of discriminate validity for the dependant variables (Buchanan, 1974 in Black, 1990).

In every study, one of the main concerns is the reliability and validity of predictor and criterion variables. Fortunately, there are a number of acceptable methods for correcting problems with data or scales. Two such methods are *correction for attenuation* and *restriction of range*. When the validity coefficient is lowered due to unreliability in the criterion, it is possible to make a statistical correction to see what the validity would be if the criterion scale was perfectly reliable. This is called *correction for attenuation*. Using the formula in Gatewood and Feild (2001) the new validity coefficient for self-monitoring ability and the criterion variable interaction adjustment is .205.

Restriction of range is a term used to describe the situation where variations in scores, on predictor and/or criterion measures, has been reduced. This can happen for a variety of reasons, but is a problem in this study for two reasons. Firstly, the participants in the study are only those that were accepted to the University in the new country. Therefore, it does not include all applicants. This could possibly reduce the variation in score for the self-monitoring scale. Secondly, individuals that were having major difficulties adjusting may have already gone back to their home country prior to having the opportunity of taking part in the study. This would reduce the variation in score for all criterion variables. To correct for restriction of range the formula in Gatewood and Feild (2001) was used. To use this formula, the standard deviation of the unrestricted sample is needed. Since obtaining this number is not possible, turning to previous research on the self-monitoring scale can help us find an appropriate number to use. In other studies there are standard deviations ranging from 3.38 to 3.97 (Snyder, 1974; Kilduff & Day, 1994; Wolfe, Lennox & Hudiburg, 1983). Unfortunately the standard deviation for Snyder's revised 18-item self-monitoring scale, which is the one used in this study, is not available. In order to err on the conservative side, the unrestricted validity coefficients was computed using the smallest standard deviation of 3.38 which will raise the validity coefficient

the least. It was also necessary to re-scale the self-monitoring scores into a possible total of 18, in order to have a standard deviation that was comparable to other studies. To do this, an individual's total score was simply divided by 4, rather than divided by 18. Using the new validity coefficients corrected for attenuation as the r_{xy} , an SD_u of 3.38, and an SD_r of 1.64, an unrestricted validity coefficient of .43 was obtained for interaction adjustment. In Gatewood and Feild (1994), they quote several studies that have found validity coefficients ranging from .47 to .62 for the structured interview. They also quote a validity coefficient of .53 for cognitive ability tests. Both these methods, the structured interview and cognitive ability tests, have long been recommended for use in selection. This helps put the validity coefficient of self-monitoring ability (.43) into context.

8.1. Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicts that self-monitoring ability will be positively related to interaction adjustment in that high self-monitors will exhibit a higher level of interaction adjustment than low self-monitors. To test the influence of self-monitoring ability on interaction adjustment, a simple linear regression was run by regressing interaction adjustment on self-monitoring ability. A summary of the regression results is presented in Table 4. Self-monitoring ability had a significant positive impact on interaction adjustment as was hypothesized.

Table 4 Regression results

Criterion	B	F	r ²	p value
Interaction adjustment	.564	4.885	.037	.029
Work adjustment	-.431	4.003	.030	.048
General adjustment	.186	1.110	.009	.294
School performance	-.207	0.839	.006	.361

8.2. Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis predicts that self-monitoring ability will be positively related to work adjustment in that high self-monitors will exhibit a higher level of work adjustment than low self-

monitors. Again, simple linear regression was run by regressing work adjustment on self-monitoring ability (Table 4). Self-monitoring ability had a significant negative impact on work adjustment. This relationship is contrary to what was hypothesized and it will be addressed further in the Discussion section. Hypothesis 2 is not supported.

8.3. Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis predicts that self-monitoring ability will be positively related to general adjustment in that high self-monitors will exhibit a higher level of general adjustment than low self-monitors. Simple linear regression was run by regressing general adjustment on self-monitoring ability. No significant relationship was found (Table 4).

8.4. Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis predicts that self-monitoring ability will be positively related to job performance in that high self-monitors will perform better on the job than low self-monitors. Simple linear regression was run by regressing school performance on self-monitoring ability. No significant relationship was found (Table 4).

Since no relationship was found, the possibility that current school performance could be influenced by previous school performance was investigated, and therefore previous school performance was controlled for. This theory seems like a logical possibility since individuals that have a history of performing well or poorly may continue to do so in their new position regardless of their self-monitoring ability, and so it needs to be controlled for in order to isolate the predictive power of self-monitoring ability. However, controlling for previous school performance did not change the results.

8.5. Exploratory Analysis

It has been well documented in the literature on adjustment that time plays an important role (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Nash, 1991). The U-Curve adjustment hypothesis proposes that when individuals first arrive in a new environment they are in a honeymoon type stage. They are very excited by their new surroundings and it feels as though they are adjusting. After a little while in the host country, reality starts to set in, and individuals are feeling less well adjusted. Once some more time has passed, individuals become more familiar with the customs, language, etc, and begin to experience some real adjustment to the new environment. This is the U-Curve hypothesis in a nutshell. It was decided to explore the role time plays in adjustment using the sample in this study. A two block regression analysis was conducted for all four of the dependant variables (i.e. interaction adjustment, work adjustment, general adjustment, and performance). The first block contained self-monitoring and months as the independent variables. The second block contained self-monitoring, months, and the product of self-monitoring and months as the independent variables. The results are in Tables 5-8.

Table 5 Influence of Time and Self-Monitoring Ability on Interaction Adjustment

	B	Std error	F	p-value	R ²	Δ R ²	Sig. change
Model 1			2.541	.083	.038	–	–
SM	.199	.260					
Months	.042	.008					
Model 2			2.820	.042	.063	.024	.072
SM	.066	.337					
Months	-.936	.048					
SM*Months	.976	.021					

Table 6 Influence of Time and Self-Monitoring Ability on Work Adjustment

	B	Std error	F	p-value	R ²	Δ R ²	Sig. change
Model 1			4.713	.011	.069	–	–
SM	-.138	.215					
Months	.200	.006					
Model 2			5.134	.002	.109	.040	.019
SM	-.309	.277					
Months	-1.048	.039					
SM*Months	1.245	.017					

Table 7 Influence of Time and Self-Monitoring Ability on General Adjustment

	B	Std error	F	p-value	R ²	Δ R ²	Sig. change
Model 1			.593	.554	.009	–	–
SM	.088	.180					
Months	-.026	.005					
Model 2			3.141	.028	.070	.060	.005
SM	-.122	.230					
Months	-1.563	.033					
SM*Months	1.533	.014					

Table 8 Influence of Time and Self-Monitoring Ability on Performance

	B	Std error	F	p-value	R ²	Δ R ²	Sig. change
Model 1			5.077	.008	.072	–	–
SM	-.033	.223					
Months	.261	.007					
Model 2			3.508	.017	.075	.003	.521
SM	-.079	.292					
Months	-.080	.042					
SM*Months	.341	.018					

Looking at the significance of the ΔR^2 (last column of Tables 5-8) between the two regression blocks, we find a moderately significant change for interaction adjustment, a significant change for both work and general adjustment, and no significant change for performance.

9. Discussion

Many organizations conduct business in multiple countries and often use expatriates in their foreign operations. It is not an exaggeration to say that there are millions of expatriates worldwide. It is also well documented that employing expatriates is very costly and that expatriates have an extremely high failure rate. This being said, one would wonder why organizations continue using expatriates rather than employing locals in their foreign operations. The answer is that often hiring a local would not be congruent with the firm's objectives. For example, the company may want to send an expatriate in order to influence change in the local working culture, or there might not be anyone locally with the necessary expertise. There are multiple reasons why sending an expatriate makes the most sense. The question that remains is "What can organizations do in order to minimize the failure rates of expatriates?" Most failures can be linked to problems with adjusting to the new environment. Therefore, organizations need to select individuals that are highly adaptable in addition to possessing the required expertise. Previous research indicates that an individual's cultural empathy, relational role behaviour, respect, communication competence, interpersonal skills, extroversion, and agreeableness can influence their ability to adjust to new environments. It was this researcher's intention to investigate the influence of a related characteristic, called self-monitoring ability, on expatriate adjustment and performance. Obtaining data from expatriates was not possible; therefore international students are used as the sample population.

The results of this study indicate that the older the individual, the less likely they are to be high self-monitors. However, it is important to put the previous statement in context. With an age range of 18 to 39 years of age, an average age of 23 years, and more than 90% of the sample being 28 years or less, more research with a broad representation of ages must be conducted before it is possible to conclude that older individuals are less likely to be high self-monitors.

This being said, it would be interesting to see if self-monitoring ability is something that changes as we age. If this proves to be true, organizations may be less likely to find more experienced individuals with high self-monitoring ability to send on expatriate assignments. We may see the typical expatriate get younger and younger. Age is also negatively related to general adjustment. Therefore, as we age we may adjust less well to changes in shopping habits, types of food, entertainment, weather, etc.

The number of months an individual has spent in the new environment is positively related to school performance and work adjustment. This indicates that it takes a certain amount of time for adjustment to set in. Therefore, expatriates may initially experience some trouble with job performance and work adjustment, but given time, things will improve. How much time is needed is a very important point for organizations to consider. If it takes an expatriate six months or more to adjust, this could be too costly for a company. The quicker an expatriate can adjust to the new environment, the better off both parties will be.

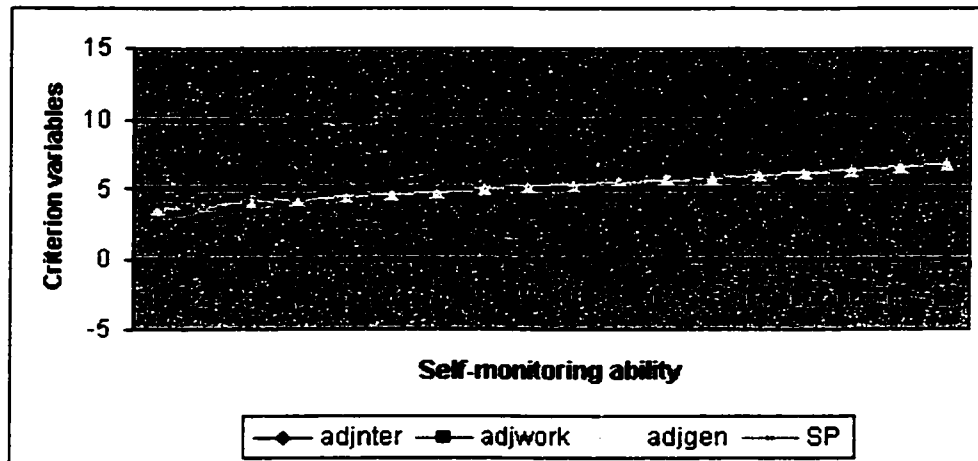
9.1. Hypothesis support

Finding support for the first hypothesis, which indicates that self-monitoring ability is a good predictor of interaction adjustment, is very encouraging since failure to adjust to a new social environment is one of the main causes for expatriate failure and early return. It makes intuitive sense that self-monitoring ability would predict interaction adjustment because this ability really taps into an individual's capability of adjusting their behaviour to behave in a socially appropriate way regardless of the situation. The essence of self-monitoring ability, is the ability to modify one's behaviour to fit different situations. This is what interaction adjustment is all about. The usefulness of self-monitoring ability may also depend on the type of expatriate assignment. For example, self-monitoring ability would be more relevant for an individual whose primary responsibilities revolve around interacting with individuals, such as CEO. It would be less

important for someone whose primary role is to perform a specialized task with little or no need for interaction among coworkers. However, even such a person would need to interact with locals in his day to day life. At this point it is somewhat premature to say that human resource practitioners should start using the self-monitoring scale to predict interaction adjustment. However, if more studies are conducted on this subject that conclude with the same findings, it is very realistic to project that organizations will save thousands of dollars when they implement this instrument in the selection of expatriates. One of the problems highlighted earlier in this paper is that senior managers or line managers look for the candidates with the maximum technical qualifications. Technical qualifications are certainly important, but by looking for the maximum they diminish the number of qualified candidates to a small pool from which to choose. Perhaps what they should do is specify the minimum technical qualifications that are needed in order to have the largest pool possible from which to choose. Then, the list of potential candidates would be refined further by testing self-monitoring ability. Of course the HR professional can and should assist in this entire process.

Using the regression equation for interaction adjustment $Y = 2.017 + .564 (x)$, we are able to get a visual representation of how increased self-monitoring ability leads to higher interaction adjustment (see Fig. 1). Using the regression equation for work adjustment $Y = 4.875 - .431 (x)$, we are able to get a visual representation of how increased self-monitoring ability leads to decreased work adjustment. We also see that general adjustment changes very little as self-monitoring ability increases and that performance decreases as self-monitoring increases, although these regression equations are not found to be significant.

Figure 1 Regression equations



The general opinion amongst scholars is that adjustment is a psychological phenomenon experienced by the individual and that measures like job performance and turnover are the outcomes that an individual's degree of adjustment influences (Black, 1990). In a study of Canadian expatriates, Hawes and Kealey (1981) measured adjustment and job performance and found the two measures to be significantly correlated. This finding is also supported in this study with the exception of general adjustment (Table 3). Black and Stephens (1989) argue that proper adjustment of the expatriate enhances the probability of success overseas. Tung (1981) also found that one reason for expatriate failure is the inability of the expatriate to adjust to their new environment. Kraimer (2001) tested this theory by examining the relative importance of interaction, work, and general adjustment on performance. She divided performance into two facets: task performance and contextual performance. Task performance refers to performing one's task duties, while contextual performance refers to the effectiveness in performing international aspects of the job that go beyond task duties such as maintaining good working relationships with employees and creating strong relationships with host nationals. Based on stress management theories, she believed that well-adjusted individuals would perform at higher levels. This theory is shared among many authors (Kealey, 1981; Black, 1990; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Caligiuri, 1997), but has seldom been empirically tested. She found work

adjustment was positively related to task performance, and interaction adjustment was positively related to contextual performance. The study conducted here has a single measure for performance, but it too found a significant positive relationship between work adjustment ($.55, p < .01$) and interaction adjustment ($.26, p < .01$) with performance (Table 3). Regression analysis was conducted to see if both work and interaction adjustment contribute in a unique way to predict performance or if the two constructs (work and interaction adjustment) are overlapping. A two block simple linear regression was run. The first block contained interaction adjustment as the only predictor variable and performance as the dependent variable. The second block contained interaction adjustment and work adjustment as the two predictor variables and performance as the dependent variable. The r-square change between the two models was significant. Therefore, work and interaction adjustment contribute in unique ways to predict performance. This means that both constructs should be considered. The evidence is beginning to suggest that adjustment plays a key role in performance overseas. To follow this logic one step further, if we are able to find tools that help us predict adjustment, we are on the right path to predicting expatriate performance.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive relationship between self-monitoring ability and work adjustment, was not supported, however a significant negative relationship was found. Although this was not predicted, it does not make this finding any less interesting. What could possibly explain the fact that as self-monitoring ability increased work adjustment decreased? It could be the fact that obtaining feedback on work adjustment is a longer process than getting feedback for interaction adjustment, for example. It is much easier to gauge whether or not you are making friends than whether or not you are adjusting to professors' demands, school responsibilities, etc, when you haven't received any exam results or other feedback. This could also be compounded by the possibility that high self-monitors are more critical and have higher expectations of themselves than do low self-monitors. The combination of little or no feedback on work

adjustment and being very critical of oneself could explain why a high self-monitor has indicated that they are not adjusting well to their work responsibilities. If an objective measure were used to assess an individual's adjustment, we might see that high self-monitors are perfectly well adjusted to work responsibilities.

Hypotheses 3, and 4, which focussed on the relationship between self-monitoring ability and general adjustment, and job performance, respectively, were not supported. Perhaps other factors come into play since self-monitoring ability really addresses the dynamics of social interactions. Still, it would make intuitive sense that the social flexibility that high self-monitors possess would translate into highly flexible individuals capable of adapting to new performance standards, and the general surrounding environment. However, this was not found to be the case.

One of the problems in translating the theoretical concept of validity coefficients into practical information for the human resources practitioner is in determining how to put a dollar value on using a valid selection instrument. A few equations have been proposed including the following (Gatewood & Feild, 2001):

$$N_s r_{xy} SD_y Z_x - N_T (C)$$

where

N_s = number of job applicants selected

r_{xy} = validity coefficient of the selection procedure

SD_y = standard deviation of job performance in dollars

Z_x = average score on the selection procedure of those hired expressed in standardized score form

N_T = number of applicants assessed with the selection procedure

C = cost of assessing each job applicant with the selection procedure

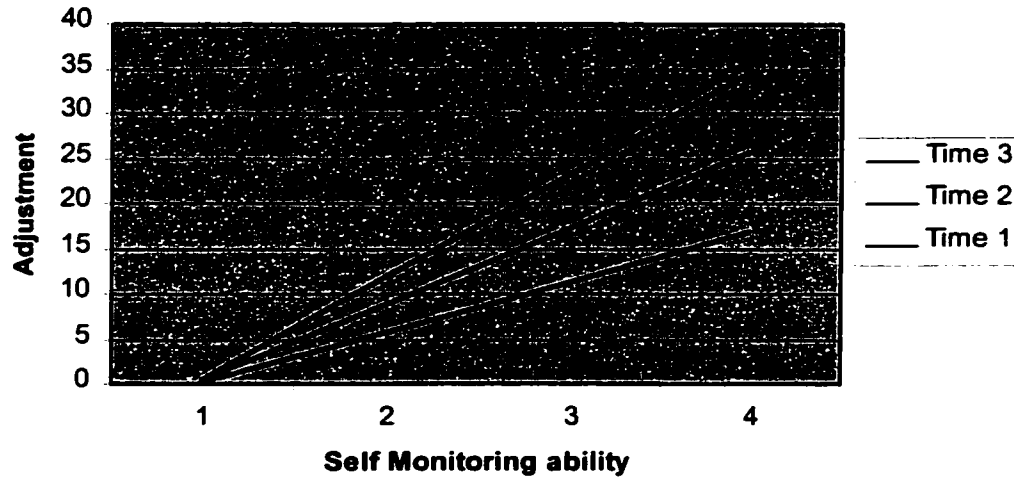
To get a sense of the dollars involved, let's take a look at an imaginary scenario where a company is launching a foreign office and has selected 5 expatriates to startup the new operation. Using Schmidt and Hunter's (1998) 40% rule for estimating the value in variability of employee job performance (SD_y) we arrive at a conservative number of \$40,000, assuming an annual salary of \$100,000 including all the perks that come with an expatriate position. Let's also assume a standardized z-score of 1.00 for those hired from an applicant pool of 50. The cost of administering the self-monitoring questionnaire is negligible, but for the sake of the example let's assume a cost of \$0.20 per 2-page questionnaire to cover the cost of the paper, photocopying, and ink. Plugging all these values into the equation and using the interaction adjustment validity coefficient that has been corrected for attenuation and range restriction (.43), an annual net gain in productivity of \$85,990 for 5 workers or \$17,198 for each employee hired using this selection instrument is obtained. However, it is important to remember that the validity coefficient for interaction adjustment was used in the equation, not the validity coefficient for work adjustment or job performance.

9.2. Exploratory Analysis

It is interesting to see that time and self-monitoring ability play a significant role in adjustment.

This study found significant results for all 3 facets of adjustment. When the three regression equations are plotted for 3 different time intervals, an interesting pattern emerges. We plotted an individuals adjustment at Time 1, Time 2, and Time 3 which represent approximately 5 months, 8 months, and 11 months in the host country respectively (see Figure 2).

Figure 2 Time, Self-Monitoring Ability, and Adjustment



For all three time periods it looks like higher self-monitors adjust better and that at Time 3 it matters even more than at Time 1. It may be that, at the beginning of the assignment overseas, self-monitoring ability matters less because there is so much going on for adjustment to take place. After a few months, people get to know their environment and those with high self-monitoring ability are starting to be able to respond to their environment appropriately. Those with low self-monitoring ability are less likely to do so. Self-monitoring ability is the ability to monitor the impact of your behaviour on other people. Therefore, it may take time for one to be able to 'read' people from other cultures and put self-monitoring ability to good use.

9.3. Limitations

With a sample size of 141, our study can be considered to be more than merely exploratory, but a larger sample size may give us more confidence that the results obtained from the sample are indicative of the entire population. The age range of respondents was quite small with over 90% of the sample between ages 18-28. Also, the concurrent nature of the study has resulted in having a restricted sample, which may not reveal the true predictive power of self-monitoring ability.

Another limitation of the study is the use of International students rather than expatriates.

However, International students may at first seem to be a very different sample population than expatriates, but the issues and underlying adjustments that both must cope with are very similar. They both must adjust to a new culture and working environment, be it in a scholastic setting or the workplace. This theory is supported by the fact that this study obtained the same results as Kraimer (2001), that are outlined in the Discussion section, and her sample was composed of expatriates. This study is also exposed to common method bias, having respondents complete the questions for both the independent and dependent variables studied. And finally, the use of GPA rather than a self-report of performance would be a more accurate and objective measure.

9.4. Future research

An interesting avenue for future research would be to investigate the possibility of training individuals to be high self-monitors. It would be interesting to conduct a controlled study, in which all participants would be selected for being high self-monitors, while only half of these individuals would receive additional cultural sensitivity training. The researcher would then look for differences between the two samples in their ability to adjust to their new environment. One could also test to see if low self-monitors could be trained into being high self-monitors.

Future research should also investigate the faking aspect of the self-monitoring scale. Is it possible for individuals to fake the answers in order to score as a high self-monitor while their true behaviour is that of a low self-monitor? How likely is this to happen? Why would an individual do this, and if we can understand their motives can we take steps to lessen the likelihood of faking?

As mentioned in the Limitations section, future research should be conducted using real expatriates to see if the results found in this study using international students can be replicated.

The aspect of self-monitoring ability and time to adjust should also be tested. This would be very valuable to organizations. The old cliché that “time is money” is true. The longer it takes an expatriate to adjust and start performing on the job the more costly it is for the company in terms of direct salary and benefits and lost business opportunity. Therefore, it would be very valuable to know if high self-monitors adjust faster than low self-monitors do. It would also be interesting to investigate possible gender differences in self-monitoring ability, although preliminary research indicates that there are no significant differences.

Organizations would also find it useful to know if self-monitoring ability is something that changes as we age. If an individual is a low self-monitor today is it possible that 10 or 20 years later they could be a high self-monitor or vice-versa. If this were found to be true, then organizations would have to ensure that expatriates and potential expatriate candidates are periodically re-tested to ensure accurate information is on file for making expatriate selection decisions.

Appendix A – Short letter and questionnaire

Dear International Student,

I'd like to thank you for agreeing to take part in my research project that I am conducting as part of my Master's thesis in Management at Concordia University. I am studying self-monitoring ability and adjustment of International Students to a foreign country. The results of this research will be completely confidential and if at any time you feel uncomfortable with the questions being asked, please feel free to change your mind about participating in the research.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the pre-addressed stamped envelope provided.

If you would like to find out more about this research, you can contact me by e-mail at peron@vax2.concordia.ca.

Sincerely,

**Christine Jakalian
M.Sc. Student**

**Stéphane Brutus, Ph.D.
Thesis Supervisor**

◆ International Student Survey

SECTION 1; PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS	
Sex: <input type="checkbox"/> Male <input type="checkbox"/> Female	Home Country: _____
Age: _____	University in Montreal; _____
How long have you been in Montreal? _____ Month(s)	
How many languages do you <u>spea</u> k well? _____	
How many languages do you <u>rea</u> d well? _____	
How many languages do you <u>wri</u> te well? _____	
SECTION 2; INDICATE TO WHAT EXTENT YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH THE FOLLOWING STATEMENTS BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER.	
Before I came to Montreal to begin my studies, I regularly socialized with people of different cultures.	
Before I came to Montreal to begin my studies, I had close friends that came from a different cultural background than me.	
Before I came to Montreal to begin my studies, I was often exposed to different cultures (e.g. in movies, travel, etc.).	

◆ International Student Survey

SECTION 3; ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS BASED ON YOUR BEHAVIOUR IN YOUR HOME COUNTRY, NOT BASED ON YOUR BEHAVIOUR IN MONTREAL, BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER.

I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people.



At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.



I can only argue for ideas which I already believe.



I can make improvised speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.



I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others.



I would probably make a good actor.



In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.



In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.



◆ International Student Survey

I am not particularly good at making other people like me.



I'm not always the person I appear to be.



I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor.



I have considered being an entertainer.



I have never been good at games for which I had to pretend to be someone else (e.g. acting games).



I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations.



At a party I let others tell jokes and stories instead of me.



I feel a bit awkward in public and do not present myself quite as well as I should.



I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a good reason).



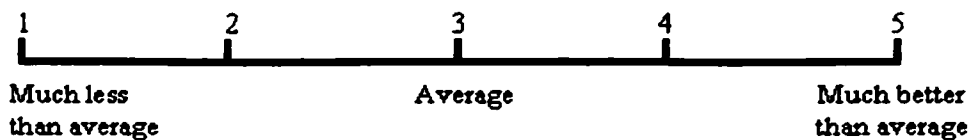
◆ International Student Survey

I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

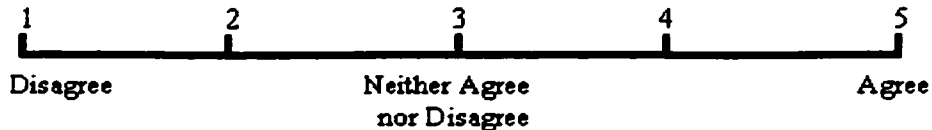


SECTION 4; RESPOND TO THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS/STATEMENTS BY CIRCLING THE APPROPRIATE NUMBER.

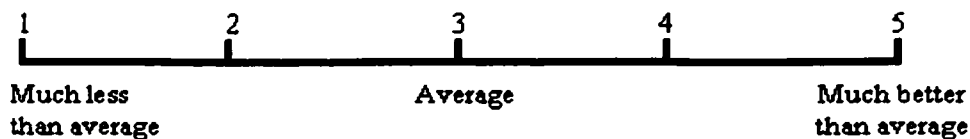
Before you came to Montreal to begin your studies, in your opinion, how was your school performance compared to other students in your school?



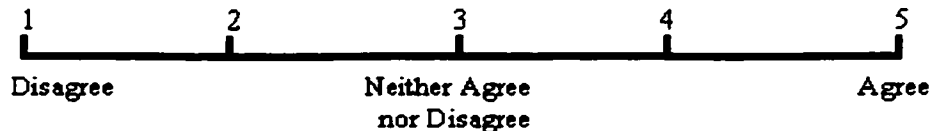
Before I came to Montreal to begin my studies, my school performance was very good.



Compared to other students in your school in Montreal, in your opinion, how is your performance?



So far, my school performance in Montreal is very good.

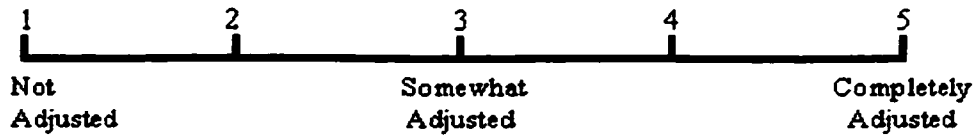


◆ International Student Survey

SECTION 5; THERE IS A LIST OF SITUATIONS TO WHICH A PERSON MUST ADJUST WHEN LIVING IN A NEW ENVIRONMENT. ADJUSTMENT CAN BE DESCRIBED AS THE DEGREE TO WHICH AN INDIVIDUAL HAS ACHIEVED COMFORT AND FAMILIARITY WITH HIS/HER NEW ENVIRONMENT.

PLEASE INDICATE HOW ADJUSTED OR UNADJUSTED YOU FEEL FOR EACH ITEM.

Write a number in the box beside each statement, based on the following scale:



- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> School responsibilities | <input type="checkbox"/> Generally living in Canada |
| <input type="checkbox"/> School performance standards | <input type="checkbox"/> Transportation system |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Demands of professors | <input type="checkbox"/> Food |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Demands of University in general | <input type="checkbox"/> Shopping |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Working with Canadian students | <input type="checkbox"/> Weather |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Interacting with Canadians in general | <input type="checkbox"/> Entertainment |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Establishing friendships with Canadians | |

Thank you for taking part in the study. To be entered into the draw for the Air Canada carry-on bag, please give me your e-mail address: _____ . The winner will be announced in February 2000. I will let everyone know who the winner is by e-mail.

Thanks again,

Christine

Appendix B – Original 18 items for self-monitoring from Snyder & Gangestad (1986)

1. I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people. (F)
2. At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like. (F)
3. I can only argue for ideas which I already believe. (F)
4. I can make impromptu speeches on topics about which I have almost no information. (T)
5. I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain others. (T)
6. I would probably make a good actor. (T)
7. In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention. (F)
8. In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons. (T)
9. I am not particularly good at making other people like me. (F)
10. I'm not always the person I appear to be. (T)
11. I would not change my opinions (or the way I do things) in order to please someone or win their favor. (F)
12. I have considered being an entertainer. (T)
13. I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting. (F)
14. I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations. (F)
15. At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going. (F)
16. I feel a bit awkward in public and do not show up quite as well as I should. (F)
17. I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end). (T)
18. I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them. (T)

Note: Keying is given by either T (true) or F (false) in parentheses following the item. High self-monitoring individuals tend to answer in the keyed direction; low self-monitoring individuals tend to answer in the opposite direction.

Appendix C - Original 13 items for adjustment from Black (1990)

Please indicate the extent of your adjustment to the following items:

1. Job responsibilities
2. Performance standards
3. Planning responsibilities
4. Working with American co-workers
5. Working with Americans outside the company
6. Interacting with Americans in general
7. Supervising American subordinates
8. Generally living in America
9. The transportation system in America
10. The food
11. Shopping
12. Weather
13. Entertainment opportunities

References

- Adler, P. (1975). The transitional experience: An alternative view of culture shock. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology*, 15(4), 13-23.
- Adier, N. (1994). Women managers in a global economy. *Training & Development*, April, 31-36.
- Ajzen, I., Timko, C. & White, J. (1982). Self-monitoring and the attitude-behaviour relation. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(3), 426-435.
- Arthur, W. & Bennett, W. (1995). The international assignee: The relative importance of factors perceived to contribute to success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 99-114.
- Baker, J. C., & Ivancevich, J. M. (1971). The assignment of American executives abroad; Systematic, haphazard, or chaotic? *California Management Review*, 13(3), 39-41.
- Black, S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Summer, 277-294.
- Black, S. (1990). The relationship of personal characteristics with the adjustment of Japanese expatriate managers. *Management International Review*, 30(2), 119-134.
- Black, S. & Mendenhall, M. (1991). The U-Curve adjustment hypothesis revisited: A review. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(2), 225-248.
- Black, S. & Stephens, G. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15(4), 529-544.
- Brewster, C. (1988). The management of expatriates. *Cranfield School of Management Human Resources Center*, 2, 14-35.
- Briggs, S., Cheek, J. & Buss, A. (1980). Analysis of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(4), 679-686.

- Caldwell, D. & O'Reilly, C. (1982). Responses to failure: The effects of choice and responsibility on impression management. *Academy of Management Journal*, 25, 121-136.
- Caligiuri, PM. (1997). Assessing expatriate success: Beyond just "being there". In Saunders, DM & Aycan Z (Eds.), *New approaches to employee management* (Vol. 4, 117-140). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Caudron, S. (1991). Training ensures success overseas. *Personnel Journal*, December, 27-30.
- Cawte, J. (1972). Cruel, poor, and brutal nations: The assessment of mental health in an Australian Aboriginal community by a short stay psychiatric team method. Honolulu: University of Hawaii.
- Church, A. (1982). Sojourner Adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91, 540-572.
- Copeland, L., & Griggs, L. (1985) *Going international*. New York: Random House.
- Cui, G. (1989). Intercultural effectiveness: An integrative approach. *Paper presented at the 35th Annual Conference of the International Communication Association*, San Francisco, CA.
- Cui, G. & Awa, N. (1992). Measuring intercultural effectiveness : An integrative approach. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 16, 311-328.
- Cui, G. & Van Den Berg, S. (1991). Testing the construct validity of intercultural effectiveness. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 15, 227-241.
- Danheiser, P. & Graziano, W. (1982). Self-monitoring and cooperation as a self-presentational strategy. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42(3), 497-505.
- David, K. (1972). Intercultural adjustment and applications of reinforcement theory to problems of culture shock. *Trends*, 4(3), 1-64.
- Deller, J. (1997). Expatriate selection: Possibilities and limitations of using personality scales. *New Approaches to Employee Management*, 4, 93-116.
- Dowling, P. et al. (1994). *International Dimensions of Human Resource Management*. Belmont, California: Wadsworth Publishing Company.

- Edstrom, A., & Galbraith, J.R. (1977). Transfer of managers as a coordination and control strategy in multinational organizations. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22, 248-263.
- English, H. (1958). *A comprehensive dictionary of psychological and psychoanalytical terms*. New York: David McKay.
- Frazee, V. (1998). Selecting Global Assignees. *Global Workforce*, July, 28-30.
- Gatewood, R. & Feild, H. (1994). *Human resource selection (3rd edition)*. Texas: The Dryden Press.
- Gatewood, R. & Feild, H. (2001). *Human resource selection (5th edition)*. Harcourt College Publishers: Mtl.
- Goffman, E. (1955). On face work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. *Psychiatry*, 18, 213-221.
- Grove, C. & Torbiorn, I. (1985). A new conceptualization of intercultural adjustment and the goals of training. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 9, 205-233.
- Guy, B. & Patton, W. (1996). Managing the effects of culture shock and sojourner adjustment on the expatriate industrial sales force. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 25, 385-393.
- Halcrow, A. (1999). Expats: The squandered resource. *Workforce*, April, 42-48.
- Hamill, J. (1989). Expatriate policies in British multinationals. *Journal of General Management*, 14(4), 18-33.
- Hammer, M., Gudykunst, W. & Wiseman, R. (1978). Dimensions of intercultural effectiveness: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 2, 383-393.
- Hannigan, T. (1990). Traits, attitudes, and skills that are related to intercultural effectiveness and their implications for cross-cultural training: A review of the literature. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 89-111.
- Harvey, M. (1985). The executive family: An overlooked variable in international assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, Spring, 84-93.

- Hawes, F. & Kealey, D. (1981). An empirical study of Canadian technical assistance: Adaptation and effectiveness on overseas assignments. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 5, 239-258.
- Hays, R. (1971). Ascribed behavioural determinants of success-failure among U.S. expatriate managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 2, 40-46.
- Hays, R. (1974). Expatriate selection: Insuring success and avoiding failure. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 5, 25-37.
- Henry, E. R. (1965). What business can learn from Peace Corps selection and training. *Personnel*, 42(4), 17-25.
- Hoffman, C. (1995). Applying range restriction corrections using published norms: Three case studies. *Personnel Psychology*, 48, 913-923.
- Hogan, G. & Goodson, J. (1990). The key to expatriate success. *Training & Development Journal*, January, 50-52.
- House, R., Spangler, W. & Woycke, J. (1991). Personality and charisma in the U.S. presidency: A psychological theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36, 364-396.
- Katz, J. & Seifer, D. (1996). It's a different world out there: Planning for expatriate success through selection, pre-departure training and on-site socialization. *Human Resource Planning*, 19(2), 32-50.
- Kealey, D. (1989). A study of cross-cultural effectiveness: Theoretical issues, practical implications. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 13, 387-428.
- Kilduff, M., & Day, D. V. (1994). Do chameleons get ahead? The effects of self-monitoring on managerial careers. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(4), 1047-1060.
- Klein, M. (1979). Adaptation to new cultural environments. In D. Hoopes, P. Pedersen, & G. Renwick (Eds.) *Overview of intercultural education, training and research: Vol. 1. Theory*. LaGrange Park, Illinois: Intercultural Network, Inc.

- Kobrin, S. J. (1988). Expatriate reduction and strategic control in American multinational corporations. *Human Resource Management, 27*, 63-75.
- Kozma, A. & Stones, M. (1980). The measurement of happiness: Development of the Memorial University of Newfoundland Scale of Happiness. *Journal of Gerontology, 35*, 906-912.
- Kraimer, M., Wayne, S. & Jaworski, R. (2001). Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology, 54*, 71-99.
- Lennox, R. & Wolfe, R. (1984). Revision of the self-monitoring scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46*(6), 1349-1364.
- Lobel, S. (1990). Global leadership competencies: managing to a different drumbeat. *Human Resource Management, 29*(1), 39-47.
- Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fullbright grantees visiting the U.S. *International Social Science Bulletin, 7*:45-51.
- McCauley, C. & Brutus, S. (1998). *Management development through job experiences*. Greensboro, North Carolina: Center for Creative Leadership.
- Mendenhall, M., Dunbar, E. & Oddou, G. (1987). Expatriate selection, training and career-pathing: A review and critique. *Human Resource Management, 26*, 331-345.
- Mendenhall, M. & Oddou, G. (1985). The determinants of expatriate acculturation. *Academy of Management Review, 10*, 39-47.
- Misa, K. F., & Fabricatore, J. M. (1979). Return on investment of overseas personnel. *Financial Executive, 47*(4), 42-46.
- Nash, D. (1967). The fate of Americans in a Spanish setting: a study in adaptation. *Human Organization, 26*(3), 157-163.
- Nash, D. (1991). The course of sojourner adaptation: A new test of the U-Curve hypothesis. *Human Organization, 50*(3), 283-301.
- Neter, J., Wasserman, W. & Kutner, M. (1990). *Applied linear statistical models (3rd edition)*. Illinois: Irwin.

Nicholson 1984 find

Parker, B & McEvoy, GM. (1993). Initial examination of a model of intercultural adjustment.

International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 17, 355-379.

Porter, G. & Tansky, J. (1999). Expatriate success may depend on a "Learning Orientation":

Considerations for selection and training. *Human Resource Management*, 38(1), 47-60.

Pruitt, F. (1978). The adaptation of foreign students on American campuses. *Journal of the*

National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 41(4), 144-147.

Ruben, B. & Kealey, D. (1979). Behavioural assessment of communication competency and the

prediction of cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 3,
15-47.

Schmidt, F & Hunter, J. (1998). The validity and utility of selection methods in personnel
psychology: Practical and theoretical implications of 85 years of research findings.

Psychological Bulletin, 124, 262-263.

Shilling, M. (1993). Avoid expatriate culture shock. *HRMagazine*, July, 58-63.

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behaviour. *Journal of Personality and Social*

Psychology, 30(4), 526-537.

Snyder, M. (1979). Self-monitoring processes. In L. Berkowitz (Ed.), *Advances in experimental
social psychology* (Vol. 12, pp. 86-128). New York: Academic Press.

Snyder, M., & DeBono, K.G. (1985). Appeals to image and claims about quality: Understanding
the psychology of advertising. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 49, 586-597.

Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (1982). Choosing social situations : Two investigations of self-
monitoring processes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 43(1), 123-135.

Snyder, M., & Gangestad, S. (1986). On the nature of self-monitoring: Matters of assessment,
matter of validity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(1), 125-139.

- Snyder, M., & Simpson, J.A. (1986). Orientations toward romantic relationships. In S. Duck & D. Perlman (Eds.), *Intimate relationships: Development, dynamics, and deterioration*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.
- Stone, R. (1991). Expatriate selection and failure. *Human Resource Planning*, 14(1), 9-18.
- Torbiorn, I. (1982). *Living abroad: Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting*. New York: Wiley.
- Tucker, M. (1974). *Screening and selection for overseas assignment: Assessments and recommendations to U.S. Navy*. Denver: CO: Center for Research and Education.
- Tung, R. (1981). Selecting and training of personnel for overseas assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16(1), 68-78.
- Tung, R. (1982). Selection and training procedures of U.S., European, and Japanese multinationals. *California Management Review*, 25, 57-71.
- Tung, R. (1988). Career issues in international assignments. *Academy of Management Executive*, 11, 241-244.
- Tung, R. & Miller, E.L. (1990). Managing in the twenty-first century: The need for global orientation. *Management International Review*, 30, 5-18.
- Wavell, S. (1991). City of Love drives foreigners to despair. *The Sunday Times (London)*, November 3, p. 19.
- Wederspahn, G. (1992). Costing failures in expatriate human resource management. *Human Resource Planning*, 15, 27-35.
- Wolfe, R., Lennox, R. & Hudiburg, R. (1983). Self-monitoring and sex as moderator variables in the statistical explanation of self-reported marijuana and alcohol use. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 44(5), 1069-1074.
- Zaccaro, S., Foti, R. & Kenny, D. (1991). Self-Monitoring and trait-based variance in leadership: An investigation of leader flexibility across multiple group situations. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(2), 308-315.

Zanna, M., Olson, J. & Fazio, R. (1980). Attitude-behaviour consistency: An individual difference perspective. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 38(3), 432-440.

Zeira, Y. (1975). Overlooked personnel problems of multinational corporations. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 10(2), 96-103.

Zeira, Y., & Banai, M. (1985). Selection of expatriate managers in MNCs: The host-environment point of view. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 15, 33-51.