

A Conceptual Model for Citizens' Diplomacy to Advance America's Role in the Global Community through Demonstrating a Competency for Inclusiveness

Sandra C. Erickson

k7luh@yahoo.com

Doctoral Candidate, International Business,
College of Business and Informational Technology
Argosy University, 5250 17th Street
Sarasota, Florida 34235
(941) 379-0404

Abstract:

American expatriate failures and foreign relation failures are due, in large part, to an inability to understand, adjust to or be tolerant of foreign cultures. This paper argues that cultural knowledge about home and host country postings is crucial to successful outcomes in every international exchange in today's global neighborhood. Cultural influences affect the way all people think and behave.

Americans have been puzzled by the recent, near global response of anti-Americanism. Many Americans, thinking deeply, have accepted the challenge of individual responsibility to effect positive change. Citizen's diplomacy is a method to build bridges between people, to increase trust, understanding, and tolerance while increasing the ability to better adjust to cultural diversity. This paper will provide a conceptual model in response to the twin failures of 1) expatriation and 2) official, diplomatic negotiations in foreign relations.

Introduction

Expatriate failure has illuminated the fact that multinational corporations (MNCs) have vital financial interests at stake. Ineffective or marginally effective expatriates who complete their international assignments as well as those who return prematurely cost between three and five times as much as domestic ineffective (or marginally effective) employees (van Pelt & Woliansky 1990). Research places the direct cost associated with expatriate failure as between \$150,000 to \$1 million per expatriate (Shannonhouse 1996).

Indirect costs which would include missed business opportunities and low productivity are more difficult to calculate, however, experience would identify the potential losses as mind boggling. The relevance to business is clear and weighty.

Literature is rich with data documenting expanding globalization. Caruth, Handlogten-Garuth (2002) opined that globalization is a reality for organizations of almost any size in the developed world. While applicable statistics referencing globalization in academic research vary, the conclusions do not. Internationalization which has progressed to globalization has produced phenomenal, world-wide growth

In turn, globalization has caused equal growth of the use and management of expatriates. A definition, according to Dowling and Welch (2005), of an expatriate is “an employee who is working and temporarily residing in a foreign country” (p.5). International Assignment Policies and Practices (International Assignments 1997) reported 67 percent of firms had employees abroad while Black & Gregersen (1999) stated that 80 percent of midsize and large companies send personnel abroad with plans to increase their expatriate assignments. More recent publications (Dowling and Welch 2005) have stated that United National Conference on Trade and Development 2003 data records 54 million people are employed in transnational corporations. While these figures do not serve to demonstrate expatriate numbers, they do instill deep appreciation of the scope of the world of international business

Expatriate assignments provides significant challenges to the home country headquarters as the company moves technically qualified employees to meet the needs of the MNC. There is a certain hopeful expectation that these employees have, in addition to their technology competencies, an understanding of diverse cultures, knowledge of motivation and a skill set that includes how to manage people appropriate to the assignment and culture. Literature has proven that the expectation has not been met.

The major causal agent for expatriate low performance and expatriate failed assignments is the inability to adjust to foreign cultures. Marx (1999) opined both the question and answer clearly. She questioned why some international managers succeeded while nearly half of their counterparts failed. Marx (1999) posed the answer as culture shock – the failure to adjust to people with different motivations, behaviors, and ways of making decisions.

Most researchers define expatriate failure as premature return from a foreign assignment (Martinko and Douglas 1999; Oddou, 1991; Shay and Tracey 1997). There are other ‘failure’ reasons which include the employee’s lack of emotional maturity, insufficient technical skills and low interest or levels of motivation for being in a foreign country (Tung 1982). Copeland and Griggs (1985) stated that nearly 50 percent of expatriates who have completed their assignments (meaning they have stayed to the end) have actually performed well below expectation due, again, to the expatriate’s inability to adapt.

Parochialism is one of the adjectives that have been used to describe the American attitude. Parochialism is defined as taking a narrow view. Most academics are more familiar with the measure of a person's attitude toward other cultures as ethnocentrism. At the risk of repeating what every sophomore business student now knows, ethnocentrism was defined a century ago as an activity "in which one's own group is the center of everything, and all others are scaled or rated with reference to it" (Sumner 1906, p13) and "invariably judged inferior" (Booth, 1979).

Dowling and Welch (2005) did note that research over the past 20 years has shown a consistent ranking of 'inability to adjust or adapt' as primary cause for _____ regarding foreign assignments. The blank space means that the sentence could be completed with any of the following: premature return; low efficiency and/or productivity; difficulty with culture; management styles, family concerns; and career progression.

Anti-Americanism was the causal agent of the act of terrorism of September 11, 2001. The days that followed resulted in an outpouring of widespread sympathy. However, that sympathy was soon lost. In the short years since that infamous day, Americans have learned most painfully of key findings that illuminated discontent, true dislike and even hatred for America and its policies. The Pew Global Attitude Projects (2002) are alarming and are an increasing concern for US policy makers reported Ryan (2004). One must hasten to add that there is still considerable good will and countries where America(ns) are rated favorably. However, the concept of strong anti-Americanism is very problematic, stated Crockatt (2003), who further clarified that current anti-Americanism is far more than just being critical of the United States. The puzzlement, the shock of being informed of this phenomenon was very difficult for the American citizen to understand, most particularly for the baby boomers and their parents. One demographic was defined as "the greatest generation" and the other demographic read descriptors that stated, in part, (Brokaw 1998):

They came of age during the Great Depression and the Second World War and went on to build modern America – men and women whose everyday lives of duty, honor, achievement, and courage gave us the world we have today. (p xix)

The world we have today? The struggle to understand and address anti-Americanism will go far into the 21st century. The struggle will again be the responsibility of everyday men and women. It will begin at home, in communities, in our country and most certainly the first step to take is in our minds.

Discussion:

'Intermediary' refers to people who become involved in the middle of a situation. They are often unofficial, third party, sometimes professional, more often than not they are simply citizens who provide an environment that is non judgmental, low-key, safe and non-coercive (Chigas 2003). They are private citizens or groups of individuals,

academics, former government officials, humanitarians, and religious people. Their work is considered citizens' diplomacy and it takes many forms.

Citizens' diplomacy is also known as Track Two diplomacy. Citizens' diplomacy is of a reactive nature and defines measures to be taken after a situation, or conflict, has happened with the intent to contain and reduce the intensity and duration. The action is non-political in nature and begins with the objective to reduce collective pain. In this particular situation, the pain is the discovery of vast numbers of peoples' intense dislike, in fact, hatred which has led to deadly force against Americans. Reaction to this situation includes the wonder that such emotion can be garnered from ignorance. Ignorance is the state of being uninformed – the want of knowledge (Patterson 1990). The notion that the world does not truly know Americans and their culture was awash with the realization that neither do Americans truly know others and their cultures. Consequently, a focus of this paper is insight into this situational ignorance. Who does not know what? Americans? Others? What is not known? And anyway, what can ordinary citizens do? Bauwens and Reyckler (1994) wrote that people often fail to act because of lack of foresight, the absence of perceived vital interest at stake or the lack of transformation skill. Well now.

Let us turn first to the world of business. A review of literature to ascertain the reasons for such failures presents a plethora of evidence that business may still ascribe to the viewpoint that practices are similar enough globally that only a little preparation for international assignment is sufficient (Black and Gregersen (1999). To make the point even more succinctly, Andreason (2003) opined that:

...[technical competence]. Though an important indicator of ultimate success, research evidence suggests that many management skills do not transfer from one culture to another and that the major factor contributing to expatriate failure is an *inability to adjust to the foreign culture* rather than a lack of technical competence. A manager who performs well in the domestic setting, therefore, may not be able to adapt to managing in a different culture setting or living in intimate contact with members of a different culture (p.549).

Phatak (1995) stated that foreign assignments should start with careful selection processes that go beyond technical competency and focus on traits and characteristics which are correlated with success and are complementary to specific locations. Phatak was referring to the cultural norms and belief systems of the geographic assignment. Phatak identified these important traits as: cultural empathy; adaptability; diplomacy; language ability; a positive attitude; emotional stability and maturity as predictors of success. Black and Gregersen (1999) went further by adding selection criteria to include indicators such as (1) a drive to communicate with the local people; 2) broad-based sociability in establishing social ties with local residents, rather than sticking to a small circle of fellow expatriates; 3) cultural flexibility, as characterized by a willingness to experiment with different customs; 4) a cosmopolitan orientation, defined as a mind-set which can intuitively understand that different cultural norms have value and meaning to

those who practice them and 5) a collaborative negotiation style as opposed to one that is confrontational.

An illustration of Phatak's comments are provided by Erickson (2000) who reported an experience in Mexico where she joined other faculty, staff, community members and students who were wishing farewell to two visiting American professors. The colleague was expressing how valuable and different those two individuals were. "Why would you say that?" Erickson asked of her colleague. The answer was very revealing (Erickson 2002).

Many Americans accept an assignment to come here to teach for a semester and I think they have a good time. But, those two came prepared. They learned about us before they came and they learned from us while they were here. Look around you. There are wealthy industrialists here to wish them well, University officials, students, the Dean, local business people, Cuban refugees and others. The difference is these people cared about us and cared deeply. (p.25)

Dowling, Welch (2005) opined that there was no validated psychological testing that measured such traits. They suggested that extensive interviewing for adaptability screening could, in fact, be part of the process to increase the probability of a successful international assignment. Selmer (2002) found that previous experience and/or study about foreign cultures such as part of university coursework would assist in decreasing adjustment issues. Such previous experience, therefore, could be a valuable selection criterion for foreign assignment.

And what about the family? Tung (1982) an early researcher, who is still frequently cited along with more recent researchers, clarified that the inability of the spouse to adjust to the foreign culture is the most frequently cited reasons for US and European expatriate premature returns. Tung's study reveals; however, that less than 50 percent of the firms had included the spouses in the interview process. OK, that was in 1982. Unfortunately, a 1989 survey of US firms found that only 13 percent indicated that they provided pre-departure programs for expatriates (questions about spouses were not part of the survey) (Feldman 1989).

Research has taken a careful look at this constantly resurfacing causal agent meaning the inability to adjust to foreign cultures. Research (Tung, 1982) stated that expatriate failure when assigned to a developed country is between 25-50 percent and when the assignment is made to an emerging country, the expatriate failure soars to 70 percent. While that is dated research, there is little to refute that in more current research queries. In fact, emerging research evidence suggests that there are positive effects on adjustments when the employees (and their families) perceive organizational support. Perception becomes reality when the company actually provides language training and social opportunities for the expatriates to interact with foreign nationals (Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski, 2001).

There is a rich base from which to draw when investigating cultural diversity and searching for an understanding of the definitions. In fact, there are hundreds of definitions of culture. In choosing two, one can note that culture is defined by Roeber and Kluckhohn (1952) as the following: “[Culture is] comprised of an entire set of social norms and responses that condition people’s behavior; it is acquired and inculcated [forcibly taught], a set of rules that behavior patterns, that an individual learns but does not inherit at birth “ (p.223). Hall (1966), another key researcher opined that culture [is] deep, common, unstated experiences which members of a given culture share, and communicate without knowing. Hall wrote that experience forms the backdrop against which all other events are judged.

Regardless of the definition choices, researchers acknowledge that culture is the real property of a community rather than a collection of characteristics. Culture is a social environment adapted from physical environment and passed down as customs, practices and traditions from generation to generation (Harris and Moran 1979).

Adaptation and adjustment to differences must be faced by expatriates regardless of country of origin. As any phenomenon, knowledge and experience are the twin predicators of acceptance as fact. Cultural diversity is cultural diversity.

Anti-Americanism may be considered an unlikely topic for a business conference. It is not. As foreign operations increase, as globalization surges forward, there is more thought and strategic planning being directed towards risk exposure. Risk exposure now includes personal safety in political climates that experience terrorism. The scope of this paper is not to address the policies and procedures necessary to assure safety for corporate employees in lands of unrest, political upheaval and violence. That task will be addressed by others.

Terrorism is the final stage of anti-Americanism. There is something very nasty about this personal and powerful force today. Anti-Americanism is, however, not new. Perhaps anti-Americanism was birthing after WW II when a destructed world sought out American aid to rebuild and dig their way towards sunlight. Perhaps anti-Americanism grew due to American abundance in the face of the world’s devastation. The surge took on a newer, sharper look after the end of the cold war when no country was immune to the economic or defensive power of the U.S. Or perhaps the manner in which Americans took their ethnocentrism with them and paraded it around the world. Ethnocentrism defined as the colonial attitudes of having and knowing more and having and knowing best. Regardless of how the feeling came into being, how the feeling grew and then erupted, Americans must agree with McGuire (2004) who wrote,

Anti-Americanism is gathering power like a hurricane, which many will see as a welcome balance of power in turbulent times, but which in itself will create greater turbulence. If the 20th century was the American century, the struggle between America and anti-Americanism will help to shape the 21st. (p.19)

In truth, it is safe to say that most people's feelings about America are complicated. It was George Washington who first called the others "a foreign world" (The View from Abroad, 2005). It is important to remember that not all anti-Americanism is the same. It means different things to different people and is, therefore, hard to quantify and/or qualify. A poll by BBC World Service noted that while many countries population viewed American influence unfavorably (Germany at 64 percent, Canada at 60 percent, Australia at 52 percent, Mexico at 57 percent and France at 54 percent) all enjoy going to American movies, taking holidays in the U.S., eating at McDonalds and shopping in places that look much like American giant stores (The View From Abroad 2005).

Anti- Americanism is even different in countries where the feeling is central to the ideology of ruling clerics or politicians. The effects used in those countries are demonstrations, religious sermons, political diatribes and graffiti. Erickson (2000) wrote about watching and talking about huge anti-American demonstrations in Cuba. Students at the University of Havana calmly shared their quotas of "required spontaneous anti-American demonstrations". Twice a month was a minimum in order to retain status as a student at the free University of Havana. In answer to the question about their level of sincerity about the topic of the demonstration, they stated they had no knowledge of any details about the grievance. They were informed just-in-time, or about an hour before they were expected to appear.

Reflections about the more volatile countries suggest that, mostly, the clerics or politicians are reacting to rivals or threats to their power base. And, to be sure, anti-Israel positions lead to anti-American positions. Anti-American posturing must not be seen as a uniform ideological movement from Muslim countries. Not addressing any other issues, one rarely finds strong, long lived anti-Americanism in Arab countries (I know. Yes, I know where the 9/11 terrorists originated), or Indonesia. There certainly is reason to expect it in Greece due to America's actions in the 1960s or in Spain where the Franco regime had America's backing in the 1950s, or in Latin America, or South America, or the Caribbean, or Mexico, or Africa, or the Philippines, or Viet Nam. But, anti-Americanism does not run deeply there. It is more a surface affliction yet one where there must be intervention or actions or strategic planning designed to avoid any intensification of a more lasting anti-Americanism.

The current focus is to craft longer term strategic plans that are intended to lessen the emerging of these strong, basic anti-American movements which can only be done through education and experience. However, the task is not just for foreigners but rather for Americans as well. There needs to be a reversal of any real or perception of cultural imperialism, ignorance and disdain.

Citizens' Diplomacy is not a replacement for governmental efforts. Citizens' diplomacy can be viewed as the result of a decision to effect change - a change that increases knowledge and decreases tension, fear and anger through improving communication and a development of mutual understanding (McDonald 1991). In part, it augments one of the platforms of President George W. Bush's in his campaign for a first term in office. At that point in time, he warned against nation building and cautioned

against hubris in foreign policy. Citizens' diplomacy or Track Two diplomacy prepares formal negotiation (and populations) by encouraging the recognition and utilization of crucial information and insights (Krueger 1998).

McDonald (1991) opines that Track Two diplomacy can be viewed as having four subsets that work together. He gives the following definitions of each of Track Diplomacy:

- "Track One: Official government-to-government diplomatic interaction;
- "Track Two: Unofficial, non-governmental, analytical, policy-oriented, problem-solving efforts by skilled, educated, experienced and informed private citizens interacting with other private citizens;
- "Track Three: Businessman-to-businessman, private sector, free-enterprise, multinational corporation interactions;
- "Track Four: Citizen-to-citizen exchange programs of all kinds, such as scientific, cultural academic, educational, student, film, music, art, sports, and youth exchanges;
- "Track Five: Media-to-media based efforts designed to expose and educate large segments of the population in conflict to the philosophy, ideas, culture and needs of the other national, society or ethnic group with whom they are in conflict."
-

McDonald (1991) concluded that Track Two or Citizens' Diplomacy can be difficult and requires some sophistication because of the level of commitment, preparation and skill. He argues that citizens can be successful if they prepare themselves.

Briefly paraphrasing McDonald's suggestions for Track Two or Citizens' Diplomacy, the first step is the exploration of subject and self which requires becoming knowledgeable about one's own culture (belief systems, values) and that of others. One must become familiar with intercultural communication patterns and skill sets. One must know the history of the conflicting belief patterns. One must know that the characteristics of a citizen diplomat includes, in part, sincere interest, willingness to learn, compassion, patience, humility, good faith, the ability to set aside personal agendas, as well as demonstrated integrity and intelligence. The second step involves focusing on one particular area or task by communicating with other parties with similar concerns and cumulating with a set of goals and objects. The third step is follow-through paying careful attention to specific activities. Step four would involve possible disengagement concerns such as continuing hostile political climates and sensitivity issues.

Let us review the reason for this discourse. "Results in a poll of twenty four thousand citizens in twenty-three countries suggest that people around the world are not only turning away from the US but are starting to embrace the leadership of other major powers" wrote Kull (2005 p. 35). The rise in stature of economic power of the European Union and even China was welcomed and viewed as a natural progression from the 20th century to the 21st century according to this poll. This phenomenon cannot be excused as

simple anti-Americanism envy. It is more a collective recognition that America appears to be setting courses that are quite different than one of cooperation that has long been an American ideal.

However, this is not about politics, not exactly. It is a not-so-subtle attempt to transform attitudes that are interpreted (often correctly) as imperialism, unilateralism, parochialism, arrogance, inappropriate interference for self interest and colonialism. There are other words but those few serve the purpose of illustration. There is a wealth of literature available that provides guidance in presenting a balanced introduction to this notion of citizens' diplomacy. Importantly, there is also a rush to "...reflect the diversity of opinion among leading scholars and practitioners on the issue of current concerns," stated Anders (2004 p82). However, there needs to be more available information marketed to the general public with the intention of beginning at the beginning. The values, belief systems and personate of Americans start within American hearts and minds, not within any official governmental action.

Conclusion:

Prevailing Western literature and empirical studies have illuminated the significance growth of the use and management of expatriates during these past decades. Research has shown that the major causal agent for expatriate low performance and expatriate failed assignments as the inability to adjust to foreign cultures. There are differences of opinions as to how big the issue may be but never as to whether it is an issue. Diversity and inclusiveness, defined comprehensively, are potential twin towers of capability...and are seen as the success factor of the future (Hofmeister 2005).

In addition, Americans have been puzzled by a near global response of anti-Americanism. The phenomenon has created considerable debate demonstrating concern from businesses, government, educational and religious leaders. Thoughtful Americans have acknowledged that globalization and political events have not brought people together but rather have critically illuminated diverse, cultural beliefs, value systems and behaviors.

Communities must be actively encouraged to gain a deeper understanding of the necessity of learning and teaching global and cultural diversity. Communities must be encouraged to present public forums to examine a citizen's role in advancing U.S. foreign relations, and to increase positive international activism through understanding of our diverse, global neighbors (Coalition for Citizen Diplomacy 2005). The goal would be to raise awareness of now necessary this information may be for the prosperity, security and well-being of our nation. Community activities could be notable speakers, roundtable discussions, encouragement to spend money and effort on educational requirements in the areas of foreign languages, world history, political science, cultural diversity, communications and conflict resolution in the public school curriculums. In addition, another possible action could be leadership training and/or coursework that would include our foreign exchange students.

To paraphrase a popular TV psychologist, if something is not working for you, it is time for a change. Change requires effort. One must identify what is the current **(A) attitude**, what is the **(B) behavior** that is activated by the attitude and what are the **(C) consequences**. So **A + B = C**. It is time to plan strategically to bring the American people more completely into the global neighborhood. It is no longer reasonable to expect the ‘neighborhood’ to learn about America. Americans must be pro-active in learning about the world through a more aggressive introduction to languages, histories, cultures, communication and value systems.

How can MNCs (as well as mid sized firms who aspire to international status) assist in reducing “failed” international assignments while improving the firm’s performance?

- First, MNCs must recognize that international assignments and/or the use of expatriates must become a strategic competence so that performance corresponds to the firm’s operational goals in every functional area.
- Second, firms can select employees for the management track who have documented significant foreign experiences – through educational choices or self-motivation.
- Third, firms can identify upwardly mobile, technologically competent employees who have expressed career management goals and cause them to experience short term international assignment.
- Fourth, firms can seek employees who currently have foreign language skills or in lieu of that, the firms can provide language courses and cultural diversity programs for employees and their families.
- Fifth, firms can insist that business schools fast tract the movement to further internationalize their business curriculum. Both American Assembly of Collegiate Schools of Business (AACSB) accredited schools and non accredited schools must be challenged to meet this critical need. While business schools seek out and carefully consider the needs of industries when educating students for future leadership, they have not moved forward with all deliberate speed.
- Sixth, researchers and practitioners must develop provide appropriate assessment instruments of international assignments specifically in the area of financial and knowledge values. Expatriate management, precisely because of the value in industry and national interest, is no longer exclusively within the domain of human resources. Expatriate management must be elevated to an industrial core competency through complete mastery of global mindedness

Firms with international goals must not wait until the need becomes more critical to prepare. There is an additional, strategic step the firm must take. This step is one whose origins rest within the constructs of nationalism and social responsibility as well as the capitalistic goal of creating wealth. The firm must be proactive in seeking stronger, local, educational requirements in the areas of foreign languages, world history, political science, cultural diversity as well as math and science in the public school curriculum.

Each state in the United States has an Office of Public Instruction (OPI) whose responsibilities include oversight of the basic education requirements and offerings at public schools. These requirements may be enhanced locally reflecting the interests, needs and desires of communities. The first strategic step that MNCs must take is proactive, positive leadership in local communities to assure the education that will produce global competencies in future employees. This is the long term strategy that will prove successful for all stakeholders.

There has been progress. The U.S. State Department and the Secretary of Education have recently [January 2006] charged the United States university presidents to "...provide investment in educating globally, competitive U.S. students to work in fields of international interest" noted Karin Hughes, Undersecretary of State for Public Diplomacy and Public Affairs (Deaner 2005). The conference for the university presidents was also intended to draw attention to the key investments required for developing dynamic, international strategies that included everyone: universities, colleges, public and private sectors that could share in a national vision for the future. In November 2006, President Bush called for an increase to one million American students who are studying abroad by 2018. The goal is to gain the skill set necessary to succeed in a global society. Americans need to develop global competency. Yes, yes, yes. This vision is one where the United States of America retains (or perhaps regains) its premier status but through merit and ideology and common good. Nothing else will do.

Further Research:

Valuable future research will be to gain a greater understanding of the relationships between various preparatory actions and outcomes in the arena of expatriate effectiveness, leadership and anti-Americanism. The use of expatriates expresses huge investments for international companies. There is a need for clear measurement and understanding the benefits of this value generating process. Knowledge and experience are two pillars of success that has served well in the past and cannot but serve equally effectively in the future.

References:

- Andreason, A.W. (2003). Direct and indirect forms of in-country support for expatriates and their families as a means of reducing premature returns and improving job performance, *International Journal of Management*, v 20, no 4, December 2003, pp 548-555.
- Anders, T.M. (2004). Second track/citizens' diplomacy: concepts and techniques for conflict transformation. *International Journal on World Peace*, Sept 2004, v21, i3, pp82-86.
- Bauwens, W. Reychler, L.(1994). *The Art of Conflict Prevention*, Brassey; London.

- Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B. (1999). The right way to manage expats. *Harvard Business Review*: 77 i2, pp52-62.
- Booth, K. (1979). *Strategy and Ethnocentrism*. New York: Holmes and Meier Publishers. Inc.
- Brokaw, T. (1998). *The Greatest Generation*, Random House, Inc.; New York.
- Caruth, D.L, Handlogten-Caruth, G.D.(2002). Fundamentals of International Compensation, *Innovative Leader*, July 2002, v 11 i7.
- Chigas D. (2003). Track II (Citizen)Diplomacy, Retrieved Jan 26, 2006, from http://beyondintractability.org/essay/track2_diplomacy.
- Coalition for Citizen Diplomacy (2005), Retrieved Oct 25, 2005, from <http://citizen-diplomacy.org>.
- Copeland, L. Griggs (1985) *Going International*, Random House: New York.
- Crockatt, R. (2003). *America Embattled: September 11, Anti-Americanism and the Global Order*, London: Routledge.
- Deaner, N. (2005). U.S. Departments of State and Education to Host U.S. University Presidents Summit. For release December 28, 2005. Retrieved January 9, 2006, from <http://www.ed.gov/new/pressreleases/2005/12/12292005>. html.
- Dowling, P.J., Welch, D.E. (2005. (Eds.) *International Human Resource Management* (4th ed.), South-Western, Thomson,: Mason, Ohio, p IX.
- Erickson, S.C. (2000). [An emerging study of midlife through cross cultural experiences] Unpublished raw data.
- Feldman, D. (1989). Relocation practices, *Personnel*, i66, no 11, pp 22-25.
- Hall, E.T. (1966). *The Hidden Dimension*, Anchor Press/Doubleday: New York.
- Harris, P.H., Moran, R.T. (1979). *Managing Cultural Differences*, Gulf Publishing: Houston, TX.
- Hofmeiser, J. (2005). Global and Local Balance in Human Resources Leadership. In M. Losey, S. Meisinger, D. Ulrich (Eds.) *Future of Human Resource Management* (pp 361-369). John Wiley & Sons Inc.: New Jersey.
- International Assignments (1997). *BNA Bulletin to Management*, May 1, 1997, pp140-141.

- Kull, S.(2005). It's lonely at the top, *Foreign Policy*, Jul/Aug 2005, i 149, pp 35-37.
- Kraimer, M.L.,Wayne, S.J. & Jaworski, R.A. (2001). *Personnel Psychology*, v 54, p71.
- Krueger, C. (1998). Conflict Research Consortium article summary, Retrieved Jan 26, 2006, from <http://www.colorado.edu/conflict/pease/example/mcdo3682.htm>.
- McDonald, J.W. (1991). Further exploration of track two diplomacy. In L.Kriesberg & Thorson, S.J. (Eds.), *Timing the De-Escalation of International Conflicts*, (pp201-220). Syracuse University Press: Syracuse, NY.
- Martinko, M.J. Douglas, S.C. (1999). Culture and expatriate failure: an attributional explication, *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, v 7 i3: pp 265-293.
- Marx, E. (1999). *Breaking through culture shock: what you need to succeed in international business*, Nicholas Brealey Publishing, London, UK.
- McGuire, S. (2004). The anti-American century, *New Statesman*, October 24, 2004, v133, i4711, p 19.
- Oddou, G. R. (1991). Managing your expatriates: what the successful firms do, *Human Resource Planning*, I 14 v 4, pp 301-308.
- Patterson, R.F. (Ed.) (1990). *New Expanded Webster's Dictionary*, PSI & Assoc. Inc., Miami, Florida.
- Pew Global Attitudes Project (2002). *What the world thinks in 2002*, The Pew Research Center for the People and the Press, Retrieved Jan 30, 2006 from <http://people-press.org/reports/print.php3?ReportID=165,13February2003>.
- Phatak, A. V. (1995). *International dimensions of management* (4th ed.). Cincinnati, OH: South-Western College Publishers.
- Roeber, A.L., Kluckhohn, C. (1952). Culture: A critical review of concepts and definitions, *Papers of the Peabody Museum of American Archaeology and Ethnology*, Harvard University, Cambridge, MA.
- Ryan, D. (2004). Americanization and anti-Americanism at the periphery, *European Journal of American Culture*, v 23, n2, pp111-124.
- Selmer, J. (2002). Practice makes perfect? International experience and expatriate adjustment, *Management International Review*, I 42, no 2; pp 71-87.
- Shannonhouse, R. (1996). Overseas-assignment failures, *USA today/International Edition*, November 8, 1996. p 8.

Shay, J.P., Tracey, J.B. (1997). Expatriate managers: reasons for failure and implication for Training, *Cornell Hotel and Restaurant Administration Quarterly*, v 39 i1, pp3—35.

Sumner, W.G (1906). Folkways. New York: Ginn Publishing.

Tung, R. L. (1982). Expatriate assignments; enhancing success and minimizing failure, *Academy of Management Executive*, v1 i2, pp117-126.

Van Pelt, P. Woliansky, N. (1990).The high cost of expatriation. *Management Review*, v 79, n7, pp 40-41.

View From Abroad, (2005, Febr. 19). *The Economist*. pp 24-26.