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Towards an Equilibrium of Cultural Synergy: Evaluating Anticipated and Experienced Cultural Distance Differences in Expatriate-Local Employee Relational Dynamics

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Thesis completed from 2019-2020 in collaboration with Dr. Adam Grant and Constantinos Coutifaris.

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Abstract

Extensive research has considered cross-cultural difference at the national level. However, little research has explored the relational manifestation of cross-cultural differences through the context of the multinational organization setting. This study considers the frequently-utilized global strategy model of expatriates within the broader organizational culture at the subsidiary. Through this model, we consider the differences between the experienced and anticipated cultural distance between an individual employee and expatriate of two different countries. Specifically, we consider the moderating and downstream effects of the expatriate and subsidiary employees' individual behaviors on the multinational organization's effectiveness. We propose four cultural outcomes: cultural standstills, cultural authenticity, cultural facades, and cultural synergy. We suggest that unilateral or bilateral accommodations bring the expatriate and local employees' cultures closer to an equilibrium of 'cultural synergy,' in which the subsidiary's culture is convergent and shared between the individual employees and the expatriate. Further, we discuss the various manifestations of cultural synergy, which have both, positive and negative long-term implications on the firm. Finally, we discuss the practical implications of such moderators and consequences in global strategy decisions for management executives and human relations decision-makers.

Keywords

Organizational Culture, Multinational Firm, Expatriate, Global Strategy, Cultural Distance

Disciplines

Business Administration, Management, and Operations | Human Resources Management | Industrial and Organizational Psychology | International Business | Leadership Studies | Multicultural Psychology | Organizational Behavior and Theory | Organization Development | Social and Cultural Anthropology

Comments

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TOWARDS AN EQUILIBRIUM OF CULTURAL SYNERGY: EVALUATING
ANTICIPATED AND EXPERIENCED CULTURAL DISTANCE DIFFERENCES IN
EXPATRIATE-LOCAL EMPLOYEE RELATIONAL DYNAMICS

By

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An Undergraduate Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
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ABSTRACT

Extensive research has considered cross-cultural difference at the national level. However, little research has explored the relational manifestation of cross-cultural differences through the context of the multinational organization setting. This study considers the frequently-utilized global strategy model of expatriates within the broader organizational culture at the subsidiary. Through this model, we consider the differences between the experienced and anticipated cultural distance between an individual employee and expatriate of two different countries. Specifically, we consider the moderating and downstream effects of the expatriate and subsidiary employees' individual behaviors on the multinational organization's effectiveness. We propose four cultural outcomes: cultural standstills, cultural authenticity, cultural facades, and cultural synergy. We suggest that unilateral or bilateral accommodations bring the expatriate and local employees' cultures closer to an equilibrium of 'cultural synergy,' in which the subsidiary's culture is convergent and shared between the individual employees and the expatriate. Further, we discuss the various manifestations of cultural synergy, which have both, positive and negative long-term implications on the firm. Finally, we discuss the practical implications of such moderators and consequences in global strategy decisions for management executives and human relations decision-makers.

Keywords

Organizational Culture, Multinational Firm, Expatriate, Global Strategy, Cultural Distance

Discipline

Business, Strategy, Organizational Behavior, Multinational Management

Within the context of an organization, culture plays a significant role in shaping expectations and behaviors (Stone-Romero, Stone, & Salas, 2003). In addition to the explicit role prescriptions derived from company missions and role descriptions, these norms provide supplemental guidance for behaviors in the workplace (Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1985; Grant & Patil, 2012). These expectations often stem from values that are common not only to the organization itself, but to the larger culture in which the organization is socialized, for example, its country context and resultant culture (Triandis, 1980, 1989; Heinsman, de Hoogh, Koopman, & van Muijen, 2008). In the absence of explicit role prescriptions, employees often rely on these cultural scripts for decision-making (Abelson, 1976). However, cultural differences and varying resultant norms and behavior within a single organization can create inconsistencies and problems within the workplace (Greenberg, 2000). As additional sub-cultures are introduced into a single company's context, the room for cultural unity lessens and the possibility of enacted cultural differences increases (Adler, 1980; Martin, Frost, O'Neill, 2016).

As companies continue to globalize and expand throughout the world, additional organizational and national cultures are inherently introduced into and developed within the firm (Bellin & Pham, 2007). A prevalent management practice for administrating global expansion and development is the creation of country-specific subsidiaries, which operate individually and report to the larger multinational headquarters (Frost, 1998; Birkinshaw, 2016). In the more nuanced management of these subsidiaries, increased globalization has led multinational organizations to rely on managerial international assignments, often in the form of expatriates, who are managers and executives on international assignment in a country different from their home country, in order to compete in the global economy (Harrison, Shaffer, & Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2004). These corporate 'representatives' are important facets of a broader human

capital strategy, in their sought ability to understand and positively impact how multinational corporations operate their subsidiaries (Edström & Galbraith, 1977; Tung, 1987).

However, this desire to compete is not always realized; multinational management research shows that expatriates in more culturally distant countries experience greater uncertainty in their environments and interactions, thus impacting their abilities to lead (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Chen, Kirkman, Kim, Farh, & Tangirala, 2010; Ronen & Shenkar, 1985). In this corporate context, cultural distance refers to a “continuous construct that captures the degree of difference in the cultural values between two cultures,” namely that of the expatriate’s home country and the subsidiary’s location (Ng, Van Dyne, & Ang, 2019: 151; Kogut & Singh, 1988). These specific values have been broadly defined as containing the following characteristics: focusing on ideals, being expressible through cognitive control, and being trans-situational (Marini, 2000; Roccas, Sagiv, & Knafo, 2002; Hitlin & Piliavin, 2004). Within the construct of the organization, values have been broadly defined through Hofstede’s cultural dimensions, which suggest the possibility of grave differences across country borders (Hofstede, 1980, 1983, 1984, 2001, 2010).

In light of this potential disparity between relevant cultures, it is crucial to understand the forces that largely shape organizational culture in the context of a specific subsidiary. Culture is created as an organization faces internal and external pressures, and subsequently adapts to them (Schein, 1992). When the adaptation is proven successful, the values are thus retained and taught to new members as the norm for doing business in the future (Schein, 1992). Within the context of a company, culture is tied to the values and vision of its founder(s), as well as their country of origin’s national values (Smalley, 2007; Heinsman et al., 2008). These values often persist in organizations, becoming long-standing brand symbols and competitive advantages (Kiger, 2005).

These norms, informal and formal, are enforced by employees across the firm through social approval or disapproval (Barker, 1993; Hackman, 1992). More visible sources of culture, such as espoused and enacted values, artifacts, and practices, are then established over time (Schein, 2003). However, as the company expands, the enacted cultural values of new locations may diverge from the espoused values developed in the company's original location (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989).

Early research in cross-cultural differences focused upon value-driven differences, which were generally derived from each country's broader philosophies (Schwartz, 1994). For example, Schwartz notes that while Japan and the United States maintain very distinctive cultures, neither of these cultures maintains an extreme polarity in one cultural dimension; rather, the distinction between the cultures is derived from their distinctive agglomeration of values (1994). Their distinction comes not solely from the content of their values, but additionally from the intensity of such values, emulated by the degree of societal enforcement in each country (Schwartz, 1994). Gelfand's multilevel theory adds to this approach by introducing the construct of cultural 'tightness and looseness,' defined as "the strength of social norms and degree of sanctioning within societies" (Gelfand, Nishii, & Raver, 2006: 6; Gelfand, Erez, & Aycan, 2007; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014; Gelfand, Raver, Nishii, Leslie, Lin, & Aycan, 2011). Accordingly, a country's score on this scale influences its antecedent organizational and individual cultural adherence to norms (Gelfand et al., 2006). Despite this influence, Gelfand creates a distinction from collectivism in its societal variation, which accounts for specific influence by one's in-group and can thus manifest in an individual corporate office (Gelfand et al., 2006). Gelfand notes that these differences in tightness and looseness can be present not only at the country level, but can also be perceived in smaller settings, such as individual states or offices (Harrington & Gelfand,

2014). Resultantly, a particular office's organizational culture is affected by the 'tightness and looseness' of the its societal surroundings, such as the city, state, or national context (Ostroff & Bowen, 2000; Schneider, Salvaggio, & Subirats, 2002; Sørensen, 2002; Cox, Lobel, & McLeod, 1991; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995; Wright & Snell, 1998; Gelfand, et al., 2011; Harrington & Gelfand, 2014).

Hofstede's cross-cultural domains are widely regarded as the paradigm for analyzing cultural differences (1984, 2001). Hofstede defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from others," with national culture signifying a country-level category of people (Hofstede, 1980). He defines six specific dimensions upon which national cultures can be compared and differentiated: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, long-term orientation versus short-term normative orientation, and indulgence versus restraint (Hofstede, 2001: 9, 1980, 1983, 1984, 2010). While this research shows the implied differences between cultures on each of these dimensions, it provides little room for extrapolation in situations of interaction between multiple cultures.

Haas' research on global teams and further distinguishing of 'cosmopolitan' and 'local' individuals within these teams, provides a compelling example of the intersection of multiple cultures with a single corporate context (2005, 2006). While broader values and norms differ across countries, cultural diversity, specifically in the national context, has been observed to impede decision making in teams due to issues of 'cross cultural translation' (Hofstede, 1980; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Triandis, 1989; Earley & Mosakowski, 2000; Elron, 1997; Hambrick, Davison, Snell, & Snow, 1998; Bhagat, Kedia, Harveston, & Triandis, 2002; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997; Haas, 2006). Within the context of a team, Haas roots individual team

members in the role constructs of ‘cosmopolitans’ and ‘locals,’ each of which maintains differentiated and important roles to transnational teams (Haas, 2005, 2006). In the context of this research, an expatriate on an international assignment would be characterized as a ‘cosmopolitan.’ These findings imply a balance of ‘cosmopolitans’ and ‘locals’ in order to create the most supportive environment of internal and external organizational knowledge transfers; however, this balance is not often the case when small numbers of expatriates are sent on international assignment to manage populous local teams (Haas 2006; Littrell, Salas, Hess, Palay, & Riedel, 2006; Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Observing cultural differences through another lens, the fit between global strategy and culture is consciously felt in the domain of mergers and acquisitions (Cui, Dong, Liu, & Wang, 2016; Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). As companies look to expand globally through inorganic growth, mergers and acquisitions present a unique opportunity to leverage existing capabilities in external markets (Achmadi & Priyatiningsih, 2016). However, the feasibility of target firm integration, both operationally and culturally, remains a key concern for acquirers (Capron & Mitchell, 2012). The acculturation, or “changes induced in a two-culture system as a result of the diffusion of cultural elements in both directions,” provides the context for an existing company and culture to prepare for ‘invasion’ from the acquiring company (Berry, 1980: 215; Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). Berry, in his early scholarship, suggests that four key cultural outcomes can persist as a result of the acquiring and the acquired firm’s values, motivations, and strategic directions: integration, assimilation, separation, and deculturation (1980, 1983). While subsidiaries of multinational firms are not acquired and are rather, established by parent companies, the notion of existing culture before the entrance of the

expatriate, or outsider, persists. In this regard, the domain of mergers and acquisitions serves as an analogous industry for evaluating how cultures interact on the larger country-wide landscape.

Little research and theory to date have explored the interaction of and differences between national and organizational cultures in the multinational company setting, particularly through the practical and frequently used expatriate model. While several studies have addressed the implications of global teams, these differ in both, distribution and power distance levels, from the example of a sole expatriate and multiple individual, local employees (Haas 2005, 2006; Janssens & Brett, 2006; McDonough, Kahn, & Barczaka, 2001). From a theoretical lens, addressing this particularity can facilitate broader global strategy for multinational companies, which serves as an increasingly important strategic facet in a globalized and integrated world (Ghoshal, 1987; Bartlett & Ghoshal, 1989, Nohria & Ghoshal 1997). These multinational corporations inherently balance multiple sub-cultures within the broader organizations, thus setting the stage for broader interaction effects (Palthe & Kossek, 2003; Martin et al., 2006). With over 82,000 multinational enterprises and 230,000 foreign affiliates reported in 2014 in addition to an accelerating year on year growth rate, the interaction effects are poised to increase as the world continues to integrate and globalize (OECD, 2018). Illustrating the theoretical outcomes of cross-cultural interactions will contribute to a broader understanding of sub-cultures, both those that operate orthogonally and those that collide as countercultures, as well as the strength and adherence of norms in these contexts (Martin & Siehl, 1983). It will also provide practical insight for multinational corporations in making human relations decisions for globalization and subsidiaries by considering the cross-cultural contexts of its employees.

To enrich existing knowledge about cross-cultural interaction and norm development through the deployment of expatriates, we focus on the moderators for expatriate and local

employees' individual behaviors, which contribute to the larger subsidiary's culture. While we consider the implications of the broader country-wide differences, the theory and model are largely focused on the practical and individual-level behaviors that greatly affect the culture within the subsidiary. We begin by detailing the constructs of cultural distance at the individual and country levels, which create the key distinctions discussed throughout the paper. Next, we detail the contributing factors, moderators, and downstream consequences of the four proposed cultural outcomes. Following this, we discuss the implications of the model, from theoretical and practical standpoints. Our core propositions are visually summarized in Figure 1. Our proposed cultural outcomes are detailed in Figure 2.

Figure 1: Movement Towards Cultural Synergy in Expatriate – Local Employee Dyads

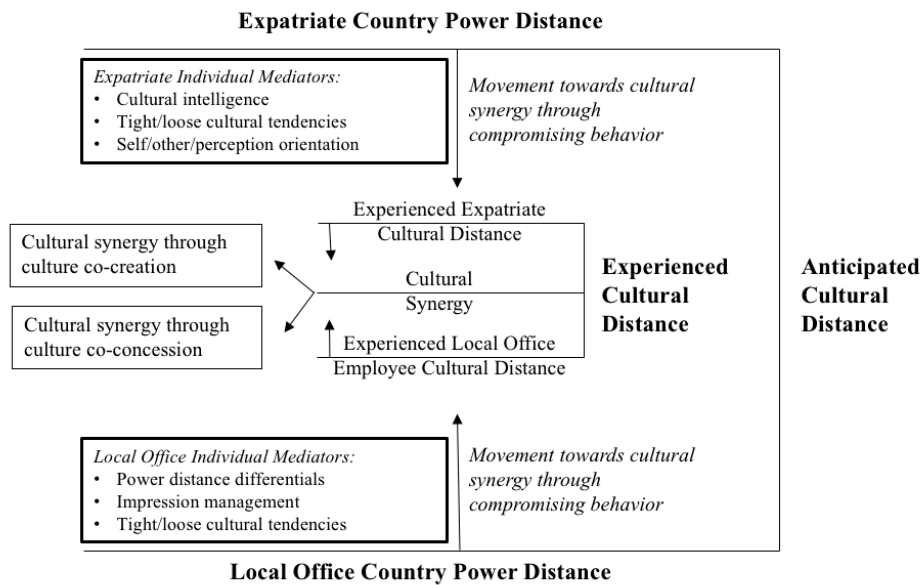


Figure 2: Proposed Cultural Outcomes by Compromising Statuses

		Local Employee	
		Uncompromising	Compromising
Expatriate Employee	Uncompromising	<u>Cultural Standstill</u> Experiencing anticipated cultural distance	<u>Cultural Authenticity</u> <i>No experienced cultural distance</i>
	Compromising	<u>Cultural Facades</u> Pretending to experience no cultural distance	<u>Cultural Synergy</u> Experiencing convergent culture

Inserting Expatriates into the Cultural Equation

Expatriates often represent subsequent additions to an existing sub-culture in a corporate subsidiary's office (Church, 1982; Martin & Siehl, 1983; Martin et al., 2006). This paper considers the expatriate's insertion into this existing culture as the premise for the development of a new culture, which potentially adjusts and adapts as a result of the new entrant. Specifically, it considers the differences between anticipated and experienced cultural distance between the expatriate's home country and the country of the local employee, which is also the site of the expatriate's international assignment. The home country, rather than the nationality of the expatriate, is studied due to prior research's indication that the base location has a more significant effect on knowledge transfer than nationality within the multinational group setting (Haas & Cummings, 2014). While this difference has been studied in broader cultural context, this paper focuses on the differences between the country-wide predictions and the individual-level experiences, as well as the boundary conditions that shape these experiences (Hofstede, 2001; Gelfand, 2007, 2011). Model 1 highlights the core propositions visually, thus summarizing

the directions of movements towards a proposed equilibrium of ‘cultural synergy.’ Cultural synergy can be defined as a culture of convergence, in which both, the expatriate and the local employees share a single culture with negligible cultural distance (Hofstede, 2003; Alvesson & Sandkull, 1988; Ng et al., 2019). The result of cultural synergy can be manifested through: a) ‘cultural concessions’ and norm deviation or b) ‘cultural co-creation’ of new norms and culture from the bilateral cultural movement of both, the expatriate and the local employee, in order to create such a convergence. We also discuss situations of unilateral concessions, which may present as cultural facades or cultural authenticity, depending on which party is primarily making the concessions. Throughout the paper, we address the potential positive and negative implications of such concessions, as well as their resulting cultural outcomes.

Model 2 summarizes four proposed cultural outcomes, which may emerge as a result of key moderators on the individual or national levels. These outcomes include: cultural standstills, cultural authenticity, cultural facades, and cultural synergy. Cultural standstills occur when expatriates and local employees remain at their individual cultural polarities, disregarding any potential concessions. Cultural authenticity occurs when an expatriate remains at his/her cultural polarity, while the local employees shift towards the expatriate’s cultural norms. Cultural facades occur when local employees remain at their cultural polarities, while the expatriate shift towards the local employees’ cultural norms. Lastly, cultural synergy occurs when both, the expatriate and the local employees, shift towards a shared culture of convergence. The following theoretical analysis explores the core influencing factors and downstream consequences for each of these proposed outcomes, thus providing theoretical context for why an expatriate-local employee culture might develop into a specific outcome.

Proposed Cultural Outcomes in Expatriate – Local Employee Relationship

Cultural Standstill: Uncompromising Expatriates and Uncompromising Local Employees

Anticipated cultural distance has previously been measured on a national level, thus the metric considers not only widely-held values, but also resultant actions and norms (Kogut & Singh, 1988; Hofstede, 2001; Shenkar, Luo, & Yeheskel, 2008). Mergers and acquisitions literature suggests that the separation cultural outcome is “a mode of acculturation involving attempts to preserve one’s culture and practices by remaining separate and independent from the dominant group” (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988: 82; Berry, 1983). In this regard, both parties’ cultures remain at a standstill, with little to no adjustment towards any shared or co-created norms. Rather, the acquired party, despite maintaining less explicit operational power, resists adaptation and attempts to remain culturally separate, thus leveraging their unwritten cultural power in their locational domain; each group functions relatively independently and there is minimal cultural exchange (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh 1988; Barker, 1993; Hackman, 1992). This may be active, due to a negative orientation towards the other party, or as a passive and natural consequence of differing role expectations resulting from the greater differences in the cultural contexts in which the parties have been socialized (Hofstede, 2001; Shenkar et al., 2008; Ng et al, 2019). For example, the ‘sanctioned separation’ in the HP-Compaq merger maintained separate operating units due to starkly contrasting cultures (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993; Miller & Fernandes, 2009). We propose that a cultural standstill may occur, similarly, at the relational level of an expatriate and local subsidiary employees through a lack of compromise from both parties.

Mergers and acquisitions research finds that acquired companies’ perceived attractiveness of their acquirer is a key determinant in their decision to integrate or separate

culturally from the larger entity (Berry, 1983). Analogously, in the expatriate setting, local employees' perceptions of the attractiveness and superiority (or lack thereof) of the expatriate plays heavily into their choice to preserve the values of their own culture (Gordon, 1996; Howard, Gengler, & Jain, 1995). For example, if the local employees believe that the expatriate is cast in a figurehead role, with little responsibility, it is less likely that they will attempt to acclimate to his or her norms (Baumeister, 1982). Thus, the 'perception dimension,' consisting of "the cognitive abilities that allow the expatriate to correctly perceive and evaluate the host environment and its actors" is pivotal for expatriates' understanding the local employees' perceptions of the expatriate and his or her role (Black et al., 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986). According, this orientation is one several individual skill areas that researchers deem predictive and necessary for effectiveness in cross-cultural settings (Black et al., 1991: 294; Brein & David, 1971; Church, 1982; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Stening, 1979). This perception dimension is dually important for local employees to maintain through a broader organizational intelligence (Wilensky, 2015; Magala, Akgün, Bryne, & Keskin, 2007). In the event that both parties do not maintain the relevant perception emphasis, they will be unable to compromise, thus leading to a lack of cultural integration and development of shared norms.

Mendenhall and Oddou suggest that expatriates' adjustment to the home country can be categorized into three orientations: the perception orientation, discussed above, the self-orientation, and the others orientation (1985, 1986). While the authors suggest that all of these orientations are necessary to ensure the highest likelihood of cultural adjustment, they acknowledge that expatriates often possess skills in at least one of the orientations prior to their departure (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986). While the others and perception orientations are key in understanding one's new environment, the self-orientation "includes activities and attributes that

serve to strengthen the expatriate's self-esteem, self-confidence, and mental hygiene” (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985: 40). The authors describe the hypothetical expatriate who has a self-orientation, but lacks others and perception orientations, as the ‘Ugly American’ (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986). In this circumstance, the expatriate is characterized by a “high degree of self-confidence and ego-strength, yet low cross-cultural interpersonal and attributional skills... when host nationals fail to ‘come-around’ to this type of expatriate’s point of view, he or she attributes it to their backward culture, ignorance, or lack of desire to better themselves” (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986: 76). Further, “it is beyond the credulity to the ‘Ugly American’ that the host nationals would not desire to copy the American way of doing things, whether at work or in society generally, since it is obviously superior to the methods of the host-nationals. His or her tendency is to continue to force Western ways upon the host-nationals, which unfailingly produces resentment, silent resistance, sabotage, and/or physical confrontation” (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986: 76).

We, thus, propose that the expressed ethnocentrism and unwillingness to cooperate will persuade each cultural sub-group to remain at its cultural polarity and act culturally independent, despite the structural synergies that may be necessary to continue the subsidiary’s core operations.

P1: Experienced cultural distance will be equivalent to the anticipated cultural distance when uncompromising expatriates and uncompromising local employees remain on the polarities of their anticipated cultural distance.

In the event of a cultural standstill, two sub-group cultures emerge: the culture of the expatriate and the contrasting, more populous culture of the local subsidiary employees. These cultures could be orthogonal or conflicting; in this regard, cultural interaction may occur, despite little or any shared values (Martin, 1983; Martin et al., 2006). Due to the unequal numerical

distribution, the expatriate is likely to be perceived as the ‘out-group,’ rather than being part of the more dominant ‘in-group’ of subsidiary employees. While the ‘in-group’ bias persists and members of the ‘in-group’ exhibit preferences towards each other, this can have larger consequences for the organization (Brewer, 1979; Brewer & Kramer, 1985; Tajfel, 1982). The belief congruence principle, accordingly, suggests that those in the in-group that maintain similar beliefs, attitudes, and values may experience negative orientations towards those with dissimilar beliefs or characteristics (Rokeach & Rothman, 1965; Struch & Schwartz, 1989). This has been found in both, personal and professional contexts. For example, the ‘in-group’ of employees may express aggression towards the out-group of the expatriate when their interests conflict (Struch & Schwartz, 1989). Additional research has found negative implications in core organizational cultural practices, such as persuasion, cooperation, and giving (Wilder, 1990; Ruffle, 2006; Ben-Ner, McCall, Stephane, & Wang, 2009).

Multinational firms and increasing interdependency resulting from the risk of global markets have increased the importance of collaboration and positive relations within the global ecosystem (Lane, 1998). Lau and Murnighan suggest that groups and subgroups with emerging demographic faultlines, such as national boundaries, can influence negative outcomes for the larger organization (2005). In this regard, the ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’ dynamics expressed above may further exacerbate negative faultlines when resulting conflict leads to negative influences on performance (Lau & Murnighan, 2005; Jehn, 1995). Conflict-riddled work environments can decrease participants’ tendencies to ask questions and take risks (Edmonson, 1999). Edmonson defines a ‘psychologically safe’ environment as one in which “a shared belief that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking” exists (Edmonson, 1999: 354). However, when prevalent faultlines and conflicts are present, this can undermine psychological safety and lead to

adverse long-term outcomes for the firm, such as poorer performance (O’Leary, 2016; Edmonson, 2002; Edmonson & Lei, 2014).

We propose that cultural standstills emphasize the ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’ divide in relation to the enactment of psychological safety norms. In this regard, even in the event of both parties understanding the subsidiary country’s trust norms, the local employees’ negative orientation towards the ‘out group,’ or expatriate, will hinder the symbiotic creation of a psychologically-safe corporate atmosphere.

P2: Cultural standstills will accentuate the differences between cultural ‘in-groups’ and ‘out-groups’ within the subsidiary, thus resulting in lower psychological safety.

Cultural Authenticity: Uncompromising Expatriates and Compromising Local Employees

Previous research has noted the upward conformity experienced in organizations through the practice of ‘impression management’ (Baumeister, 1982; Cialdini & Goldstein, 2004; Gordon, 1996; Howard et al., 1995). Specifically, impression management and subsequent conformity to supervisors’ norms and beliefs are seen to be tactics to influence employees in more powerful positions within a corporate hierarchy (Ashford, Rothbard, Piderit, & Dutton, 1998; Ferris & Judge, 1991). Organizational politics through impression management have been employed through areas of decision making, coalition building, and broader social or managerial influence (Pettigrew, 1973; Tushman, 1977; Bacharach & Lawler, 1980; Allen, Madison, Porter, Renwick, & Mayes, 1979). Cross-cultural research suggests that one’s specific cultural traits and values will influence the broader choice of impression management strategies (Pandey, 1986). Accordingly, Pandey suggests that hierarchical structures within corporations (such as the

structure differentiating the expatriate from the local employee) facilitate ingratiation and broader impression management through norm adaptation (Pandey, 1981, 1986; Zaidman & Drory, 2001; Canney, Davison, & Ward, 1999).

Hofstede's dimension of power distance provides a specific measure for comparing cultures along this adherence to hierarchical norms (Hofstede, 2001). Power distance is defined as "the extent to which the less powerful members of organizations...accept and expect that power is distributed unequally" (Hofstede and Milosevic, 2018: 6; Hofstede, 2001). In cultures with high power distance values, hierarchical norms appear to be prominent, suggesting that adherence to leaders, such as expatriates, will be accentuated, likely through the impression management tactics described above (Hofstede, 1983). Accordingly, cross-cultural interactions provide a compelling context for the enactment of such power distance norms.

We propose that when power distance norms across the local employees' country are starkly prevalent, the conformity of local employees through upward impression management will be more likely. In this situation, a high national regard for hierarchical norms will perpetuate the individual-level behavioral conformity across the subsidiary.

P3: Local employees of national cultures with high power distance scores are likely to experience upward impression management and resultant conformity to the expatriate's norms.

The expatriate's own socialization and culture may contribute to their uncompromising status in this outcome. Specifically, a high power distance culture in the expatriate's home country may further accentuate existing hierarchical norms, in the expatriate's inculcation of his or her superiority and authority (Hofstede, 2001; Tyler, Lind, & Huo, 2000; Huang, Zhu, & Brass, 2017). This creates a dependent reaction, in which the local employees act as subordinates

and prefer to adhere to the decisions of their superiors (Hofstede, 1983). Additionally, the expatriate may fear the consequences of conformity, such as appearing ‘cowardly’ and harming their existing impression (Braver, Linder, Corwin, & Cialdini, 1977; Cialdini, Braver, & Lewis, 1974; Hewlin, 2009). Further, the expatriate may not maintain orientations towards others or perception in understanding the perspectives of other employees (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985, 1986). This accentuates the value of high power distance, in both, the expatriate and the employees’ experiences.

Mergers and acquisitions literature points to the acculturation outcome of assimilation as a potential analogy for the proposed cultural authenticity outcome. A culture of assimilation is “a unilateral process in which one group willingly adopts the identity and culture of the other” (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh 1988: 82; Berry, 1983, 1984). The acquired firm willingly relinquishes their cultural practices to adopt the culture of the acquirer (Sales & Mirvis, 1984). In the context of the expatriate and local employee’s cultural scheme, this suggests that the local employee will relinquish their cultural norms and revert towards the norms of the expatriate (Hofstede, 2001; Hofstede and Milosevic, 2018). The heightened awareness of the power differential will thus add context to the espoused superiority of the expatriate and home country’s norms.

The assimilation outcome in mergers and acquisitions often comes with an important consequence: complete cultural and behavioral assimilation, leading the acquired entity to cease to exist as a cultural identity over time (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). The deletion of culture mirrors the permanent nature of the relationship between the acquiring and the acquired firms; they are entering a partnership with no foreseeable end, similar to the ‘organizational marriage’ analogy used in mergers and acquisitions (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993). However, the long-term

and permanent nature of mergers and acquisitions does not apply to expatriate and local employee relationships, as expatriates are typically assigned to a specific subsidiary for a specific and temporary amount of time (Dowling & Welch, 2004). While this allows for firm and expatriate flexibility, research in international assignments indicates that approximately 34% of surveyed multinational companies regard the lack of expatriates' full integration into the workplace as a key disadvantage of the expatriate model (Tahvanainen, Welch, & Worm, 2005). Tahvanainen and his co-authors suggest that the shorter the term, the less likely that cultural integration will take place at the subsidiary (2005). Additionally, at the individual level, the appropriate norm in the subsidiary setting may conflict with the expatriate's ingrained cultural values from their home country setting, thus causing distress and a lack of adjustment, despite acknowledgement of the instrumental benefits of such an adjustment (Leong & Ward, 2000; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991; Molinsky, 2007).

In this regard, each expatriate may have a unique experience with internalizing the country's norms and externally projecting their home country's most salient norms and values. This may present as 'cultural confusion' to the subsidiary's local employees, who remain constant at the firm, while expatriates are temporary through the completion of their terms and continuous replacement (Hottola, 2004; Brislin, Worthley, & Macnab, 2006). This short-term adaptation for local employees creates the construct of 'cultural tourism,' in which the knowledge of the 'tour ending,' or the expatriate completing his or her assignment, is prevalent (Hottola, 2004). Despite a short-term change in values, these changes are often temporary, as the readjustment phase (back to the subsidiary's preexisting culture) is typically a faster adjustment than their adjustment to the new environment (with the expatriate's entrance) (Riley 1988; Weaver 1987; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963). As a related consequence, research in mergers

and acquisitions literature has shown that large differences in national power distance values has undermined the long-term post-acquisition performance of acquirers significantly (Huang et al., 2017). In accordance with this concept of ‘tourism’ and its potential consequences, we propose that the short-term nature of an expatriate’s assignment will lead to diminishing long-term effects on the norms of the local employees. In this regard, the expatriate’s long-term effect on the subsidiary’s culture will be less consequential.

P4: Unidirectional cultural authenticity of the expatriate will have diminishing effects on the long-term (post-expatriate) norms instilled during the expatriates’ helm at the subsidiary.

Cultural Facades: Compromising Expatriates and Uncompromising Local Employees

An expatriate’s individual acculturation is largely dependent on his or her own orientation (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985, 1986, 1987). Mendenhall and Oddou describe three primary orientations for expatriates: the self-orientation, others orientation, and perceptual orientation (1985, 1986). While the ideal and well-adjusted expatriate is described as maintaining a combination of all three orientations, the others orientation and perceptual orientations are largely aligned with the establishment of cultural likeness within the subsidiary. Specifically, the others orientation refers to “the degree to which the expatriate is concerned about host-national co-workers and desires to affiliate with them,” while the perceptual orientation reflects “the expertise the expatriate possesses in accurately understanding why host nationals engage in seemingly ‘inappropriate’ or ‘strange’ behaviors (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985: 41-43, 1986, 1987, 1991; Brein & David, 1971; Church, 1982; Stening, 1979).

These two orientations develop into a larger skill of cultural intelligence (CQ), which refers to “an individual’s capacity to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings” (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2007: 336; Verghese & D’Netto, 2012; Ng et al., 2019; Earley & Ang, 2003). Cultural intelligence may be developed over the course of multiple international assignments which bring cultural knowledge and exposure to the expatriate (Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou, 1991; Jago, Reber, Bohnisch, Maczynski, Zavrel, & Dudorik, 1993; Tung, 1998). These short-term experiences may create a short-term version of biculturals’ cultural frame switching, in the form of cross-cultural code-switching (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martinez, 2000; Benet-Martinez, Lee, Leu, 2006; Molinsky, 2007). Exposure to foreign settings leads to the learning of appropriate rules to be used in specific contexts, thus increasing comfort with various cultural rules (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). This adaptation can help to avoid the consequences of norm violation and its associated negative orientations and can increase positive orientations of the expertise (Earley & Ang, 2003; Francis, 1991; Osland, Bird, Delano, & Iacob, 2000; Pornpitakpan, 1999; Thomas & Ravlin, 1995; Thomas & Toyne, 1995; Leary, 1995; Montagliani & Giacalone, 1998; Schlenker, 1980). In this regard, cross-cultural code switching refers to “the act of purposefully modifying one’s behavior, in a specific interaction in a foreign setting, to accommodate different cultural norms for appropriate behavior” (Molinsky, 2007: 624). This intentional adjustment of behavior constitutes a conscious override to the expatriate’s socialized and ingrained norms in order to produce cultural constants (Bettenhausen & Murnighan, 1991; Feldman, 1984; Molinsky, 2007). In this regard, an expatriate with strong cultural intelligence, demonstrated through his or her ability to consciously adapt to their new environment, will be able to create a more culturally consistent environment, despite different ingrained and subconscious norms.

P5: The greater the expatriate's cultural intelligence (CQ) is, the smaller the difference between the anticipated and experienced cultural differences of expatriate and local employee cultures.

In the event of a compromising expatriate and a strong, dominating local culture, subsidiary employees may not provide a reciprocal compromise, as is common in mergers and acquisitions settings with a cultural assimilation outcome (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). In an assimilation outcome, a unilateral process occurs, in which “one group willingly adopts the identity and culture of the other” (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988: 82; Berry, 1983, 1984). In this case, the members of one party “willingly relinquish” their culture, in adherence to the culture and practices of the other party (Sales & Mirvis, 1984). The acquired firm is typically found in the position of relinquishing its culture in this outcome (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). However, we propose that in the context of expatriates and local employees, the populous subsidiary and the sole expatriate reverse the roles of the acquirer and the acquired firm; the expatriate willingly joins the existing subsidiary, thus suggesting that the more dominant party, in the smaller context of the subsidiary, itself, is the subsidiary, despite the larger, multinational organization structure. In this regard, the employees of the subsidiary become the ‘in-group,’ while the expatriate becomes the ‘out-group’ (Brewer, 1979; Brewer & Kramer, 1985; Tajfel, 1982). While the member of the ‘out-group’ may attempt to mimic the culture of the ‘in-group’ through cross-cultural code-switching, we suggest that this may not always be met by changes from the subsidiary’s employees; rather, the expatriate engages in downward impression management (Molinsky, 2007; Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). In such an act, expatriates may seek favorable impressions by adjusting their power to influence the local employees’ perceptions of

themselves (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994; Goffman, 1978; Jones & Pittman, 1982; Leary & Kowalski, 1990).

An expatriate's attempt to consciously mimic the local employees' culture through code-switching can be met with various psychological consequences, such as threatening an individual's sense of efficacy and conflicting with an expatriate's values, which may deplete the expatriate's psychological resources (Molinsky, 2007; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Additionally, lacking the specific cultural skills to mimic the appropriate cultural behavior in a foreign situation may result in anxiety or embarrassment (Stajkovic & Luthans, 1998; Wood & Bandura, 1989; Keltner & Buswell, 1997; Edmondson, 1999). While these emotions occur in the individual context, they may be further regulated and influenced by the national context of the culture. Mendenhall & Oddou define 'cultural toughness,' referring to the "degree to which the culture of a host country is incongruent with that of the home country," as a mediator for an individual expatriate's acculturation orientation (self, others, and/or perception) and his or her overall experienced acculturation (1985, 1986: 76). Similarly, Gelfand's tightness and looseness construct provides a value and norm sanctioning based paradigm for scoring such incongruence (2006, 2011). She has subsequently found that tight and loose cultures seek differing attributes in models of effective leaders (Gelfand, 2016). In this regard, despite cultural intelligence and the perception of the subsidiary's employees' needs, the expatriate may not be able to gauge and, further, adopt the sought leadership norms, as a facet of the broader cultural norms of the subsidiary.

Molinsky notes that adapting to the subsidiary's culture through code-switching may lead to various psychological tolls and negative emotions (embarrassment, anxiety, guilt), which result largely from the individual risk-taking and subsidiary-wide psychological norms of the

organization (Molinsky, 2007; Edmonson, 1999; Goffman, 1956; Lim, 1994). As a result, cross-cultural code switching is an active and conscious decision, which much be chosen by the expatriate in consideration of the potential benefits and consequences (Molinsky, 2007). Larger studies of conformity point to the concept of a planned façade, which is defined as a “false representation that an employee creates to appear as if they embrace organizational values” (Hewlin, 2009: 727; Bass, 1961; Kiesler & Kiesler, 1969). This can lead to cognitive consequences, such as emotional exhaustion, specifically, refers to the “depletion of emotional energy needed to meet job demands” (Hewlin, 2009: 730; Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Moore, 2000).

Cross-cultural code switching and making intentional choices in order to fit in with a broader ‘in-group’ can appear as a corporate façade within the subsidiary (Molinsky, 2007; Hewlin, 2009; Jones, 1964). This may be a ‘survival mechanism’ in order to manage impressions and perceptions (Jones, 1964; Hewlin, 2003). While this has traditionally focused on upward impression management (i.e. from subordinates to supervisors), expatriates conforming to subsidiary employees’ culture may represent a reversed spectrum. In this regard, we propose that the ‘in group’ of the subsidiary employees and ‘out group’ of the expatriate creates a reversed cultural power dynamic, in which the subsidiary’s employee maintains a larger stance of cultural power (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994; Leary & Kowalski, 1990). As a result, Hewlin suggests that facades of conformity at the individual level can lead to several negative consequences, such as collectivism, emotional exhaustion, and self-monitoring, all of which may lead to a heightened intention to leave the firm (Hewlin, 2009).

Expatriate literature has emphasized the broader lack of adjustment’s negative implication on the length of overseas assignments (Black, Mendenhall, Oddou, 1991; Baker &

Ivancevich, 1971; Black, 1988; Griggs & Copeland, 1985; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1982). This can correspond with increased emotional exhaustion and adjacent negative consequences, such as interpersonal conflict and role ambiguity (Hewlin, 2009; Maslach & Jackson, 1986; Moore, 2000; Leiter & Maslach, 1988; Jackson, Schwab, & Schuler, 1986). Inauthentic behavior, such as facades of conformity, can perpetuate emotions, such as guilt and shame, which have been shown to be emotionally exhausting (Bell, 1990; Bies & Tripp, 1998; Higgins, 1989). We propose that a negative consequence of the cultural façade outcome will be emulated through higher rates of emotional exhaustion and resultantly shorter international assignment durations.

P6: Expatriates' façade creation will result in emotional exhaustion and shorter international assignments for expatriates.

Cultural Synergy: Compromising Expatriates and Compromising Local Employees

Cultural compatibility has often been cited as an unrealized goal in failed mergers and acquisitions (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993). While 'synergy realization' across multiple domains (finance, operations, strategy, human capital) remains the core goal of many mergers and acquisitions, culture clash continues to prevent success in such realizations (Larsson & Finkelstein, 1999; Buono, Bowditch, & Lewis, 1985, Nahavandi and Malekzadeh, 1988). This paper defines a new facet of synergy, 'cultural synergy,' as a culture of convergence, in which both, the expatriate and the local employees share a single culture with negligible cultural distance (Hofstede, 2003; Alvesson & Sandkull, 1988; Ng et al., 2019). In alignment with mergers and acquisitions literature, cultural synergy mirrors a cultural outcome of integration, which occurs when "members of the acquired firm want to preserve their own culture and

identity, and want to [simultaneously] remain autonomous and independent” (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988: 82; Berry 1983). This dual preservation leads to the emergence of a new culture, balanced between both parties (Cartwright & Cooper, 1993; Malekzadeh & Nahavandi, 1990). Smith references the merger of Scottish Power and Southern Water as an example of co-created culture, in which the merger served as a “catalyst for cultural change required by both companies to compete in the newly deregulated utilities industry” (2000: 48). Further, Smith outlines the three cultural elements of values, work rituals, and leadership, which must be jointly redefined and coordinated in order to effect cultural change (2000). In this regard, the acquired firm experiences and preserves culture orthogonally and simultaneously (Berry, 1980). A relational application in the context of expatriates is clear through the application of biculturalism (Berry & Sam, 1997). In this case, the expatriate and the local employees’ experience biculturalism through the identification with both, the home and host country cultures simultaneously, in the creation of a mutually-accepted culture (Hong et al., 2000; Benet-Martinez et al., 2006). This integration, or cultural synergy, is therefore synonymous, from the perspective of the expatriate and the local employee. Resultantly, the cultural distance between the two cultures is minimal. Contrastingly, cultural synergy may manifest through shared norms that are melded by dual-concession, rather than creation of norms. Both potential outcomes are described below.

We propose that cultural synergy has two specific avenues for norm development, each of which maintains differing consequences for the expatriate and the local employees: cultural co-creation and cultural co-concession. Each of these avenues maintains various manifestations of a lack of cultural distance, with either positive or negative accompanying implications.

Cultural Co-Creation

Within the context of acculturation in mergers and acquisitions, the integration acculturation outcome seeks not to the cultural identity of either party; rather, the core values of each party and maintained and balanced in the creating of a new cultural structure (London, 1967). In the broader global team setting, Haas differentiates between the ‘cosmopolitan’ and ‘local’ role orientations (2005, 2006). ‘Cosmopolitans,’ similar to expatriates, maintain broad international experience, while ‘locals’ have deep experience in the specific country of a global team’s project (Haas, 2005, 2006). Teams comprised of both, ‘cosmopolitans’ and ‘locals’ have been shown to have increased knowledge sharing and effectiveness (Haas, 2005, 2006). Janssens and Brett’s fusion model of team collaboration in global teams suggests a collaborative undertone for this finding. Specifically, members of the team recognize, respect, and preserve each other’s cultural identities as they work towards collaborative and creative solutions (Janssens & Brett, 2006). Rather than “making trade-offs to...buy members’ participation,” this approach facilitates the co-creation of decision-making norms (Janssens & Brett, 2006: 135). In contrast to the integrative-identity perspective, in which cultural conformity is a condition of and a vehicle for obtaining ‘full citizenship’ into a society, this approach emphasizes the co-creation of norms and culture through cooperation and compatibility (Bauman, 1990; De Ruijter, 1995, 2002). The importance and benefits of developing shared goals and norms are further emphasized in broader teamwork literature (Maznevski, 1994; Maznevski & DiStefano, 2000; Adler, 1997).

Post-merger integrations suggest building cultural synergy by co-creating joint visions, objectives, projects, resources, and management processes in order to foster long-term merger success (Slowinski, Rafii, Tao, Gollub, Sagal, & Krishnamurthy, 2002). Similarly, we propose

that co-creating new cultural norms in the wake of a new relationship and environment between an expatriate and local employees will increase effectiveness over the long term. While norms will be ingrained during the expatriate's term the co-creation of this culture will give the subsidiary's employees a sense of ownership over these norms, which will carry their impact past the duration of the expatriate's assignment.

P7a: Under co-created norms, the expatriate and local employees will experience stronger long-term (during and post-expatriate's term) performance.

Cultural Co-Concession

Within the context of negotiations literature, specific negotiations are perceived to be 'distributive' when they do not involve learning and adaptation (Kersten, 2001). Specifically, gains for one party result in losses for the others; parties have a fixed-pie bias and focus on their differences, rather than their commonalities (Walton & McKersie, 1965; Thompson & Hrebec, 1996). Compromise, generally manifested through concessions, is a widely-accepted practice for reaching a mutually-acceptable decision (Kelley, 1996; Bazermann & Neale, 1991). However, negotiators often accept inefficient compromises in hopes of reaching an agreement (Kelley, 1966; Kersten, 2001; Thompson & Thompson, 2005; Cohen, Leonardelli, & Thompson, 2010).

We propose that another potential manifestation of cultural synergy is through a co-conceded, distributive culture. Rather than co-creating the culture, the expatriate and local employees decrease their cultural distance by dually conceding on various norms and practices in order to reach a compromise, which may not be efficient for both parties. In this regard, we propose that satisfaction will remain lower than under the cultural synergy through co-created norms construct, due to the emotional exhaustion of performing norms that may conflict with the

parties' ingrained cultural values in order to receive the instrumental benefit of lesser conflict between the relevant parties (Leong & Ward, 2000; Sanchez, Spector, & Cooper, 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991; Molinsky, 2007).

P7b: Under co-conceded norms, the expatriate and local employees will experience weaker satisfaction and performance than those working under co-created norms.

Discussion

Cultural divides in multinational corporations have long prevented global efficiency in operations (Hulbert & Brandt, 1980; Negandhi & Baliga, 1979; Jaeger, 1983; Buckley & Ghauri, 1999). However, the insertion of an expatriate, a physical representative of the larger multinational firm, into the subsidiary provides an opportunity to moderate culture towards or away from the culture of the firm's home location (Hofstede, 2001; Milosevic & Hofstede, 2018; Berry, 1983, 1984; Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988). Accordingly, it is both theoretically and practically relevant to understand in which directions and ways expatriates can influence the culture of multinational firms' subsidiaries. This paper has provided a conceptual framework for understanding the role of the expatriate in influencing this culture, as well as potential consequences of each implied role.

In the larger model, we propose that expatriates and local employees, alike, can decrease their experienced cultural distance through a variety of mechanisms and mediators. Specifically, we propose that four core cultural outcomes are possible, following the insertion of an expatriate: cultural standstills, cultural authenticity, cultural facades, and cultural synergy. We also propose that through accommodations by both, the expatriate and the local employees, the experienced

cultural distance (at the individual level) begins to decrease, relative to the predicted cultural distance at the country level. We identify moderators, both at the individual and country levels, which may facilitate the experience of particular cultural outcomes. Additionally, we propose that the equilibrium of these two cultures is denoted by cultural synergy, at which point the experienced cultural distance is negligible. Finally, within this construct, we more specifically consider the creation of this subculture through two distinct mechanisms, co-creation of culture and co-concession of culture, which lead to different propositional outcomes.

This model offers important and new theoretical implications for understanding the expatriate's role more holistically than its measurable financial and operational benefits; it considers the expatriate's role as a cultural object within the subsidiary and how the expatriate's presence changes the behavior of the subsidiary's employees (Schein, 1992).

Theoretical Implications

This article exhibits innovative insights in a growing discourse on the globalized firm, and more broadly, the globalized economy. Existing research has focused on global teams and country-level cultural comparisons (Hofstede 1980, Markus & Kitayama; 1991; Triandis, 1989; Earley & Mosakowski. 2000; Elron, 1997; Hambrick, Davison, Snell, & Snow, 1998; Bhagat et al., 2002; Kirkman & Shapiro, 1997; Haas, 2006; Hofstede, 1980; Gelfand, 2005, 2006, 2014). Although this research is valuable in clarifying cross-cultural difference, it sheds little light on the cultural outcomes of frequently used and practical methods for global firm management, such as the expatriate. This paper broadens the field by addressing the individual-level behavioral and cultural changes that are consistent with the insertion of an expatriate, a common global management mechanism. Our theory and model clarify individual and country-level mediators,

which provide context to cultural outcomes between local employees, expatriates, and the larger organization. Our approach also considers the key consequences of these practices and outcomes (stress, anxiety, guilt, shame) in order to emphasize the practical implications and importance of culture in the global context.

In these ways, this paper extends our understanding of the more nuanced role of the expatriate and his or her effects on the cultural outcome of the organization, and thus, the broader success of the organization (Schraeder & Self, 2003; Cartwright & Cooper, 2012). Our propositions suggest that there are existing traits (orientations and cultural intelligence) and home country vs. host country difference considerations for multinational firms to consider when selecting expatriates. Additionally, the propositions advance understanding of the direct effects and consequences of ‘poor’ cultural outcomes on the expatriate, individual employees at the subsidiary, and the broader firm. Existing research on expatriates has focused on the expatriate’s transition and re-acculturation to the home country, but has largely neglected the re-acculturation of the local employees after the expatriate’s departure (Mendenhall & Oddo, 1985, 1986; Mendenhall, Dunbar & Oddou, 1987). In our propositions, we consider the short and long-term cultural implications of the expatriate on the subsidiary’s employees. Our approach provides a new context for the long-term and firm-wide implications by considering each of the three stakeholders, highlighting the long-lasting impact that certain cultural practices can have on long-term efficiency. In this regard, our model details how individual employees can be directly or indirectly affected by broader mediators in this cross-cultural context.

Finally, our model and propositions have the potential to shift existing viewpoints on cultural ‘integration.’ Integration has widely been perceived as the desired outcome of mergers and acquisitions, as well as broader multicultural intersections (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh,

1988). However, this paper complicates this view by considering the more nuanced versions of integration, which do not always include the sought characteristics of both cultures (London, 1967). Rather, we suggest that facets of deculturation are present, and perhaps undetectable, through the co-concession that is possible in our version of cultural synergy. In this regard, both sides can lose core parts of their culture in compromising to an acceptable, but not efficient or preferred outcome for either represented culture (Nahavandi & Malekzadeh, 1988).

Future Directions and Practical Implications

This paper creates room for several new areas of exploration through future research. First, we note the importance of gaining an empirical understanding of the proposed phenomenon and propositions. We propose that further empirical research be conducted through the study of a multinational firm throughout the duration of an expatriate's tenure at a subsidiary. Intake of norms and culture at key time intervals before, during, and after the expatriate's reign of the subsidiary will help to color the existing culture, experienced culture under the expatriate's leadership, and the enduring long-term effects. Conducting this research across multiple locations and with multiple expatriates will aid in the country-level comparison propositions, while following specific employees and expatriates across multiple terms will aid in heightened understanding of the individual-level propositions.

Second, there are many individual-specific contingencies, which may alter a specific expatriate's ability to adjust to the subsidiary's culture (Adler, 1983; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Kyi, 1988; Schollhammer, 1975). These include areas such as pre-departure training, previous overseas experience, organizational selection criteria and mechanisms, individual skills and non-work factors (Black et al., 1991; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Fiedler, Mitchell, & Triandis, 1971;

Mitchell, Dossett, Fiedler, & Triandis, 1972; Church, 1982; Mendenhall, Dunbar, & Oddou, 1987; Hays, 1974; Miller, 1972; Tung, 1981; Brein & David, 1971; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Stening, 1979; Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer, Harrison, Gregersen, Black, & Ferzandi, 2006). While some of these contingencies are correlated with our propositions (i.e. previous overseas experience and cultural intelligence, individual skills and role orientations), further research on the impact of the downstream effects of these factors on the broader subsidiary's culture and the individual employees will be important in further contextualizing this theory.

Third, the two-party dimension of the expatriate and subsidiary employee fails to consider the multiplicity of nationalities on many global teams (Zander, Mockaitis, & Butler, 2012). In order to extend this research into broader global teams, we propose considering the development of sub-groups within global teams (O'Leary & Mortensen, 2010; Panteli & Davison, 2005). In defining two large sub-groups with key commonalities and differences, this research can be broadly applied to global teams with established hierarchies.

From a practical standpoint, this paper provides several key guidelines and mediators for expatriates, global human resources managers, multinational firm leaders, and local employees in subsidiaries to consider in achieving a mutually-beneficial subsidiary culture. First, our propositions suggest that individually-learned skills, such as cultural intelligence, can lead to increased perception orientation and success in adapting to a new work environment (Ng et al., 2019; Ang et al., 2007; Earley & Ang, 2003). Second, our propositions suggest that home country and house country differences play key roles in defining the future cultural outcomes; these differences may play key roles in matching individuals with international assignments that are matches, not only in terms of role description, but also in terms of specific country. Third, we propose that expatriates play, in addition to a financial and operational role, a cultural role as a

symbol of the multinational firm. In this regard, choosing an expatriate for a management role in the subsidiary may serve this additional cultural role. These propositions are relevant decision-making variables for both, global human resources managers and the expatriates, in their selection and acceptance of international assignments (Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou, 1991; Reber, 1993; Tung, 1998). Furthermore, these propositions may aid in the smoother facilitation of multinational management and multinational globalization through the more effective deployment of expatriates.

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