



Research note

**Coping with liability of foreignness:
Different learning engagements of entrant firms**

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Abstract

Much has been written about how international firms create and sustain firm-specific advantages that offset their liability of foreignness. Less attention has been devoted to the question of how international firms reduce their liability of foreignness. It is the contention of this study that as a consequence of managerial discretion, such as willingness to undertake local adaptation, international firms familiarize with foreign markets at different paces. The data from a sample of 494 international firms from Sweden, Denmark, and New Zealand suggest that entrant firms' learning engagement, i.e., the effort and ability to learn how to conduct business in a foreign environment, varies considerably. In particular, adoption of standardized international business routines and unwillingness to adapt products and marketing practices to local markets seem to be associated with a low learning engagement. The data also indicate that a large proportion of the entrant firms has been engaged in preentry learning. © 2002 Elsevier Science Inc. All rights reserved.

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1. Introduction

In this research note, we examine the learning aspects of liability of foreignness. An entrant firm's liability of foreignness is composed of different barriers of a more or less permanent nature, and to varying degrees, these barriers are susceptible to management control. Thus, foreign exchange risks and discrimination by local governments and consumers are of more

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permanent nature and can, only to a limited extent, be influenced by managers of entrant firms. Where the management of the entrant firm *can* make a significant difference is in relation to the unfamiliarity with the local business environment. Local firms have the general advantage of being better informed about their country: its economy, its language, its law, and its politics (Hymer, 1960). But the entrant firm can learn about these conditions.

A large sample including international firms from Sweden, Denmark, and New Zealand will provide empirical evidence of different levels of unfamiliarity with the foreign business environment as perceived by the entrant firms. We examine to what extent different levels of foreign market familiarity are associated with particular management control factors of entrant firms. The answer to this question is of interest both to international business theorists and to practitioners of international business. Theory of internationalization processes can be fertilized by a better understanding of how entrant firms lower their liability of foreignness through engagement in learning (and thereby reduce the need for firm-specific advantages vis-à-vis local firms). Furthermore, managers of international firms are inherently interested in improving the learning capabilities in relation to foreign market entries.

The remainder of the research note is organized as follows. Section 2 gives a review of studies dealing with theoretical and conceptual aspects of liability of foreignness in terms of foreign market unfamiliarity. On the basis of the literature review, we present in Section 3 a conceptual model of ‘learning engagements’ of entrant firms in relation to liability of foreignness, and we identify three different learning engagement strategies. Section 4 accounts for the data compilation procedure and the sample characteristics. Section 5 reports the results of a cluster analysis and discusses relationships among management control factors, learning engagement, and liability of foreignness in terms of market unfamiliarity. Section 6 concludes and discusses the managerial implications of the study.

2. Previous studies on learning and liability of foreignness

Our literature review is limited to previous studies that have looked at liability of foreignness from a learning perspective and that have contributed to the theorization and/or conceptualization of this issue.

The ‘liability of foreignness’ concept was introduced by Stephen Hymer in his seminal thesis study from 1960 (published in 1976). Hymer supposed entrant firms to be disadvantaged vis-à-vis local firms due to foreign exchange risks and unfamiliarity with the business conditions of the foreign market. Searching for an explanation of foreign direct investments, Hymer contrasted production subsidiaries with license agreements, where the latter foreign operation method was to be considered as the default solution since no liability of foreignness would hamper the local licensee. The managerial choice was that of ‘make’ or ‘sell’ of proprietary knowledge or trademarks, or, phrased differently, internalization versus externalization. In the case where internalization was preferred by the foreign firm, learning about the local business environment would not start until after the establishment. Evidently, with no experience obtained in the foreign market, the liability of foreignness would initially be quite high. To what extent—or

how—the entrant firm would reduce its liability of foreignness after an establishment was not discussed by Hymer. To Hymer's theoretical successors, the internalization theorists (Buckley and Casson, 1976; Hennart, 1982), these learning processes were not the concern either, inasmuch as a static make-or-sell approach was maintained.

An empirical study by Zaheer and Mosakowski (1997) suggested that the liability of foreignness was likely to diminish with elapsed time. Zaheer and Mosakowski therefore concluded that instead of looking at the costs of doing business abroad as some static costs, one should rather see them as costs that decline when firms gain more knowledge on the local market. Also, in contrast to Hymer (and the internalization theorists), the internationalization process theorists (Johanson and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1975; Johanson and Vahlne, 1977; Welch and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1980) assumed entrant firms to learn about the foreign markets *before* they ventured into any establishments, i.e., foreign direct investments. The entrant firms would acquire knowledge about the local business environment in two ways. First, entrant firms would typically enter a foreign market through local operators (e.g., sales agents) and tap these operators for knowledge about local business customs, local legislation, and local suppliers and customers. Not until a sufficient level of knowledge has been tapped would the entrant firm engage in a foreign direct investment. So, instead of presenting a choice between externalization and internalization—as Hymer did—the process theorists expected the typical route of foreign market penetration to be externalization (by use of local, independent operators) followed by internalization. Secondly, firms would enter foreign markets of successively greater psychic distance, implying that foreign markets in which a firm already operated would function as 'stepping stones' to new markets. Together, the stepwise expansion in terms of geography and resource commitment would reduce substantially foreign market unfamiliarity *prior* to the establishment of a subsidiary. Not only would the entrant firm have learned from its conduct of businesses in similar foreign markets (preentry learning), but also from the local operators (postentry learning). The spillover effects from market to market in terms of learning are not quite concordant with the important role that Johanson and Vahlne (1977) ascribed *market-specific* knowledge in the internationalization process of firms. But, as Casson (1996) has pointed out, it is difficult to conceive psychic distance patterns of firms without assuming some sort of scope economies with respect to learning about foreign market environments. In a similar vein, Barkema et al. (1996) point out that centrifugal expansion patterns are more successful than random, diversified expansion routes. They identify a 'locational path of learning' in relation to firms' engagement in foreign ventures. The firms that followed this path of learning benefited substantially from their previous experience in the same country, but also, although to a lesser extent, from previous expansion in culturally adjacent countries. The firms benefited the least from previous ventures in culturally distant countries.

An assumption made in the internationalization process theory was that the entrant firm's acquisition of knowledge about the foreign market would reduce the perceived uncertainty and, in turn, encourage more resource commitment in that market. However, the research done by Welch and Wiedersheim-Paul (1980) indicated that some firms perceive higher levels of risk and uncertainty as internationalization proceeds, in response to increased information and knowledge.

Another assumption of the internationalization process theory was that a firm would perceive its liability of foreignness to be relatively little in similar neighboring countries and great in distant and cultural dissimilar countries. In other words, a firm would expect to perform better in foreign countries associated with little ‘psychic distance.’ But, as Evans et al. (1992) point out, firms may overestimate the similarities across neighboring countries. Even countries that share language, historical, and legal traditions often have very different institutions that do not allow the simple transfer of business practices and attitudes across borders. Evans et al. (1992) provide many examples of Canadian retailers that performed poorly in the US due to the large differences in the operating environment between countries. In fact, many of the examples that they present show that the differences in the business environment between Canada and the US were more profound than the managers had expected. Moreover, the growing literature on survival of firms in foreign nations suggests that foreign investment into close countries often fails (e.g., Mitchell et al., 1994).

3. Conceptual model of learning engagement

Building on the above literature review, we can develop a conceptual model of how the learning engagement affects the liability of foreignness and, in particular, what underlying factors the learning engagement of the entrant firm may be contingent upon (see Fig. 1).

As pointed out by Hymer (1960), the liability of foreignness is composed of three factors (indicated by the octagonal boxes in Fig. 1): exchange risk of operating businesses in foreign countries, local authorities’ discrimination against foreign companies, and unfamiliarity with local business conditions. It is the task of the entrant firm manager to mitigate, by various means, these three ‘liabilities.’ Here, we concentrate on the mitigation of unfamiliarity with

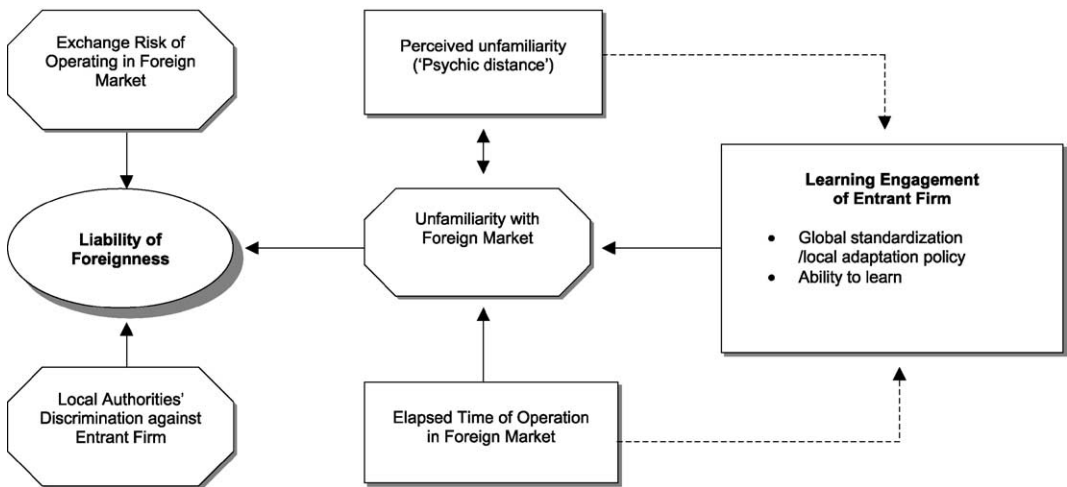


Fig. 1. Conceptual model of the study.

the local market through engagement in learning activities. The learning engagement of the entrant firm is triggered by the unfamiliarity with the foreign market as perceived by the management of the entrant firm. In addition, elapsed time of operations in the foreign market is supposed to affect the quality of the learning engagement of the entrant firm. Apparently, elapsed time per se does not bring about knowledge about foreign markets. If the entrant firm performs no activities in the foreign market, or if activities are restricted by certain organizational routines leaving no room for variation, the learning effect will be close to zero. Yet, Eriksson et al. (1998) found that ‘time’ in itself is strongly correlated with increased international commitment of firms—even more than the conduct of business activities. Without the necessary time available, an entrant firm cannot absorb the experience from its current business activities. In the same vein, Barkema et al. (1996) submit that learning is inherently incremental, and the speed with which firms expand internationally is subject to diminishing returns from efforts to speed up the process. Hence, the elapsed time of operation affects the ability of the entrant firm to learn about the foreign market in question. But, of course, the ability to learn may also rest on more general skills of the entrant firm. For example, it is conceivable that as a part of gaining experience with international operations, firms also ‘learn how to learn.’

Even more than the *ability* to learn about foreign markets is the learning *effort* susceptible to management control. The entrant firm may subscribe to a policy of global standardization and adopt standardized international business routines. In this case, the learning effort is expected to be limited. Conversely, the entrant firm may pursue a local modification strategy in which the firm adapts its products and processes to the specificities of the local business environment (including customer needs, management styles, and business ethics, etc.).

To summarize, the conceptual model of the study presents the liability of foreignness as (potentially) susceptible to management control of the entrant firm: the managers exercise control over the ability and, in particular, the willingness to reduce the foreign market unfamiliarity through learning engagement.

As an extract from the literature review in Section 2, the management of the entrant firm can choose among basically three different learning strategies: The management can desist from engaging the firm in any learning, either because the management of the firm—rightfully or not—considers the foreign environment very similar to that of the home country, or because the entrant firm managers subscribe to a global standardization strategy and therefore resist local modification of existing company practices/routines or product specifications. On the other hand, if the management finds it desirable to engage in learning, this can take place both *before* (preentry) and *after* (postentry) the entry. In reality, the learning process of firms’ internationalization is seldom a product of rational and deliberate management control, as pointed out by internationalization process theorists (Johanson and Vahlne, 1977; Welch and Wiedersheim-Paul, 1980), but rather subject to emerging strategies, postrationalization, and improvisation. Nevertheless, for expository reasons, we will maintain these three learning engagement strategies as decision alternatives for the management of entrant firms.

In Fig. 2, the three learning engagement strategies are related to (1) the perceived familiarity of the entrant firm with the foreign market, and (2) the elapsed time of operations

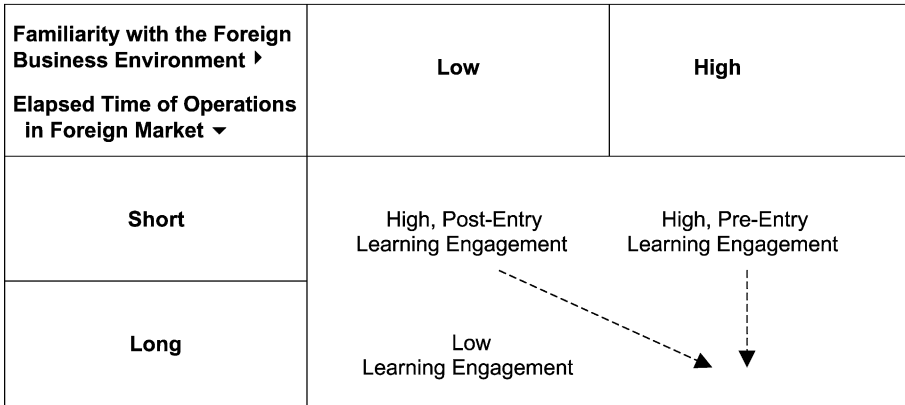


Fig. 2. Three different learning engagements of entrant firms.

in the foreign market. In case of engagement in preentry learning, the familiarity with the foreign business environment is expectably high even though the elapsed time of operations in the foreign market is short. Conversely, in the case of postentry learning engagement, the initial familiarity with the local business environment will be low, but over a period of time, the firm will familiarize with the business environment. Finally, in the case of low—or no—learning engagement, the firm will remain unfamiliarized with the local business environment.

In the balance of this research note, we shall look at a sample of international firms and the distribution of these firms among the three different learning engagement strategies.

4. Data compilation and sample characteristics

4.1. Data compilation

The data of the study were gathered through a regular mail survey. The survey was part of an international research project, ‘Learning in the Internationalization Process,’ including researchers from Denmark, Finland, New Zealand, South Korea, and Sweden. A pilot study was conducted in 1997 in which 10 managers of Swedish international firms were asked to answer the questionnaire in a personal interview situation. In all the five countries, the local researchers sent out a standardized questionnaire. Because the sample definition varied somewhat from country to country, only the data for Sweden, Denmark, and New Zealand were considered consistent and therefore usable for this particular study.

Local databases in Denmark, New Zealand, and Sweden were used to identify companies with: (1) more than 20 employees (2) international operations, including export and foreign direct investment. In 1998, the questionnaires were sent out to identifiable informants, primarily managing directors. Most questionnaires were completed by the managing director

or by another top executive. A reminder was sent 1 month after the initial mailing. Upon this follow-up procedure, the number of usable replies reached 201, 117, and 176 in Denmark, New Zealand, and Sweden, respectively. This corresponds to net response rates of 27%, 20%, and 35%, respectively. A test was conducted to check the sample for possible nonresponse bias. Regarding size and number of foreign subsidiaries, no statistically significant differences between respondent and nonrespondent were found.

An average profile of the firms in the sample is shown in Table 1. All three countries are relatively small populationwise. As a consequence of limited home markets, most firms in these countries are forced to engage in international operations at an early stage of their development. For all the three country samples, the average firm is highly internationalized and presumably possesses considerable experience in conducting foreign operations. One sixth of the personnel is employed outside the home country (13.9–18.4%) and more than one third of the average turnover originates from overseas activities (36.6–43.4%). The profiles of the firms from Denmark (201) and Sweden (176) are very similar in terms of size and level of internationalization, but the Swedish firms typically have longer export experience (30.3 years) than the Danish firms (20.9 years). The firms from New Zealand (117) are larger both in terms of turnover and employees, and they have less international experience (in terms of years) and operate in fewer countries. However, in regard to the proportion of sales abroad and employees outside the home country, the New Zealand sample firms are similar to the Danish and Swedish firms.

The total sample of 494 companies includes a unique sample of internationalized firms that vary on several dimensions, e.g., the targeted foreign markets. However, the common denominator is that the firms, based in three small countries, are exposed to international activities early in their development and therefore supposedly struggle with liability of foreignness issues when entering foreign markets.

4.2. Operationalization of variables

In the questionnaire, respondents were asked to select one recent international business venture (e.g., entering a new foreign market, or expanding an existing business in a foreign

Table 1
Characteristics of the sample ($N=494$)

Company characteristics (1998)	Means (S.D. in parentheses)		
	Denmark	New Zealand	Sweden
Number of companies	201	117	176
Total turnover (million US\$)	30 (52)	66 (307)	38 (109)
–proportion of sales abroad (%)	43.4 (31.8)	36.6 (29.9)	42.4 (29.4)
Total number of employees	192 (419)	367 (1050)	193 (574)
–proportion employed overseas (%)	13.9 (23.0)	18.4 (29.1)	14.0 (20.2)
Number of foreign countries in which the company operates	14.3 (8.1)	8.7 (7.1)	15.5 (6.9)
Years of export experience	20.9 (13.5)	16.1 (11.4)	30.3 (15.5)

country). The venture should be important to the firm and its international expansion. Furthermore, the venture preferably should be well underway in the foreign location.

4.2.1. *Structural variables*

4.2.1.1. *Perceived foreign market unfamiliarity.* The foreign market unfamiliarity was measured as the perceived lack of knowledge in relation to the particular foreign business venture. More specifically, the firms should indicate to what extent lack of certain kinds of knowledge was an obstacle for this particular foreign expansion. Following Eriksson et al. (1997), the required foreign market knowledge is of two different kinds: ‘institutional knowledge’ and ‘business knowledge.’ ‘Institutional knowledge’ consists of knowledge of the institutional framework, rules, norms, and values in the particular market. ‘Business knowledge’ includes knowledge on counterparts (customers, suppliers, distributors, and competitors) in the foreign country, including knowledge about local business cultures.

In the questionnaire, firms were asked to indicate on a seven-point Likert scale to what extent the lack of the following types of knowledge was an obstacle to the foreign expansion (1 = *no obstacle*; 7 = *serious obstacle*): (1) knowledge about business law and rules in the foreign market, (2) knowledge about financial practice in the foreign market, (3) knowledge about the local business culture, (4) knowledge about the products of customers in the foreign market, (5) knowledge about the products of suppliers in the foreign market, and (6) knowledge about the products of competitors in the foreign market.

The average score of the six items varied from 3.8 (knowledge about competitors) to 4.9 (knowledge about suppliers). The Cronbach α value for all six items was .78. Therefore, we have created a composite index of ‘perceived foreign market unfamiliarity’ where all six items are included.

4.2.1.2. *Elapsed time of operations in the foreign market.* The elapsed time was measured in a straightforward way as the number of years and months since the particular venture was started in the foreign market. In principle, the value of the variable can vary from 1 month to infinity. However, the variable was truncated after 15 years. As shown by Zaheer and Mosakowski (1997), after some years, the learning and adaptation on the local market will only be marginal. In their study, the exit rate of foreign-owned subsidiaries peaked after 8 years, indicating that the liability of foreignness peaked at this point in time. Accordingly, we have truncated the time variable after 15 years, indicating that most firms have overcome the initial liability of foreignness after 15 years of activities in the foreign market.

4.2.2. *Managerial control variables*

4.2.2.1. *Local adaptation ability.* The ability to adapt to the local norms and rules is expected to be highly correlated with the international experience of firms. The more internationally experienced and the more the firms have been exposed to foreign markets, the greater the ability to adapt to new local markets. Therefore, international experience was used as a proxy for local adaptation ability. In the questionnaire, the respondents were asked

to indicate on a seven-point scale (1 = *no international experience*; 7 = *substantial international experience*) the level of international experience in terms of: (1) management of foreign activities, (2) adapting products to foreign markets, (3) establishing relationships with foreign customers, and (4) collaboration with companies abroad. With a Cronbach α value of .83 for all four variables, we could collapse the four variables into one measure for ‘ability to local adaptation.’

4.2.2.2. Local adaptation willingness. The willingness to local adaptation is a perceptual variable that was measured by asking the respondents to what extent the firms were making adaptations to the local market. In the questionnaire, they were asked to indicate on a seven-point scale (1 = *no adaptation*; 7 = *substantial adaptation*) to what degree they have made adaptation to the local market, as regards: (1) the product, (2) the production process, and (3) the business routines.

The average score of the three items varied from 4.6 (product adaptation) to 4.9 (production process adaptation). The Cronbach α value for the three items was .86. The high value allowed us to create a composite index of willingness to local adaptation where all three items were added together.

4.2.2.3. Adoption of standardized international business routines. The extent to which the companies apply globally standardized routines in their international operations was also measured perceptually. The respondents were asked to what extent they had applied standardized international routines in the particular foreign venture in terms of: (1) management of foreign activities, (2) adapting products to foreign markets, (3) establishing relationships with foreign customers, and (4) collaboration with companies abroad. The Cronbach α value for these four items was .78.

5. Results and discussion

5.1. Cluster analysis

In order to identify the learning engagements among the sample firms, we conducted a cluster analysis based on the two structural variables: elapsed time of operations and lack of knowledge about the foreign market (perceived foreign market unfamiliarity). As discussed earlier, both variables represent important dimensions of learning engagements of entrant firms.

The first step in the cluster analysis was to decide the appropriate number of clusters, though no completely satisfactory method for determining the number of clusters exists. It is advisable to look for changes in the three statistics: CCC, pseudo F statistic, and the pseudo t^2 statistic. Therefore, a hierarchical cluster analysis (Ward’s method) was conducted. With a local peak for the CCC and pseudo F statistic and a small value of the pseudo t^2 statistic (increasing for the next cluster fusion), these statistical measures were indicating that the data could be distributed into four clusters.

The next step was to create the four clusters. Therefore, we applied a nonhierarchical clustering technique, as proposed by Hair et al. (1992). The two variables were measured on different scales. In order to bring the variables on comparable scales, they were both standardized (mean = 0 and S.D. = 1).

5.2. Results of cluster analysis

The results of the clustering and the distribution of the 494 firms on the four clusters are shown in Table 2. The firms in Clusters 1 and 2 are both characterized by short elapsed time of operations in the foreign country entered. However, where the firms in Cluster 1 are characterized by having a low perceived foreign market familiarity, the Cluster 2 firms expose a high perceived familiarity. The firms in Cluster 1—making up 32% of the sample firms—*might* be about to engage in postentry learning. It is, however, not possible within this cluster to distinguish between those firms that are engaged in postentry learning and those that are not (i.e., low learning engagement firms). The Cluster 2 firms, constituting almost half of the sample (49%), have spent only a short time, if any, to get fairly well familiarized with the foreign country environment. This may fit well with a ‘preentry learning engagement’ in which a substantial part of the learning takes place before the market entry. The firms in Clusters 3 and 4 have spent a relatively long time in the foreign country. The Cluster 3 firms still perceive a low familiarity with the foreign market—the lowest of all four clusters. This may indicate that Cluster 3 resembles a type of firm that either is unwilling to adapt locally (because they pursue global economies of scale), or is incapable of adapting locally. Therefore, we put the label ‘low learning engagement’ on these relatively few (only 6%) sample firms. The Cluster 4 firms (making up 13% of the sample firms) have familiarized themselves with the local market via engagement in pre- and/or postentry learning.

Table 3 shows how each of the four clusters scores on the three management control variables: ‘local adaptation *ability*,’ ‘local adaptation *willingness*,’ and ‘adoption of standardized international business routines.’ There are significant differences among the four clusters concerning the two latter variables, whereas the clusters are similar in regard to the first variable (i.e., all clusters are in the same Duncan group). As expected, the Cluster 4

Table 2
Values of the structural variables for each cluster

	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3	Cluster 4
	Postentry learning engagement	Preentry learning engagement	Low learning engagement	High learning engagement (pre/postentry)
Perceived unfamiliarity with foreign market	1.01	− 0.59	1.98	− 0.85
Elapsed time of foreign market operations	− 0.35	− 0.37	1.38	1.93
Number of firms (%)	160 (32%)	242 (49%)	28 (6%)	63 (13%)

Note: All variables are standardized with mean = 0 and S.D. = 1.

Table 3
Values of the managerial control variables for the four clusters

Management control variables	Mean values across different learning engagements				<i>F</i> statistics (differences between means) and significance
	Postentry (1)	Preentry (2)	Low (3)	High (4)	
Local adaptation ability	4.5 (A)	4.8 (A)	4.6 (A)	4.7 (A)	1.45
Local adaptation willingness	3.5 (C)	5.3 (B)	2.9 (D)	5.9 (A)	72.39***
Adoption of standardized international routines	5.23 (B)	5.02 (B)	5.75 (A)	5.24 (B)	3.39**

The letters in parentheses show the Duncan grouping where different letters indicate that the values are significantly different.

** Significant at 5% level.

*** Significant at 1% level.

firms, which already have reduced their foreign market unfamiliarity significantly, expose more willingness to undertake local adaptation. The same is true for the Cluster 2 firms that have engaged themselves in preentry learning. In contrast, the willingness to undertake local adaptation is much lower among the firms in Clusters 1 and 3—the firms that still perceive a high liability of foreignness.

5.3. Discussion

Ideally, one should combine perceptual ('input') and performance ('output') measures. In our study, foreign market unfamiliarity is expressed as a subjective measure, namely the lack of knowledge about the foreign country *as perceived* by the focal firm. This gives reasons to be cautious about what appears to be low values of liability of foreignness. Hence, other researchers have reported systematically underestimation of foreign market barriers. One might question to what extent these findings are biased by the perceptual character of the measurements; after all, it is the familiarity as perceived by the managers of the entrant firms that is compared. Entrant firms may systematically over- or underestimate their familiarity with the foreign market in question. Thus, what we denominate 'preentry learning engagement' (Cluster 2) may potentially reflect a systematic overestimation of market familiarity. In order to check for this potential systematic error, we did check on different measures in relation to 'psychic distance' and international experience of the sample firms, but found no deviation of Cluster 2 firms on these measures that would indicate an overestimation of market familiarity. The measures included international experience in terms of employees abroad, proportion of foreign ventures in neighboring countries, and perceived newness of the foreign market.

Another reservation relates to the cross-sectional design of the study. Only longitudinal studies can establish the true learning paths of international firms. What we can observe in our study is, by definition, only *positions* of firms in different paths of learning. The existence of—to our knowledge—only one large-scale longitudinal study of firms' liability of foreignness (Zaheer and Mosakowski, 1997) illustrates the large room for further research.

6. Conclusions and managerial implications

The empirical study, based on data of a sample of 494 international firms from Sweden, Denmark, and New Zealand, has opposed a conventional static view of liability of foreignness in terms of unfamiliarity with local business environments. The study suggests learning engagements to differ significantly among entrant firms. Hence, a large group of firms seems to master a rapid reduction of liability of foreignness, possibly by engagement in learning prior to market entry. In contrast, a minor group of firms seems to resist involvement in learning processes and perceives a high unfamiliarity with the local business environment even after a relatively long period of operations in the foreign country. Apparently, the adoption of standardized international business routines and unwillingness to adapt products and marketing practices to local markets are associated with a low learning engagement of the entrant firm.

Our study suggests that for a majority of firms, the liability of foreignness and the associated costs of doing business abroad will decline over a period of time and the study invites to a further discussion of the role of managerial discretion in the learning process of entrant firms.

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