

Attracting talent: A cross-cultural study of organizational strategies to maintain competitive advantage

Michael Monahan
Frostburg State University

Amit Shah
Frostburg State University

ABSTRACT

Successful organizations have a culture of innovation for attracting and developing new talent. But how do firms attract the best and the brightest? Perhaps the largest source of talent development are the world's universities which are the breeding ground for these educated, eager, and energized applicants. While recruitment strategies have been documented extensively in the USA, the researchers sought to ascertain the methods used by students to seek their ideal first post-graduation position in other countries. By understanding these strategies, employers can target and reach these potential assets. For this study the researchers surveyed the three most populous and economically dynamic regions of the world: China, India, and the European Union. China and India are the two most populous countries on Earth, each home to over 1.3 billion people, while the European Union consists of 28-member countries with a total population over 500 billion. For this study, the EU respondents came from three-member countries. They provide the best geographical and cultural representation of the Union: Sweden, Germany, and Spain. Many commonalities and statistically significant differences between the areas emerged. Implications for practice will be discussed.

Keywords: employment, job hunting, China, India, EU

INTRODUCTION

Successful organizations have a culture of innovation for attracting and developing new talent. But how do firms attract the best and the brightest? Perhaps the largest source of talent development are the world's universities which are the breeding ground for these educated, eager, and energized applicants.

While recruitment strategies have been documented extensively in the USA, the researchers sought to ascertain the methods used by students to seek their ideal first post-graduation position in other countries. By understanding these strategies, employers can target and reach these potential assets.

For this study the researchers surveyed the three most populous and economically dynamic regions of the world: China, India, and the European Union. China and India are the two most populous countries on Earth, each home to over 1.3 billion people. While the European Union consists of 28-member countries with a total population over 500 billion people, for this study, the EU respondents came from three-member countries which may provide the best geographical and cultural representation of the Union: Sweden, Germany, and Spain.

According to the Talent Shortage Survey, 40 percent of global employers were unable to find the right talent for jobs that needed to be done (Delmercado, 2016). Beechler and Woodward (2009) noted that while the shortage of talent is prevalent in many countries, it is especially severe in both India and China. While companies struggle to find talent, many individuals struggle to get jobs (Branine & Avramenko, 2015; Mourshead, Patel, & Suder, 2004; Wang, 2011). Due to changes in the global economy, as well as in regulations around the world, individuals no longer limit their job search to their country of origin, which opens doors for talent to move rather freely throughout the world (Ready, Hill, and Conger, 2008). Thus, it is important to understand what strategies firms are using to attract talent to understand how company strategies and applicant strategies align. It appears that the approaches used by employers have similarities and differences between countries (Cooke, Saini, & Wang, 2014).

Around the world, the use of internet recruiting has become increasingly popular. For example, Girard and Fallery (2010) pointed out that companies are using websites such as Monster and LinkedIn to post job openings. Still, the differences in culture and norms influence recruitment strategies that companies use. For example, in China employment agencies are responsible for many of the work assignments that individuals obtain in China (Smith & Chan, 2015). Internships are also popular in China, but they do not guarantee a job after the end of the internship (Smith & Chan 2015). Han and Han (2009) discovered that the use of personal networks is most common in hiring in China. The same study noted that companies in China tend to use strategies that cost less money, such as internal recruiting, and less often use tactics such as college recruiting and headhunting due to the increased cost of these strategies.

Holtbrügge, Friedmann, & Puck (2010) noted that firms in India also use internal recruitment strategies, which consists of hiring individuals who have personal relationships with employees at the firm. However, due to the extreme need for employees, firms in India and other large countries must also incorporate external recruitment strategies. These strategies include focusing on outside target groups for recruiting as well as university recruitment (Holtbrügge, 2010). Similarly, companies in Europe tend to form close ties with universities to streamline the recruiting process and find the best talent (Stahl, 2012). Faulconbridge, Beaverstock, Hall, and Hewitson (2009) also stated that companies in Europe are now turning to executive search firms to find talent. It is said that this is occurring because employers want to make sure they have the

best talent from the start, rather than hoping that other methods find the best of the best (Faulconbridge et al., 2009). Thus, it seems that university services, personal connections, and online applications are the most commonly used practices when it comes to hiring. Knowing now how firms attract talent, the question arises: Are students participating in job preparation strategies that will be beneficial in their quest to find a job?

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine how firms can seek talent by understanding which job seeking methods are used by students in China, India and the European Union. The following research hypotheses guided this study.

H1. There is no difference in resume preparation and utilization by students in China, India and the European Union.

H2. There is no difference in the job preparation methods by students in China, India and the European Union.

H2. There is no difference in the job preparation methods by students in China, India and the European Union based on gender.

LITERATURE REVIEW

European Union

Spain

In European countries, most immigrants belong to the weakest group in the labor market, performing worse than their native counterparts (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). In the European Union 15 (EU-15), the unemployment rate in 2010 for immigrants was 14.8 percent and 8.8 percent for natives. Over the last 12 years, Spain's immigration rate has increased (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). Because of the beginning of the global financial and economic crisis, Spain's labor market has been hit hard, which caused the unemployment rate to increase from 8.3 percent in 2007 to 20.2 percent in 2010.

A study completed by Vasquez-Grenno (2017) looked at the most common job search methods in Spain. The results found personal networks were the most utilized by individuals who were unemployed (72.6 percent), followed by direct methods (62.3 percent), with the least utilized method being private agencies (25.6 percent) (Vasquez-Grenno, 2017). For unemployed workers, it seems that the level of education they have attained has an effect on the choice of job search methods. Someone who has obtained a college degree gravitates towards job search strategies such as looking for opportunities in the news, looking for information to set-up their own businesses (direct), and registering at private agencies and other methods (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). However, these individuals rely on personal connections and public employment offices at a lower rate than those without degrees (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017).

Conversely, unemployed individuals who have lower levels of education make more use of public job offices and personal networks than the rest of the unemployed (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). When the duration of unemployment increases, an inverted U-shaped design is apparent in the utilization of job search strategies. As such, when the duration of unemployment goes up, the number of job search methods used also increase. However, when unemployed workers are

out of a job for a long time, there is a decrease in the number of search methods used. A reason behind this behavior could be that the recently unemployed find job more easily, so they require less search efforts. In contrast, the lower search effort reported by the long-term unemployed could be because of growing feelings of discouragement.

An assessment of immigrants and citizens indicates that immigrants tend to use personal connections more often to find work (80.6 vs. 72.6 percent) and were less likely to be registered in the public employment office (60.9 vs. 48.0 percent) (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). When looking at the search methods used by immigrants from different countries, no noticeable discrepancies were shown. However, people from Africa who were unemployed were more likely to use personal contacts, private and direct agencies, and direct methods. Immigrants from European non-EU-15 countries used public employment offices and private agencies less than other immigrants) (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017).

Individuals who are unemployed with no past experience use most of the search methods less often than those with experience, with the exception of new entrants to the workforce (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017). This study also found that distinctions in the use of job search methods exist based on age, gender, and years of residence. Men favored the use of direct methods and personal networks; the young prefer news and direct search methods; and immigrants with more than three years of residency in Spain are more inclined to increase their use of formal job search methods, which would be agencies, news, and direct methods (Vazquez-Grenno, 2017).

Common ways individuals seek job openings are through newspapers, employment agencies, browsing the internet, and using local networks in the community (Calvo-Armengol & Zenou, 2001). Research has underestimated the importance of personal contacts in helping with matching job-seekers with agencies. However, evidence has shown that about half of all jobs are found through contacts. Holzer (1988) found in his research that 66% of 16-23-year-old workers used informal job-hunting strategies. Of the 66%, 30% used an application without referral and 36% used friends and families as a resource. Only 11% used employment agencies and only 10% used the newspaper to find job openings. Calvo-Armengol and Zenou (2001) use an explicit micro scenario to describe how workers are linked to each other by a social network. Through this network, members communicate to one another through word-of-mouth.

Using social networks to help find jobs is depicted as “planning and managing social contacts and cultivating personal relationships to get a job” (Villar, Juan, Corominas, & Capell, 2000). Evidence has shown informal contacts were key in locating employment opportunities and the hiring of unemployed individuals (Forse, 1997; Lin & Dumin, 1986, Silliker, 1993). One study, conducted by the European Community (1999), showed personal connections provided the majority of job leads. Further, The Household Panel indicates the way in which different European countries utilize family, friends, and other informal contacts to find jobs varies tremendously (European Community, 1999). For instance, 17% of those in Holland conveyed they used their connections in finding a job. In addition, 23% of the respondents from England, and those in Greece, France, Luxembourg, and Portugal reported 30-35%, and in Spain, 40% utilized their personal networks.

People searching for jobs stated that their personal connections made them aware of job opportunities that aided in the hiring process as well (Villar, Juan, Corominas, & Capell, 2000). Results also showed that support from personal connections was significantly associated to job-hunting behavior because it adds to the awareness of employment chances and the amount of time and effort they needed to put into the job hunt (Rife & Belcher, 1993; Wanberg et al., 1996). In addition, the job-hunting strategies used were also impacted (Hajjar et al.; 1993).

Sweden

Informal contacts are used widely by both firms and workers to fill vacancies and find jobs (Pellizzari, 2010). The Importance of informal networks in the labor market is a fact and has motivated many studies. Results suggest that compared to formal methods, informal contacts are a better way to send out information between job applicants and potential employers and should lead to matches of better quality and higher wages. Estimates indicate that informal search channels lead to significantly better paying jobs in Austria, Belgium and the Netherlands, while the opposite is found in Greece, Italy, Portugal, and the United Kingdom.

Sweden has a law that requires for all employers to notify the Labor-Market Board about all job openings (Korpi, 2001). This does not always guarantee that all openings will be reported, but it is assumed that the Board is notified about most of the job openings available (Korpi, 2001). The Labor-Market Board operates on a nationwide system with public employment agencies with at least one office in each city. Future employers can find job information from the agencies through listings of job openings on a computer-based vacancy services, or the internet (Korpi, 2001). This essentially means that Swedish job hunters have easy access to an alternative channel of information on vacancies throughout the country. This suggests that social contacts may be less important for Swedish job searchers. Surveys show that 90 to 95 percent of unemployed people visit employment agencies (Korpi, 2001).

Research has shown that individuals who are born outside of Europe were generally less successful than citizens from Europe. This lack of success stems from receiving less financial remuneration, decreased job security, and a poorer quality employee/company match (OECD, 2013). The reason is due to variances in worker attributes such as the level of education, past work experience, and communication skills (Altonji & Blank, 1999; Rodgers, 2006).

Another explanation could be the way in which different cultures and ethnicities perform their job search, as well as their quality of their personal connections (Montgomery, 1991; Ioannides & Loury, 2004). Holzer (1988) originally came up with the job search theory which “predicts that unemployed workers should choose their search intensity and search methods (formal and informal searches) by comparing the returns and costs of the available alternatives”.

Findings suggest that even though the job search is less effective for men who are immigrant, they were able to gain employment using both formal and informal strategies (Frijters, Shields, & Wheatly-Price, 2005). One study found informal tactics were most used by men from cultural minorities (Battu et al., 2011). Unfortunately, such tactics were less efficient in locating employment. Further, immigrants tend to use personal connections as their primary job search tactic more often than native individuals do, but both groups were similarly able to gain employment with the help of their connections (Giulietti, Schluter, & Wahba, 2013).

Results from Carlsson, Eriksson, & Rooth (2014) demonstrate that even though informal job search strategies were used the most by unemployed immigrants, they also utilized all of the other job search strategies more than natives did. Still, it is apparent the informal tactics were the most beneficial for immigrants. Results also found that using informal search methods was linked with less pay as opposed to employment found using other strategies (Carlsson, Eriksson, & Rooth, 2014). Immigrants may choose informal search methods, even though it means a lower pay, because it is less costly, and it is more likely they will get a job right away.

Germany

Once a person knows what they are looking for in an employer, how do they actually find a job? There are a variety of ways that individuals seek out employment. There are both formal and informal strategies. Formal strategies include sending a resume, replying to job postings, and visiting employment agencies (Caliendo, Schmidl, & Uhlendorff, 2011). Informal strategies include using family and friend connections to get a position (Caliendo et al., 2011).

Mortensen (1986) notes that individuals who are looking for a job select one search method and determine the effort they will put into the search and what they expect to get out of it, such as an expected wage. Thus, a person determines what strategies to use for their job search by determining the relative cost and time that will go into the search and the results it will yield (Holzer, 1988).

Communication with family, friends, and colleagues is one of the most common selections when deciding which job search strategies to use (Caliendo et al., 2011). These informal strategies can be planned for in advance of needing a job, such as in networking (Flap & Boxman, 2000). Several studies have found that individuals in Germany use their contacts to secure jobs (De Graaf & Flap, 1988; Franzen & Hangartner, 2006; McDonald, Benton, & Warner, 2012). In fact, Pellizzari (2010) found that individuals in Germany were more likely to use informal job search strategies than their counterparts in the United States. Franzen and Hangartner (2006) found that 34% of workers in Germany found their jobs through informal strategies.

Formal job search strategies, such as interviews, work sample tests, and resumes have also been found to be preferred among college students in Germany (Marcus, 2003). Caliendo et al. (2011) found that individuals seeking jobs in Germany most often used internet searches for career options. Responding to newspaper advertisements, visiting unemployment agencies, and visiting the company directly to apply were also ranked highly in Germany (Caliendo et al., 2011).

Internships are also important in securing jobs for some college students in Germany. In most European countries, internships and work study programs are in place (Klein & Weiss, 2011). In fact, Allen and Van der Velden (2009) found that 79% of college graduates in Germany were part of an internship or work study program during their schooling. In many cases, these internships are mandatory (Klein & Weiss, 2011). Hands-on experience is believed to increase employability and make entry into the professional world easier (Klein & Weiss, 2011). Still, it has been found that mandatory internships are not as beneficial to college students in Germany as voluntary internships (Klein & Weiss, 2011).

College students throughout Germany seem to use different methods when searching for a job. Both informal and formal strategies are used. The most commonly used strategies appear to be family and friend connections, resumes, and interviews. While the likelihood is high that college students in Germany will partake in internship experiences, these are not always considered beneficial for the individuals' job searches.

China

How do college students find jobs? Blau (1994) has broken the job search process into two critical parts: preparatory job search and active job search. Preparatory job search involves an individual getting information on companies and job opportunities (Werbel, Song, & Yan, 2008).

Active job search behaviors are the activities that an individual completes to get a job, such as completing applications, resumes, or attending interviews (Bao & Luo, 2015). Interview and work opportunities have been shown to be predicted by these job search behaviors (Saks & Ashforth, 1999). Job preparation and job search vary by individual (May, 2000).

Preparatory job search can be a challenging task in countries like China (Werbel et al., 2008). Companies in China are less likely to have recruitment staff or professional websites for potential employees to use to gain information (Garis, Dalton, Akin, & Wang, 2003). Werbel et al. (2008) found that in China, individuals are less likely to use the preparatory aspect of the job search, and instead jump directly into the active job search.

Several researchers have proposed three categories of job search methods: informal, formal, and direct application (Beggs & Hurlbert, 1997; Granovetter, 1973). Informal methods include using family and friend connections to secure positions (Song & Werbel, 2007). Formal methods include using employment agencies or responding to job advertisements, such as in the newspaper or on the internet (Bridges & Villemes, 1986). Direct application refers to non-solicited visiting or sending a resume to a company in hopes of getting hired (Wang & Moffatt, 2008). These job search methods are used across the world.

Some students tailor resumes for their desired positions, while others search the web for positions, go to job interviews, and deliver unsolicited resumes to businesses (Hu & Gan, 2011; May, 2000). Several studies have shown that the formal and direct application methods that students in China use vary (Hu & Gan, 2011; May, 2000; Zhou, 2003). One study found that attending job fairs, submitting resumes via a company website, and means set up through their university, such as career fairs and faculty recommendation, were the most commonly used job search behaviors (Wang & Moffatt, 2008).

Informal means of finding jobs are popular in many cultures (Song & Werbel, 2007). Strong personal connections are used frequently in China and other Asian cultures (Bian, 1997). In China, individuals use what are called family guanxi networks to find jobs. May (2000) explains that these networks consist of the person's family connections that have been built up through the years. It is a common belief in China that the older generation should assist younger individuals in finding work (May, 2000).

Different job search methods can be used in combination to aid in the process. Shen (2015) suggests that individuals most often jointly use formal and informal job search methods. For instance, social networks can be used to give initial information to a company or prospective employee but resumes and interviews are often used in combination to prove skills and other requirements before hiring (Shen, 2015).

The ways in which a person finds a job vary from person to person. Still, there are similarities in the methods that most individuals use. In China, many college students rely on their guanxi networks to provide the connections they need to find a career. In addition to this network, resumes, job fairs, and university support have been shown to be utilized often.

India

Impacts of social interaction and networks on labor market have been studied by multiple researchers (McEntarfer, 2003; Ionnides & Loury, 2004; Wahba & Zenou, 2005). Iversen, Sen, Verschoor, and Dubey (2009) found referrals aided approximately 70% of blue-collar, untrained individuals in finding their initial employment. Marsden and Gorman (2001) found recruiting individuals with the help of personal referrals could benefit companies by allowing employers to

assess and decrease their ambiguity about a potential employees' productivity. This can also increase loyalty to a business. Low and unskilled workers in India have lower turnover rates (Mazumdar, 1973; Newman, 1979).

The use of informal connections allows both employees and employers to rise above informational complications (Granovetter, 1974; Rees, 1966). Ionnides and Loury (2004) found that 30-50% of employees around the world have acquired their jobs with aid from their personal connections. It also found employers depended on the use of personal referrals in hiring.

A structure exists for social networks where individuals, both employed and unemployed, are given word about potential employment openings at random (Calvo-Armengol & Jackson, 2004). While the unemployed individuals tend to hold on to this information and take the job for themselves, individuals who are employed typically deliver the information to individuals they know who are unemployed. This will ensure that individuals who are unemployed are gaining information about employment from two places, both the opportunities that were directed to them and the opportunities that were passed on to them.

If a person who is unemployed was in a network with many employed members, then they were more likely to find job faster than if they were in a network with a majority of people who were also unemployed (Saygin, Weber, & Weynandt, 2014). This model demonstrates that an increased number of individuals who are employed will be beneficial to those who are still looking for a job (Saygin et al., 2014). Other models that incorporate the company's interest are centered on areas where companies encounter uncertainty regarding individuals' productivity, as it may take time to witness such productivity (Javanovic, 1979).

Recommendations also benefit an employer, as they offer further information that may not be known about the candidate (Saygin et al., 2014). One model suggests employers have the ability to employ candidates through recommendations or publically through job advertisements, which allows them to develop benchmarks regarding initial salaries, salary progression, and employment turnover rates (Dustmann et al., 2012). Potential employees also use homophile, which means that they are more likely to connect to individuals who are like themselves (Saygin et al., 2014). Once the character of the future employee is realized, the business typically seeks these recommendations made by their workers since these endorsements result in industrious workers as well. Research also shows that outside of exchanging job-related information, social networks might directly affect a future workers' preference for work (Bandiera et al., 2009; Marmaros and Sacerdote, 2002; Mas and Moretti, 2009). Social pressure is a crucial factor when recent graduates are searching for a job.

METHODS

The students were asked to participate in a voluntary and confidential survey about their job-hunting strategies. The respondents answered either "yes" or "no" for each question.

Students self-identified their gender. The Chinese students are from two major institutions in China, while the Indian respondents were from ten institutions in India. The European Union data set consists of responses from students in one institution in Sweden, Germany, and Spain. Since the responses were nominal in nature, a Pearson's R was the appropriate statistic to utilize to determine the strength and the magnitude of the differences. Calculations for each question were run on the variables of country and gender.

RESULTS

A total of 1639 usable responses were obtained as the majority (47%) came from EU students. Females comprised most of the respondents from the three areas. Interestingly, Sweden which was a component of the EU, was the only area where more males were surveyed (see Table 1).

	China	India	EU*	Total	%
Female	224	307	391	922	56%
Male	133	208	376	717	44%
Total	357	515	767	1639	
% female by Country	63%	60%	51%		
% male by Country	37%	40%	49%		
% respondents by Country	22%	32%	47%		
* EU sample comprised of	Sweden	Germany	Spain		
	53%	23%	23%		
Female	42%	61%	61%		
Male	58%	39%	39%		

Just over half of the Chinese and Indian Chinese students had a current resume, while three-quarters of the students in the European Union had a current resume. The EU females were most apt to have a current resume. The differences were statistically significant.

The students were asked if they used the same resume or if they tailored them for each application. The Chinese females were the least likely to use the same resume for all applications; however, most respondents from all three areas tailored their resumes for each position. Even though the majority tailored their resumes, statistically significant differences emerged (see Table 2).

Table 2					
Resume Usage	China	India	EU	r	sig
Have a Current Resume	56%	56%	75%	-0.160	0.000
female	55%	55%	80%	-0.205	0.000
male	57%	59%	73%	-0.132	0.000
Use the Same Resume for all Applications	18%	29%	31%	-0.113	0.000
female	13%	31%	33%	-0.174	0.000
male	26%	27%	31%		
Tailor Resume for each Application	62%	58%	69%	-0.107	0.000
female	68%	63%	73%	0.114	0.001
male	51%	53%	68%	-0.207	0.000

Interestingly, out of the following four methods, only online sources such as Monster.com were utilized by over half of the respondents. Upon further analysis it was found that this majority occurred due to the females from China and the EU who were the most apt to use this method. Incredibly, literally a handful of Indian students utilized this method. Classified ads were used by Chinese students in a slightly statistically significant rate. However, utilizing employment agencies was favored by students in the EU, followed by Indian students. Conversely, Chinese students were most desirous of the acquisition of an internships to find employment (see Table 3).

Methods		China	India	EU	r	sig
Classified Ads		46%	19%	37%	0.056	0.021
	female	46%	19%	41%		
	male	47%	19%	35%		
Internships		46%	37%	39%	0.049	0.045
	female	47%	40%	42%		
	male	44%	32%	39%		
Employment Agencies		28%	30%	38%	-0.084	0.001
	female	26%	28%	40%		
	male	31%	32%	37%		
Online Job Sites such as Monster.com		53%	3%	50%	-0.133	0.000
	female	56%	2%	58%		
	male	47%	4%	46%		

Female students in the EU were the most likely to send unsolicited applications, while the percentages of Chinese and Indian students were nearly identical. This difference was statistically significant. Personal referrals were strong with the EU respondents, since approximately 60% took advantage of relationships to secure a position. Conversely, less than one-fourth of the Indian students utilized this strategy, but one-third of these Indian students participated in Mock Interviews. Interestingly, EU males were the least likely to practice their interviewing skills by participating in Mock Interviews. But, perhaps one of the more disturbing findings was that one fourth of the Chinese and Indian students who participated in interviews did so just to gain practice when they had no interest in the position they were applying. These differences were also statistically significant (see Table 4).

	China	India	EU	r	sig
Personal Referral	43%	23%	59%	-0.144	0.000
female	46%	23%	59%	-0.113	0.001
male	39%	25%	61%	-0.201	0.000
Unsolicited Applications	22%	22%	27%	-0.051	0.039
female	24%	24%	31%	-0.065	0.048
male	19%	20%	24%		
Mock Interviews	23%	32%	14%	0.099	0.000
female	22%	32%	17%		
male	24%	33%	10%	0.157	0.000
Took Practice Interviews if you Were Not Interested in the Job	27%	24%	17%	0.101	0.000
female	29%	24%	18%	0.099	0.003
male	23%	24%	15%	0.083	0.025

EU students conducted company research at more than twice the rate of their counterparts and was statistically significant across country and gender.

Maintaining a work portfolio was most used by Chinese females and was very slightly significant at the country level. Conversely, the India students employed this strategy

Interestingly, over twice as many Chinese respondents participated in “other” activities as compared to their Indian and EU counterparts. Unfortunately, the students did not itemize the nature of these other activities

Finally, one-fifth of the participants from all three areas did not perform any type of preparation. Chinese females and EU males were the least likely. We do not know the reasons for not utilizing any preparation, but it is disconcerting that 20% of students did not care enough about their future employment to take positive actions for their own good (see Table 5).

Conducted Research	Company	China	India	EU	r	sig
		25%	23%	60%	-0.286	0.000
	female	24%	24%	64%	-0.324	0.000
	male	28%	21%	58%	-0.263	0.000
Maintained a Work Portfolio		54%	11%	44%	0.048	0.05
	female	57%	11%	50%		
	male	49%	12%	41%		
Other		32%	13%	16%	0.157	0.000
	female	34%	13%	19%	0.144	0.000
	male	30%	14%	14%	0.155	0.000
Did Not Perform any Preparation		20%	18%	20%		
	female	22%	18%	16%	0.069	0.037
	male	17%	18%	25%	-0.086	0.022

HYPOTHESIS TESTING AND CONCLUSION

H1. There is no difference in resume preparation and utilization by students in China, India, and the European Union. Not Supported

There were statistically significantly more EU students who had a current resume. This difference was significant both by country and by gender. However, while most of the respondents from each of the areas tailored their resume for each application there were statistically significant differences between them.

Since the majority of students in all three areas possessed a resume firms should find avenues to host students and encourage them to bring their resumes, either for applying to their firm or for the student to receive constructive suggestions for improving their resume.

H2. There is no difference in the job preparations methods by students in China, India, and the European Union. Not Supported

Statistically significant differences between the three areas were found in eleven out of the twelve methods to find jobs. Interestingly, the only item where no differences was found was under the category of not performing any preparation.

H2. There is no difference in the job preparation methods by students in China, India, and the European Union based on gender. Mixed results

Supported

In three out of the twelve methods there were no statistically significant differences due to gender. The unaffected methods were Classified Ads, Internships, and Maintaining a Work Portfolio.

Not Supported

However, statistically significant differences by gender appeared in nine of the methods.

Table 6 summarizes the strategies firms should utilize in each area. A “Y” signifies if that strategy should be used while a “N” recommends that strategy not be utilized. Those with a “?” had mixed results and should not be readily accepted or rejected immediately.

For example, posting openings online would be prudent for firms in China and the EU, but would be ineffective in India as only 3% of the respondents utilized that method.

Since personal referrals are strong in China and the EU, firms in these areas could give bonuses, finder’s fees, to their employees for recommending talent. These recommendations are generally better since the reputation of the employee who makes the recommendation is on the line and they would not want to tarnish their image by recommending a mediocre candidate.

Students using actual interviews for practice waste much time in China and India. Firms in these countries should better vet candidates and ascertain their desire for employment before offering them an interview which will save energy and time for all.

Since internships were widely used in China as a stepping stone for permanent employment, Chinese firms should be encouraged to support internships as a prime recruiting tool as well as encouraging the review of work/education portfolios. This examination of work portfolios should also be done in the EU.

Since the Indian students practiced mock interviews, firms in India should set up mock interview sessions which could help the students practice their interviewing skills, but more importantly, provide Indian recruiters with a first opportunity for employing these students.

Conversely, EU firms can feel more confident of the interest of applicants as 60% have conducted company research beforehand. Perhaps the Chinese and India firms should use the lack of research as a screening mechanism.

And finally, those they did not prepare at all are probably candidates one would not want to hire in the first place. Further, if they were hired, they may not stay with that employer for long.

Table 6 Method Recommendations	China	India	EU
Classified Ads	Y	N	?
Internship	Y	?	?
Employment Agencies	?	?	Y
Online Job Sites such as Monster.com	Y	N	Y
Personal Referral	Y	?	Y
Unsolicited Applications	N	N	N
Mock Interviews	?	Y	N
Took Practice Interviews if you Were Not Interested in the Job	N	N	N
Conducted Company Research	?	?	Y
Maintained a Work Portfolio	Y	?	Y
Other	?	N	N
Did Not Perform any Preparation	N	N	N

FUTURE RESEARCH

Additional research could focus on differences by major, personality type, gpa. Further analysis could include what new entrants to the job force value such as intrinsic or extrinsic factors.

REFERENCES

- Allen, J., & Van der Velden, R. (2009). Competencies and early labour market careers of higher education graduates.
- Altonji, J., & Blank, R. M. (1999). *Race and Gender in the Labor Market*. Elsevier.
- Bandiera, O., Barankay, I., & Rasul, I. (2009). Social connections and incentives in the workplace: Evidence from personnel data. *Econometrica*, 1047-1094.
- Bao, Z., & Luo, P. (2015). How college students' job search self-efficacy and clarity affect job search activities. *Social Behavior and Personality: An Interpersonal Journal*, 39-51.
- Battu, H., Seaman, P., & Zenou, Y. (2011). Job contact networks and the ethnic minorities. *Labour Economics*, 48-56.
- Beechler, S., & Woodward, I. C. (2009). The global "war for talent". *Journal of international management*, 15(3), 273-285.
- Beggs, J. J., & Hurlbert, J. S. (1997). The social context of men's and women's job search ties: Membership in voluntary organizations, social resources, and job search outcomes. *Sociological Perspectives*, 601-622.
- Bian, Y. (1997). Bringing strong ties back in: indirect connection, bridges, and job search in China. *American Sociological Review*, 366-385.
- Blau, G. (1994). Testing a two-dimensional measure of job search behavior. *Organizational behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 288-312.
- Branine, M., & Avramenko, A. (2015). A comparative analysis of graduate Employment prospects in european labour markets: A study of graduate recruitment in four countries. *Higher Education Quarterly*, 69(4), 342-365.
- Bridges, W. P., & Villemez, W. J. (1986). Informal hiring and income in the labor market. *American Sociological Review*, 574-582.
- Caliendo, M., Schmidl, R., & Uhlendorff, A. (2011). Social networks, job search methods and reservation wages: evidence for Germany. *International Journal of Manpower*, 796-824.
- Calvo-Armengol, A., & Jackson, M. O. (2004). The effects of social networks on employment and inequality. *The American Economic Review*, 426-454.
- Calvo-Armengol, A., & Zenou, Y. (2001). Job matching, social network, and word-of-mouth communication. *Institute for International Economic Studies*, 1-39.
- Carlsson, M., Eriksson, S., & Rooth, D. O. (2014). Job search methods and wages: Are natives and immigrants different? *Labour Market and Discrimination Studies*, 1-31.
- Cooke, F. L., Saini, D. S., & Wang, J. (2014). Talent management in China and India: A comparison of management perceptions and human resource practices. *Journal of World Business*, 49(2), 225-235.
- De Graaf, N. D., & Flap, H. D. (1988). "With a little from my friends": Social resources as an explanation of occupational status and income in West Germany, The Netherlands, and the United States. *Social forces*, 452-472.
- Delmercado, T. (2016, December 6). How to attract and keep top talent in 2017. Retrieved from <https://www.entrepreneur.com/article/285437>.
- European Community. (1999). *Household Panel (EC HP): Selected Indicators from the 1995 Wave*. Luxembourg: Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

- Faulconbridge, J. R., Beaverstock, J. V., Hall, S., & Hewitson, A. (2009). The 'war for talent': The gatekeeper role of executive search firms in elite labour markets. *Geoforum*, 40(5), 800-808.
- Flap, H., & Boxman, E. (2001). Getting started: the influence of social capital on the start of the occupational career. *Social capital: Theory and research*, 159-181.
- Forse, M. (1997). Capital social et emploi. *L'Annee Sociologique*, 47, 143-181.
- Franzen, A., & Hangartner, D. (2006). Social networks and labour market outcomes: The non-monetary benefits of social capital. *European Sociological Review*, 323-368.
- Frijters, P., Shields, M. A., & Wheatly-Price, S. (2005). Job search methods and their success: A comparison of immigrants and natives in the UK. *Economic Journal*, F356-F376.
- Garis, J. W., Dalton, J. S., Akin, G. P., & Wang, H. (2003). Starting from scratch: Developing a model for career services in the People's Republic of China. *NACE Journal*, 26-30.
- Girard, A., & Fallery, B. (2010). Human Resource Management on internet: new perspectives. *Journal of Contemporary Management Research*, 4(2), 1.
- Giulietti, C., Schluter, C., & Wahba, J. (2013). With a lot of help from my friends: Social networks and immigrants in the UK. *Population, Space, and Place*, 657-670.
- Granovetter, M. S. (1974). *Getting a job: A study of contacts and careers*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Hajjar, V., Beelitz, N., & Baubion-Broye, A. (1993). An application of reinforcement principles to the problem of unemployment. *Proceedings of the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association*, 22, 393-408.
- Han, J., & Han, J. (2009). Network-based recruiting and applicant attraction in China: insights from both organizational and individual perspectives. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(11), 2228-2249.
- Holtbrügge, D., Friedmann, C. B., & Puck, J. F. (2010). Recruitment and retention in foreign firms in India: A resource-based view. *Human Resource Management*, 49(3), 439-455.
- Holzer, H. J. (1988). Search method use by the unemployed youth. *Journal of Labour Economics*, 1-20.
- Hu, Y., & Gan, Y. (2011). Future-oriented coping and job hunting among college students. *Psychological Record*, 253-268.
- Ionnides, Y. M., & Loury, L. D. (2004). Job information networkers, neighbourhood effects and inequality. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 1056-1093.
- Iversen, V., Sen, K., Verschoor, A., & Dubey, A. (2009). Job recruitment networks and migration to cities in India. *Journal of Development Studies*, 522-543.
- Javanovic, B. (1979). Job matching and the theory of turnover. *Journal of Political Economy*, 972-990.
- Klein, M., & Weiss, F. (2011). Is forcing them worth the effort? Benefits of mandatory internships for graduates from diverse family backgrounds at labour market entry. *Studies in Higher Education*, 969-987.
- Korpi, T. (2001). Good friends in bad times? Social networks and job search among the unemployed in Sweden. *ACTA Sociologica*, 1-147.
- Lin, N., & Dumin, M. (1986). Access to occupations through social ties. *Social networks*, 8(4), 365-385.
- Marmaros, D., & Sacerdote, B. (2002). Peer and social networks in job search. *European Economic Review*, 870-879.

- Marsden, P., & Gorman, E. (2001). Social Networks, Job Changes and Recruitment. In I. Berg, & A. L. Kalleberg, Sourcebook of Labor Markets: Evolving Structure and Processes. Kluwer Academic Publishers.
- Mas, A., & Moretti, E. (2009). Peers at work. *American Economic Review*, 112-145.
- May, C. S. (2000). Globalization, economic development and the reliance on quanxi as a job search strategy for Chinese students. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 215.
- Mazumdar, D. (1973). Labour Supply in Early Industrialization: The Case of the Bombay Textile Industry. *EcHR Second Series*, 477-496.
- McDonald, S., Benton, R. A., & Warner, D. F. (2012). Dual embeddedness: Informal job matching and labor market institutions in the United States and Germany. *Social forces*, 75-97.
- McEntarfer, E. (2003). Three Essays on Social Networks in Labor Markets. Blacksburg, Virginia: Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.
- Montgomery, J. D. (1991). Social networks and labor market outcomes. *American Economic Review*, 1408-1418.
- Mortensen, D. T. (1986). Job search and labor market analysis. *Handbook of Labor Economics*, 849-919.
- Mourshed, M., Patel, J., & Suder, K. (2014). Education to employment: Getting Europe's youth into work. *McKinsey & Company*.
- Newman, R. (1979). Social Factors in the Recruitment of the Bombay Millhands. In K. Chaudhury, & C. Dewey, *Economy and Society: Essays in Indian Economic and Social History*. New Delhi.
- OECD. (2013). *International Migration Outlook*. Paris: OECD.
- Pellizzari, M. (2010). Do friends and relatives really help in getting a good job? *ILR Review*, 494-510.
- Ready, D. A., Hill, L. A., & Conger, J. A. (2008). Winning the race for talent in emerging markets. *Harvard business review*, 86(11), 62-70.
- Rees, A. (1966). Information networks in labor markets. *The American Economic Review*, 559-566.
- Rife, J. C., & Belcher, J. R. (1993). Social support and job search intensity among older unemployed workers: Implications for employment counselors. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 30(3), 98-107.
- Rodgers, W. M. (2006). *Handbook on the Economics of Discrimination*. Edward Elger Publishing.
- Saks, A. M., & Ashforth, B. E. (1999). Effects of individual differences and job search behaviors on the employment status of recent university graduates. *Journal of Vocational behavior*, 335-349.
- Saygin, P. O., Weber, A., & Weynandt, M. (2014). Coworkers, networks, and job search outcomes. *IZA Discussion Papers*, 1-41.
- Shen, J. (2015). A third type of job search behavior: the use of the formal-informal joint channel in matching individual qualifications with hiring requirements in urban China. *The Journal of Chinese Sociology*, 3.
- Silliker, S. (1993). The role of social contacts in the successful job search. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 30(1), 25-34.
- Smith, C., & Chan, J. (2015). Working for two bosses: Student interns as constrained labour in China. *Human Relations*, 68(2), 305-326.

- Song, L. J., & Werbel, J. D. (2007). Guanxi as impetus? Career exploration in China and the United States. *Career Development International*, 51-67.
- Stahl, G., Björkman, I., Farndale, E., Morris, S.S., Paauwe, J., Stiles, P., Trevor, J. & Wright, P.. (2012). Six principles of effective global talent management. *Sloan Management Review*, 53(2), 25-42.
- Vazquez-Grenno, J. (2017). Job search strategies in times of crisis: Natives and Immigrants in Spain. *The Manchester School*, 1-31.
- Villar, E., Juan, J., Corominas, E., & Capell, D. (2000). What kind of networking strategy advice should career counsellors offer university graduates searching for a job? *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*, 23(3), 389-409.
- Wahba, J., & Zenou, Y. (2005). Density, social networks and job search methods: Theory and application to Egypt. *Journal of Development Economics*, 443-473.
- Wanberg, C. R., Watt, J. D., & Rumsey, D. J. (1996). Individuals without jobs: An empirical study of job-seeking behavior and reemployment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(1), 76.
- Wang, H. (2011). China's new talent strategy: Impact on China's development and its global exchanges. *SAIS Review of International Affairs*, 31(2), 49-64.
- Wang, W., & Moffatt, P. G. (2008). Hukou and graduates' job search in China. *Asian Economic Journal*, 1-23.
- Werbel, J. D., Song, L. J., & Yan, S. (2008). The influence of external recruitment practices on job search practices across domestic labor markets: A comparison of the United States and China. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 93-101.
- Zhou, J. (2003). An empirical study on graduates' job search cost. *Economics of Education Research*, 32-55.

