

**THE EFFECTIVENESS OF A CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING PROGRAMME
ON EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT**

by

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DECLARATION

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I, Vani Schutte declare that “The effectiveness of a cross-cultural training programme on expatriate adjustment” is my own work and that all sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

SIGNATURE

DATE

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ABSTRACT

In today's global business environment, multinational companies recognise that expatriate management is a major determinant of success in international business. Expatriates do not only face changes in the work environment but face a full range of cultural, personal and lifestyle changes that influence the success of an international assignment. This study investigates the relationship between cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment. A quantitative longitudinal study was conducted within two phases to explore a European multinational companies cross-cultural training programme and its effects on expatriate adjustment in South Africa. Overseas experience, language proficiency, spousal adjustment, cultural distance and host country friendships were also explored as antecedents of adjustment. The empirical study included descriptive and inferential statistics. The results showed that there was no statistically significant relationship between cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment. While previous overseas experience showed a significant positive influence on sociocultural adjustment, it had no significant effect on psychological well-being or culture shock. Cultural distance displayed a significant negative influence on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being.

KEY TERMS

Cross-cultural training; cross-cultural adjustment; expatriate; cultural distance; culture shock; language proficiency; host country friends; expatriate spouse; previous overseas experience; psychological adjustment.

1. CHAPTER ONE: SCIENTIFIC ORIENTATION TO THE RESEARCH

This dissertation explored the effectiveness of cross-cultural training (CCT) in facilitating cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) of German expatriates in South Africa. This chapter provides the background and motivation for this research. The aims of the study are formulated and an overview of the relevant paradigms guiding the research are discussed. The research methodology outlined the phases in the research process.

1.1 BACKGROUND AND MOTIVATION

In today's highly competitive global business environment, multinational companies (MNCs) recognise that international human resource management (IHRM) is a major determinant of success in international business. "The international arena can provide lucrative opportunity for expansion. Untapped markets, resources, technology, customers and partners could potentially boost an organisations competitive advantage and profitability" (Puccino, 2005, p. 30).

MNCs generate a considerable amount of revenue from their overseas operations. This increase in international business has resulted in a need for suitably qualified personnel to oversee the business contracts of the parent company at foreign subsidiaries. The selection of potential expatriates was considered an open-and-closed door process, whereby technical skills were considered to be the only competency necessary for success overseas. International human resource management faced one of its most challenging problems, the premature return of expatriates to their home country.

There exists a growing body of evidence that expatriates experience serious problems during their international assignments and there is a significantly high failure rate (Briscoe & Schuler, 2004; Brookfield, 2011; Dhariyal & Nandan, 2009; Wild & Wild, 2012). Researchers generally agree that failed expatriate assignments relate primarily to an inability to adjust to the foreign environment, rather than a lack of technical expertise (Brookfield, 2014; Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Garvey, Jassawalla, & Truglia, 2004; Brookfield, 2014; Hess, Littrell, Paley, Riedel & Salas, 2006).

The costs of maintaining an employee on a foreign assignment is estimated to be four times more than the cost of maintaining an employee in the parent company (Eschbach, Parker & Stoeberl, 2001; Forster, 2000; GMTS 2015).

And the costs of a failed expatriate assignment are staggering (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2010; Dowling & Welch 2005; Kittler, Puck & Wright, 2008). MNCs need to adopt a multi-dimensional approach in selection, training and support of personnel for overseas assignments. In addition to the requisite technical skills, interpersonal and cross-cultural skills are important factors in successful performance abroad. And involving the family in the entire process is imperative. CCT provides expatriates and others working in a multicultural environment with the opportunity to develop their skills and competencies to effectively and successfully work and live in a foreign country (Collings & Scullion, 2006).

The Global Relocation Trends survey (Brookfield, 2012) found that 80% of the organisations surveyed, provided CCT for a duration of one day. Given the high failure rate and the high costs of an expatriate assignment, it is not surprising that companies are acknowledging the importance of expatriate training and support to enhance successful adaptation to the assignment location. Despite this popular trend, most organisations offer very little training and the training that does take place is reduced to a narrow briefing about the host country's sociopolitical, economic, cultural and general living conditions. This is due to the belief that good managerial skills are all that is needed. But traditional managerial skills and knowledge do not make a global manager. Knowledge and skills in cross-cultural aspects need to be integrated with existing managerial skills (Boyatzis & Emmerling, 2012; Davy, Hoffman & Shipper, 2014).

Furthermore, expatriates do not only face changes in the work environment but also face a full range of cultural, personal and lifestyle changes that influence the success of an international assignment. There is substantial evidence confirming that many expatriate assignments fail due to an inability to adjust to the foreign culture rather than to work-related difficulties (Bross, Caligiuri, Hyland & Joshi, 1998; Garvey et al., 2004). Therefore, there is a greater need for organisations to explore the factors associated with cross-cultural adjustment in order to gain a better understanding of the expatriate adjustment process. Apart from CCT, previous overseas experience, language proficiency, spousal/partner adjustment, host country friendships and cultural distance are some of the influential factors that facilitate expatriate cross-cultural adjustment, that have been explored in this study.

Much of the research that has been done on expatriation, focuses on expatriates in America, Europe and Asia (Celaya & Swift, 2006; Chen, Farh, Kim, Kirkman & Tangirala, 2010; Choi, Jung & Moon, 2012). Even though the literature is voluminous, very little research has been undertaken on expatriates in South Africa.

South Africa is one of the most sophisticated and promising emerging markets in the world. The doors to globalisation opened when trade barriers were lifted against South Africa in the early nineties. Since then, South Africa's record of political and macroeconomic stability has helped to create a promising economic climate for international firms in South Africa. Among the overseas investors in South Africa, Germany is one of South Africa's most important trading partners. Germany is South Africa's largest import partner and Germany's investment is the fourth largest in South Africa (Grobler, 2007). South African President Jacob Zuma visited Germany in 2015 to strengthen relations between the two countries and enhance trade and investment.

South Africa is an important current and potential market for international business firms. The European Union is one of South Africa's main trading partners. European companies rely heavily on expatriates to run and control overseas operations (Dowling, Engle & Festing, 2008). There is evidence from the examination of expatriate failure rates that European organisations are more successful than North American firms at managing the process of expatriation (Brewster & Scullion, 2001). Against this background, this study attempts to fill the research gap in international human resource management, by expanding knowledge about the cross-cultural training of German expatriates for an expatriate assignment in South Africa. This study will not be focussing on expatriate work adjustment as this topic is very extensive and falls outside the scope of this study.

1.2 PROBLEM STATEMENT

There is abundant evidence in the literature that indicates that CCT facilitates international adjustment (Forster, 2000; Hess et al., 2006; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005; Selmer, 2005; Zakaria, 2000). However, the focus of research has traditionally been on the expatriate adjustment process in Western Europe, U.S. and Asia (Britt, Hashima & Herleman, 2008; Holman, Sparrow & Zimmermann, 2003; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005). The problem is, there is limited research and literature on expatriate adjustment in South Africa.

South Africa became a full democracy in 1994. After years of apartheid-induced isolation from the global economy, countries lifted sanctions and invested in South Africa. Profitable opportunities were opened up for South Africa to reintegrate its business into the global economy. This growth in international trade has attracted a large number of expatriates into the country for various reasons; from fulfilment of scarce skills to control and coordination of business subsidiaries.

The CCT programmes that most multinationals have for their expatriates in Europe, U.S and Asia, are proven to be effective for adjustment in those countries. The question is, how effective are these CCT programmes in facilitating expatriate adjustment in South Africa?

This assumption was tested using South Africa as the host country, an environment far removed from Asian or European culture, and one that comprises an immigrant society of people originally coming from a variety of countries. It is characterised by high social, economic and political polarisation. These features are translated into high cultural diversity, a mixture of different values, and behavioural patterns. Thus, an expatriate on assignment in South Africa must not adjust to a single culture, but rather a spectrum of cultures.

Focusing on the problem statement, a general research question and several specific research questions were formulated consistent with the literature review and the empirical study.

1.2.1 General research question

The main research question is:

How effective is the cross-cultural training programme of a German MNC, in facilitating expatriate cross-cultural adjustment in South Africa?

1.2.2 Specific research questions relating to the literature review

The following specific research questions were addressed in the literature review:

- What is CCT and its dimensions?
- What does a well-designed CCT programme encompass?
- What is cross-cultural adjustment and its dimensions?
- How does cross-cultural training influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- What is the theoretical relationship between CCT and CCA?

- How does language proficiency influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- How do host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- How does previous overseas experience influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- How does cultural distance influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- How does spousal/partner adjustment influence expatriate cross-cultural adjustment?

Following other research studies (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005) and for ease of measurement, cross-cultural adjustment was categorised into sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock in the empirical study.

1.2.3 Specific research questions relating to the empirical study

The following specific research questions were addressed in the empirical study:

- What CCT programmes exist within the organisation?
- Does the company's CCT programme reflect any of the recommendations made by researchers?
- Which CCT techniques are perceived as effective?
- Is the CCT adequate?
- What degree of sociocultural adjustment do the expatriates exhibit?
- What degree of psychological well-being do the expatriates exhibit?
- What degree of culture shock do the expatriates exhibit?
- Does cross-cultural training influence cross-cultural adjustment?

- Does language proficiency influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- Do host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- Does previous overseas experience influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- Does cultural distance influence cross-cultural adjustment?
- Does spousal/partner adjustment influence expatriate cross-cultural adjustment?
- What recommendations can be formulated for the organisation as well as for international human resource management regarding expatriate assignments in South Africa?

1.3 AIMS OF THE STUDY

1.3.1 General aim

Against the background of the aforementioned scenario, the general aim of the research was to evaluate the effectiveness of a German MNCs cross-cultural training programme on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment in South Africa.

1.3.2 Specific aims

In terms of the literature review, the specific aims of the research were to:

- Conceptualise CCT from a theoretical perspective.
- Identify the components of a well-designed CCT programme.
- Conceptualise CCA from a theoretical perspective.
- Explore whether cross-cultural training influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Determine the theoretical relationship between CCT and CCA.
- Explore whether language proficiency influences cross-cultural adjustment.

- Explore whether host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment.
- Explore whether previous overseas experience influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Explore whether cultural distance influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Explore whether spousal/partner adjustment influences expatriate cross-cultural adjustment.

In terms of the empirical study, the specific research aims were to:

- Identify existing CCT programmes within the organisation.
- Establish whether the company has taken the advice of researchers in designing a CCT programme.
- Determine the effectiveness of the various CCT techniques.
- Establish whether the CCT was adequate.
- Determine the degree of sociocultural adjustment among expatriates.
- Determine the level of psychological well-being among expatriates.
- Determine the degree of culture shock among expatriates.
- Ascertain whether cross-cultural training influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Ascertain whether language proficiency influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Ascertain whether host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment.
- Ascertain whether previous overseas experience influences cross-cultural adjustment.
- Ascertain whether cultural distance influences cross-cultural adjustment.

- Ascertain whether spousal/partner adjustment influences expatriate cross-cultural adjustment.
- Formulate recommendations for the organisation as well as for international human resource management regarding expatriate assignments in South Africa.

1.4 PARADIGM PERSPECTIVES

“A paradigm is a comprehensive belief system, world view, or framework that guides research and practice in a field” (Willis, 2007, p. 8). The fundamental elements of a paradigm guide the underlying assumptions made, the definition of the problem, the research questions posed, the data analysis and interpretation, and conclusions and recommendations made (Kuhn, 1970). The paradigmatic perspective thus acts as a map that guides the research.

1.4.1 Intellectual climate

The literature review on cross-cultural adjustment and cross-cultural training was presented from a social cognitive and positivist paradigm.

Bandura (1978; 1989) derived his social cognitive theory (SCT) by postulating that learning takes place within an environment where observations can be made through social resources. It implies that learning, through an interplay between environmental factors, behaviour and personal factors influences an individual’s perceptions and actions thereby improving one’s self-efficacy. Social cognitive theory reflects a positive psychology perspective in that strategies for increasing well-being are aimed at improving behavioural competencies, and promoting learning through motivational and cognitive processes (Bandura, 2011).

Social cognitive theory plays a decisive role in expatriate adjustment. Through cross-cultural training, expatriates acquire the necessary knowledge about the host country, learn to change their attitude and perceptions about the host culture and obtain the necessary skills to self-regulate their behaviours to interact appropriately in the host culture. In its current form, the theory shifts away from skills and draws attention to the importance of variables such as attitudes, values and expectations in the cross-cultural adjustment process. This study explores the influence of various variables on cross-cultural adjustment.

Comte's positivism was posited on three basic principles; that the social world exists externally and is viewed objectively, the research is value free and the researcher is independent, taking the role of an objective analyst (Blumberg, Cooper & Schindler, 2014). Positivism is a philosophy adhering to the view that only factual knowledge gained through observation including measurement, is trustworthy. Positivist researchers observe a controlled and structural approach in conducting research by identifying a clear and measurable research topic, constructing the appropriate hypotheses and adopting a suitable research methodology (Carson, Gronhaug & Perry, 2001). According to a positivist epistemology, science is seen as the way to acquire truth so that it can be understood well enough to be predicted and controlled (Krauss, 2005). A phenomenon is studied by taking it apart to examine the components of the parts in order to establish the facts (Krauss, 2005; Weber, 2004).

For this study, scientific knowledge was required to be generated through the application of logical principles and reasoning. This study adopted a quantitative research approach whereby the proposed research evaluated the influence of CCT on expatriate adjustment and also examined the relationship between various external variables and expatriate adjustment. The researcher and the subjects in this study were independent and did not influence each other. Based on this the proposed research closely aligns with the positivist research philosophy.

1.4.2 Meta-theoretical statements

Meta-theoretical statements are the schools of thought that reflect the nature of the discipline and provide a framework for the research questions (Babbie & Mouton, 2009). This research was conducted within the field of industrial and organisational psychology. Within this context, the focus was on the sub-disciplines: organisational psychology and personnel psychology.

1.4.2.1 Industrial and organisational psychology

Industrial and organisational psychology is the use of psychological knowledge and techniques to better understand how organisations operate and how employees function in the workplace: what drives them, motivates them, and stresses them, in order to develop a more engaged and productive workforce. Psychology principles and theories are employed to overcome practical problems encountered by workers in their occupational settings (Feldt, 2005).

1.4.2.2 Personnel psychology

Personnel psychology focuses on the scientific study of individual differences in work settings and maintaining human resources in organisations. More specifically it is concerned with job analysis, employment testing, personnel selection, performance appraisal, and training and development (Coetzee & Schreuder, 2010). This study is categorised within the discipline of personnel psychology in that organisations enhance expatriate productivity and quality of life during overseas assignments with carefully planned training and development activities. In comparison to traditional training and development programmes that encompass the acquisition of new information, CCT is a process of expanding an expatriate's worldview to understand and appreciate his own culture and the differences to other cultures. The challenge of such training is that it must embrace not only technical and business issues, but lifestyle, and cultural issues as well. This study explored the literature on CCT, thereby confirming the various facets that embrace a well-designed CCT programme.

1.4.2.3 Occupational health psychology

Occupational health psychology (OHP) is a rapidly expanding interdisciplinary field that focusses on psychosocial factors in the work environment and the development, maintenance, and promotion of employee health and that of their families (Quick & Tetrick, 2011). The field integrates the individual employee, the work environment, the organisational environment and the external environment. It goes beyond the organisational domain and includes non-work factors that influence worker well-being. The term 'occupational health' in 'occupational health psychology' does not only include workers' physical state, but also emotional, cognitive, motivational and behavioural aspects (Schaufeli, 2004).

Organisations are increasingly becoming aware of the demographics of a global workforce, the challenges of an international assignment and the importance of employee well-being. (Hooper, 2004). The stressful experiences associated with expatriation can alter an expatriate's life in a substantial way. Preparing expatriates for this cross-cultural shift is essential to facilitate adjustment to the physical and social aspects of the new culture and positively influence an expatriate's health and well-being. Cross-cultural training programmes and organisational support programmes provide the best preventive strategy for culture shock and subsequent stress.

Within this study expatriates psychological well-being was explored and various factors reducing culture shock was analysed. OHP also recognises the work-family interface (Piotrkowski & Westman, 1999), dual career couples and workplace support of families, emphasising the spillover effect whereby family related stressors put strain on the work domain and vice versa. Expatriate spouses/partners often sacrifice their careers for the international assignment, and spousal/partner adjustment is imperative to expatriate adjustment (Andreason, 2008; Takeuchi, Tesluk & Yun, 2002). The influence of spousal/partner adjustment on expatriate adjustment and well-being was explored in this study.

1.4.3 Applicable models and theories

The review of the literature on cross-cultural adjustment and cross-cultural training was strongly grounded within the U-curve theory and the social cognitive theory (SCT). Underpinning these theories, the empirical study on cross-cultural adjustment was conducted using Black, Mendenhall and Oddou's three dimensional adjustment model (1991) and cross-cultural training was explored within Black and Mendenhall's training model (1990a).

Lysgaard proposed the U-curve theory in 1955, in a study of Norwegian Fulbright students visiting the United States (Lysgaard, 1955). The theory describes the phases of expatriate adjustment over time, while living in the host country. For instance, in the first phase of the assignment, the individual is fascinated by the new culture and excited to be in the new environment. As the assignment progresses, the culture shock stage intervenes, whereby the individual is frustrated and must seriously cope with the daily life in the host country. This phase requires an adequate coping response. The third phase is characterised by gradual adaptation to the norms of the new culture.

The final stage is the mastery stage where the expatriate possesses the ability to function effectively in the new culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1991). This theory is important as it illustrates that expatriates have different experiences at different times within the expatriate assignment. It suggests that training and support programmes need to be tailored to the period of adjustment the individual is encountering.

It is apparent that the U-curve framework is more a description of phases of adjustment rather than a theory explaining what might cause transition from one phase to the next. Adjusting to a new culture can be likened to a learning process and social cognitive theory can be used to explain the U-curve (Black & Mendenhall, 1991).

In SCT, human behaviour is explained in terms of a three-way, dynamic, reciprocal approach in which personal factors, environmental influences and behaviour continually interact. The SCT is the result of an attempt to broaden behaviourism by including cognitive factors in explaining behaviour. It supports behaviouristically oriented theories in regarding behaviour as primarily learnt. However, it does differ from other behaviourist theories in that they make use of concepts originating in cognitive psychology (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 2003).

Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory illustrates that learning is a process influenced by observation and experience. Direct as well as vicarious experiences shape learning and future behaviour such that the observation of behaviour, the consequences associated with that behaviour and then modelling of that behaviour will result in increased learning (Bhagat & Prien, 1996; Black & Mendenhall, 1990a).

In applying the tenets of social cognitive theory to expatriate CCT, individuals observe appropriate and inappropriate host country behaviour. By observing these behaviours in a structured environment, the expatriate can base his or her own behaviour on these models. Thus, the expatriate would have the skills necessary to interact appropriately in encounters in the host country (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a). By observing models of appropriate behaviour, the expatriates would be better equipped to recognise model behaviour in the host country and would be more likely to reproduce that type of behaviour (Bhagat & Prien, 1996).

1.4.4 Conceptual descriptions

The following concepts and constructs were derived from an extensive literature review and are directly applicable to the research study.

a. Expatriate

Aycan and Kanungo (1997) define expatriates as employees who are sent by their organisation to a related subsidiary in a country which is different from their own, to accomplish job or organisational goals for a pre-designated temporary time period of usually more than six months and less than five years.

b. Culture

David and Terpstra (1985) defined culture as a learned, shared, compelling, interrelated set of symbols whose meaning provides a set of orientations for members of a society.

c. Acculturation

Rieger and Wong-Rieger (1991) define acculturation as the process by which group members from one cultural background adapt to the culture of a different group. In short, it refers to the level of adoption of the predominant culture by an outsider. The greater the acculturation, the more the language, customs, identity, attitudes and behaviours of the predominant culture are adopted.

d. Culture shock

Culture shock was initially conceptualised by Oberg (1960) as the consequence of strain and anxiety resulting from contact with a new culture and the feelings of helplessness and frustration resulting from loss of accustomed social rules and cultural cues.

e. Cross-cultural training (CCT)

CCT is defined as any procedure intended to increase an individual's ability to cope and work in a foreign environment (Tung, 1981). CCT can help expatriates learn about and adjust to their new environment in a foreign country.

f. Cross-cultural adjustment (CCA)

CCA refers to the degree of comfort, familiarity and ease that an individual feels, toward a new cultural environment (Takeuchi et al., 2002). The definition of cross-cultural adjustment also refers to the level of psychological comfort which one feels in a foreign

environment. Some researchers have also characterised adjustment as the extent of interaction with host nationals or participation in local activities (Black, 1988; Grove, 1990).

g. Cultural distance

Cultural distance is also known as culture toughness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985), or cultural novelty (Church, 1982) and refers to the cultural differences between the host culture and home culture.

h. Home country

Home country refers to an expatriate's country of origin. For the purposes of this study, this definition would be extended to refer to the country where the multinational corporation is headquartered.

i. Host country

The country where the expatriate lives and works for a designated period of time.

1.4.5 Central hypothesis

In conjunction with the research questions this study's central hypothesis was formulated as follows:

The cross-cultural training of German expatriates positively influences cross-cultural adjustment in South Africa.

1.5 MIXED RESEARCH METHODS

This study implemented a mixed method research design. Creswell (2014) defines mixed methods research as a methodology for conducting research that involves collecting, analysing, and integrating quantitative and qualitative research. The purpose is that both qualitative and quantitative research, in combination, provide a better understanding of a research problem or issue. Mixed methods provides a broader perspective to the main issues and ensures that the researcher is less likely to have pre-existing assumptions, thereby leading to greater validity. This study applied an exploratory sequential design (Creswell, 2014) in that data collection began, using qualitative analysis (focus groups). This data was subsequently used to develop an instrument (questionnaire) to collect data using quantitative analysis.

1.6 QUALITATIVE RESEARCH - RESEARCH DESIGN

The study initially used qualitative research. The main purpose of conducting this type of research was to give the researcher a clear vision on what to expect and collect valuable factual information to develop a structure, which provided the content for the survey analysis on CCT, so that the results were organised and presented in a manner that answers the research questions. In addition, qualitative research was used to explore views and experiences about specific topics and help gain valuable factual information. While surveys are a valuable research tool, the closed-ended questions limit the feedback gained from respondents. Focus group discussions supplement surveys by providing more in-depth information.

1.6.1 Research method

Two focus groups sessions were conducted at the start of the research process. There were three steps taken in conducting the focus group sessions. The first was the planning stage, whereby the interview content was established, questions were developed, participants were identified and invited, and an appropriate location for the sessions were organised. The second step involved the actual focus group sessions. And the final step involved compiling, analysing and synthesizing the data.

1.6.2 Research setting

The HR focus group session took place in a conference room to ensure that there were no distractions or interruptions during the interview. The former expatriates focus group session took place in a location outside the organisation to ensure anonymity and privacy.

1.6.3 Getting access

The first focus group discussion was conducted with the human resource department of the participating organisation, to collect detailed information and help the researcher gain a better understanding of the organisation's CCT practices. Obtaining access to a HR focus group was uncomplicated due to the fact that the purpose was merely a communication of factual information. The senior manager of a subdivision of the human resource department, responsible for expatriate work assignments, asked three staff members to participate in the interview. Beforehand an email inviting participation and presenting information about the study was sent to the three respondents. The respondents have 5-10 years knowledge and experience in the international human resource field. Two of the respondents are directly involved in the selection and training process of expatriates and the third respondent manages the expatriation process on a daily basis, from contract agreement to repatriation, specifically for expatriates in SA.

The second focus group discussion (Appendix 2) was conducted with former expatriates to explore views and experiences of the adjustment process and to gain useful suggestions to assist future expatriates. Initially a pilot test was undertaken on five former expatriates to identify ambiguities and difficult questions, to ensure that replies can be interpreted in terms of the information that is required and determine potential practical problems. Thereafter former expatriates were invited via e-mail to attend the focus group. Information about the study, the objective of the focus group and the proposed agenda was explained in the invitation. Eight former expatriates who worked in South Africa between 2-4 years participated in the discussion that lasted 2 hours.

The emails to the participants in the focus groups contained background information about the study. It introduced the researcher and explained how the data will be used and assured confidentiality. Participation in the focus group session confirmed consent.

1.6.4 Sampling

Convenience sampling was used for both focus group sessions due to the accessibility and close proximity of the participants to the researcher.

1.6.5 Data collection methods

In preparation of the HR focus group session, a semi structured interview schedule was compiled to provide information that would achieve the research aims. The 10 questions for the focus group discussion were derived directly from the literature review on CCT and CCA. The employees were interviewed all at once in a focus group. The meeting started with an introduction. This entailed explaining the purpose of the meeting and giving the individuals some background on the topic being studied. The session took 1,5 hours.

For the focus group session with former expatriates, five questions were derived directly from the literature review on CCT and CCA. The meeting started with an introduction. This entailed explaining the purpose of the meeting and giving the individuals some background on the topic being studied. The session took two hours.

1.6.6 Recording and managing of data

During the HR focus group session, the researcher made notes on a flip chart during the session and subsequently a report was compiled summarising critical points. The report was sent back to the respondents as an e-mail attachment and the respondents were asked to correct and/or complement the content where necessary. In addition, some clarifying further questions were asked where necessary.

For the former expatriates focus group an independent professional moderator was used to conduct the focus group session. Independent professional moderators strive to be objective. They can produce more accurate information, as they do not have a stake in the findings and are not bound by organisational politics. The researcher took notes during this focus group session.

1.6.7 Data analysis and reporting

The information gathered from both focus group sessions were captured in Microsoft Excel. The moderator's flip chart and the researcher's notes were consolidated and summarised Using content analysis and depending on the frequency of a theme, all themes were categorised into major or minor categories. The categories were then scrutinized for relevance. Finally reports were written in bulleted style.

1.6.8 Reliability and validity

Although a focus group is not a reliable technique for determining point of view, it saves time, is cost effective and gives respondents an opportunity to support and expand on each other's knowledge in providing accurate information (Casey & Krueger, 2014). Moreover, the interview questions for the HR focus group session did not require the respondents' personal opinions and views. The answers relied on straightforward factual information. Reliability was also ensured by asking specific questions. It was also noted that the pilot test focus group provided similar answers in comparison to the main focus group.

To reduce interviewer bias and assure construct validity, a professional independent moderator was used. The participants in the focus group session were all former expatriates who worked in South Africa therefore they were true representatives of the sample population, thereby increasing validity.

1.7 QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH - RESEARCH DESIGN

The research design constitutes the guideline for the collection, measurement and analysis of data (Blumberg et al., 2014). The main research problem was addressed within the framework of a descriptive quantitative research, using a longitudinal research design to achieve the research objectives and to test the research hypothesis. The study employed a simple prospective panel design whereby data was collected from the same sample at two distinct time periods. German expatriates were studied with the main aim of describing the empirical relationship between the independent variable (cross-cultural training) and the dependent variable (cross-cultural adjustment).

1.7.1 Research variables

The independent variable in this research is cross-cultural training and the dependent variable is cross-cultural adjustment. The objective of the research was to evaluate whether the company's cross-cultural training (independent variable) facilitates expatriate cross-cultural adjustment (dependent variable) in South Africa.

1.7.2 Unit of analysis

The unit of investigation and analysis in this research is the individual. Due to the fact that the unit of analysis is the individual, all references made to him or her referred to the opposite gender as well unless otherwise specified. The results were aggregated to describe specific groups circumscribed by the unit of analysis.

1.7.3 Methods to ensure reliability and validity

1.7.3.1 Validity

In this study, theoretical validity was enhanced by ensuring a comprehensive literature review by making use of the most recent literature sources, as well as referring to a number of classical sources to establish a stable theoretical framework for the constructs under investigation. Through systematic literature searches, Chapter 2 and 3 provided operational definitions of the concepts 'cross-cultural training' and 'cross-cultural adjustment' and outlined their facets and dimensions and explored latest trends and developments.

In the empirical research, validity was ensured through the use of validated standardised measuring instruments. To enhance linguistic validity and avoid semantic errors, the survey instrument was developed in German and the German version of all standardised measurements were implemented. The developer provided all standardised measuring instruments. Data was scored and analysed using appropriate computer techniques and the statistics were processed using a computer package with the help of an expert. The results were interpreted according to standardised procedures and presented in a logical manner.

1.7.3.2 *Reliability*

Using existing literature sources, theories and models that other researchers have used, ensured reliability in the literature review. The measuring instrument was administered in a consistent fashion to a representative sample. Statistical tests that are congruent with the aims of the research were used to analyse the data. Cronbach's alpha was used to check for consistency.

1.8 **RESEARCH METHOD**

The research was conducted in two phases. Phase one consisted of the literature review and phase two was the empirical study.

Phase 1: Literature Review

The following steps were undertaken in this phase:

Step 1: CCT was conceptualised. An effective well-designed training programme was identified using training models, techniques and key aspects.

Step 2: Cross-cultural adjustment was conceptualised. Facets, phases and problems of adjustment were explored using relevant theories.

Step 3: The variables were integrated in order to establish a theoretical relationship between expatriate CCT and CCA.

Phase 2: Empirical Study

The following steps were undertaken in this phase:

Step 1: Population and Sample

The population for this study comprised of German expatriates employed by a multinational corporation who are currently on assignment in South Africa. Since the entire German expatriate population within the subsidiary is about 150 people, a total

population sample was chosen. To avoid unreliability of data, German expatriates who are home country nationals were researched. Other birth cultures could have interfered with research results. Furthermore not all expatriates attended the CCT training sessions. Therefore an initial email was sent to all 150 expatriates inviting them to participate in the survey, only if they participated in the training. The total sample in Phase 1 was 99 expatriates and in Phase 2 was 84 expatriates. In order to measure spousal/partner adjustment, expatriate spouses/partners were also studied. About 120 expatriates were accompanied by their spouses/partners.

Step 2: Measuring Instruments

A self-developed questionnaire was used to collect demographic information and information on the supplementary variables: English language proficiency, host country friends and previous overseas experience. To measure expatriate sociocultural adjustment, items were drawn from Black and Stephens 14-item scale (1989). Expatriate psychological adjustment was measured using the Psychological Well-Being Index (PGWBI) (Chassany et al., 2004). The Culture Shock Index (Mumford, 1998) was used to measure culture shock. The Cultural Novelty Scale (Black & Stephens, 1989) was used to measure cultural distance.

Due to a lack of a unifying theoretical framework for CCT and the extensive theoretical approaches guiding CCT programmes, there is no standardised scale to measure CCT. From evaluation of past literature, there is a general consensus that training techniques, content, duration, timing and rigour of training, are the main components encompassing a well-designed and effective cross-cultural training programme (Black et al., 1992). Furthermore, a semi structured focus group interview was conducted with the human resource department of the participating organisation; to ascertain what CCT practices are being implemented (Appendix 1). This led to the development of specific questions, which linked with the research objectives of this study. CCT was classified into nine training techniques and participants had to answer additional questions on training frequency, duration and effectiveness.

Step 3: Data collection

Due to the geographical distance between researcher and respondents and the high postal costs, a web-based survey was chosen as the data collection method. Questionnaire data was collected from each respondent on two time intervals; approximately six months (Phase 1) and one year (Phase 2) after assignment begin.

Step 4: Data processing

The Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 18 was used to capture and analyse the data. The statistical procedures relevant to this research include:

- mean
- frequency
- standard deviation
- analysis of variance
- Cronbach's alpha
- Pearson's correlation coefficient
- t-test
- Tukey Kramer post hoc test

Step 5: The following hypotheses were formulated in order to achieve the study's aims:

H1a: Cross-cultural training positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H1b: Cross-cultural training positively influences psychological well-being.

H1c: Cross-cultural training negatively influences culture shock.

H2a: Language proficiency positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H2b: Language proficiency positively influences psychological well-being.

H2c: Language proficiency negatively influences culture shock.

H3a: Host country friendships positively influence sociocultural adjustment.

H3b: Host country friendships positively influence psychological well-being.

H3c: Host country friendships negatively influences culture shock.

H4a: Previous overseas experience positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H4b: Previous overseas experience positively influences psychological well-being.

H4c: Previous overseas experience negatively influences culture shock.

H5a: Cultural distance negatively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H5b: Cultural distance negatively influences psychological well-being.

H5c: Cultural distance positively influences culture shock.

H6a: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H6b: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences psychological well-being.

H6c: Spousal/Partner adjustment negatively influences culture shock.

Step 6: Results

The research results were presented in a systematic manner in the form of tables and graphs. The statistical results were used to accept or reject the hypotheses.

Phase 3: Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

a) Conclusions

Conclusions were drawn in context with the research aims of the study. Information gathered from the literature review was used to interpret the results of the empirical study indicating what the findings mean within the study.

b) Limitations

Limitations that influenced the success of the study were explained. These limitations refer to the time constraints, the sample, the methodological procedures chosen and delimitations of the study.

c) Recommendations

Recommendations were made to the organisation regarding CCT. Based on the findings in the empirical study and the literature review, recommendations for future research were made regarding the expatriate family, measuring CCT and qualitative research.

1.9 CHAPTER LAYOUT

Chapter 1: Scientific orientation to the research

Chapter 2: Cross-cultural adjustment

Chapter 3: Cross-cultural training

Chapter 4: Empirical study

Chapter 5: Results

Chapter 6: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

1.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In Chapter 1, the background and the motivation behind this research was discussed. Focusing on the problem statement, general and specific research questions were outlined and the corresponding research aims of the study were defined. Relevant paradigms and theoretical models that provide the delimitations of the research were also presented. Finally, the research design defined the variables and the research methods that were used. This chapter concluded with a chapter layout. Chapter 2 provides an in-depth literature review of the construct cross-cultural adjustment.

2. CHAPTER TWO: CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

This chapter begins with an introduction to cross-cultural adjustment and then flows into a definition of the construct. Then the various theoretical foundations are discussed including alternate theoretical models that also shape current thinking about CCA. Thereafter the chapter reviews some of the variables influencing CCA.

2.1 INTRODUCTION

An international assignment involves the simultaneous adjustment to a new job, a foreign location and a new culture. Entering a new country and immersing into a new culture can be a confusing and disorienting experience as expatriates are presented with uncertainties, and ambiguities. Furthermore, they frequently discover that behaviours that were acceptable in their home country are not appropriate in the host country (Black & Gregersen, 1991b). Cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) is differentiated from other types of adjustment because it takes place in an unfamiliar environment (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1988). Expatriates working in a foreign environment with different political, cultural and economic conditions are confronted with both work and personal adjustment problems. The adjustment challenges faced during expatriate assignment differentiates it from domestic adjustment in both scope and complexity. Expatriates face a full range of cultural, personal, work and lifestyle changes. It could be a stressful experience to try to adjust to the new cultural environment and not every expatriate is successful at that.

Most expatriates initially do not know how to appropriately and effectively behave in the host culture (Selmer, 1999a). There is substantial evidence to indicate that many of the failures of expatriate assignments can be attributed to an inability to adjust to the foreign culture rather than to work-related difficulties (Caligiuri et al., 1998; Chu & Fukuda, 1994). CCA is often considered the key intervening factor leading to expatriate failure (Adler, 1997; Black & Mendenhall, 1990b). The 2012 Global Relocation Trends survey (Brookfield, 2012) showed that 33% of expatriates mentioned adjustment as the main reason for failure. And the 2014 Cartus survey confirmed that the expatriate family's inability to adjust and cross-cultural understanding were the two top reasons for assignment failure (Cartus, 2014).

A key reason for the return of expatriates before the official end of their foreign assignment is the uncertainty and frustration resulting from poor CCA (Garvey et al., 2004).

The increasingly global business environment has led to a greater need for research because it is important to explore the factors associated with success and failure in expatriate assignments. Many researchers consider CCA an important variable of study because of its effects on the performance and functioning of expatriates (Robie & Ryan, 1996), and because poor CCA is a common reason for premature termination of global assignments (Bross et al., 1998; Tung 1982). Furthermore, significant economic and social costs are associated with failed assignments due to adjustment problems (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b; Copeland & Griggs, 1985). The real cost of a failed expatriate assignment goes beyond monetary expenses (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b).

For this reason, it is vital to gain a better understanding of the CCA process in order to understand the causes of expatriate failure, and to uncover ways to both minimise and avoid it. Expatriate adjustment to the new role and environment is of great significance both to the organisation and to the expatriate. Research on expatriate adjustment has been building up since the 1970s, but the last decade has shown a burgeoning academic and practical interest in understanding and measuring the adjustment process and its antecedents. Various streams of thought in anthropology, social, and industrial and organisational psychology have guided the research in this area.

2.2 DEFINITION OF CCA

Adler (1975) viewed cultural adjustment as having a working knowledge of the language, customs and habits of the new culture. This definition deals with knowledge acquisition and cognitive interpretations of cross-cultural adjustment. Torbiörn (1982, p. 77) defines adjustment as an "individual's satisfaction with his situation in the host country". This definition relies heavily on the expatriate's perceptions. Grove and Torbiörn (1985) characterised adjustment by a social applicability of behaviour and by the successful attainment of desired goals. Based on the above definitions, CCA can be conceptualised as cognitive, behavioural, affective and psychological reactions of an expatriate experiencing an unfamiliar environment. Aspects of the unfamiliar environment include the host country's customs and culture, interactions with host country nationals (HCN), work, climate and location. Borrowing from Dawis and Lofquist (1984), Black (1988) developed the concept of expatriate adjustment by defining adjustment subjectively as

“the degree of comfort the incumbent feels in the new role” and objectively, as “the degree to which the person has mastered the role requirements and is able to demonstrate that adjustment via his or her performance” (p.278). The most quoted definition of cross-cultural adjustment was developed by Black et al. (1991). They defined cross-cultural adjustment as the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign culture, and the perceived degree of psychological and sociocultural comfort, and familiarity a person has with the new host culture. Adjustment can be interpreted in this definition as a state, which refers to the individual’s level of psychological comfort, and a process, which refers to adaptation to external demands of the foreign environment.

2.3 THEORETICAL APPROACHES TO CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

In the following section, various theoretical foundations of cross-cultural adjustment will be discussed.

2.3.1 U-curve theory

While many researchers have acknowledged variations in cross-cultural adjustment over time, there is some disagreement as to the precise pattern of change. Several stage theories have attempted to capture the dynamic nature of expatriate adjustment. In 1953, Sverre Lysgaard interviewed approximately 200 Norwegians on their experiences during their stay in the United States. This was the first empirical study to explore cultural adaptation and it concentrated on the relationship between different phases of adjustment and adjustment as a time process (Lysgaard, 1955). By arbitrarily dividing respondents in three groups by length of stay: up to six months, between six to 18 months and more than 18 months; Lysgaard observed that adjustment as a process over time seemed to follow a U-shaped curve (Figure 2.1). He concluded from his study that people go through three phases: initial adjustment, crisis and regained adjustment (Lysgaard, 1955).

He indicated that the adjustment process starts with excitement about being abroad and seeing new things - *honeymoon stage*. However, during this period, the person is not involved in any special friendship group. After some time, the excitement of the first stage loses its attraction when the need for more intimate personal contact and interaction with friendship groups becomes important. If this need is not satisfied, the individual might experience feelings of loneliness and depression – *culture shock stage*.

In time, however, foreigners may learn to resolve the adjustment difficulties they experience – *adjustment stage*. They may get involved with other individuals on a more intimate level, make friends, and have a satisfactory social life – *mastery stage* (Lysgaard, 1955).

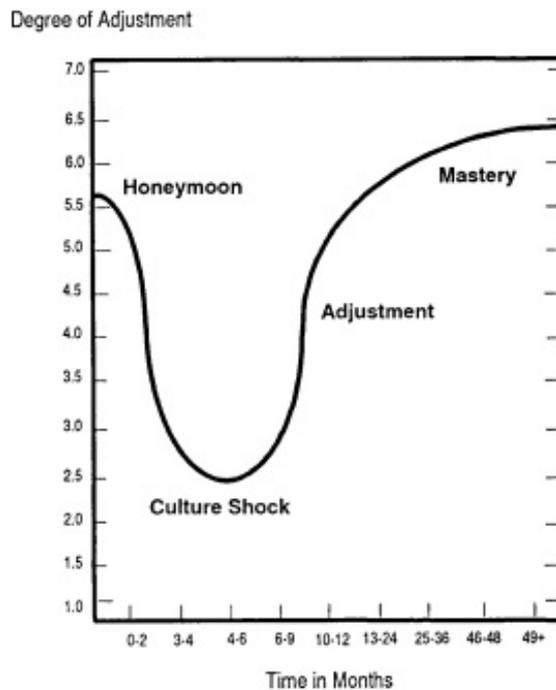


Figure 2.1 U-Curve Adjustment Process

Source: Black & Mendenhall (1990b, p. 227)

Empirical evidence regarding the U-curve is mixed, and the U-curve hypothesis has eluded theoretical formulation that would allow prediction with any kind of accuracy. Church (1982) has called into question the initial claim that the U-shaped adjustment curve refers to a genuine time process that every sojourner must be assumed to have passed through. Black and Mendenhall (1990b), in their review of the empirical literature, have pointed out that the results of some studies resembled a J-curve or continuously upward sloping track of adjustment. This indicates that many expatriates succeed at adjusting without going through a phase of culture shock first. In their review of the research, Black and Mendenhall (1990b) found that 12 out of 18 studies reviewed, provided some support for a U-shaped curve; however, many provided no statistical tests of the relationship between time and adjustment and a number had serious

methodological problems. They concluded that it is impossible to either accept or reject a U-shaped model of adjustment and that social learning processes may also be consistent with J-shaped or linear adjustment processes.

Bochner and Furnham (1986) have highlighted various weaknesses with the U curve, notably the vagueness of the definition and description – when is a U not a U? Among studies that have supported the U-curve, curves have been dramatically different in shape: some are tall, others are flat and all are fairly irregular (Bochner & Furnham, 1986). From their meta-analysis of research on the adjustment process, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Luk and Shaffer (2005) found merely three longitudinal studies of cultural adjustment over time. They argued that the data suggested a sideways 'S' curve. Caution must be used however in interpreting these results since the form of the curve is strongly influenced by two observation intervals (at 4 months and at 36 months) (Dyke, Friedman & Murphy, 2009). They conclude that although their curve is more distended and flatter, its general form is quite similar to the traditional U-shaped curve. They argue strongly that more longitudinal research on adjustment, particularly focussing on the early months of expatriate experience, is required in order to draw firm conclusions.

One methodological problem with the literature is that Lysgaard (1955) and subsequent researchers used a cross-sectional design to study a longitudinal process. One of the few studies (Kennedy, Kojima, Okura & Ward, 1998) that did employ a longitudinal design, suffered from a small sample size and focussed on Japanese students. Interestingly, though, the results clearly indicate that these students start their overseas stay with a moderate level of psychological distress, which provides no support for a U-shaped curve. Kealey (1989) also undertook one of the few longitudinal studies investigating the U-curve model. He found that only 10% of the sample provided data that supported the U-curve.

Several researchers (Berardo & La Brack, 2007; Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2004; Bochner & Furnham, 1986; Zapf, 1991) noted that the U-curve was seldom replicated in real life experiences. Neither was it useful as a predictor of the length, depth or even occurrence of culture shock. The model was not accurately descriptive, it failed to capture the unpredictability of the process, nor did it account for cases where the stages did not occur in that specific order, were frequently repeated, or were absent altogether (Kealey & Ruben, 1979; Torbiörn, 1982). Draine and Hall (2000) found that most people establish patterns for their adjustment in the first six months. Sappinen (1993) argues that the U-curve is a too simplistic description of the adjustment process. Different facets of adjustment influence the shape of the curve and the time frame of each stage could

fluctuate depending on a number of conditions including language acquisition, previous international experience, cross-cultural training and the ability of the family to adjust (Black et al., 1991; Copeland, 2004).

Thus far, existing empirical tests of the U-curve have been limited to sojourner or student samples in international settings; therefore the applicability of the U-curve theory to expatriates in an organisational setting is relatively unknown. The generalisability of the U-curve theory led Black and Mendenhall to expand on it in order to develop models specific to the expatriate adjustment process. Unfortunately the copious theorising about the U-curve shaped adjustment over time has not been matched by empirical support. Attempts to uncover this phenomenon have resulted in contradictory results. However, this perspective is influential in that it proposed the concept of culture shock. Nevertheless, the indicator of adjustment or overcoming culture shock is not clearly defined by this perspective.

2.3.2 CCA and social cognitive theory

It is apparent that the U-curve framework is a description of a process, rather than a theory explaining what causes progression from one adjustment phase to the next. Black and Mendenhall (1990b) theoretically revisited the U-curve theory and proposed that the social cognitive perspective should be used to explain how and why the U-curve happens. Social cognitive theory (SCT) rests on the premise that an individual's learning and behaviour is based on their observations and subsequent imitation of other peoples' behaviour. The pattern of incentives and motivation operating on an expatriate influences their attention to host country behaviours, retention in their memory and their ability to reproduce these behaviours (Bandura, 1977). Black and Mendenhall (1990) argue that a social cognitive perspective on the expatriate experience is consistent with a U-curve model of adjustment since time is required to identify inappropriate behaviour and learn from other culture models. Thus social learning processes may underlie a classic U-shaped adjustment curve.

A honeymoon stage initially prevails because expatriates superimpose any similarities between the home and host culture. But similar situations may require different behaviour, for example, in introductory greetings. As a result, expatriates may not have the ability to recognise the negative consequences of their own behaviour, or the host country cues as negative feedback (Harris & Moran, 1987). Ignorance of the appropriate feedback cues may mean that time is required, for expatriates to recognise negative

outcomes and feel forced to act on these negative elements. This is followed by a period of culture shock during which the need for learning becomes clear. Culture shock is arguably caused by a low utilisation of modelled and observed behaviours appropriate to the new culture. Accordingly, the adjustment stage occurs when longer exposure to the new environment allows for imitation of modelled behaviours and expatriates exhibit an increased ability to behave appropriately and receive positive reinforcement. This repetition in turn increases attention and retention of the appropriate behaviours. Increasing his ability to reproduce appropriate behaviours leads the expatriate to feel and be more adept in the host culture. A diminishing need for additional learning and adaptation is then reflected in the mastery stage. This does not imply assimilation to the host culture, rather, what is indicated, is effective culturally correct behaviour (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b).

Several studies conducted, used concepts from Bandura's (1977) work to understand the socialisation process. For example, a number of studies have demonstrated the role of self-efficacy as a direct, moderating, and mediating variable. Since adjustment is a dynamic concept, and involves the ability to adjust to novel and potentially stressful environments, a strong sense of self-efficacy regarding one's ability to handle stress should facilitate the adaptation process. Self-efficacy is conceptualised as the ability to believe in oneself and one's ability to deal effectively with foreign surroundings, even in the face of great uncertainty (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). In order to overcome stress, and adjust to a new culture, an individual must believe in his or her ability to do so. Considerable evidence suggests that overcoming stress is not only a function of one's ability, but also one's perception of confidence regarding that ability (Bandura, 1997; Bailey, Bandura & Wood, 1990). It has been proposed that individuals who believe in their ability to succeed would be able to use feedback more effectively to reduce the uncertainty as to what is expected and to correct their behaviour to correspond to those expectations (Black et al., 1991).

Bandura (1997) emphasises that self-efficacy ought to be viewed as a multidimensional belief system, with separate efficacy beliefs for different situations. That is, there will be different perceptions of capabilities for different activities or situations. Adjustment efficacy will also be composed of three factors: interaction efficacy, cultural efficacy and work efficacy. Interaction efficacy relates to one's confidence in their ability to adjust to interactions with host nationals. Cultural efficacy refers to an expatriate's confidence in adjusting to the culture in general. Work efficacy pertains to one's confidence in their ability to adjust to the new work environment.

Self-efficacy is an important outcome that pre-departure training of expatriates should target. In international assignments, expatriates are often exposed to situations in their new environments in which they are uncertain what behaviours are acceptable and what are not. The expatriate literature suggests that the reduction of uncertainty is the key to adjustment and better performance. Social cognitive theory as applied to an expatriate context, suggests that uncertainty is reduced because expatriates will learn appropriate behaviours through interaction with and observation of host country nationals. The authors that subscribe to the social cognitive framework believe that sufficient pre-departure training and preparation can achieve appropriate levels of adjustment. Pre-departure training informs expatriates about a new country and culture and provides expatriates with skills and appropriate behaviour patterns that will facilitate effective cross-cultural interaction by reducing misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviours (Bochner, 1982). As a result, expatriates should not only develop a set of behaviours and skills, but also have increased confidence levels with regard to their ability to interact with the host country nationals (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b).

Swenson (1980) stated that social cognitive theory was generally viewed as a consensus position on most aspects of learning, and Bower and Hilgard, (1975) in their classic book on learning theories viewed social cognitive theory as a cogent synthesis of cognitive and behavioural theories of learning. Thus, SCT seems to be a reasonable theory to use in examining the cross-cultural learning process and the ideas associated with the U-curve hypothesis. Social cognitive theory could be used to explain the U-curve, and also why sometimes a U-curve pattern does not happen. SCT provides a theoretical framework within which the impact that each individual variable might have on a U-curve pattern of adjustment could be understood.

2.3.3 Culture shock theory

A perspective that is closely related to the U-curve theory of adjustment is Oberg's (1960/2006) four stage culture shock theory. Oberg used the term *culture shock* to describe feelings of helplessness and confusion people experience, that result from not knowing quite how to act as a result of the removal of familiar cues, while trying to adapt to a new and different environment. Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from "losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (Oberg, 1960/2006, p. 142). These signs include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves in daily life situations. To overcome culture shock, Oberg (1960/2006) maintains that sojourners move through several stages on the way to final adaptation.

The stages of cultural shock and its resolution have been differentiated in a variety of ways, typically emphasising four phases:

The honeymoon phase is the typical experience of people who enter other cultures for honeymoons, vacations, or brief trips. It is characterised by excitement, positive expectations, and interest in the new culture. Although there may be anxiety and stress, these tend to be interpreted positively. The individual ignores problems and divorces himself from the paramount reality of the host nation.

The crisis phase may emerge immediately upon arrival or be delayed. The individual begins to view the new surroundings in a less idealistic and more realistic way. It may start with a series of escalating problems, negative experiences, and reactions or a full-blown crisis. The individual experiences increasing disappointments, frustrations, impatience, and tension. A sense of lack of control of one's life may lead to depression, anger, and even a hostile and negative attitude towards the host nation. Excessive emotionality and fatigue may be accompanied by physical or psychosomatic illness. During this phase most assignments are at risk of failure as the increased involvement with the new culture brings the realisation that there are unsettling differences in interpersonal and work behaviour.

The recovery phase is seen as the turning point. During this stage the individual gains an understanding of and adjusts to the local culture or returns home (expatriate failure). In the context of this paper only the former option shall be closely analysed. One develops intercultural skills and begins to accept cultural values and norms with a positive attitude. The culture begins to make sense, and negative reactions and responses to the culture are reduced as one recognises that problems are due to the inability to understand, accept and adapt. A variety of adjustments will be achieved during individually unique adjustment phases. During the adjustment phase the problems do not end, but one develops a positive attitude toward meeting the challenge of resolving the issues necessary to function in the new culture.

The adaptation phase can best be described as one of integration. The individual accepts the new culture, feels integrated and even absorbs the habits of the new society. The individual is able to create meaning for situations, and differences are enjoyed and accepted, although there may be occasional instances of anxiety and strain. One realises that there are different ways to live and that no way is really better than another, just different. Effective adaptation will necessarily change the individual, leading to the

development of a dual cultural identity and the integration of new cultural aspects into one's previous self-concept.

Some people make a good recovery and rapidly adjust to the new environment, in others; the condition can become chronic and debilitating. A sense of loss or deprivation referring to the removal of friends, status, role and possessions, rejection of the new culture and feelings of helplessness as a result of not coping well in the new environment are some of the negative aspects of culture shock (Oberg, 1960/2006). However, it has been suggested that the symptoms associated with culture shock tend to become less salient over time as newcomers adjust cognitively, behaviourally and affectively to their new cultural surroundings (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b; Shaw, 1990).

Some of the main causes of culture shock are stress reactions, cognitive fatigue and role shock. A normal consequence of living in and adjusting to a new culture is the experience of stress caused by both physiological and psychological factors. Psychological states affect the body and its physiological reactions, which in turn increases feelings of stress, anxiety, depression and uneasiness. Cultural shock results in an increased concern with illness, a sense of feeling physically ill, a preoccupation with symptoms (Kohls, 1979; Rhinesmith, 1985). Another major aspect of culture shock and the resultant stress is cognitive fatigue (Guthrie, 1975), a consequence of an "information overload." Changes in social roles and interpersonal relations affect well-being and self-concept, resulting in "role shock" (Byrnes, 1966). There is a need to interpret new language meanings and new behavioural, contextual, and social communication.

A social cognitive theory approach that combines cognitive and behavioural strategies is well suited for successful management of cultural shock. To successfully overcome cultural shock, it is necessary to address a sequence of issues: pre-departure preparation, transition adjustments, personal and social relations, cultural and social interaction rules, conflict resolution and intercultural effectiveness skills. These are different points at which an individual, counsellor, or trainer can assist with interventions for more effective management and resolution of cultural shock (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b). Cultural adaptation requires understanding and manifesting behaviours that are understood in the host culture. One must accept the fact that the host culture and the behaviour of their members make sense and are logical, although the rules of logic differ from one's own culture. Understanding the culture from the participant's point of view helps to reduce stress and makes it easier to accept. Participation in the daily life of the host culture is essential for cultural adjustment and adaptation.

Oberg's culture shock model merely describes the phases of culture shock without providing reasons why culture shock happens, which criteria lead to it and how it can be prevented or overcome. The model cannot be universally accepted because not every individual that goes abroad traverses every phase of the U-curve. On the one hand, not all cultural conflicts can actually be solved and on the other hand, there can be conflict-free confrontations with a foreign culture (Wagner, 1996), especially when having had an intercultural experience beforehand. "The intensity of these reactions often depends upon the motivation and prior expectations of the expatriates and their family to go abroad, the amount of cultural distance between the home and host countries, and the degree of uncertainty in work or daily living activities" (Barsoux & Schneider, 2003, p. 188).

Others have applied Oberg's framework more broadly to include "culture fatigue" (Guthrie, 1975), "role shock" (Byrnes, 1966) and "language shock" (Smalley, 1963). Each of these early definitions has conveyed the meaning of culture shock as a reactive state of specific pathology. The negative connotation carried by the word 'shock' in the description of cross-cultural experiences is another point of contention for scholars (Löwe, 2002). The unknown can be an uncomfortable and at times terrifying experience. However, the use of the word 'shock' places too much emphasis on the threatening circumstances of contact with novel situations without acknowledging that such experiences may also have beneficial consequences for the participants.

Culture shock including its variety of symptoms and outcomes is a completely normal physical and psychological reaction to a foreign environment (Apfelthaler, 1999). It is a myth that experiencing culture shock is a weakness or a negative indication of future international success. Culture shock may be the best and only means to experience and understand foreign cultures (Wagner, 1996). The extent of adjustment does not depend on whether the negative symptoms of culture shock are experienced, but how they are coped with. By serving as a hint that something is wrong and thereby motivating thinking about how to adjust, it can lead to positive outcomes in the end (Guirdham, 1999, p. 277).

Besides seeing culture shock as a completely normal process there are approaches that find additional acculturative stress encourages faster and more effective acculturation (Guirdham, 1999). This view is supported by a study among Canadian expatriates in Africa that showed that those who experienced culture shock were most effective in the end. Expatriates who were most aware of themselves and their emotions experienced the most intense culture shock, but it was exactly because of this intense awareness of differences that they were also able to adapt more effectively later on (Marx, 1999).

Therefore culture shock should no longer be seen as a negative and frustrating process but as a beneficial encounter in the international adaptation process (Marx, 1999).

The discussion on the reaction to culture shock is useful to explain possible stages that an individual moves through in order to show adaptation to a new environment. Following some form of rejection, the individual will adapt to the new culture, and learn to live with it. Some people will show a more profound adaptation than others. While it can generally be said, that most people are able to adjust, Kim (2001) points out that certain individuals, although in the minority, may strongly resist such internal change. To get through the culture shock phase could be very difficult for many individuals. Some of them adopt an extremely hostile and critical attitude towards host nationals, while others prematurely return home. Both disputing the host culture and looking down on its members as well as taking flight, or only interacting with members of one's own culture are dysfunctional approaches to adaptation. The most successful way to cope is to try to be flexible. This means adjusting behaviour to the situation by first observing the way things are done in the culture, keeping in mind that all members of the host culture do not behave in the same way (Guirdham, 1999).

In Adler's (1975) examination of the transitional experience, he stated that, "Although culture shock is most often associated with negative consequences, it can be an important aspect of cultural learning, self-development, and personal growth" (p. 14). Adler expressed that even though stress and anxiety interfere with adaptation to the new and changed environment, these sensations are key factors in the development of adaptive behaviour. "Transitional experiences can be the source of higher levels of personal development" (Adler, 1975, p. 14). Adler, who provided an alternate view to cultural adjustment, reflecting a movement from low cultural awareness to high cultural awareness, developed a five stage theory of culture shock: contact, disintegration, reintegration, autonomy and reciprocal interdependence.

Adler's theory was based on Oberg's work but emphasises the positive consequences of each stage. His approach describes culture shock as a five stage educational and developmental process in a more neutral rather than negative way (Adler, 1975).

2.3.4 Black's adjustment dimensions

Borrowing from Nicholson (1984) and Dawis and Lofquist (1984), Black (1988) argued that the degree of CCA should be treated as a multidimensional concept, rather than a unitary phenomenon as was the previous dominating approaches by Lysgaard, and Oberg. The Black et al. (1991) model of expatriate CCA stemmed from Black's earlier work (1988). Black's original model consisted of two facets of adjustment, work adjustment and general adjustment. Later, a third facet, interaction adjustment, was added.

Work adjustment is described as the level at which employees are adjusted to their job tasks, work roles and work environment, as well as the level at which they are able to perform within the work environment. Work adjustment refers to the degree of comfort regarding performance standards, expectations and work values (Peltokorpi, 2008). Work adjustment indicators reflect the extent to which the expatriate successfully adjusts and adapts to work responsibilities and job requirements during the expatriate assignment. Because the general policies and procedures that exist at home office are likely to be the same at the foreign office, work adjustment is likely to be the least difficult (Black, 1988). Alternatively, the differences in corporate culture and national cultures between host and home countries may influence the tasks and responsibilities. In this case, work adjustment may be just as difficult for the expatriate to achieve, as are the other two facets of adjustment.

General adjustment encompasses those factors that affect the daily lifestyle of expatriates. General adjustment refers to the degree of comfort with regard to non-work factors associated with the foreign culture, such as food, housing, transportation and living conditions (Torbiörn, 1982). While general adjustment is not concerned with the working environment, due to a spill-over effect (Takeuchi et al., 2002), expatriates who are unadjusted to the general living conditions may perform poorly at work. *Interaction adjustment* involves the level of comfort that employees achieve in interacting with members of the host culture, more specifically with regard to different communication and interpersonal styles used in the host culture (Black, 1990).

Although these adjustment variables might not be completely independent, the factors predicting these different dimensions of adjustment often differ. Furthermore, not all of the important predictive factors are expected to relate equally to the adjustment indicators. For example, a certain factor may influence work adjustment more than interaction

adjustment but may not have any influence on sociocultural adjustment. These three areas of adjustment, in combination, are important in determining the overall degree to which expatriates are able to adjust to their new foreign assignment and are consistent with the conceptualisations from the general adjustment literature (Aycan, 1997).

In their (Ronen, Roziner & Shimoni, 2005) study on predicting expatriate adjustment, the findings clearly indicate that expatriate adjustment has three distinct and meaningful dimensions. Jaworski, Kraimer and Wayne (2001) confirmed the interrelationship between the three dimensions, and found that expatriates who are comfortable interacting with host nationals, also display high levels of general adjustment. McEvoy & Parker's (1993) examination of a model of intercultural adjustment, successfully replicated Black's three-dimension model. They found three distinct facets of expatriate adjustment that are worthy of independent study, and realised a need to focus attention on analysing those aspects of expatriate adjustment that lead to early return from international assignments.

Although Black and colleagues' (1991) three-facet model of expatriate CCA has held up fairly well, the dimensions seem to be predicted by similar variables, leading one to conclude that there might not be three distinct factors. Furthermore, this model does not include psychological adjustment, which has been cited by many researchers to be a key component of CCA (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Luk & Shaffer, 2004; Kennedy & Ward, 1992; Searle & Ward, 1990). They argue that separating CCA into emotional/affective and behavioural domains is the best way for it to be measured.

2.3.5 Searle and Ward's model

Around the same time as Black et al. (1991), Searle and Ward (1990) also developed a CCA model. Their model includes psychological and sociological factors. The sociocultural dimension is similar to Black and colleagues' (1991) interaction adjustment and general adjustment factors. It differs from Black's (Black et al., 1991) model in that it includes a psychological adjustment factor. According to Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) psychological adjustment and sociocultural adjustment were found to be fundamental to expatriate success.

Psychological adjustment is the affective dimension of CCA and refers to individual's subjective well-being or satisfaction in their new environment (Searle & Ward, 1990). Kennedy and Ward (2001) argued that psychological adjustment can best be understood within a stress and coping framework adapted from theoretical approaches found in both

clinical and developmental psychology. It is operationalised by mood states, stress tolerance and general morale (Searle & Ward, 1990). This component of adjustment focuses on the maintenance of mental and physical well-being, self-satisfaction, contentment and comfort with the new environment after the initial perturbations that characterise culture shock have passed (Jome & Swagler, 2005).

Sociocultural adjustment reflects the ease with which an expatriate adapts to the new environment. Kennedy and Ward (1993) described sociocultural adjustment to be “the ability to ‘fit in’ or negotiate interactive aspects of the host culture” (p. 131) in becoming full participants in society and acquiring the skills required to manage everyday situations. This component of adjustment focuses on the individual’s ability to function within their new cultural milieu by learning to understand the social and cultural environment of the host country (Jome & Swagler, 2005). Theoretically, it is based on social cognitive theory and highlights social behaviour and practical social skills underlying attitudinal factors (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b).

Although different perspectives view the expatriate experience from different angles, there is a general consensus among them that expatriation is a stressful event and that adjustment is needed to reduce stress. Furthermore, as reports on expatriate overseas adjustment demonstrate, it is obvious that a main cause of cross-cultural assignment failure is the stress and uncertainty experienced by the expatriate (Forster, 1997). Several studies have also found that the ability to deal with stress is an important individual factor that influences CCA (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Aycan, 1997; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Logically, if expatriation were a stressful event, adjustment to it would be indicated by a reduction in stress or higher levels of psychological well-being. Therefore psychological well-being is an important indicator of expatriate adjustment.

Given the influence of emotions on functioning and functioning on emotions, a degree of conceptual and statistical overlap of the constructs necessarily occurs, that is, each form of adjustment is somewhat related to the other. However, these constructs are also distinct. Berry (1997) noted that psychological and sociocultural adjustments have different time courses and different predictors.

Psychological adjustment is more variable over time and predicted by personality variables and social support, whereas sociocultural adjustment improves linearly over time and is predicted by cultural knowledge, degree of contact, and inter-group attitudes. Ward and colleagues (Kennedy & Ward, 1994; Rana-Deuba & Ward, 1999) found that

psychological adjustment was related to identification with the original culture, whereas sociocultural adjustment was related to affiliation with the host culture. Thus, although these two forms of adjustment are somewhat related to one another, the distinction between them is important (Jome & Swagler, 2005).

2.3.6 Mendenhall and Oddou's personality profiles

The need for more appropriate selection procedures for expatriates on international assignments led Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) to outline four personality dimensions that positively relate to expatriate CCA. The *self-oriented* dimension refers to the expatriate's self-confidence, mental health and his ability to reduce stress. The *others-oriented* dimension involves the degree to which the expatriate effectively interacts with the host nationals. Communicating and establishing close relationships with host nationals emerged as an important factor in successful overseas adjustment. The *perceptual* dimension refers to the ability of the expatriate to understand why host nationals behave the way they do. A well-adjusted expatriate displays the ability to make correct attributions, perceive cultural differences and be non-judgemental in interpreting host national behaviour. The *cultural-toughness* dimension emphasises that some cultures are more difficult to adapt to than others. How well an expatriate adjusts, also seems to be related to the country of origin.

2.3.7 Black, Mendenhall and Oddou

In an attempt to integrate theoretical perspectives, Black et al. (1991) differentiated the adjustment process into anticipatory and in-country components. Anticipatory adjustment is determined by factors prior to departure that have been found to have an impact on the adjustment process, such as accurate expectations of the new culture and job which are based on previous international work experience, selection mechanisms and pre-departure training. Individual anticipatory factors include the extent and relevance of pre-departure training, the existence and similarity of previous international experience, and whether or not prior to departure, managers had accurate expectations regarding the expatriate experience (Andreason, 2008).

Expatriates who are selected using a multi-faceted selection criterion will be better adjusted than employees who are selected using fewer criteria. Selection criteria often based on technical skills, ability to adapt to other cultures, and family issues are more effective (Collings & Scullion, 2006). Eschbach et al. (2001) demonstrated that

expatriates who received CCT had a better level of interaction adjustment and higher levels of skill development.

The proper level of anticipatory adjustment facilitates the second major component: in-country adjustment, which refers to adjustment after arrival in the host country. In-country adjustment is determined by four main factors. *Individual factors* include self-efficacy, relational and perception skills. A meta-analysis of the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment undertaken by Beehr, Christiansen and Hechanova (2003), exhibited that self-efficacy and belief in one's competencies was correlated to all three facets of adjustment. Individuals, who believe in themselves, interact easier with host nationals and can distinguish between appropriate and inappropriate behaviour, and will adjust easier in the host country (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). *Job related* variables like role clarity and role discretion are positively associated with international adjustment. Variables related to the *organisation's culture* such as social support from co-workers and logistical help from the parent company in the form of compensation and benefits and even support regarding housing, schooling etc. can significantly aid in adjustment, by making critical resources available to the expatriate at times of necessity (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Findings from Cramer, Dennis and Stroh's study (1994) clearly suggest that MNCs can have a positive impact on expatriate adjustment, by directing more attention to human resource policies, career development and spousal assistance. *Non-work* factors including the cultural toughness of the new environment and spousal adjustment also affect expatriate adjustment. The greater the culture distance, the higher the uncertainty and the more difficult it is for the expatriate to adjust (Cramer et al., 1994). The negative influence of cultural distance was also confirmed by Peltokorpi (2008), however he only found partial support for Black and colleague's (Black et al., 1991) adjustment components.

The conceptual model of Black, Mendenhall and Oddou has been verified empirically by the work of Gilley, Harrison and Shaffer (1999). They then expanded the adjustment model to incorporate a positional factor. Gilley and colleagues found that the expatriate's hierarchical level in the organisation, the functional area in which they work and their national origin moderated some of the relationships with other adjustment factors.

Despite their strong results, Gilley and colleagues (1999) suggest that their findings are tenuous due to their use of a cross-sectional survey design to study a process occurring over time. Researchers (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison & Shaffer, 2004; Gilley et al., 1999)

argue for a more complex reformulation of the adjustment process based on longitudinal research.

2.4 ALTERNATE THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS

In the following section some alternate theories that also shape current thinking about CCA will be discussed. What makes these theories so robust is that they still inform some of the core ideas in expatriate adjustment and share common ideas. They provide alternate workable frameworks for studying the uncertainty and unstable environments encountered in international expatriate experience.

2.4.1 Sensemaking in expatriate adjustment

The sense making literature picks up the aforementioned ideas by adopting a neutral 'salutogenic' instead of a negative 'pathogenic' approach to interpreting the expatriation process. In their review, Black et al. (1991) have noted the relevance of the concept of sensemaking. The sensemaking model offers an alternative to the linear theoretical models that have been applied to expatriation theory.

According to Louis (1980) and Weick (1995), sensemaking refers to a social cognitive process that unfolds during an individual's attempt at adjustment to an unfamiliar environment. Sensemaking theorists consider that human beings act on the basis of programmed scripts, which serve as predictions about future events. In new situations they draw on those scripts as a resource to determine action. Occasionally, a new situation will not conform to their programmed scripts based on past experience, resulting in unmet expectations. An encounter with a novel cultural situation where the sense of belonging is unclear is likely to cause a sense of disorientation, characteristic of Oberg's (1960/2006) culture shock phenomenon. This is what is called surprise. Discrepant events trigger a need for interpretation, and meaning is attributed to surprises (Louis, 1980). Sensemaking is the process whereby conscious rational thought is used to re-analyse and bring order to this confusion and surprise.

The disorder and complexity of the adjustment process is accepted as normal. Expatriate experience is an ongoing task of establishing meaningful interpretation. Sensemaking is a social process whereby rational thought is used to impute meaning to surprises, rather than attempting to reduce or avoid surprise by the use of anticipatory preparation and training. The sensemaking theory suggests that 'anticipatory adjustment' is unlikely to be

possible, as it is in the nature of the sensemaking process to be retrospective (Louis, 1980). The cognitive approach to socialisation, in which newcomers attempt to make sense of the surprises they encounter during socialisation, has driven much of the research on information seeking and acquisition.

Sensemaking can be viewed, as a recurring cycle comprised of a sequence of events occurring over time. Using the sensemaking model, the expatriate can be seen to be continually reassessing their circumstances in the face of new experiences. According to Louis (1980), a number of personal and situational resources are drawn upon, for an individual to make sense of uncertain or ambiguous situations experienced in the host country. These resources that play a part in the process of sensemaking are: past experiences, personal dispositions, local interpretation schemes and the influence of others.

Two elements are proposed that may influence the process of sensemaking: sense of coherence and sociocultural brokerage. Sense of coherence integrates personal characteristics and past experience inputs, and sociocultural brokerage integrates the influence of others and local interpretation schemes. Sense of coherence is similar to personal characteristics previously addressed in adjustment theory. Expatriates respond to a breakdown in controlled, predictable environments while on assignment in different ways. But what brings about such different responses? Why does one expatriate experience a situation as a threat, and another as a challenge? Louis (1980) argues that the individuals general personal characteristics and their past experiences with similar situations and surprises have an impact on their coping styles with current situations.

Sociocultural brokerage focuses on how others influence and help individuals interpret their perceived world. To complement the contribution of sense of coherence, sociocultural brokerage is an equally dynamic and adaptable element in the sensemaking model. It rests heavily on the social aspects of communication and support and involves, host nationals, fellow expatriates and host country work colleagues. Aryee and Stone (1996) recommend co-worker support, an introduction of a 'buddy' system as a means of socialising newly arrived expatriates. Bolino and Feldman (1999) found that informal mentoring in expatriation could contribute to satisfaction on assignments.

Access to social relationships and networks were also emphasised in Briody and Chrisman's study of General Motor's families (1991). Osland (1995, p. 48) talks about a "magical friend" that provides expatriates with the moral support and guidance they need

to survive the trials and obstacles of adjustment. The terms 'culture broker' and 'social broker' (Long & Roberts, 1984) are coalesced to represent change agents who bridge cultural gaps and place people in touch with each other directly or indirectly. People who adopt a brokerage role may accelerate the sensemaking process.

They may intervene and help an expatriate make sense of an event that has just unfolded. This helps the expatriate to find meaning in the surprise, rather than attempting to avoid or reduce surprise by the use of anticipatory preparation and training (Louis, 1980). CCT and relocation assistance is a form of brokerage. It fulfils the roles of local interpretation schemes and influence of others. One could argue here that CCT could also add to anticipatory preparation by forming expectations and reducing uncertainty.

2.4.2 Uncertainty reduction theory

This theory is important to consider since, according to Black et al. (1991), when an expatriate leaves his familiar environment, current behaviours and routines are disrupted, creating psychological uncertainty. This confusion evokes a desire to reduce the uncertainty inherent in the new situation by adopting new behaviours that might be required. Various factors that increase or decrease uncertainty, can also prompt an increase or decrease in culture shock.

Uncertainty reduction theory (URT) introduced by Berger and Calabrese (1975) stresses that when individuals experience uncertainty, they are motivated or driven to seek information to reduce their confusion. When individuals experience uncertainty (cognitive awareness) they are motivated (affective response) to communicate (behavioural response) to reduce uncertainty. Uncertainty reduction is believed by many to be one of the principle causal factors underlying an expatriate's intercultural adjustment experiences. URT has been employed in the cross-cultural literature and was extended by Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) and Gao and Gudykunst (1990) to explain expatriate adjustment. These researchers assume that newly arrived expatriates are not cognitively sure how to behave in their host country. Their uncertainty raises their levels of anxiety. To expand on this, Gudykunst and Hammer (1988) argue that reducing cognitive uncertainty and affective anxiety are independent of each other and that the two combined are necessary and sufficient conditions for expatriate adjustment. When uncertainty reduction and adjustment produce a fit between the expatriate and the foreign environment, adjustment is achieved (Black et al., 1991; Grove & Torbiörn, 1985).

Some scholars have suggested problems with URT. First, people do not experience uncertainty in every event or encounter. Predictable or easily understood situations will not result in significant levels of uncertainty. Next, individuals have different levels of tolerance for uncertainty (Kellerman & Reynolds, 1990). Thus, uncertainty may be intolerable for some individuals but be of no concern or positive for others. Thirdly, when a situation creates uncertainty, people may dismiss it as irrelevant and thereby create a tolerance for the uncertainty.

2.4.3 Cognitive dissonance theory

Cognitive dissonance theory is an additional theoretical perspective that may explain different types of adjustment as a result of different coping strategies utilised by expatriates. During international assignments, expatriates learn more about the appropriate behaviours in the host culture. However some of these new behaviours are bound to be different and sometimes inconsistent with the expatriates own (home) cultural values, attitudes, beliefs and norms (VABNs) and this leads to cognitive dissonance (Hassan, Maertz, & Magnusson, 2009). Different outcomes are likely to result depending on the type of coping that expatriates take on. In resolving these internal inconsistencies, the expatriate may change their own cognitive or behavioural patterns to be in line with the new requirements, add new patterns that reduce the perceived inconsistency and/or withdraw from the situation.

2.4.4 Stress-coping model

Based on the premise that living and working in a foreign culture can cause increased stress, a number of scholars (Bhattacharya & Koteswari, 2007; Caligiuri & Stahl, 2005; Krohne, 2004) have applied the stress-coping model to explain expatriate adjustment. Coping strategies are assumed to have two primary functions: managing the problem causing stress and governing emotions relating to those stressors. Theorists (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984) differentiate between two coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping. Problem-focused coping strategies are used to manage the person-environment fit and change the situation; whereas emotion-focused strategies are used to regulate the emotions that result from anxiety and stress. DeLongis and his colleagues (DeLongis, Folkman, Gruen & Lazarus, 1986; Folkman & Lazarus, 1984; Lazarus, 1980) have identified a variety of coping strategies within these two categories. They found that individuals use different coping strategies within different contexts. These include avoidance, seeking social support and confrontational coping.

An important feature of this framework is that coping strategies are independent of their outcomes. That is, coping refers to an individual's efforts to manage environmental demands regardless of the success of the effort (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984). Although coping strategies are self-initiated, they may be limited in availability or effectiveness by some aspect of the assignment context. The coping framework applied to expatriate assignments suggests that expatriates are able to access from a large repertoire of coping strategies to regulate stressful situations and be proactive agents of change. Selmer (1999b) studied the correlations between different measures of adjustment and coping strategies. Problem-focused strategies had a positive impact on international adjustment, while some symptom-focused strategies had a negative effect. More specifically, expatriate social interaction with host nationals produced a positive correlation with non-work adjustment, while fantasising about escaping back home (avoidance coping strategy) had a negative correlation with non-work adjustment, interaction adjustment and psychological adjustment. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) found that expatriates who substituted diversions from the home environment for hobbies and interests in the new location, adapted better to the host country. Interestingly, problem-focused strategies evoked sociocultural adjustment and symptom-focused strategies prompts psychological adjustment.

2.5 ANTECEDENTS TO CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

The central role expatriate adjustment plays in determining the degree of expatriate success makes identifying factors contributing to an expatriate's adjustment paramount. Successful expatriate assignments can be attributed to a variety of factors (Choi et al., 2012; Dejoux, Koveshnikov & Wechtler, 2014; Huff, Gresch & Song, 2014). These may range from individual abilities to organisational training programmes to host country culture to family issues. When formulating the proposed predictors of adjustment in an international assignment, a number of interrelationships among variables can be proposed. The factors determining cross-cultural adjustment can differ across cultures (Ali, Sanders & Van Der Zee, 2003). It can be proposed that the characteristics of the situation and the person affect adjustment. This study will review some of the variables influencing CCA, which have been repeatedly cited in research studies.

2.5.1 Personality

In an effort to distinguish successful expatriation, several researchers attempted to capture the so-called 'international personality' that possesses the appropriate global traits

and skills supporting an effective adjustment process (Brein & David, 1971; Church, 1982; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Research has identified core personality traits and competencies that can influence an expatriate's response to culture shock (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999; De Grijns, Van Der Zee & Van Oudenhoven, 2004). Key traits identified in the literature included flexibility, emotional stability, and interpersonal and communication skills. Several individual level factors are believed to influence CCA. These include such personality traits as tolerance for ambiguity and stress (Hammer & Stening, 1992), non-ethnocentrism (Black & Gregersen, 1991a), communication and interpersonal skills (Abe & Wiseman, 1983). Not only are such skills difficult to measure, but they also tend to vary across cultures.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) created a taxonomy of expatriate acculturation profiles based on their 1985 review of the acculturation literature. They believe that a taxonomy that links specific behavioural tendencies to probable level of overseas productivity would be a useful tool in validating the selection process of expatriate employees. This should help trainees to individualise the training programme according to the expatriates needs, track expatriate skill changes and analyse which areas of CCT had a positive impact. The taxonomy of expatriate acculturation styles categorise how expatriates with specific skill combinations will fare in terms of future acculturation. According to Caligiuri (2000a; 2000b), personality can affect the quality and quantity of social interactions, and consequently influence cross-cultural adjustment. A person who has access to daily interaction with fellow expatriates and hosts, but is not open to the interactions, will have lower CCA. Thus personality in relation to situational factors has an effect on expatriate CCA.

Personality researchers have proposed that there are five basic dimensions of personality: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness and neuroticism (Caligiuri, 2000a; Downes, Musinski & Varner, 2007). The five-factor approach to personality has received wide research attention in psychology literature (Clark & Watson, 1992; Cooper & DeNeve, 1998; Fujita & Lucas, 2000). In their work, Ali and colleagues (2003) found that all five dimensions of personality were the strongest predictors of all three spousal adjustment components.

Chi, Huang and Lawler (2005), found significant relationships between expatriate adjustment and only three personality traits. On the other hand, Lee and Sukoco (2008) claimed that personality influenced adjustment and not performance on the international assignment.

A theoretical perspective which explicates the moderating effect of personality traits on the relationship between host national contact and CCA is the contact hypothesis (Caligiuri, 2000b). This is based on the assertion that the more expatriates interact with host nationals, the more likely they are to learn the culturally appropriate norms and behaviours. But not all people benefit equally from interactions with people from a different culture. Contact with host nationals has a positive impact only when expatriates possess the respective personality orientation and are open to the relationship. Leiba-O'Sullivan (1999) distinguished between stable and dynamic cross-cultural competencies. She questions if all cross-cultural competencies can be acquired through training and is everyone equally cross-culturally trainable. Her work clarifies the distinction between competencies that are likely to be learned through training, and those that are not. She proposes that organisations need to select expatriates with a basic level of stable competencies and some dynamic competencies to reduce training expenditure.

More recent studies (Battour, Bhatti, Ismail & Sundram, 2014; Bakar, Halim & Mohamad, 2014; Levi-Nishri, Ornoy & Uziel, 2014) continue to show consistent positive findings when it comes to predicting an expatriate's adjustment to a foreign culture on the basis of personality traits. The success in proving a correlation between personality traits and intercultural competence can partly be explained by its stability across the life span and consistency in relation to age, gender or culture.

2.5.2 Prior international experience

Researchers suggest that prior international experience is positively related to adjustment (Aycan, 1997; Choi et al., 2012; Kabongo & Okpara, 2011; Seyedimany, 2014), whereas others suggest that these variables are unrelated (Black, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991a). In their well-reasoned and widely cited study, Black and Gregersen (1991a) suggest a possible reason for these inconsistent research findings. Specifically, they postulate that the relationship of prior international experience to present adjustment may depend on the similarity or distance of prior host countries to the current host country. Prior international experience in dissimilar countries may have little to do with an expatriate current adjustment experiences, by engendering misleading expectations.

Although there is inconsistency in the empirical findings relating to prior international experience, it is reasonable to assume that previous experience living overseas reduces culture shock and allows quicker and more complete adjustment, especially in the same country to which a person is currently assigned. Expatriates who had prior international

experience have already developed their own way of interacting with people from foreign cultures. Black (1988) discovered that previous international expatriate experience was related to work adjustment but not to general adjustment.

Torbiörn (1982) found that the length of previous overseas assignments had no relation to higher levels of adjustment. Exactly how previous international experience facilitates CCA or what factors inhibit or magnify the impact of previous experience has yet to be comprehensively determined by scholars in the field. For previous expatriate experience to become an adaptation facilitating force, it must have been a positive one (Haslberger, 2005). He stresses that the nature and quality of the previous experience may be important.

Church (1982) argued that a common premise is that previous expatriate experience in other cultures or prior exposure to the host culture should facilitate adjustment, although some culture shock may still occur. On the other hand, previous cultural exposure in other foreign locations or in the host country may serve to reinforce stereotypes and defences, which inhibit adjustment. Thus, the nature, quality, and similarity of the previous cultural experience may be more important than the quantitative amount of previous experience. Kabongo and Okbara dismissed this premise in their study (2011), in that, UK and US expatriates, irrespective of the nature of their previous overseas experience, showed a positive relationship to all three adjustment dimensions. Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall (1992) found that the relationship between previous experience and adjustment, however, is moderated by a further factor: the time gap between the previous and the present international assignment.

The basic rationale behind the value of the previous cross-cultural experience is that it increases familiarity with international settings in general (Aycan, 1997). It makes sense to assume that international experience allows a quicker and more complete adjustment. Previous knowledge of the host culture is considered to be another important individual factor that leads to successful adjustment (Black, 1988; Tung, 1987). Bürgi, Caligiuri, Lazarova, Phillips and Tarique (2001) stated that the more expatriates know about the host culture and experience, the more accurate their expectations and the better their adjustment to the host country.

Furthermore, Black (1988) proposed that previous work experience could provide the expatriates with information about work transition, thereby reducing uncertainty and increasing the predictability, which results in an increase in the individual's familiarity with the transition. Studies clearly demonstrate that previous work experience knowledge is a great source of support in work performance and adjustment (Chi, 2007).

Lepak, Takeuchi, Tesluk and Yun (2005) ascertained that the more international assignments an expatriate took, the easier the adjustment. They also posited that previous international experience aided expectation setting, adding that those who adjusted successfully previously were more likely to take a subsequent international assignment. On a similar note, Andreason (2003) and Selmer (2002) found that adjustment improved when a previous assignment had been in the same country. Contrastingly, Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison and Shaffer (2004) and Larson (2006) specified that experience with the process of adjustment to any new foreign location rather than to the same destination proved more effective. Expatriates themselves report that having previous cross-cultural experiences helps them in the process of adjustment in subsequent assignments (Brewster, 1991). In his study, Seyedimany (2014) found that previous experience helped academic expatriates to understand aspects of the foreign culture quicker. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) predicts that an individual, during previous cross-cultural experiences, acquires skills to cope with uncertainties through observation, modelling and reinforcement. Previous experiences also help in the formulation of realistic expectations as to the degree of difficulty one should expect. Realistic expectations as well as skills to cope with ambiguities, facilitate adjustment (Furnham & Weissman, 1987; Searle & Ward, 1990).

2.5.3 Social support

Intercultural adjustment research has also identified social support from family, spouse, host country nationals and fellow expatriates as a predictor of psychological well-being and social effectiveness (Bent & Williams, 1996; Forman & Moyerman, 1992; Kennedy & Ward, 1993). Social support networks ameliorate a variety of stressors (Cohen & Syme, 1985) and have direct application to the resolution of cultural shock and cross-cultural adaptation (Bochner & Furnham, 1986), through provision of tangible assistance and validation of self-worth through acceptance and assurance (Adelman, 1988). Although expatriates might be able to learn new relevant information from books or observation, previous research suggests that the most efficient way to obtain information may be through other individuals who are familiar with the culture.

Until recently, the role of host country employees in the adjustment process has only been theorised and not empirically tested. A few studies have, of late, examined the influence of HCNs on adjustment. Recently, Denisi and Toh (2007) highlighted two key socialising behaviours by HCNs in their model: providing role information and offering social support. First, expatriate newcomers need to learn what to expect, how to interpret various stimuli, and how to behave appropriately in their new role in the host country (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b; Bochner & Furnham, 1986). The environment is unfamiliar and informational resources the expatriate used to rely upon in the home country are no longer present. HCNs are most likely to possess the requisite knowledge and have the necessary links to important informational resources like health care and housing. Second, because expatriates are no longer in their familiar social environment where their network of friendships is readily available, they need to develop alternative sources of social support. Supportive friendships that provide, information, emotional reassurance, encouragement or help in dealing with stressful situations can help the newcomer deal with unexpected or unpleasant experiences (Nelson & Quick 1999). Even if help is not needed, the mere knowledge that support is available to them is often sufficient to help alleviate the newcomer's stress (Wills, 1991).

The friendship that HCNs extend to the expatriates has been found to help expatriates overcome the stressful period they face while going through the sensemaking phase of the adjustment process (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b). Their study (Gilley et al., 1999) provided empirical support for the proposition that HCN co-workers and on-site mentoring can help expatriates learn culturally appropriate norms and behaviours to effectively interact in the work environment. Studies find that increased interaction with HCNs increases performance, facilitates CCA and minimises intentions to terminate the assignment prematurely (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002; Gilley et al., 1999; Jaworski et al., 2001). Host country supervisors, co-workers and subordinates are possible sources of valuable job clarity and aid expatriates in understanding work expectations and attitudes in the new work environment (Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Peterson, Rodriguez & Smith, 2000). Some even suggest that the knowledge gained from HCNs cannot be substituted by formal training that the organisation may provide beforehand (Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001; Oddou, 2002).

Gençöz and Özlale's (2004) also confirm the impact of social orientation on psychological well-being. Upon arrival in the host country, expatriates experience a disruption in their previous social networks and their psychological well-being is threatened.

Oberg's (1960/2006) conceptualisation of culture shock also included a reaction to the sense of losing one's friends back home. The establishment of a social network in the host country positively predicts expatriate psychological well-being. Moreover, the study (Gençöz & Özlale, 2004) also confirmed that expatriates from different cultural backgrounds tend to form different types of networks and adjust differently. The number, variety and depth of social encounters with host nationals may be the most important yet complex variables related to expatriate adjustment. Expatriates with host country friendships adjusted more easily (Andreason, 2003; Apud, Johnson, Lenartowicz, 2006; Kanungo & Wang, 2004). Contradictory to the host country friendship findings, western expatriates working in China found working with locals increased stress as the cultures differed dramatically (Selmer, 1999b). This raises the question of the impact of cultural distance on the positive influence of social support networks on expatriate adjustment.

The ability to develop friendships with host-nationals is an important factor in successful overseas adjustment. Lee, Veasna & Wu (2013) found that those expatriates who received high social support achieved a high level of adjustment. Expatriates who frequently interact with host nationals are less surprised, and experience less cultural shock (Bell & Harrison, 1996). Therefore, establishing a relationship with host-nationals is positively related to adjustment. The friendship and mentorship provided by HCNs alleviated the stresses faced by expatriates (Bell & Harrison 1996; Bjorkman & Schaap 1994; Brewster & Suutari, 1998) and also differentiated between successful and unsuccessful expatriates (Osland, 1995). Expatriation studies hint at the importance of the HCNs. The attention given to HCNs has only recently begun (Mahajan & Toh, 2014; Lee et al., 2013) and hence, there is a dearth of studies that feature HCNs in expatriate adjustment models.

2.5.4 Language

Although language skills are an important factor in being able to understand another culture, it is also necessary in learning a wide range of nonverbal social interaction patterns and rules. Successful adaptation requires learning the host culture's styles of relating, communicating, reasoning, managing, and negotiating (Harzing & Zhang, 2016; Casse & Deol, 1985; Harris & Moran, 1987).

Knowledge of the host country language is essential for success in living and working in that country (Ashamalla, 1998). It will also help an expatriate feel less isolated and build the kind of teamwork needed to succeed overseas (Dolainski, 1997).

Host language skills will reduce misunderstanding and miscommunication. It helps in understanding the perspective of the people with whom one works and interacts with (Ashamalla, 1998). Language proficiency helps expatriates learn appropriate work values, which in turn enables them to behave appropriately in their work places (Takeuchi et al., 2002). In addition, due to the natural tendency of people to interact in their native language, expatriates can be either intentionally or unintentionally excluded from communication networks. Non-work-related adjustment can also be impeded by language problems. Language skills create and foster daily interactions with host nationals and help expatriates to understand the local culture (Dolainski, 1997). The more proficient expatriates are in the local language, the easier it is for them, for example, to get information, order food, or ask for directions.

Tran and Wang (2012) confirmed that language proficiency facilitates interaction adjustment, more especially in Asian countries and helps to learn appropriate cultural and work values. In examining the relationship between personality and social ties, De Pater and colleagues (De Pater, Johnson, Klein, Kristof-Brown & Van Vianen, 2003) found that language barriers could make it difficult for expatriates to form meaningful relationships with HCNs. If basic communication in a foreign language is difficult, it may be almost impossible to express feelings of isolation or loneliness. A lack of language skills has long been recognised as a major barrier to effective cross-cultural communication (Victor, 1992), yet many MNCs do not emphasise language fluency as an attribute for selection. Evidence indicates however, that language fluency in the host country facilitates expatriate adjustment by equipping individuals with more effective communication and perceptual skills (Imaizumi & Nicholson, 1993). Thus, the closer the interaction a person has with the host country nationals and the longer the assignment, the more in-depth the language training should be.

It has been argued, however, that language skills may be more important in some expatriate positions than in others. The Gilley et al. (1999) study found language fluency to be much more important for the interaction adjustment of technical expatriates than for managerial expatriates. This may be indicative of the highly specialised role of technicians in the transfer of knowledge to host country nationals. Smalley (1963) viewed language shock as one of the basic elements of culture shock because it is in the language domain where many of the cues to social relations lie. Other studies found a positive relationship between language proficiency and the amount of social interaction with host nationals (Masgoret, 2006; Selmer, 2006).

Haslberger (2005) found that language skills are positively related to cognitive and emotional adjustment and the perception of possessing sufficient language skills is positively related to cognitive and emotional adaptation. The Black and Stephens (1989) scale supports this in relation to communication, since language skills are important in interaction adjustment and is not applicable in adjustment to general conditions like climate.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) concluded that language skills are a means to create and foster interpersonal relationships and understanding of the dynamics of a new culture. A person cannot be effective in communicating unless fluent in the host country's language. For example, the more proficient one is in the host country's language, the easier it may be to obtain necessary information, such as asking for directions and using different means of transportation. Luring and Selmer (2015) found a strong correlation between host country language difficulty and sociocultural adjustment. Their study confirmed that language proficiency in a host country with a more difficult language, resulted in more positive sociocultural adjustment, Takeuchi et al. (2002) found that language proficiency was positively related to work adjustment but not to general or interaction adjustment. This could be attributed to the fact that outside work, one can get away with a basic command of the language. Oddou (1991) mentioned that ongoing language instruction was one of the proposals expatriates themselves made with regard to improving their international experience. KPMG, a global auditing and advisory company (2008) found that 70% of the companies surveyed offered language training as a standard policy.

2.5.5 Cultural distance

Living and working is less stressful in culturally similar countries than in culturally distant countries because expatriates are likely to adjust more easily to countries similar to their home country where they have spent most of their lives. Cultural similarity also allows for greater accuracy in expatriate ability to predict and explain host national behaviour. In contrast, the larger the cultural difference between the home and host countries, the more difficult it is for expatriates to identify with host country nationals and the less well-adjusted they are likely to be to their lives and work. Cultural distance or culture novelty is the extent to which the culture of the home country differs from that of the host country (Gudykunst & Nishida, 1984). Studies show that dissimilar cultures are more difficult to adjust to than familiar ones (Farooq & Pengiran 2015; Redmond, 2000).

Farooq and Pengiran studied expatriates from Australia, New Zealand, Britain and Asia, and ascertained that it was easier for expatriates to adjust when a low cultural distance was perceived. Expatriates on assignment in foreign countries must try to make sense of the new environment in order to function effectively. Adjustment to a different cultural context is a daily challenge for expatriates. The expatriate's perception of the cultural distance between the home and host country plays a major role in adjustment. Kang (2011) studied Korean expatriates in the US and established that the greater the expatriates perceived the difference between home and host culture, the lower the adjustment level.

Chiu, Selmer and Shenkar (2007) offered a proposition to the contrary, mentioning that it could be as difficult for expatriates to adjust to a similar as to a dissimilar host culture. The result supports the counterintuitive claims that degree of cultural similarity/dissimilarity may be irrelevant when determining expatriate adjustment. It is easier for expatriates assigned to culturally different host cultures to be aware of the dissimilarity, while those in cultures similar to their own often fail to identify any differences that do exist. In other words, the expatriate assigned to a location with a similar culture does not detect any cultural differences because he is not looking for them since they are not expected. Hence, ensuing problems that occur may be inappropriately attributed to other factors rather than to cultural differences. Since the expatriate from a similar culture expects that no modification of behaviour is necessary in the host location, minor differences in behaviour are seldom noted. Because of this, the expatriate may not acquire and retain new variants of behaviour, and thus will continue to exhibit inappropriate behaviours, no matter how significant (Chiu et al., 2007). Chiu and colleagues have argued that assigning expatriates to a country similar to their culture can be as much of a trying experience as sending them to a country with a very different culture. Expatriates in a similar culture to their own often fail to identify the differences that do exist. Selmer and Shiu (1999) found that perceived cultural similarity seemed to build up expectations of easy and quick adjustment, which could if it was not accomplished, result in frustration, resentment and withdrawal. The appropriateness of SCT for justifying the traditional proposition that the greater the cultural distance, the more difficult it would be for an expatriate to adjust in a foreign location may be cast in doubt. Social cognitive theory asserts that there is a tendency for expatriates to look for or superimpose familiarity in a new cultural context.

McEvoy and Parker's (1993) study shows that high culture distance had no significant influence on interaction adjustment. But high cultural distance was positively associated with general adjustment. Black and his colleagues provided a possible explanation for this counterintuitive finding. Black et al. (1991) discussed the outcome of anticipatory adjustment and speculated that improving the accuracy of expectations pertaining to that particular facet may facilitate each facet of adjustment. Most literature on expatriation details the differences in transportation, housing, food, etc. From this, expatriates can prepare in advance for the general adjustment to living conditions, possibly by lowering expectations or preparing ahead. At the same time, readily available literature on a country is much less likely to specify the difficulties that individuals will encounter in their jobs or in daily interaction with host nationals, and therefore expatriates may be less likely to anticipate and prepare for such difficulties.

Cultural distance is negatively related to emotional adjustment but not to cognitive adaptation (Haslberger, 2005). This indicates that a large culture distance may be an issue for expatriate well-being, but not for their confidence in knowing how to behave. Waxin (2004) found interestingly that antecedents that contributed to adjustment varied in nature and strength according to country of origin. For example, supervisory support helped Korean expatriates to adjust better, but not Scandinavians. These country-of-origin effects are consistent with Hofstede's (1991) work that different antecedents have different effects depending on culture of origin.

Chiu et al. (2007) also offered new insights into the concept of cultural distance. They compared the impact of reciprocal transfers between Germany and the USA on expatriate adjustment, and found that the impact of culture distance is also dependent on the direction of the assignment. US expatriates in Germany would not necessarily adjust in the same manner as German expatriates in the USA.

2.5.6 Organisational support

Expatriation is a stressful process, because it involves substantial changes in social and professional life. Successful adjustment also depends on the availability of transition resources necessary for comfortable adaptation in the new culture. Basic needs must be effectively met if one is to meet work requirements and address subsequent needs for social relations, and personal development. Housing, transportation, schooling, legal requirements for entry, work permits, are a few of the issues that need to be taken care of in the foreign assignment.

Organisational assistance reduces the time the expatriate has to spend on these issues. The more support and assistance provided by the company, the less stress and uncertainties experienced by the expatriate manager (Altman, Forster, Greenbury, Munton, 1993).

Kraimer et al. (2001) found that perceived organisational support was not only related to general and interaction adjustment but also to better performance on the job. This finding highlights the importance for organisations, in addition to direct support (CCT, compensation, benefits and packages), to provide family in-country support, arrival orientation, housing, schooling, language training, feedback talks, and social opportunities for the expatriates, in order to facilitate all three dimensions of adjustment and support the expatriate beyond the boundaries of the work environment. Mansor, Warokka and Yahya, (2012) examined organisational support and confirmed that increased organisational support strengthened organisational commitment. In the study by Gilley and colleagues (1999), logistical support and co-worker support were significant positive predictors of adjustment. They recommend that firms seeking to enhance the effectiveness of their expatriates should attempt to foster a supportive organisational culture. Punnett (1997) found that culture shock is influenced by the degree to which the expatriate perceives and experiences organisational support. If the expatriate believes that the selection criteria was fair, that he has received adequate amount of CCT, that the compensation package is sufficient and that the parent organisation will maintain contact during the assignment, then it is highly likely that the expatriate will perceive that the parent organisation is providing an appropriate level of support. Kawai and Strange (2014) found that expatriates felt more committed to the organisation and experienced a positive adjustment to the work dimension when they perceived organisational support at an expected level.

This prompts us to briefly discuss psychological contracts. A psychological contract differs from a legal contract in that it refers to mutual obligations and promises between the expatriate and the parent company (Chen & Chiu, 2009). A breach of this contract violates the expectations that emanate from the exchange agreement between the expatriate and the employer. Perceived violation of the psychological contract can result in dissatisfaction and early termination of the assignment.

2.6 EXPATRIATE FAMILY ADJUSTMENT

According to the Global Mobility Trends survey 2016 (Brookfield, 2016), almost 68% of expatriates are accompanied by their spouse and children. There have been frequent references in the expatriate adjustment literature that the spouse and children's CCA serves an important part in the success and failure of the international assignment (Black et al., 1991; Chu & Fukuda, 1994; Takeuchi et al., 2002; Tung, 1982). In the 2016 Brookfield Global Mobility Trends survey (Brookfield, 2016), 33% of expatriates attributed family adjustment as one of the main reasons for assignment failure. This behooves us to discuss expatriate family adjustment in the host country. For an international assignment, a family may need to learn a new language, adapt to different cultural norms and develop new social networks. Although these changes affect the entire family, past research has mainly focused on the CCA of expatriates.

The international relocation often has a greater impact on the family than on the expatriate. In the host country work environment, expatriates have a familiar job structure and a work life continuity, which largely reflects the home country, as well as a network of colleagues for support. The expatriate does not come into direct contact with the host culture on a daily basis. Expatriate spouses on the other hand experience disruption of their personal lives often leaving behind friends, relatives and meaningful activities. In the foreign assignment, the spouse generally becomes more immersed in the new culture. This means, therefore that cultural distance will have an even greater impact on the spouse than it does on the expatriate manager (Andreason, 2008). Heretofore few studies have looked at the expatriate adjustment process from the spouse's point of view, despite ample evidence indicating that the inability of the spouse to adjust may be a direct and indirect cause of premature expatriate returns (Black, 1988; Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1982). Despite evidence indicating that the spouse has more difficulty in interactions and general adjustment, companies appear reluctant to even include the spouse/partner in the interview and selection process, treating it merely in a peripheral way (Dowling & Welch, 2005).

Furthermore, existing research examining the importance of children on the successful completion of expatriate assignments is scarce. A global relocation poses extraordinary demands on children of all ages. These demands include making new friends, adjusting to a new school, and an overall disruption to their personal life. Children must learn a new culture, new language, and new replacement sports and hobbies. If expatriate children do not receive the necessary support, they could feel isolated and lonely.

One of the most problematic areas in global transitions for children is with respect to their education and re-establishing social networks (Chu & Fukuda, 1994).

Child psychologist Kate Berger (2011), committed to helping children adjust to foreign assignments, emphasised the importance of communication as a critical component during the transition process. Mendenhall and Oddou (1995) recommended that school age children be involved in the selection and training process. Barrett and Sonderegger (2004) examined the adjustment patterns of ethnically diverse children of migrants in Australia. They found that cultural background, gender and age determined the adjustment patterns of the children. De Leon and McPartlin (1995) carried out an empirical study on the adjustment of expatriate children in Hong Kong. They observed that adequate time to prepare for the relocation, participation in familiarisation activities resembling expatriate language and cross-cultural training, socialising with other expatriate children and emotional support from the family increased cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate children.

These adjustment suggestions are acknowledged by Pflüger, Pollock and Van Reken (2003) in their book on third culture kids. Ali (2003) examined how personality and family characteristics contributed to the intercultural adaptation of children. Expatriate children's personality characteristics influenced the adaptation process in the new environment. She also confirmed a significant relationship between the children's intercultural adaptation and their parent's work satisfaction.

Clearly the global assignment has a far-reaching impact on the development of expatriate children. Lam and Selmer (2004) found that expatriate children developed distinctive characteristics in terms of stronger family relationships, enjoying travelling to foreign places, acceptance of foreign languages, acceptance of cultural differences, and future orientation. Useem (2001) termed these children 'third country kids' (TKC). Since they were not in their own country, and could not be affiliated with the host country culture, they developed their own third 'international' culture.. These kids clearly reflect that international experience, a second language, open-mindedness and flexibility, respect for other cultures and tolerance of others' behaviour and views, all contributed to the perception of being international. The study implies that it is exactly these characteristics that could make TKC's the ideal future expatriate candidates (Lam and Selmer, 2004).

We know by now that family adjustment and more particularly spousal adjustment may be the key antecedents related to the expatriate's success on a global assignment.

Since family is a key component in the CCA process of the expatriate there is a greater need to build on existing literature focused on the family unit. A review of the literature revealed that there is a dearth of empirical research evidence on the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate families. Just a scattering (Bross et al., 1998; Creed, 2006) of studies has adopted theories from the domestic work/family literature to evaluate and obtain more depth in the issues surrounding expatriate families on global assignments. In the next section, leading family theories that relate to the family in an international context will be briefly reviewed.

2.7 FAMILY ADJUSTMENT THEORIES

This section discusses the main theories surrounding expatriate family adjustment.

2.7.1 Family system theory

The central premise of the family system theory (Minuchin, 1974) is that the family as a unit organises itself to carry out the challenges and tasks of daily life through family restructuring, family development and family adaptation. The family system theory identifies an overseas assignment as a transition that requires the expatriate family to restructure, develop and adapt in response to the demands of the new foreign environment (Caligiuri et al., 1998; Ivancevich, Konopaske & Robie, 2005). The theory also postulates that strong ties exist between expatriates, their partners, and their children, which in turn influence their cultural adjustment. Ali, Haaksma and Van der Zee's study (2007) confirmed that children from families exhibiting a higher family cohesion, displayed higher levels of adjustment. In other words, the attitudes of one member can influence the other members. If each family member is positive with regard to the global relocation, the family as a whole displays positive attitudes regarding the move (Fujii & Simeon, 2000). Given that one family member is able to positively or negatively influence the entire family's CCA, it is important to understand the various concerns and needs of specific family members.

2.7.2 ABCX and double ABCX model

Reuben Hill (1949) developed the ABCX model (Figure 1) detailing three factors: the stressor, the family's perception of that stressor and the family's existing resources that interact to predict the likelihood of a crisis occurring.

Sociologists McCubbin and Patterson (1983) developed the double ABCX model that adds coping mechanisms to explain how families recover from crisis. In an expatriation context, the international relocation is the main stressor consisting of a number of stress inducing processes like house hunting, schooling, establishing social networks. According to double ABCX theory, the family's perception of the stressor greatly influences how well the family copes with the stressful event. Perception can therefore impede or facilitate adjustment. If the family perceives the global relocation as a positive change, then the family demonstrates more positive coping behaviours like learning the host language and participating in social activities. These coping strategies, in turn, lead to a greater ability to adjust in the new environment. However, if the family perceives the global relocation negatively, then the family may not develop effective coping strategies which could lead to withdrawal and early return (Feldman & Tompson, 1993; Frame & Shehan, 1994). The theory also emphasises the fact that outcomes of potential stressful events are not only dependent upon the stressor itself, but also on the amount of family resources namely family cohesion and communication, to overcome the stressful event.

2.7.3 Spillover theory

The spillover phenomenon (Figure 1) asserts that an employee's experiences at home can affect his work performance and work experiences are carried over into the home (Crouter, 1984; Durup & Leiter, 1996; Gerris & Kinnunen, 1996; Keene & Reynolds, 2005). This theory can be used to describe how expatriate family adjustment can influence expatriate work performance (Bross et al., 1998). It examines the relationship between an expatriate's work and non-work domain and accentuates the interdependency of this relationship. During an international assignment both work and family domains are stressful because the physical and emotional demands may exceed an individual's coping resources. The line between home and work becomes blurred and the expatriate's affect at home influences his affect at work. This affect could be influenced by stress, family cross-cultural adjustment, family cohesion and support. This affect in turn influences how successfully the expatriate performs his duties on the job. Black et al. (1991) argue that family adjustment will influence all aspects of adjustment.

In their empirical studies, Black and Stephens (1989) and Shaffer (1996) involved expatriate spouses actively as informants and found that the adjustment of expatriate spouses is highly correlated to the adjustment of expatriates. The degree to which an expatriate's spouse and family adjust to living abroad will have a strong impact on the probability that the expatriate will stay for the duration of the assignment and on his cross-cultural adjustment while on assignment. It has been suggested that expatriates are more likely to complete their international assignment when their family shows positive adjustment to the new culture (Black & Stephens, 1989).

2.7.4 Circumplex model

The circumplex model (Figure 1) focuses on three main family resources that have repeatedly been considered highly relevant in a variety of family theory models and family therapy approaches: cohesion, flexibility and communication (Gorall & Olson, 2003; Olson, 2000). The model assumes that these resources are not only used to combat stressors but are themselves transformed in the stress process. It is hypothesised in the circumplex model that balanced-type families function more adequately and handle transitions, such as international relocation, more effectively than unbalanced types. Balanced-type families have high levels of cohesion and flexibility and are able to change levels more readily in order to meet challenges, than unbalanced type families (Gorall & Olson, 2003).

Creed (2006) found that family flexibility contributed to sociocultural adaptation in expatriate families. In their study, Caligiuri and colleagues (1998) confirmed that family cohesion was the strongest predictor of both quality of life and sociocultural adjustment. They stated that family cohesion may not only affect family members bonding positively but may also impact on expatriate kid's ability to establish and maintain friendships with other kids in the host country. As a result, expatriate kids from highly cohesive families seem to experience a high level of intercultural adjustment. Ali et al. (2007) adapted the circumplex model of family characteristics and established a correlation between expatriate work life, family cohesion and sociocultural adjustment of children. Supplementing this, they were able to confirm that personality characteristics strongly predicted CCA of expatriate children. Copeland and Norell (2002) assessed the role of social support on spousal adjustment. Spouses who exhibited higher levels of adjustment were part of highly cohesive families, were involved in the relocation decision and had adequate social support. Communication, family cohesion and emotional stability were found to be related to life satisfaction of expatriate spouses (Ali, 2003).

She also established that the strongest determinants of cultural adjustment of expatriate spouses were personality variables especially open-mindedness and emotional stability.

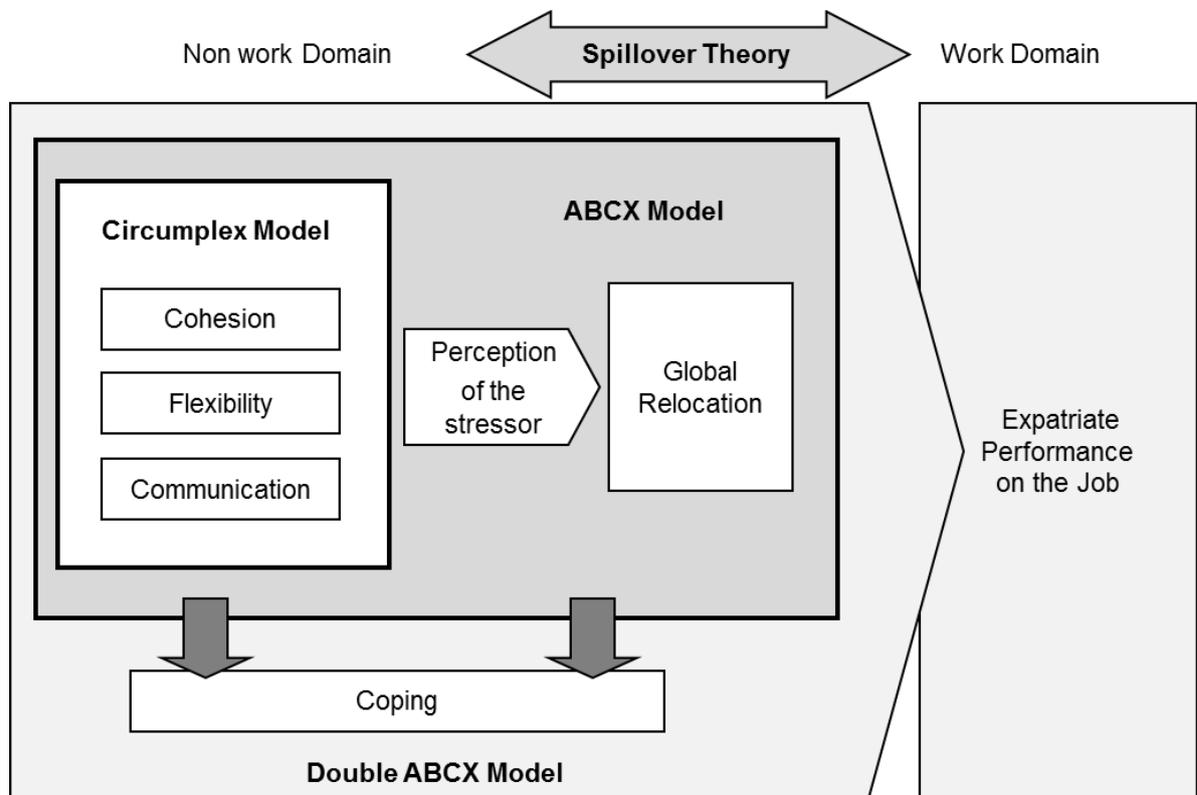


Figure 1.2 Integration of the Family Adjustment Models

Source: Caligiuri et al. (1998, p. 600)

2.8 ANTECEDENTS OF EXPATRIATE FAMILY ADJUSTMENT

Apart from those dimensions overtly stated by the aforementioned theories, there are other factors determining expatriate family adjustment that have been identified among the scant amount of research studies undertaken. Another interesting determinant of intercultural adaptation among expatriate spouses and children is support from the company (Fujiu & Simeon, 2000). Black and Gregersen (1991c) drew attention to several factors of relevance to expatriate spouses on a global assignment: the firm seeking their opinion regarding the overseas assignment, social support from host nationals and family, and self-initiated cross-cultural training. Certain organisational programmes can be extended to the expatriate's family. Pre-departure programmes could include CCT, language training and a visit to the host country prior to relocation.

Apart from expatriates, pre-departure intercultural training seems to be a helpful tool for spouses and children to adjust and adapt themselves to the host country (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2005). A study by Harrison and Shaffer (2001) revealed a significant correlation between language fluency and spousal adjustment. Ongoing support once the family is on the assignment would also be beneficial. Such in-country support could include an orientation programme, mentoring, helping families re-establish a social network. Support received from the company contributed to both psychological and sociocultural adjustment of expatriate spouses (De Cieri, Dowling & Taylor, 1991; Punnett, 1997).

Caligiuri et al. (1998) found that family characteristics of support and adaptability allow the expatriate family to transition across cultures easier. Harrison and Shaffer (2001) point out that in order to regain their self-concept, many spouses become members of host country organisations and clubs consisting of both host-country and non host-country nationals. The results of their study indicate that, except for the depth of support, each element of social network resources was important to at least one dimension of spousal adjustment. Harrison and Shaffer (2001, p. 251) further indicate that: "In contrast with the notion that retaining past identities associated with families is essential, it was found to be more important for spouses to establish new identities by building a new fabric of interpersonal relationships".

2.9 CONCLUSION

The expatriate cross-cultural adjustment literature has seen significant progression over the past decade. Earlier research literature has been criticised for its atheoretical approach. However more recently, comprehensive theoretical frameworks and insightful empirical research has emerged, explicating the process of adjustment. The implications of these research findings for international firms are significant. Studies that focus on the expatriate experience can contribute to the field of international business by providing a useful database for firms that have expatriates abroad. It is important that organisations recognise the impact a foreign cultural environment can have on expatriate performance and wellbeing and study the factors that facilitate or inhibit the expatriate acculturation process during an international assignment. By doing so, they may gain critical knowledge for influencing the outcome of international assignments and improving their international human resource policies and practices. Adjusting to a foreign assignment is critical to an expatriate's success in both his professional and personal life.

The foreign environment does not determine the adjustment process; the expatriate does through his reactions to the challenges. Coping with cultural differences, and recognising how and when these differences are relevant, is a constant challenge for the expatriate employee. Successful expatriates return from assignments with a greater understanding about international business and an appreciation of foreign cultures.

The vast majority of the existing literature on cross-cultural adjustment has failed to explicitly address the issue of whether the construct of adjustment has similar dimensions across cultures. It is logical to assume that expatriates from any culture should face the same issues when adjusting to a foreign culture. However, the importance of these issues and the degree to which they are interrelated may vary among cultures. Most studies have been undertaken from the perspectives of eastern or western business communities and are not comprehensive enough; therefore they can only be applied to a specific culture.

There appears to be a growing need for recognition of expatriate family members, and their importance in expatriate adjustment. MNC's should acknowledge the family dynamics inherent in an international transfer and include the expatriate's family in the planning and training phases and provide support during important phases in the relocation process. Work/family literature provides a means for assessment that accommodates the complexity of family CCA. By incorporating work/family theories and models, into their studies, researchers can offer more insight on expatriate family adjustment and the impact it has on the success of international work assignment.

2.10 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter presented a comparative examination of the existing literature and research on CCA. These were conceptualised by providing differing and supportive views and definitions by various researchers. Following this the variables influencing cross cultural adjustment were discussed. Chapter 3 provides an in-depth literature review of the construct cross-cultural training.

3. CHAPTER THREE: CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

This chapter begins with an introduction to cross-cultural training and defines the construct. The effectiveness, purpose and its acceptance in organisations are also reviewed. Thereafter various theoretical foundations and models are explored. The chapter then provides a theoretical link between the various models in the form of an integrated model. The importance of CCT to the expatriate family is emphasized and finally the theoretical relationship between CCA and CCT is confirmed.

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Depending on the country of assignment, the expatriate may be confronted with a culture much different from his own. These contrasts can extend beyond language, and encompass aspects of social life, political climate, and religious differences. Cross-cultural adjustment can be facilitated if the expatriate has an awareness of the norms and behaviours that are appropriate in the host country. The ability to adapt to new cultures is one of the most important elements of a successful international assignment. This is where cross-cultural training (CCT) plays a significant role. Many multinational corporations (MNCs) offer CCT to teach expatriates, to reside and work more effectively in a cross-cultural environment employing appropriate knowledge and communication strategies (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Littrell & Salas, 2005; Morris & Robie, 2001). Since the 1970's a plethora of literature has highlighted the vital importance of organisations providing comprehensive strategic, country specific programmes of preparation for expatriates. It is now widely accepted, by both academic researchers and human resource practitioners that CCT can help expatriates adapt to living and working in a foreign environment (Panaccio & Waxin, 2005).

3.2 DEFINITION OF CCT

Kealey and Protheroe (1996) define training 'in general' as any intervention aimed at increasing the knowledge and skills of individuals, so as to help them cope better personally, work more effectively with others and perform better professionally. Bhagat and Prien (1996) differentiate CCT from traditional training in that the focus is on attitudinal changes rather than on the acquisition of information. In comparison to traditional training and development programmes, which encompass the acquisition of new information, CCT is a process of expanding an expatriate's worldview to understand

and appreciate his own culture and the differences to other cultures. CCT has been defined as an educative process focused on promoting intercultural learning through the acquisition of behavioural, cognitive, and affective competencies required for effective interactions across diverse cultures (Brislin & Landis, 1996; Morris & Robie, 2001). This definition is not specific and could include CCT for work teams that are diverse in cultures. A definition which will be used in this study, incorporated Kealey and Protheroe (1996) and Tungs' (1981) definitions of CCT into "an organised educational experience with the objective of helping expatriates learn about, and therefore adjust to their new work and home in a foreign land."

3.3 EFFECTIVENESS OF CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

Numerous studies have addressed the question of whether cross-cultural training is effective in facilitating overseas adjustment and work performance of expatriates. However, evidence of its effectiveness remains inconclusive. While some studies have found positive influences of CCT (Bean, 2008; Bürgi et al., 2001; Ko & Yang, 2011; Selmer, 2001), other researchers observed no influence, or a negative impact of CCT on adjustment (Kittler et al., 2008; Selmer, 2005).

Black and Mendenhall (1990a), in the most comprehensive review of empirical studies to date, conducted a meta-analysis using 29 studies on CCT. The results revealed that CCT had a positive outcome on psychological well-being, self-confidence, interpersonal skills and cognitive skills. CCT also had a significant impact on skill development and expatriate performance. But only half of the studies used control groups, and six included a longitudinal design. Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl (2009) found beneficial effects of CCT on self-efficacy and on interaction and work adjustment. However, we should treat their results with some reservation, due to a once-off interview and a once off survey using a cross sectional design. They measured the effects of CCT on interaction, work and general adjustment of European and Korean expatriates in India. Although CCT facilitates all three forms of adjustment, its effect differed depending on the expatriate's country of origin. Interestingly, CCT had a positive effect on all three forms of adjustment for Koreans and only a significant effect on interaction adjustment for the French.

Hofstede's (1983) dimensions indicate that France has the shortest cultural distance with India. This further reinforces their findings that the larger the cultural distance between home country and host country, the more evident are the effects of CCT. Their studies also revealed that specific training techniques were more effective in the various facets of adjustment. They found that experiential training had a more positive effect on cross-cultural adjustment than conventional didactic training.

Between 2005 and 2007, a longitudinal study was commissioned by the Australian Department of Immigration and Citizenship to assess CCT among public sector employees. Results showed statistically insignificant improvements in understanding of the effects of one's own culture on oneself, awareness of the effects of cultural differences on interactions and confidence in dealing with people from different cultures (Bean, 2007). Among the strongest indicators of the perceived value of cross-cultural training was the participants' requisition for sufficient and more appropriate CCT and compulsory CCT for all employees.

Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) conducted a meta-analysis that integrated 21 studies. They assessed the effects of CCT on the effectiveness of adjustment, performance, perception skills, relationship skills and self-development. They found that CCT has a strong impact on skills development, adjustment and performance. Evidence from a more recent meta-analysis conducted by Morris and Robie (2001) showed the effectiveness of CCT somewhat weaker than the results obtained by Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992). Bürgi et al. (2001) proposed a theory of met expectations in assessing the effectiveness of CCT. Their study suggests that the more relevant the CCT, the more accurate the expectations of the expatriates, and this in turn, positively affects cross-cultural adjustment. The success of this method is heavily dependent on the content of the training programme and the type of training method. A CCT programme that lacked relevance would create false expectations, which in turn would negatively affect cross-cultural adjustment. Panaccio and Waxin (2005) applied the typology developed by Gudykunst and Hammer (1984), and assessed four training types. They found that experimental training interventions were more effective than conventional training.

However, research evidence for the effectiveness of cross-cultural training is still quite mixed, with some studies showing a larger variance in correlations between cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment and job performance. Kittler et al. (2008) found that the impact of CCT on adjustment was not convincingly supported by the data in their studies.

In further studies, Selmer (2005) and Panaccio and Waxin (2005) have highlighted the ambiguous relationship between pre-departure CCT and expatriate adjustment. In the same issue of *Personnel Review*, Panaccio and Waxin (2005) found that CCT accelerates expatriate adjustment whereas Selmer (2005) established that CCT had a weak positive association with work adjustment for expatriates in joint ventures but no correlation with work adjustment for Western managers in other types of operations. In contrast, the study by Eschbach et al. (2001) found cross-cultural training effective in reducing time required to adjust and achieve cultural proficiency. Hence their studies broadly support the effectiveness of cross-cultural training in improving expatriate efficiency. The literature review by Zakaria (2000) found substantial positive relationships between cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment.

While some research focussed on the existence and length of CCT, others concentrated on the content and method of CCT programmes delivered. (Forster, 2000; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005). One reason for these inconsistent findings may be that most studies had marked research design deficiencies. In their review of 29 studies on CCT Black and Mendenhall concluded that “the available empirical literature gives guarded support to the proposition that CCT has a positive impact on cross-cultural effectiveness” (1990a, p. 120). In describing these contradictory findings, Kealey and Protheroe concluded that “the field of cross-cultural research and training is therefore in the uncomfortable position of having a product which is acutely needed but still of unproven efficacy” (1996, p. 162).

3.4 CCT IN ORGANISATIONS

In the nineteen eighties and nineties, companies were ambivalent on the usefulness of CCT. Various reasons have been cited by organisations for the low use of CCT. The doubt about the effectiveness of such training programmes, the temporary nature of assignments, past dissatisfaction with training programmes on the part of the trainees, too short a time between selection and departure to expose the expatriate to in-depth acculturation training (Baumgarten, 1995; Katz & Seiffer, 1996; Welch, 1994). The main rationale for the lack of such training seems to be the assumption that “good management is good worldwide” (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). This generalisation suggests that if employees are effective in their own culture, then they will be effective in any foreign location. As a result, the company needs to provide no additional preparation or specific training.

An extensive review of the literature however, suggests that organisations are mistaken in their assumption that 'good management is good management worldwide'; in other words, that a good manager in the home country organisation will be a good manager in any subsidiary internationally, and in the belief that CCT is not necessary or effective (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a; Foster, 2013; Kayes & Yamazaki, 2004; Peng, 2010). Managers and scholars are increasingly disputing this view, because even the most capable managers have succumbed to situations in which they have had little or no experience. Good management skills are important but do not in themselves guarantee the future success of a manager when given an overseas assignment. Traditional managerial skills and knowledge do not make a global manager. Knowledge and skills in cross-cultural aspects need to be integrated with existing managerial skills (Boyatzis & Emmerling, 2012; Davy et al., 2014; Harris & Kumra, 2000; Peterson & Thomas, 2014). Empirical evaluation studies have shown that cross-cultural training programmes enhance an expatriate's job performance, adjustment to their new cultures and cross-cultural managerial skills (Black and Mendenhall, 1990a). Moreover, cross-cultural training has long been advocated as a means of facilitating adjustment to the foreign environment (Caligiuri, 2006; Ehnert et al., 2004; Kabongo & Okpara, 2011; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005). However, many studies have shown that in spite of the recommendations attained from academic research in reality very little preparation takes place and the training that does take place, is not very rigorous (Black et al., 1992).

Baker and Baliga (1985) found that only 25 percent of the largest U.S. multinational corporations provide extensive pre-departure orientation programmes. Expatriate training seemed to be more prevalent between the European and Japanese MNEs, with 69 percent of the European and 57 percent of the Japanese multinationals offering some form of training to their expatriates (Osman-Gani, 2000).

High percentages of foreign assignments that failed can be found in the academic literature. Studies show that 16-50 percent of US expatriates fail on their foreign assignment (Chew 2004; Dowling et al., 2008; Forster, 1997; Fujii & Simeon, 2000; Harrison & Shaffer, 1998). As mentioned in the chapter on CCA, the criterion for failure that will be used in this study, is the premature return of the expatriate to his home country before the assignment has been completed successfully. This is very costly for companies (Abbott, Atkins, Grant & Stening, 2006; Cole, 2011).

Palmer and Varner (2002) claim that a complete expatriate package including benefits and cost of living adjustments costs anywhere from \$300,000 to \$1 million annually which is probably the single largest expenditure most companies make on any one individual except for the CEO. This does not include non-financial costs including damaged company reputation, lost business opportunities and lost market share (Abbott et al., 2006).

Expatriate failure is still a persistent contemporary issue in IHRM and much effort is put into finding solutions to overcome it. However, research suggests that a substantial gap remains between individual training needs and the actual training offered by MNCs (Brewster & Harris, 1999b; Chew, 2004). Furthermore, most of the corporations who offer CCT programmes tend to limit their efforts to just a narrow briefing about the host country's sociopolitical, economic, cultural and general living conditions and the provision of language courses. All too often expatriates are expected to take responsibility for their own training and preparation.

Lack of empirical verified data, on the way expatriates are prepared for foreign assignments makes it difficult to analyse the situation. Unfortunately, from the relatively small number of published studies, it is clear that few organisations systematically evaluate or validate the effectiveness of CCT and even fewer are available to the public (Morris & Robie 2001). As a consequence, empirical support on different training methods remains scarce (Kittler et al., 2008).

In the late 1990s, the picture changed radically. Rapid globalisation of business brought with it an increased need for effective employees in the international scene. Interest in CCT sharply increased and companies provide much more specific, in- depth training, and on a wider variety of topics, than in the past (Steinborn, 2007). MNCs are increasingly devoting more attention and resources toward cross-cultural training as a way to improve the job performance of their international assignees. Results from the Global Mobility Trends survey 2015 (Brookfield, 2015) show that 41% of companies offer training and support to expatriate families. Although expatriate training has generally come to be an accepted practice in many organisations, MNCs have not yet adopted many of the CCT strategies that researchers propose because cross-cultural researchers have not successfully resolved the controversies, surrounding the goals, content, effectiveness, implementation and process of CCT. For one thing, there is increasing awareness that not one expatriate training programme can possibly fit all types of overseas assignments (Osman-Gani, 2000).

3.5 PURPOSE OF CCT

The Global Relocation Trends survey (2003) has reported various intended outcomes of cross-cultural training. Firstly, it prepares the expatriate/family mentally for the move by removing some of the 'unknown', thereby reducing stress and the chance of relocation failure. Secondly, by providing an opportunity for questions and anxieties to be addressed in a supportive environment, self-awareness and cross-cultural understanding is reinforced. And finally it also motivates and enhances feelings of excitement over the assignment and the host country.

3.6 SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY AND CCT

A basic premise of social cognitive theory is that people learn not only through their own experiences, but also by observing the actions of others and the results of those actions. In the 1970s, Albert Bandura (1977b) published a comprehensive framework for understanding human behaviour, based on a cognitive formulation, which he renamed the social cognitive theory (SCT). The framework is currently the dominant version used in learning and development, and it is still often referred to as social cognitive theory. In SCT, human behaviour is explained in terms of a three-way, dynamic, reciprocal interaction between personal factors, environmental influences, and behaviour. According to his theory, an individual's behaviour is uniquely determined by each of these three factors. While the SCT upholds the behaviourist notion that response consequences mediate behaviour, it contends that behaviour is largely regulated antecedently through cognitive processes (Meyer et al., 2003).

The SCT's strong emphasis on one's cognitions suggests that the mind is an active force that constructs one's reality, selectively encodes information, performs behaviour on the basis of values and expectations, and imposes structure on its own actions (Jones, 1989). Through feedback and reciprocity, a person's own reality is formed by the interaction of the environment and one's cognitions. In addition, cognitions change over time as a function of maturation and experience (i.e. attention span, memory, ability to form symbols, reasoning skills). It is through an understanding of the processes involved in one's construction of reality that enables human behaviour to be understood, predicted, and changed (Bandura, 1986). One of many landmark works of Bandura is his 1986 book entitled *Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory*. In this book Bandura formally broadened social learning theory into a fuller theory of human behaviour. He also presented his triadic reciprocal model.

3.6.1 Major tenets of social cognitive theory

Bandura's model of *reciprocal determinism* (Figure 2) postulates that behaviour, cognitive and other personal factors, and environmental influences all operate interactively as determinants of each other. However, this reciprocal interaction does not imply that all sources of influence are of equal strength. The SCT recognises that some sources of influence are stronger than others and that they do not all occur simultaneously. In fact, the interaction between the three factors will differ based on the individual, the particular behaviour being examined, and the specific situation in which the behaviour occurs (Bandura, 1989; 2005). Thus, this model of causation as proposed by the SCT is extremely complex.

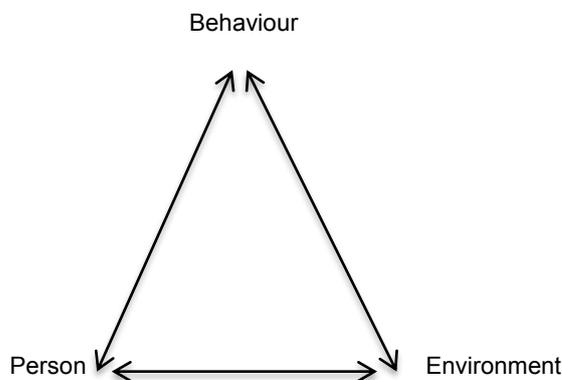


Figure 2.1 Schematisation of the relations between the three factors

Source: Bandura (1986, p. 24)

The person-behaviour interaction involves the bi-directional influences of one's thoughts, emotions, and biological properties and one's actions (Bandura, 1977b; 1986; 1989). For example, a person's expectations, beliefs, self-perceptions, goals, and intentions give shape and direction to behaviour. However, the behaviour that is carried out will then affect one's thoughts and emotions. In the person-environment interaction, human expectations, beliefs, and cognitive competencies are developed and modified by social influences and physical structures within the environment. These social influences can convey information and activate emotional reactions through such factors as modelling, instruction, and social persuasion (Bandura, 1986).

The final interaction occurs between behaviour and the environment. Bandura contends that people are both products and producers of their environment (Bandura, 1989). A person's behaviour will determine the aspects of their environment to which they are exposed, and behaviour is, in turn, modified by that environment. A person's behaviour can affect the way in which they experience the environment through selective attention. Based on learned human preferences and competencies, humans select whom they interact with and the activities they participate in from a vast range of possibilities. Thus, behaviour determines which of the many potential environmental influences come into play and what forms they will take. In turn, the environment partly determines which forms of one's behaviour are developed and activated (Bandura, 1989).

Inherent within the notion of reciprocal determinism is the concept that people have the ability to influence their destiny, while at the same time recognising that people are not free agents of their own will. Thus, for example, socioeconomic status and family conditions affect behaviour through their impact on people's self-efficacy, and affective states (Ardelt & Elder, 1992). Humans function as contributors to their own motivation, behaviour, and development within a network of reciprocally interacting influences. Within this SCT perspective, humans are characterised in terms of five basic and unique capabilities: symbolising, vicarious, forethought, self-regulatory and self-reflective (Bandura, 1986; 1989). It is these capabilities that provide humans with the cognitive means by which to determine behaviour.

3.6.2 Symbolising capability

Through the formation of symbols, such as images or words, humans are able to give meaning, form, and contiguity to their experiences. In addition, the capability to form symbols enables humans to store information in their memory that can be used to guide future behaviours. Symbols provide the mechanism that allows for cognitive problem solving and engaging in foresightful action. It is through foresight that one can think through the consequences of behaviour without actually performing the behaviour (Bandura, 1989).

3.6.3 Vicarious capability

Vicarious processes refer to the human ability to learn not only from direct experience, but also from the observation of others. This allows one to develop an idea of how a new behaviour is formed without actually performing the behaviour oneself (Bandura, 1977a; 2001). This information can then be coded into symbols and used as a guide for future actions. Vicarious learning is important in that it enables humans to form patterns of behaviour quickly, avoiding time-consuming trial and error, as well as avoiding costly and even fatal mistakes. In addition, vicarious capabilities allows one to explore situations and activities for the attainment of new knowledge that would normally be out of reach due to constraints on time, resources, and mobility. For example, television has vastly expanded the range of models and behaviours one is exposed to every day, allowing people to transcend the boundaries of their own environment (Bandura, 1986).

3.6.3.1 Observational learning

Four processes govern observational learning: attention, retention, reproduction and motivation (see discussion by Black and Mendenhall in section 3.8.5). Expatriates could learn culturally appropriate and inappropriate behaviours by observing host country nationals (HCNs). In fact, this may be one of the most important influences on behaviour given the often extensive interaction between expatriates and HCNs. This experience can serve to shape behaviour over time, thereby altering work behaviour to be congruent with the prevailing organisational cultural values. In other words, as they socially learn and develop cognitive maps appropriate to the local cultural values, expatriate behaviours will tend to follow the values emphasised by the HCNs. Bandura identified 3 basic models of observational learning. A live model, which involves an actual individual demonstrating or acting out behaviour. A verbal instructional model, which involves descriptions and explanations of how to behave. A symbolic model, which involves real or fictional characters displaying behaviours in books, films, television programmes or online media.

3.6.3.2 *Abstract modelling*

Modelling is being widely used with good results to develop intellectual, social and behavioural competencies (Kline, 1992). First the appropriate skills are modelled to convey the basic competencies. Second, the people receive guided practice under simulated conditions so that they can perfect the skills. Third, they are helped to apply their newly learned skills in work situations in ways that will bring them success (Bandura, 1988).

Bandura (1977) found that training must couple cognitive and experiential learning. Since behavioural modelling founded on the theory of social learning (Bandura, 1977), gives learned knowledge contextual meaning, it has been advocated as a potential method of cross-cultural training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a). When knowledge is put into a context that gives it meaning, greater learning occurs and information is more generalisable to the workplace (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000). Eschbach et al. (2001) confirmed Bandura's model, ascertaining that integrated cross-cultural training was associated with higher levels of adjustment and skills development. Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1977) suggests that trainees are able to construct a personalised understanding of the information presented to them by drawing on a wide range of material (social, physical, and historical) and a multitude of past experiences.

In every situation the individual has a range of behaviour at his disposal. This is known as the response repertoire. Which of these behaviours people produce in a given situation is the result of an interaction between the precise nature of the situation, previous learning experiences and future expectations and goals (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen, 1997). Effective modelling teaches general rules and strategies for dealing with different situations rather than only specific responses. Trainees need to learn how to apply the rules with different people and under different circumstances. Rules can be applied and adjusted to fit changing conditions (Bandura, 1988). One misconception was that modelling could produce only response mimicry. Social modelling involved abstracting the information conveyed by specific exemplars about the structure and the underlying principles governing the behaviour, rather than simple response mimicry. Once individuals learn the guiding principle, they can use it to generate new versions of the behaviour that go beyond what they have seen or heard. They can tailor the behaviour to suit changing circumstances.

Behaviour modelling proposes that new behaviours can be learned by systematically exposing a trainee to target behaviour. The trainee rehearses the target behaviour, receives positive enforcement for successful performance, and repeats the sequence until learning is successful. This technique is particularly useful for interpersonal skills, and is praised for its ability to directly affect behavioural change (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Kline, 1992). However, because the technique relies heavily on observation and imitation, behaviour modelling is not suitable for teaching internal processes such as brainstorming, reading, or logic. Furthermore, due to the interactive nature of the technique only a limited number of people can be trained at any given time. Cost is also an important factor with behaviour modelling, in which the task in question is an important influence. For example, the task may require costly equipment or may be hazardous to a completely untrained individual (e.g. learning to fly an airplane). In such an event, a lower-risk technique, such as a simulator, may be more appropriate.

3.6.4 Forethought capability

According to the SCT most human behaviour is purposive and regulated by forethought. People set goals for themselves, anticipate the likely consequences of prospective actions, and select and create courses of action likely to produce desired outcomes and avoid detrimental ones (Bandura, 1991; 2001). Through the exercise of forethought, people motivate themselves and guide their actions in anticipation of future events. Future events cannot, of course, be causes of current motivation and action because they have no actual existence. However, by being represented cognitively in the present, foreseeable future events are converted into current motivators and regulators of behaviour. Expectancies refer to a person's evaluation of the anticipated outcome. The capacity to regulate one's behaviour based on expectations and expectancies provide the mechanism for foresightful behaviour. Behaviour is motivated and directed by projected goals and anticipated outcomes, rather than being pulled by an unrealised future state. Behaviour is then influenced when forethought is translated into incentives and action through the self-regulatory mechanism (Bandura, 2001).

3.6.5 Self-regulatory capability

Before this process is discussed, it is necessary to examine efficacy expectations. "An efficacy expectation is the conviction that one can successfully execute the behaviour required to produce the outcomes" (Bandura, 1977a, p. 193). People's self-efficacy influence how long they will persevere in the face of difficulties and setbacks.

Efficacy beliefs also affect the amount of stress and depression people experience in coping with environmental demands. Acquiring new skills strengthens beliefs in one's capabilities (Bandura, 1988; Lee & Stajkovic, 2001). Human well-being requires an optimistic and resilient sense of efficacy because usual daily realities are strewn with difficulties. They are full of frustrations, conflicts, failures and setbacks. People must have a strong belief in their own efficacy in order to sustain the effort needed to succeed.

Perceived self-efficacy to fulfil occupational demands affects the level of stress and physical health of employees. Those of low efficacy are stressed both emotionally and physiologically by perceived overload in which task demands exceed their perceived coping capabilities, whereas those who hold a high belief in their efficacy are unfazed by heavy workloads (Bandura, 2000). Under the same potential environment, individuals whose sense of efficacy is raised focus on the opportunities it provides, whereas those whose self-efficacy is lowered dwell on problems and risks (Bandura, 2005).

CCT helps expatriates to improve confidence in their ability to adjust in the host country, by raising their sense of self-efficacy, which in turn lowers stress levels. Self-efficacy beliefs also help determine how much effort people will expend on an activity, how long they will persevere when confronting obstacles, and how resilient they will be in the face of adverse conditions. The higher the sense of efficacy; the greater the effort, persistence and resilience. People with a strong sense of personal competence approach difficult tasks as challenges to be mastered rather than as threats to be avoided (Bandura, 1977a; 2002b). Moreover, they recover their sense of efficacy after failures or setbacks more quickly and attribute failure to insufficient effort or deficient knowledge and skills are acquirable. Self-efficacy beliefs also influence an individual's thought patterns and emotional reactions.

High self-efficacy helps create feelings of serenity in approaching difficult tasks and activities. Conversely, people with low self-efficacy may believe that things are tougher than they really are; a belief that fosters anxiety, stress, depression and a narrow vision of how best to solve a problem. Fujiu and Simeon (2000) found a strong positive correlation between a spouse's self-efficacy and adjustment strategies and level of comfort in the new environment (Fujiu & Simeon, 2000). A person's self-efficacy develops as a result of their history of achievement in a particular area, from observations of others successes and failures, from the persuasion of others, and from one's own physiological state (such as emotional arousal, nervousness, or anxiety) while performing a behaviour (Bandura, 1977b).

Bandura proposes that self-regulatory systems mediate external influences and provide a basis for purposeful action, allowing people to have personal control over their own thoughts, feelings, motivations, and actions (Bandura, 1989). Self-regulation is an internal control mechanism that governs what behaviour is performed, and the self-imposed consequences for that behaviour. Self-regulation occurs through the interplay of self-produced and external sources of influence, including motivational standards and social and moral standards. People continually go through the process of setting goals for themselves and then comparing that goal to their personal accomplishments. In doing so, standards can motivate a person to work harder or modify their behaviour in order to meet a goal or standard.

Three factors seem to determine the degree of self-motivation that occurs (Bandura, 1986; 1989). First, a person's self-efficacy for a given behaviour dramatically affects their self-motivation for performing that behaviour. If a person feels they are capable of achieving the goal, then they are likely to work harder and give up less easily, compared to a person who has low self-efficacy.

A second essential factor for self-motivation is feedback. Through feedback, a person is able to control or adjust their efforts and goals to make them more feasible and realistic. In addition, receiving feedback on performance accomplishments will improve a person's self-efficacy for the behaviour. The third factor that influences self-motivation is the anticipated time to goal attainment.

Social and moral standards also regulate behaviour. Through evaluative self-reactions, internalised morals and standards can regulate conduct (Bandura, 1986; 2002a). The development and nature of a moral agency has been the topic of much research. In general, it is thought that people develop moral standards from a variety of influences, such as direct instruction, feedback on behaviours from significant others, and modelling of moral standards by others (Bandura, 1986; 2002a). Moral standards are also developed from institutionally organised systems, such as education, media, religion, political, and legal agencies. People do not passively absorb all the standards of behaviour to which they are exposed. It is through the process of self-regulation that prosocial behaviour can be internally maintained (Bandura, 1989; 1991).

3.6.6 Self-reflective capability

Self-reflection enables people to analyse their experiences, think about their own thought processes, and alter their thinking (Bandura, 1977b; 2001). According to the SCT, people develop perceptions about their own abilities and characteristics that subsequently guide their behaviour by determining what a person tries to achieve and how much effort they will put into their performance (Bandura, 1977b; 2001). Bandura stated that the “capability of self-reflection is the characteristic that is distinctively human” (Bandura, 1986, p. 21).

Social cognitive theory provides a framework for designing, implementing and evaluating training programmes. The SLT proposed by Albert Bandura has become perhaps the most influential theory of learning and development.

3.7 HISTORY OF CCT

The lecture method, which dates back to the 14th century (Laurentius de Voltolina, 2002), was the most pervasive method of CCT in the sixties. In their evaluation of training programmes, Harrison and Hopkins (1967) realised that classroom training about the host country and culture was not effective, and that communication skills and cross-cultural adjustment as well as self-awareness were necessary for effective functioning in the new environment. They recommended an experiential approach to CCT. Several cross-cultural training approaches have been discussed in the literature above and a number of frameworks for choosing cross-cultural training methods are available to guide researchers and practitioners. Five models of CCT programmes that are well-known among researchers will be discussed each model is based upon studies that investigated expatriate adjustment and effectiveness.

3.8 CCT MODELS

This section details the various theoretical frameworks and models that shape CCT.

3.8.1 Tung's contingency framework

Rosalie Tung developed a contingency framework for the selection of CCT methods. Tung (1982) identified five major categories in cross-cultural training used by American, European, and Japanese companies.

1. Area Studies – designed to provide the trainee with information about the host country's geography, climate, economy, housing, and schools
2. Cultural assimilators - using programmed learning approaches designed to expose members of one culture to some basic concepts, attitudes, role perceptions, and customs of another culture
3. Language training – the trainee learns the language of the host country.
4. Sensitivity training – designed to develop attitudinal flexibility so that the expatriate will accept that 'unfamiliar' modes of behaviour and value systems are also acceptable ways of communication in a different culture.
5. Field experiences – involves sending the participant to the country of assignment for a week to be exposed to the emotional stress of living with people from a different culture.

She bases the selection of CCT methods, specifically the level of training rigour on the interplay of three factors (Tung, 1981; 1982; 2001). Firstly, the task, which is the extent of interaction with the local community. Secondly the environment, which is the degree of cultural similarity between the home country and the host country. And thirdly the individual, which is the ability of the trainee to function in a foreign cultural setting and the willingness to work in a foreign country.

Depending on the type of job, the country of foreign assignment and the psychological characteristics of the individual under consideration, the expatriate should be exposed to the appropriate level of rigour in one or several CCT programmes. For example, if the degree of interaction with the host community will be high, the degree of cultural similarity is low, and the expatriate's ability to adjust to a different physical or cultural environment is low, then the rigour of CCT methods needs to be high (Tung, 1981; 2001).

Her framework yielded useful though general recommendations. Firstly, it does not include information about the specific content of training. Secondly, it does not explain how the level of rigour for a specific CCT method is determined (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). Tung's framework provoked further developments in CCT methods.

3.8.2 Mendenhall and Oddou

Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) improved on Tung's contingency framework. Like Tung, they acknowledge that the similarity between the host and home culture, and the degree of integration is important in determining the cross- cultural training method. In addition, they proposed three key elements related to training: training methods, duration of training and level of training rigour (Figure 3.2).

LENGTH OF TRAINING	LEVEL OF RIGOR	CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING		
1-2 months +	High	<p>IMPRESSION APPROACH Assessment Center Field Experiences Simulations Sensitivity Training Extensive Language Training</p> <p>AFFECTIVE APPROACH Cultural Assimilator Training Language Training Role Playing Critical Incidents Cases Stress Reduction Training Moderate Language Training</p> <p>INFORMATION GIVING APPROACH Area Briefings Cultural Briefings Films/books Use of Interpreters Survival Level' Language Training</p>		
1-4 weeks				
Less than a week	Low			
	DEGREE OF INTEGRATION	LOW	MODERATE	HIGH
	LENGTH OF STAY	1 Month or less	1-12 Months	1-3 Years

Figure 3.2 Three Key Elements Related to Cross-Cultural Training

Source: Mendenhall & Oddou, (1986, p. 78)

Their framework was also criticised for not explaining how the level of rigour of a specific method is determined (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). Furthermore, their simple one-to one correlation between length of assignment and degree of integration needs to be treated with caution. Extent of interaction could also be determined by job task. An assignment that lasts a few months could also require a high degree of interaction with host nationals, if the job task requires specialised transfer of skills.

3.8.3 Brislin, Landis and Brandt

Brislin (1979) identified five types of techniques used in CCT programmes. Brandt, Brislin and Landis (1983) later revised Brislin's approach and added a sixth training technique, interaction training.

- Cognitive training – Trainees are presented with information about the host country, which includes facts about the economy, weather, medical facilities and schooling. through lectures, videos, films, group discussions and reading material.
- Attribution training – the focus is on explanation of behaviour from the host's point of view. An analysis of misunderstandings leads to insights and empathy. The culture assimilator technique is the best-developed technique used here. Trainees learn a great deal and add to their lives by changing some of their preconceived views.
- Culture awareness – Trainees study the behaviour and values common in their own culture, which prepares them for life in other countries by introducing the nature of cultural differences.
- Cognitive behaviour modification – well documented learning principles are applied to special problems of adjustment to other cultures. Trainees analyse which aspects of their own culture they find rewarding and punishing. They then study other cultures to which of these rewards or punishers are present and how to obtain or avoid them.
- Experiential learning – trainees actively participate in realistic simulations of other cultures. Participants use their cognitions and emotions to perform daily activities.
- Interaction training – expatriates interact with host nationals during the training programme. In this non-threatening learning environment, expatriates learn to become comfortable with host nationals.

3.8.4 Gudykunst and Hammer

Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) presented a tentative classification scheme of training techniques on the basis of two central issues, namely, the approaches used in training (didactic vs. experiential approaches) and the content of the training (culture-general vs. culture-specific).

They cross-classified the approaches and content and came up with four techniques, experiential culture-general, experiential culture-specific and didactic culture-general and didactic culture-specific. The didactic approach involves detailed information on the host culture through the lecture method and/or written materials. The experiential approach focusses on active learning whereby workshops and host country visits prepare the trainees for interaction with host country nationals and developing their cross-cultural adaptability. These approaches will be discussed in more detail later in the chapter.

3.8.5 Black and Mendenhall

The above approaches of CCT are not based on any theoretical foundations. Black and Mendenhall made the first attempt to move the field in a more theoretically based direction. They developed a model of CCT based on Bandura's social cognitive theory (Black & Mendenhall, 1989; 1990a). They took four central elements of SCT and applied these elements to show how individuals observe and analyse appropriate and inappropriate host country behaviour (Black et al., 1992).

The first element is 'attention'. This emphasises that before expatriates can alter their behaviour so that it conforms to the norms of the host culture, they must first see and be aware of how the host nationals behave. People tend to view new behaviours, think about it and then decide whether or not they want to try it out. Once the modelled behaviour has been observed and understood, trainees then decide to try it out.

The second element is 'retention', whereby the observer must be able to remember the behaviour that has been observed. Behaviour becomes encoded as a memory. Mental images are stored as cognitive maps that act as a reference point for understanding and reproducing the new behaviour. During the initial stages of the retention process, important new behaviours and the cultural norms that surround them are at the forefront of consciousness. Then as the new behaviours are understood more completely, that knowledge settles into memory and spurs one's reaction during communication in a natural fashion.

The third component is the ability to replicate the behaviour that the model has demonstrated. Once the behaviour is understood, trainees will decide to try out the new behaviour. The closer the cognitive map reflects true cultural reality, the more likely that the reproduction of the new behaviour will be successful.

And the final component involves incentives and motivation, and proposes that imitating the modelled behaviour is motivated by a desire for reinforcement and incentives.

By observing these behaviours in a structured environment, the expatriate can base his or her own behaviour on these models. Thus, the expatriate would obtain the necessary skills to interact appropriately in encounters in the host country (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a). In addition, by observing models of appropriate behaviour the expatriate would be better equipped to recognise model behaviour in the host country and would be more likely to reproduce that type of behaviour (Bhagat & Prien, 1996).

According to SLT higher self-efficacy and outcome expectations would have a positive impact on the retention and reproduction learning processes, which in turn, would have a positive impact on outcome variables such as adjustment and performance (Bandura, 1977; Black & Mendenhall, 1990a). It has been proposed that individuals who believe in their ability to succeed would be able to use feedback more effectively to reduce the uncertainty as to what is expected, and to correct their behaviour to better correspond to those expectations (Black et al., 1991). CCT increases the individual's efficacy and outcome expectations because he or she has learned the appropriate behaviours vicariously and made associations about the expected outcomes. This approach recognises that effective training is only the first step and that the expatriate's willingness and ability to act upon that training in the new environment is crucial to effective performance.

Several studies have found a positive relationship between training and self-efficacy. Drewry (2003) found that self-efficacy increased the transfer of CCT skills and expatriate performance. Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl (2009) found that the relationship between CCT and expatriate adjustment is mediated by an increase in self-efficacy. In their studies on graduate students from Asia in the US, Fan and Lai (2014) found overwhelming support that self-efficacy emphasised the positive effects of cross-cultural coping. In terms of cross-cultural training, if an individual possesses a high level of self-efficacy, this person will believe that he or she can adjust to a foreign culture, and this will lead to greater persistence in attempting to adjust (Bandura, 1986). Thus, individuals with strong self-efficacy will adjust better to a foreign environment. In Harrison and Schaffer's (2001) test of a model of adjustment, spouses indicated that their self-efficacy was an important adjustment antecedent.

Black and Mendenhall (1989; 1990a) proposed that social cognitive theory be used to determine what CCT methods are most appropriate in specific situations and what level of CCT rigour is needed for positive results. But what is rigour? Other approaches have included the concept of training rigour, but have not attempted to define what the term meant. SCT describes rigour as the degree of cognitive involvement of the learner (Bandura, 1977). SCT not only provides a useful means to define rigour, but also determines the degree of rigour contained in a specific training technique (Figure 3.3). Cross-cultural training should start with methods that involve symbolic modelling processes which are low in rigour (e.g. lectures and films), in which trainees only observe modelled behaviours (i.e. cognitive involvement), and then progress to methods that involve participative modelling processes which are high in rigour (e.g. role plays and interactive simulations), in which trainees not only observe modelled behaviours but also participate in modelling the behaviours. The CCT literature provides evidence that suggests that the more rigorous the training, the more effectively trainees will be able to reproduce any learned behaviours because training rigour increases the trainee's level of attention and retention, and thus improves reproduction proficiency (Bandura, 1977; Black & Mendenhall, 1990a; 1989; Tung, 1981).

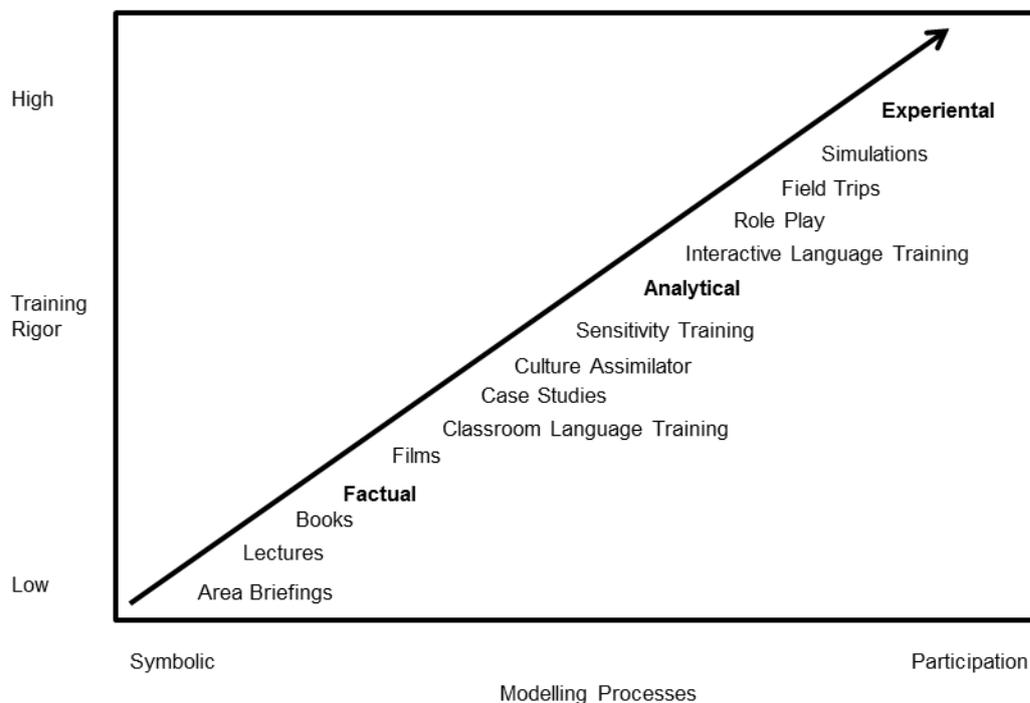


Figure 3.3 Modelling Processes, Rigour and Training Methods

Source: Black & Mendenhall (1989, p. 522)

Black and Mendenhall (1989) go on to identify three factors that could be used in determining the degree of rigour needed. The first factor cultural distance basically deals with the notion that some cultures are more closely aligned with other cultures in their value systems and norms.

The more novel the host culture the more rigorous training is needed (Mendenhall, 1989). Secondly, the degree of expected interaction between the expatriate and members of the host country. This can be measured by the frequency, importance and nature of the contact between the expatriate and members of the host country. And the third factor, job novelty refers to the degree to which a new job is different from the current job, which can be measured by job demands, performance standards, tasks and bureaucratic procedures. They developed a decision-tree model (Figure 3.4) which logically integrates cultural distance, degree of interaction, job novelty and training rigour.

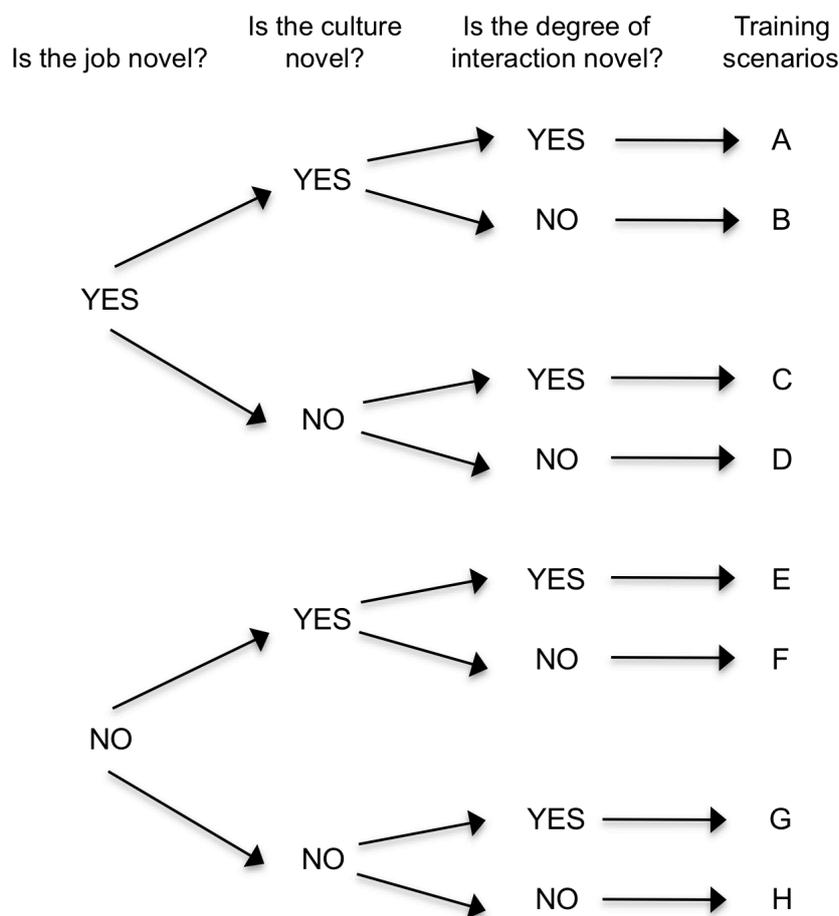


Figure 3.4 Decision Tree for Selecting Appropriate Training Methods

Source: Mendenhall, Punnett & Ricks (1995, p. 452)

Table 3.1 Training scenarios

Level of rigour	Duration	Approach	Training content
A-High	60-180 hours	Lecture, factual briefing, books, roleplays, cases, field experiences, culture assimilators, simulations	Equal emphasis on job demands and culture (include economic, political, historical and religious topics)
B-Moderate	20-60 hours	Lecture, film, books, culture assimilators, cases	Equal emphasis on job and culture
C-Moderate	20-60 hours	Lecture, film, books, cases, role plays, simulations	Strong emphasis on job demands, less on culture
D-Low to moderate	20-40 hours	Lecture, factual briefings, cases	Strong emphasis on job demands, less on culture
E-Moderate	40-80 hours	Lecture, film, books, cases, role plays, simulations	Little emphasis on job demands and culture (include economic, political, historical and religious topics)
F-Low to moderate	20-60 hours	Lecture, film, books, cases	Little emphasis on job demands, more on culture
G-Low to moderate	30-60 hours	Lecture, film, books, cases, role plays	Little emphasis on job demands, more on culture
H-Low	4-8 hours	Lecture, film, books	Little emphasis on either job or culture

(Source: Mendenhall et al., 1995, p. 453)

Black and Mendenhall (1989) integrated the notions of cultural distance, interaction, job novelty and CCT rigour by reasoning that high cultural distance, interaction and job novelty make the process of attention, retention and reproduction slower. It is necessary to add rigour to the training programmes because it can capture attention better, deepen retention and facilitate reproduction proficiency. CCT programmes can be customised for each trainee.

This means that a trainee who faces a highly novel job will receive relatively more training that will increase his technical competence (Table 3.1). Likewise, where the degree of interaction is high, emphasis should be placed on learning interpersonal skills and perception. Where the degree of cultural distance is high, country briefings and area studies should be given preference. Thus, the trainee receives more assistance to effectively acquire and emit the kind of behaviour that will contribute to impressive cross-cultural performance (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

Black and Mendenhall (1990a, p. 120) suggest, "cross-cultural training enables the individual to learn both content and skills that will facilitate effective cross-cultural interaction by reducing misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviours". In relation to cross-cultural adjustment, according to social cognitive theory, the cross-cultural trainee would develop both the confidence in themselves to behave appropriately in the host country and exhibit the appropriate behaviours necessary for interacting successfully with host nationals which eases adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990a).

3.9 COMPONENTS OF A WELL-DESIGNED TRAINING PROGRAMME

The global market means that many organisations now have subsidiaries, offices, affiliates, suppliers and clients in a wide range of countries and cultures. Employees are expected to have as good cross-cultural skills as in any other key competency. Expatriate cross-cultural orientation programmes enable the expatriate employees and their families to successfully adjust from one culture to another by enabling them to understand the key characteristics of their own national culture, recognise cultural differences as they affect life issues, understand and be able to respond to culture shock, develop strategies for successful intercultural communication and acquire country-specific knowledge. It enables expatriates to adjust faster to the new culture and expatriates will be more effective in their new roles (Caligiuri, Lazarova & Tarique, 2005). Generally, cultural training seeks to foster an appreciation of the host country's culture so that expatriates can behave accordingly (Ehnert et al., 2004).

There is a plethora of writing on every aspect of cross-cultural training approaches, goals, objectives, and methodologies (Hess et al., 2006). The literature cited pertains to pre-departure and on-assignment cross-cultural training. Although repatriation training is important for re-adjustment to the home country, it will not be examined in this work as this study focuses on the effectiveness of CCT on adjustment in a foreign location. A well-designed cultural awareness training programme is necessary to help the expatriate become aware of the host country's culture in order to behave accordingly, or at least develop appropriate coping patterns. The cross-cultural training programme may vary depending on the country of assignment, duration, purpose of the transfer, the individual, the extent of integration into the host culture and the cultural difference of the host country from the home country.

The common idea shared by all the above discussed frameworks reviewed is that there must be a fit between the CCT needs of the trainees and the rigour of the CCT programme adopted at all phases. Table 3.2 compares the cross-cultural methodology advocated by the different frameworks as reflected in the literature. Academics (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983; Dunbar, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1987; Tung, 1981) have proposed various training approaches to help the expatriate and his family to cope with the new cultural environment. Traditional training methods are the tried and true methods that have worked in many fields for a very long time. Many traditional training techniques are being adapted for the 21st century with technology, such as computers and interactive video.

People differ in their learning styles; therefore, in practice a balanced approach is probably most appropriate (Blohm & Fowler, 2004). An integrated training programme should have an appropriate mix of experiential and didactic methods, culture specific and culture general content and cognitive, behavioural and affective modes of training. Based on the above literature recommendations (Bennett et al., 2004; Black & Mendenhall, 1989) the following discussion outlines the main components that a well-designed training programme should incorporate.

Table 3.2 *Summary of CCT methods*

Gudykunst and Hammer, 1983	Traiandis, 1977	Tung, 1981	Mendenhall and Oddou, 1986	Brislin, 1983	Black and Mendenhall, 1989
Didactic Culture specific/ culture general	Cognitive goals	Area studies	Info- giving, area briefing, cultural benefits, films, books, use of interpreters, survival level language training	Info./fact oriented training	Factual, books, lectures, area briefing
Experiential Culture specific/ culture general	Affective goals	Cultural assimilator Sensitivity training	Affective, cultural assimilator training, role play, critical incidents, cases, stress reduction training, moderate language training	Attribution training Cultural/ self- awareness training Cognitive behaviour modification training	Analytical, sensitivity training, culture assimilators, case studies, classroom language training
	Behavioural goals	Field experiences	Immersion, assessment centre, field experience, simulation, sensitivity training, extensive language training	Experiential training	Experiential training, simulations, field trips, role plays, interactive language training

3.9.1 Didactic vs. experiential methods

Effective training contains a blend of both. The didactic approach is based on the assumption that a cognitive understanding of a culture, its people and customs is necessary to effectively interact with people of that culture (Harrison & Hopkins, 1967).

This approach typically uses a lecture format in which detailed information about similarities and differences of the social customs and institutions between the host culture and the home culture are given. It also includes written materials and videos presenting facts about the host country. Didactic training is the most common form of CCT and more than two thirds of all multinational corporations offer didactic training in the form of informal briefings to their expatriates before deployment abroad (Brookfield, 2015). This type of training provides factual information regarding working and living conditions as well as cultural aspects of the host country. The content of the cultural aspect does, however, mainly address practical issues, such as shopping and dress codes in the host country. It represents the traditional way of learning used in schools and universities, where information is transferred using one-way communication (Aston, Bennett & Colquhoun, 2000).

The content in didactic training is often hard facts like requirements for the job, schooling, travel arrangements etc., but it also contains aspects that help prepare expatriates to establish a framework for understanding and adapting to a new culture when they arrive in their host country and facilitate lifestyle adjustments. Besides pre-departure issues, it can also include information on repatriation issues (Aston et al., 2000). Didactic training can have a more general culture content or it can be aimed towards understanding a specific culture. Fact-oriented didactic training is based on the notion that knowledge will facilitate intercultural relationships. Tung (1981) argues that since cultural differences between two countries are numerous, didactic training cannot convey all the knowledge that an expatriate will need during his or her stay. Because of this, didactic training should not be used as the only way of preparing expatriates for a foreign assignment (Bürgi et al., 2001), but should rather be combined with more experiential methods (Gertsen, 1990). Kabongo and Okpara (2011) tested different training methods on CCA and found that experiential training methods were more effective than didactic types. Panaccio and Waxin (2005) examined the effects of four types of training, general-didactic and general-experiential and specific-didactic and specific-experiential and found that experiential techniques accelerated expatriate adjustment.

The experiential approach is based on the assumption that people learn best from their experiences. Structured activities are designed to confront the trainees with situations that may be encountered in a foreign culture. Experiential training is conveyed using a number of methods including, not only, practical exercises, workshops and simulations, but also more genuine methods such as look-see visits to the host country (Bürgi et al., 2001). Look-see trips can provide a first real experience of the country for the expatriate and sometimes his or her family.

Preliminary visits allow a preview of the host country environment and encourage interest in the future assignment. They give the opportunity to meet people in the new country and get a view of the new environment and the workplace. To be effective they need to be well planned, which can make them costly. Aston et al., (2000) argue that pre-departure programmes have the most effect if they are held after a look-see trip to the host country, since the expatriate gets many of his basic questions answered and can build a sense of the host location before entering the training programme.

Experiential training aims at preparing the expatriate in a more direct way, building beyond the mere intellectual experience. The experiential training can also be either culture- general or aimed towards a specific culture (Gertsen, 1990). The training is based on the concept of learning by doing and is conveyed by using practical exercises. This prepares the expatriate intellectually and emotionally to adapt to the new culture and enables him or her to develop certain skills that can be used when confronted with the new culture (Grove & Torbiörn, 1985). This is, according to Grove and Torbiörn (1985), one of the most promising training methods.

3.9.2 Culture-specific vs. culture-general content

Culture-specific training usually "refers to information about a given culture and guidelines for interaction with members of that culture"(Brislin & Pedersen, 1976, p. 6). The methods adopted include culture-specific briefings, assimilation and reading material. The information centres on providing the individual with background to the country e.g. economy, political system, religion, attitudes, social roles, religion, behaviour, values and do's and don'ts. Culture-general training is about "providing individuals with information they can use when finding themselves in any new culture" (Harris & Kumra, 2000, p. 607). Through training, the trainee goes through a range of experiences and develops a variety of skills with which they can adjust to many new cultures (Harris & Kumra, 2000). Participants are made aware of their own cultural background and the ways in which it affects their feelings, thoughts and attitudes. Gudykunst and Hammer (1996) prefer general learning, which they feel helps to prepare students for dealing with people from a wider variety of cultures more so than specific learning. The question of culture-specific or culture-general is an ongoing controversy. Caligiuri and Tarique (2005) justified that culture-general training is more appropriate for expatriates who will be exposed to a variety of cultural contexts. It is rarely a good idea to use culture-general training as the only kind of training. Expatriates will need some culture-specific information to prepare them for their first intercultural encounters.

However, culture-specific training has its drawbacks too. It is costly and time consuming. Most companies feel that they cannot spend a lot of money on training, because expatriates are intangible assets, whereby the return on investment cannot easily be calculated (Combs, 2011). Therefore, most CCT programmes are rather short, usually just a few days. One of the problems with very short culture-specific courses is that they may have an effect that is opposite of what is intended. It could enhance the participants' use of stereotypes. There is also a danger that culture-specific training may give participants a false impression of knowing the other culture thoroughly when they have really just been introduced to a few selected aspects of the culture. Therefore, it is beneficial to use culture-specific and culture-general training content.

3.9.3 Learning outcomes

The choice of a training technique for a particular segment of CCT must be related to a desired outcome. There are many goals of CCT, from language training, to change in knowledge, skills and attitudes (Aston et al., 2000,) through to changes in communication styles; that are needed to successfully live and work in a foreign environment. This gives the trainer a clear idea of the purpose of the training and helps them make more appropriate decisions regarding training methods.

Affective learning outcomes involve a change in attitudes, motivation and values (Dunbar et al., 1987). Particular situations, people, and environments elicit emotions. A person, as a result of early socialisation, develops a pattern of emotional responses to specific situations. When a person is in a different culture he is exposed to different situations, people, and environments, some similar to those that produce positive and some similar to those that produce negative emotional responses. Using various kinds of desensitisation techniques (Eschbach et al., 2001) can ensure that the circumstances which frequently occur in the other culture and produce negative emotional responses no longer do so, and using frequent associations of pleasurable events with these circumstances can increase the frequency of positive emotional responses to living in the other culture (Eschbach et al., 2001).

The cognitive outcome (Bloom et al., 1956) involves knowledge and the development of intellectual skills. This includes the recall or recognition of specific facts, procedural patterns, and concepts that serve in the development of intellectual abilities and skills. The trainee learns by listening, reading, or experiencing and then processing and remembering the information. These skills are the ones that govern the individual capability to learn, think and remember.

Psychomotor outcomes are achieved through techniques such as extensive language training, sensitivity training, simulations, and field experiences, which provide realistic simulations or scenarios to the trainees. A person about to enter another culture needs to learn what behaviours are appropriate and inappropriate in the other culture. In addition, the person needs to learn when to perform the appropriate behaviours and how these behaviours can be adapted to suit the specific situation.

There are a wide variety of strategies and techniques that can be used under each category. But generally, the literature (Hess et al., 2006; Morris & Robie, 2001) recommends that instructors use a combination of cognitive, affective, and behavioural teaching and learning methods. In the context of intercultural learning, cognitive methods focus on understanding how communication is different and similar across cultures, as well as understanding the processes of communication. Affective methods are designed to help trainees think about their motivation to communicate with people from other cultures, and to be more sensitive to other cultural groups. Behavioural methods focus on obtaining the skills needed to communicate with people from different cultural groups.

3.9.4 Training rigour

Training rigour (Table 3.3) is basically the degree of mental involvement and effort that is required in a training technique (Black et al., 1992). The level of interaction with the host nationals, the job task and the length of assignment should determine training rigour. Low rigour training would include such techniques as films, area briefings, lectures and reading materials. More rigorous training would require the trainee to practice skills that were learnt passively through cognitive techniques. Techniques that are more rigorous include role modelling, case studies and culture assimilators. High rigour techniques extend the degree of participation on the part of the trainee. These include field trips, simulations and interactive language training (Black et al., 1992). An effective CCT programme that begins with low rigour training methods and progresses through to the high level training methods is advocated as being the most effective (Cullen & Parboteeah, 2013). Comprehensive CCT, which includes high rigour training methods, is considered to be especially important when the culture is 'novel', when interaction will be frequent, when the expatriate has weak cross-cultural skills and when the assignment will be of a long duration. More rigorous training enables the expatriate to execute the appropriate learned behaviour more effectively by increasing the levels of attention and retention. Black et al. (1992) provided a framework based on what research studies advocate.

Table 3.3 CCT Methods and Rigour

Low training rigour (duration 4-20 hours)	Moderate training rigour (duration 20-60 hours)	High training rigour (duration 60-180 hours)
Lecture	Lecture	Lecture
Films	Films	Films
Books	Books	Books
Area briefings	Area briefings	Area briefings
	Role plays	Role plays
	Cases	Cases
	Assimilators	Assimilators
	Survival-level language training	Survival-level language
		Assessment centres
		Simulations
		Field trips
		In-depth language training

(Source: Black et al., 1992, p. 97)

3.9.5 Duration and timing of CCT

Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) found that in preparing trainees to function effectively in a foreign culture, the timing of pre- and post-departure training activities is critical. Early ideas about CCT suggested that it should be carried out before departure to the host country. Some researchers still think that pre-departure training helps the expatriate to form realistic expectations prior to arrival (Bürgi et al., 2001). Several researchers have, however, suggested the training to be more efficient when parts of it are held after arrival in the new culture (De Leon, Selmer & Torbiörn, 1998). One reason to concentrate much of the training to the post-arrival phase is the very short time span between selection and departure; in some cases less than a month. Another reason is that it may be difficult to understand, and later recall, abstract social behaviour of the host culture if it is learned in a non-authentic environment (De Leon et al., 1998). Torbiörn (1994) concluded that for maximum effectiveness, training should be given when the trainees are most motivated.

This suggests as De Leon et al. (1998) also propose, that the timing of CCT should be connected to the needs and characteristics of the trainees. When CCT is carried out too early in the pre-departure phase, there is the general problem of relating training experiences to the frame of reference of the trainee, since his concept of the normal is still firmly attached to the home culture.

3.9.6 Sequential training

Sequential training combines the benefits of both pre-departure and post-arrival training. This model is not a method in itself but constitutes a combination of different training methods applied at different times during the adjustment process. It is based on the notion that the capacity for learning varies over time; thus the training methods applied should vary over time as well. Sequential training (**Table 3.4**) starts before departure and then progresses in steps through the post-arrival adjustment phases, during which different types of CCT is applied (De Leon et al., 1998).

The type of training method used can be even more effective depending on its timing (Selmer, 1998). If the time for pre-departure training is limited, didactic training about the cultural adjustment process should be the focus, to get the expatriate to develop realistic expectations about the situation and become aware of the phases that will emerge after the culture shock (De Leon et al., 1998). A fact-based training method may also teach tangible and understandable information about the certain characteristics and behaviours of the new culture that is important to know before, or just after, arrival. This may be delivered either before departure, after arrival in the host country, or both (Hess et al., 2006). If a cognitive behaviour modification approach is to be used, it can also be applied either pre-departure, post-arrival, or in both phases (Selmer, 1998).

Both attribution training and cultural awareness training are best used before departure, but since attribution training is culture specific it is not applicable in a general training programme. The cultural awareness training is very general in nature and can therefore be an effective part of a pre-departure training programme that is directed at a group of expatriates that are going to very different regions (Grove & Torbiörn, 1985). Interactional learning is best used post-arrival, since the expatriate needs an authentic cultural context (Black et al., 1999; Gudykunst et al., 1996). Personal experiences and realisations about the cultural differences between home country and host country have two positive effects: they can be used effectively in CCT, and they further motivate the expatriate to participate in the training (De Leon et al., 1998).

A certain level of language skills is necessary to have, directly after arrival in the new country, so that common courtesies and basic greetings are mastered (Forster, 2000; Kittler et al., 2008). The more proficient the language skills are, the easier the adjustment process will be; since language has a very strong effect on expatriate adjustment (Kittler et al., 2008). The adjustment phase is characterised by a growing consciousness by the expatriate, who at this stage needs to learn how to behave as the host nationals do. CCT should include on-the-job practice, both in structured and unstructured situations for expatriate host-national interactions (De Leon et al., 1998). Torbiörn (1994) emphasised post-arrival training, three to six months after arriving in the host country. By then expatriates have a large amount of unstructured, detailed information from their experience, which could be patterned and given meaning to (Torbiörn 1994).

The duration of the training is determined by the duration of the assignment, dissimilarities between the cultures and the training budget available. In determining the duration of CCT, Eschbach and colleagues (Table 3.4) (2001) confirm that integrated cross-cultural training, which begins before departure and continues intermittently while on assignment in the host country until most adjustments have been made, is the most effective.

3.10 POST ARRIVAL CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING AND SUPPORT

Conventional cross-cultural training programmes are offered by the majority of global organisations. These programmes are usually offered before the expatriate arrives in the host country. Organisations do not recognise the need or the value of providing a training programme after arrival in the host country. Forster (2000) argued that expatriate training should be seen as a process and not as a one-off event. He goes on to say that pre-departure cross-cultural training frequently has a fast fading effect. Therefore continuous training and support during the assignment period is essential to ensure successful adaptation.

Upon arrival in the host country, expatriates experience stress, through a whole range of cultural, personal, work and lifestyle changes. Furthermore, the expatriate's beliefs and perceptions are challenged by the new environment. His expectations are confronted as he begins to view the new surroundings in a less idealistic and more realistic way. By the time the expatriate and his family settle into the new country, they are likely to have experienced cultural issues that need to be addressed. An effective post arrival training and support programme can help minimise the disruption associated with the move and alleviate initial cultural challenges.

Post arrival training and support is valuable because it provides the expatriate with information they need, at a time when they need it. Although the literature on post arrival training is scarce, the following sections provide suggestions on the content of this training.

The initial settling-in phase can be facilitated by an orientation process. Expatriates should receive a handbook with emergency contacts and useful information on transportation, healthcare, public holidays, shopping, social activities in the region, schools and general living conditions. Furthermore, the local HR department could assist the expatriate in completing host country registrations, obtaining necessary documents, opening bank accounts and obtaining utility and other ancillary services. Orientation visits conducted in various parts of the region can help the expatriate gain immediate knowledge of his new surroundings (Klein & Mohr, 2004).

A strategy in expatriate post arrival support is mentoring. Expatriate mentoring is flexible in that it can begin at any time during the lifecycle of an assignment and complements other cross-cultural training programmes. Expatriate mentoring provides specific support exactly in the moment when it is needed (Abbott et al., 2006). Through support and guidance, a mentor can help the expatriate overcome the initial uncertainty phase related to stereotypes, cultural biases and language related issues and develop intercultural competencies that change attitudes and behaviours to effectively interact in the new environment. Carraher and colleagues (Carraher, Crocitto & Sullivan, 2005) add that mentors should have knowledge of the expatriate's country, the host country and the expatriation process. For the accompanying spouse/partner, a mentor can provide career guidance as well as support in establishing a new routine in the host country by identifying goals and objectives during the time on assignment.

Cultural orientation meetings provided by the host country subsidiary can assist the expatriate and their family in understanding common practices in their new home location, help support them during the settling in process, and provide short cultural training. Cultural orientation meetings can be held at regular intervals. The meetings help manage the expatriate's expectations and lay the foundation for a successful assignment.

Informal evening activities that are arranged aim at getting the expatriates to socialise, share their first impressions and extend their social network thereby accessing helpful information. Socialising with locals increases understanding of the local culture and facilitates adjustment. In addition, contact with fellow expatriates who already have experience in the host country, also provide valuable information exchange from a more familiar perspective.

Follow-up meetings with the local HR department can be useful to discuss any settling-in difficulties or address any concerns that the expatriate has. This in-turn can be helpful for the human resource department in identifying problems and providing measures to create sustainable solutions, thereby minimising the risk of premature returns. These meetings can be held 4-8 weeks after arrival and later upon request (Andreason, 2003). As proposed in Chapter 2 (Masgoret, 2006; Selmer, 2006; Tran & Wang, 2012) language training is vital to ease communication and an important element to an effective and quicker adjustment in the host country. Puck et al. (2008) stated that language constitutes the most important factor for cultural adjustment.

The scarcity of empirical findings on effective post arrival training of expatriates calls for exploratory research to stimulate new thinking.

Table 3.4 *Timing and Duration of CCT*

Timing and duration of training	Cross-cultural training approaches	Rigour and degree of integration
Pre departure Less than a week	Factual/cognitive, area and cultural briefing, climate, housing, school information, polite language phrases	Very low rigour, not integrated
Pre departure 1-4 weeks	Affective/ analytical, home and host cultural awareness, critical incidents, cultural assimilators, stress reduction, language training	Moderate rigour, partially integrated
Pre departure and on-site 1 month or more	Experiential/ behavioural, role playing, simulations, field experiences, sensitivity training, extensive language training	High rigour, integrated

(Source: Eschbach et al., 2001, p. 275)

The kinds of training policies recommended by researchers are always more rigorous and wide ranging than those employed by most international companies (Forster, 2000). The above-mentioned scope and kinds of cross-cultural training methods gives an overview of the possibilities how to train expatriates. A detailed description of the various training techniques available is not part of this study. However, it will be only appropriate to acknowledge the large corpus of techniques available developed by professional human resource practitioners, academicians and researchers, which is worthy of its own independent study and not just as a component of a study of CCT effectiveness. The need for effective CCT to help expatriates overcome the intercultural difficulties of living and working in a foreign environment is well documented (Panaccio & Waxin, 2005; Selmer, 2001; Zakaria, 2000). Although there seems to be general agreement that cross-cultural training can be beneficial, there is no consensus as to what instructional techniques are most appropriate or effective for delivering this kind of training.

There is clearly a need for additional research on the differential effects of various cross-cultural training techniques. While there are no 'model' programmes yet in industry today, there is an increasing clarity of what primary components are which facilitate effective international relocation.

3.11 CCT AND THE EXPATRIATE'S FAMILY

The earlier paragraphs mentioned that some of the reasons for expatriate failure and the criteria for success are also family-related, which clearly indicates that expatriate family members' adaptation in the host country is of critical importance (Dupuis, Haines & Saba, 2008; Takeuchi et al., 2002). Poor adjustment by a spouse is one of the key reasons documented why expatriates return early from their assignments (Ali, Salome & Van der Zee, 2005; Beehr et al., 2003; Edmond, 2000). Edmond's (2000) study on IHRM practices and its effects on expatriate failures found that 67% of the expatriates from Canada cited the inability of the spouse or family to adjust as the main reason for the premature termination of the assignment. Beehr and colleagues (2003) found a strong correlation between spouse/family adjustment and expatriate adjustment in their research study. At the beginning of the 1980s, Tung published some influential articles (Tung, 1981; 1982; 1984), in which she identified the family as a critical success factor in expatriate assignments. One of her articles pointed to "the inability of the manager's spouse to adjust" as the major problem for European multinational companies and US.

In a more recent study among American expatriates, Caligiuri (1996) found that family adjustment was a significant predictor of the desire to terminate the international business assignment. In her qualitative study, Hsui-Ching (2014) identified spousal adjustment and support and children's education and support as impacting factors on expatriate adjustment. Baack and Shay (2006) confirm in their studies that all three adjustment dimensions are significantly related to expatriate performance. Harrison and Shaffer (2001) supported this finding. They confirmed that expatriates who have well-adjusted spouses, invest their personal resources of time, effort and emotional well-being in improving performance on the job. Bandura (1986) also found that the family as a social system does not affect human behaviour directly, but affects it to the degree that it influences peoples' (expatriates) aspirations, self-efficacy beliefs, personal standards and emotional states.

Spouses are critical to the success of a foreign assignment. The spouse is fully and intimately involved with the employee in every facet of the overseas experience except the actual performing of job responsibilities. Spouse and expatriate select and organise a home together, explore the new community together, try to learn new customs and language together, and socialise with others together. So when the spouse is distracted or distressed, it affects the expatriate. When the expatriate is distracted or distressed because of the spouse, his job performance suffers.

Research literature on expatriate spouses and children is scarce and often based on indirect feedback obtained from the expatriates or from the companies; an approach that could create bias in the end results. Dunbar et al. (1987) identified that companies which do offer CCT programmes generally tended to leave spouses out of whatever type of training is offered. The expatriate's family and spouse play a critical role in determining the success of overseas assignments (Barsoux, Evans & Pucik, 2002; Lazarova, Shaffer & Westman, 2010). However, they note that little attention is directed toward the expatriate family's training and support. One possible reason why spouses often are overlooked is that the factors that relate to their adjustment have received almost no research attention and are not well understood. On top of that, what we know about expatriate adjustment isn't very useful for understanding the adjustment challenges that a spouse often faces.

In many ways, the cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate spouse and children is more difficult than the adjustment that an expatriate faces. For example, spouses typically interact more extensively with the local community than expatriates. Although the expatriate changes job locations, often the exact nature of the job itself may not change drastically. The expatriate finds continuity in his work life, as well as a network of colleagues for support. For a large part of the day, the expatriate does not come into direct contact with the host culture (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Spouses are more directly involved with the local environment on a daily basis (Albright, Austin & Chu, 1993). The expatriate spouse and children, on the other hand, have no access to organisational continuity, mainly experiencing disruption of their personal lives. The spouse experiences extreme changes: a postponed career, a different language, different stores, shopping habits, a lack of friends and family upon which to rely. Furthermore, they get very little help in coping with the daily demands of unfamiliar circumstances (Lazarova et al., 2010). One could say that CCT is not more important but actually equally important for the expatriate spouse as it is for the expatriate.

One interesting study that should be noted is that by De Cieri et al. (1991). They found that the most important positive predictor of psychological adjustment of the expatriate spouses is company assistance. Unfortunately, they are not very specific about the nature and amount of support that is needed by expatriate spouses in order for them to adjust and adapt to the different and new situations in the host country. Black and Gregersen (1991c) also found that firm-provided cross-cultural training and involvement of spouses in the decision about the overseas assignment were significantly related to spouse adjustment. Help and support from the company seem to be important to expatriate spouses in order to adapt and adjust effectively to the new surroundings (Punnett, 1997).

The importance of the spouse complicates the expatriate decision for both the company and the expatriate, because including the spouse in selection, training and support adds time and costs to the expatriation process. The evidence suggests, however that the benefits may substantially outweigh the costs (Harrison and Shaffer, 2001; Punnett, 1997). The benefits derived from a spouse who adjusts successfully and consequently contributes positively to the expatriate's adjustment and performance (McNulty, 2005). Some companies have implemented policies for supporting expatriate spouses, and have established spousal assistance programmes. Spousal assistance programmes include assessment of the spouse in the selection phase, provision of language and cultural training, pre-assignment visits to the foreign location, and support groups to help the spouse adjust, as well as financial benefits for career assistance programmes to assist the spouse in finding productive activities in the foreign location (Brookfield, 2015).

The role of the host country workforce becomes central when settling-in programmes are considered. Due to long distances and unfamiliarity with the foreign contexts, the role of IHRM experts is difficult to expand to very practical level arrangements. Host country based support is required as least as much with regard to family adjustment as expatriate adjustment at the workplace since family adjustment has been found to occur more slowly and require more host country based support (Burch & Suutari, 2001; Copeland & Norell, 2002).

Harrison and Shaffer (2001) undertook a two-part study to better understand spousal adjustment. After analysing the findings, they concluded that spousal adjustment consists of three dimensions: how well the spouse builds relationships with host country nationals, how well the spouse adjusts to local customs and culture in general, and the extent to which the spouse has a sense of becoming part of or feeling at home in the foreign country.

To achieve successful adjustment in all three dimensions depends on whether the spouse can re-establish his or her identity in the new culture. Companies should also take steps to ensure that spouses learn language skills, build good social networks, and establish a new social identity if they want to increase the odds of expatriate success.

A more recent issue confronting organisations is that of dual career couples. In 2016, 49% of expatriate spouses/partners were employed before the international assignment (Brookfield, 2016). Some companies simply do not see the “dual-career dilemma” as an issue at all, assuming that, when faced with an international transfer, the spouse will quit her job, pack the bags, and dutifully follow along (Bhatnagar & Saxena, 2009). With increasing numbers of dual career couples, career issues are becoming a critical factor in decisions to accept an international assignment (Andreason, 2008). In most cases, the spouse has to give up a job or forgo continuing educational or other career related pursuits to trail after the expatriate. Work permit restrictions in many countries make it difficult, if not impossible, for spouses to continue careers while overseas. An expatriate spouse is not granted a permit to work in South Africa.

Taking into consideration the viewpoints and concerns of accompanying spouses, programmes involving cross-cultural training, and detailed pre-departure counselling can help resolve potential issues. Spouses who cannot obtain work permits, while abroad, can be counselled on volunteer and educational opportunities. Spousal assistance programmes include provision of language and cultural training, pre-assignment visits to the foreign location, and support groups to help the spouse adjust. Spousal orientation programmes could include practical information on all aspects of living in the host country, cultural awareness training focusing on social etiquette, habits, values, norms, climate, and security, an understanding of the emotional and cultural challenges the family may face in the early phase of the relocation, strategies for coping and making the most of the new experience and career support allowance for part time studies or informal courses (McNulty, 2012).

Like the case of the spouse, there is not much information on the effects of relocation on the expatriate children. Most children do not understand the reasons for the move. There may be incentives for their parents to move, but they are not likely to be obvious to children. Improvement in the father’s career is too abstract or remote, and improvement in financial standing is meaningless to most children (Cartus, 2007). Although children are the most important people in a parent’s life, they are hardly ever involved in the initial decision-making process of moving. Scientific research on the adaptation of the expatriate children is scarce.

Gaylord (1979) found that children experience relocation to be most stressful at the ages of 3 to 5 years, and 14 to 16 years. Those who are 3 to 5 years old often experience emotional difficulties and those between the ages of 14 to 16 largely suffer from social frustration because of the relocation. Spouses reported that their children had experienced problems either in adapting to the new schools or in making friends and especially teenagers, may be confused and upset with the anticipated changes, and feel powerless, as they are usually not involved in the decision to move (Pflüger et al., 2003).

With a few simple steps parents can also facilitate the relocation process for their children. Children must be made to feel included in the relocation and be made fully aware of where they are going. By being part of the relocation a child feels more involved and informed which thus reduces their levels of tension and fear. The expatriate and spouse should discuss the move and provide as much information and support as possible to the children, answer essential questions about the move and the duration of the overseas stay. Discussions should address anxieties, fears and losses associated with the move (De Leon & McPartlin, 1995).

If children learn about the host country through books, movies, magazines, and are involved in the move, they are less likely to fear the relocation. Parents can make the host environment more familiar by taking personal possessions with, that the children are attached to. Children should be encouraged to keep in contact with friends back home. It is critical that parents always express a sense of excitement and security when discussing the relocation. In the host country, parents should strive to expose their children to the foreign culture, through local foods, festivals, sports and social functions and other community activities (De Leon & McPartlin, 1995).

Companies could provide customised CCT programmes for expatriate children, that address the needs and concerns of the children, which help them come to terms with and positively become involved in the relocation process. These programmes should aim at communicating with children and teenagers; discussing their fears and uncertainties, as well as discussing all the new and exciting challenges they will face in the new country. Such programmes could include: giving them practical information on the new country, teaching them about host country life in a fun and interactive way, encouraging them to embrace the new culture, help them understand their role in the relocation process, providing them with coping strategies to employ when missing home and language lessons (Weeks, Weeks & Willis-Muller, 2010).

De Leon and McPartlin (1995) carried out an empirical study that the more supportive the experiences gathered by the expatriate children, the better their cross-cultural adjustment were. Their study also showed that expatriate children who had enough time to prepare for the move were significantly more satisfied in the host country.

In terms of family system theory, an overseas assignment is a change that requires the family to restructure, develop, and adapt in response to the demands of the new situation (Bross et al., 1998). If families can adequately adapt to the foreign environment, they will maintain continuity and facilitate each family member's psychological growth and intercultural adjustment (Bross et al., 1998). Distress among expatriate spouses and children in a host country may affect the wellbeing of expatriates in a negative way, and this may in turn have a negative impact on their work outcomes (Madjar, Oldham & Pratt, 2002). Since about 68% of the international expatriates around the world are married (Brookfield, 2016) and more than 52% have children (Brookfield, 2015) with them during the assignments, it is important that strategic international human resource management systems take the family factor into account (Cathro & Kupka, 2007). Therefore, it is relevant to conduct empirical studies on adjustment among expatriate family members.

3.12 EXPATRIATE FAMILY ASSISTANCE AND SUPPORT

Upon arrival in the host country, the provision of an appropriate level of support is vital (Cole, 2011). Cole found that the most frequent recommendation in her study was the need for practical support immediately upon arrival. Cole indicates that long-term 'hand-holding' is neither desirable or necessary, but well planned help for the first two weeks can make a notable difference in getting families off to a good start. In addition to sound CCT practices, companies need to provide assistance and support with key activities in the expatriation process. They need to have an organised support system in place. Cole (2011) revealed that expatriate families preferred a more structured approach on arrival in the host country. According to Solomon (1994) a pre-assignment trip is relatively common and is offered by about 75% of companies but it is not always used effectively. Such a trip allows the couple to experience the reality of the foreign location first hand, but to be helpful it must be long enough and structured to explore areas of concern, e.g. housing etc.

The literature (Ali et al., 2007; Cole, 2011; Lauring & Selmer, 2010) has put forward a number of proposals that could help companies tailor a programme that deals with the specific daily and cultural challenges that the expatriate family will face overseas:

- 1) Provision of a pre-assignment visit
- 2) Provide pre-departure assistance: visas, work permits, medical advice and health insurance, home maintenance plan, tax consultant, compensation policies, shipment logistics etc.
- 3) Information packages
- 4) Provision of orientation services to assist with:
 - Arrival and reception.
 - Organise temporary living accommodation.
 - Transportation arrangements.
 - Home search, school and day-care search.
 - Assist in completing host country registrations, obtaining necessary documents.
 - Opening bank accounts, and obtaining utility and other ancillary local services.
 - Healthcare services.
 - Local laws/rules.
 - Free time possibilities, family social activities, identify key recreational interests and assist in locating relevant bodies and institutions.
 - Identifying appropriate avenues for community involvement, charity and voluntary spousal projects, etc.
- 5) Home country human resource department should maintain regular contact with expatriates, once a week at the beginning.
- 6) Provision of a home trip or rest and recreation leave at least once a year.

Support received from the expatriate community is also of great value. Expatriate communities provide considerable levels of support to the new family. Caligiuri and Lazarova (2002) found that influence of the expatriate community and extent of social interaction with host nationals modified expatriate spouses' responses to the ease/difficulty of adjustment. Anderson (1999) also found that sufficient time between posting and departure, to properly prepare for the relocation, had a significant impact on adjustment and settling-in.

3.13 CONCLUSION

In the course of this review, it became obvious that the trends in CCT research are shifting. In the past, research efforts investigated whether CCT is effective and identified the best strategies in design and delivery, totally detached from its effects on CCA. However, researchers have begun to explore the links between, cross-cultural adjustment and CCT and the manner in which this information can be used to improve the content, and timing of CCT. We need to spend less time on the obvious positive impact of CCT. We don't need research to prove that cross-cultural training works because so much money has been wasted on failed overseas assignments. This study not only aims to explore the effectiveness of CCT, but also the effects of different training methods and other antecedents of expatriate adjustment. The study also inquires whether the company's expatriate programme is in keeping with the research recommendations about the management of expatriates.

It has been argued that the existing research literature on the impact of intercultural training is seriously deficient. While several studies meet the minimum criteria for reliable research, there has to date been no study, which meets the full set of criteria like the use of longitudinal measures of performance overseas and the use of multiple measures beyond self-reports of perceived learning and effectiveness (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996). The failure to evaluate CCT accurately will hinder the improvement of CCT programmes. Inconsistencies in classifying effective adjustment/performance make it difficult to evaluate the success of CCT programmes. No one definition of what constitutes success on an expatriate assignment exists. Although most measures are based upon expatriate perceptions of CCT and adjustment, there is a need to look at performance and return-on-investment (De Cieri & McNulty, 2013; McNulty, 2014). Researchers have agreed though that three components are indicative of success on an international assignment: degree of personal adjustment, degree of interpersonal adjustment and degree of professional effectiveness (Baumgarten, 1995; Aston et al., 2000; Forster, 2000).

It is likely that many more criterion measures will be developed in future to meet the demands of evaluating CCT programmes offered. There are many potential moderators that may influence the relationship between CCT and expatriate adjustment. Some of these moderators are expatriate community influence, host national support, personality variables of expatriates, emotional intelligence and expatriate family stability and cohesion. For example, researchers have recently begun to draw on personality research to explain why some expatriates adjust more successfully to cross-cultural environments and exhibit higher levels of overseas performance (Bisqueret, Harris, Lievens and Van Keer, 2003; Huff et al., 2014; Leeong, Low & Ward, 2004). Harzing and Pinnington (2015) discuss a contentious aspect of expatriate cross-cultural training in their book by raising the question if all expatriates can be trained and developed. Additional research in this area is needed to identify whether individual differences interact with training to influence expatriate adjustment and performance.

A large degree of uncertainty, which an employee might face while moving to a foreign land and culture, can be reduced through organisational, support and cross-cultural training. The huge costs that an organisation might face due to expatriate failure are of high concern. Preparing the employees for a foreign assignment is mutually beneficial to the organisation and the employee. For the employees, a structured training and support programme can help in managing new situations, while for the organisation, this helps in getting the best of the employee in terms of work output through maintaining the employee's morale and motivation. With the growing influence of foreign markets and increasing growth prospects for multinational businesses, it is of high importance that companies prepare their employees to be fit for global assignments. If cross-cultural training is to be successful, it needs to be well planned and tailored to the goals and needs of the expatriate and to the expatriate family. International training and development programmes need to recognise the importance of bringing about attitudinal and behavioural changes in both the expatriates and their families.

3.14 THE THEORETICAL RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CCT AND CCA

In Chapter 2 and in this chapter it is clear that CCT is imperative for successful CCA. There is substantial evidence to indicate that many of the failures of expatriate assignments can be attributed to an inability to adjust to the foreign cultures (Caligiuri et al., 1998; Chu & Fukuda, 1994). CCA is often considered the key intervening factor leading to expatriate failure (Adler, 1997). Expatriates are confronted in the host country with a culture much different from their own.

These contrasts can extend beyond language, and encompass aspects of social life, political climate, and religious differences. Cross-cultural adjustment can be facilitated if the expatriate has an awareness of the culturally defined norms and behaviours that are appropriate in the host country. The ability to adapt to new cultures is one of the most important elements of a successful international assignment. This is where cross-cultural training (CCT) plays a significant role.

Many multinational corporations (MNCs) offer CCT to teach expatriates, to live and work more effectively in a cross-cultural environment by employing appropriate knowledge and communication strategies (Bhawuk & Brislin, 2000; Littrell & Salas, 2005). Traditional managerial skills and knowledge is not sufficient in an international setting as a global manager. Knowledge and skills in cross-cultural aspects need to be integrated with existing managerial skills (Boyatzis & Emmerling, 2012; Davy et al., 2014; Harris & Kumra, 2000). It is now widely accepted, by both academic researchers and human resource practitioners that CCT can help expatriates adapt to living and working in a foreign environment (Panaccio & Waxin, 2005).

CCT focuses on promoting intercultural learning through the acquisition of behavioural, cognitive, and affective competencies required for effective interactions across diverse cultures (Brislin & Landis, 1996; Morris & Robie, 2001). While some studies have found positive influences of CCT (Bean, 2008; Bürgi et al., 2001; Ko & Yang, 2011), other researchers observed no influence, or a negative impact of CCT on adjustment (Kittler et al., 2008; Selmer, 2005). Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl (2009) provide possible explanations for this in their studies. Measuring the effectiveness of CCT on adjustment of Korean, French and German expatriates in India, they revealed that specific training techniques were more effective in the various facets of adjustment, that cultural distance had a pronounced effect on CCA, that the effects of CCT differed according to the expatriate's country of origin. The results of their study point out that the provision of some kind of CCT is not sufficient. Training must be in accordance with the novelty of the host culture and the expatriate's country of origin needs to be taken into account when choosing training methods. Caligiuri et al. (1998) suggest that the more relevant the CCT, the more accurate the expectations of the expatriates, and this in turn, positively affects cross-cultural adjustment.

However, research suggests that a substantial gap remains between individual training needs and the actual training offered by MNCs (Brewster & Harris, 1999b; Chew, 2004). Although expatriate training has generally come to be accepted practice in many organisations, MNCs have not yet adopted many of the CCT strategies that researchers propose because cross-cultural researchers have not successfully resolved the controversies, surrounding the goals, content, effectiveness, implementation and process of CCT. For one thing, there is increasing awareness that not one expatriate training programme can possibly fit all types of overseas assignments (Osman-Gani, 2000). There is clearly a need for additional research on the differential effects of various cross-cultural training techniques. While there are no 'model' programmes yet in industry today, there is an increasing clarity of what primary components are which facilitate effective international relocation, namely, training content, rigour, duration and timing. Eschbach and colleagues (2001) confirm that integrated cross-cultural training, which begins before departure and continues intermittently while on assignment in the host country until most adjustments have been made, is the most effective.

Research has also confirmed that CCT is not more important but actually equally important for the expatriate spouse as it is for the expatriate. The cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate spouse and children is more difficult than the adjustment that an expatriate faces. For example, spouses typically interact more extensively with the local community than expatriates. Spouses are more directly involved with the local environment on a daily basis. The spouse experiences extreme changes: a postponed career, a different language, shopping habits, a lack of friends and family upon which to rely. Furthermore, they get very little help in coping with the daily demands of unfamiliar circumstances (Lazarova et al., 2010).

Poor adjustment by a spouse is one of the key reasons documented why expatriates return early from their assignments (Beehr et al., 2003; Edmond, 2000). The benefits derived from a spouse who adjusts successfully and consequently contributes positively to the expatriate's adjustment and performance (McNulty, 2005). Black and Gregersen (1991c) also found that firm-provided cross-cultural training and involvement of spouses in the decision about the overseas assignment were significantly related to spouse adjustment. Help and support from the company seem to be important to expatriate spouses in order to adapt and adjust effectively to the new surroundings (Punnett, 1997). De Cieri et al. (1991) confirmed that the most important positive predictor of psychological adjustment of the expatriate spouse is company assistance.

Scholarly research has shown that providing a well-planned and in-depth CCT programme is imperative and beneficial in enhancing expatriate cross-cultural adjustment. Based on the findings, the importance of CCT for the expatriate spouse and family is also profound. The research progress made in the last decade reflects a growing recognition of the importance of CCT as a critical success factor in an international assignment. To complement previous studies and build additional, generalisable information, this study will research the effectiveness of CCT on German expatriate adjustment in a South African environment.

3.15 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter on CCT highlighted the limitations and shortcomings of previous studies, which this study will attempt to address. The researcher found that the majority of the research focused on the conceptualisation and measurement of the construct rather than the relationship between CCT and CCA. The chapter concludes by confirming a theoretical relationship between the two constructs pertinent to this research study. In Chapter 4, the empirical study is presented.

4. CHAPTER FOUR: EMPIRICAL STUDY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapters, the literature review presented the investigation from past and present research. This chapter details the design and methodology employed to measure the research variables. It presents the research questions and hypotheses governing this study, as well as a description of the study's population, the measuring instruments and the data collection techniques. The chapter concludes by showing the procedures and statistical techniques that were followed for data analysis.

4.2 POPULATION AND SAMPLE

Since this study focuses on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment in South Africa, the population for this study consisted of German expatriates already six months on assignment in South Africa for a multinational company. The expatriates occupy positions in all levels of the subsidiary, mainly promoting the transfer of technical and managerial knowledge for the implementation and realisation of business strategies. To avoid unreliability of data, only German expatriates who are home country nationals were included in the research to avoid the interference of other birth cultures on the research results. Although the entire German expatriate population employed by this organisation is about 150 people, not all expatriates attended the CCT training sessions. The human resource department, former and present expatriates confirmed that expatriates received cross-cultural training. Attendance of training sessions was not compulsory but highly recommended for expatriates and their families. Therefore only those who participated in the training sessions were invited to complete the survey. In Phase 1, 99 expatriates completed the survey and in Phase 2, 84 expatriates completed the survey. Furthermore, this study explored the influence of spousal/partner adjustment on expatriate adjustment. Therefore 87 spouses/partners participated in phase 1 and 79 expatriate spouses/partners completed phase 2 of the survey.

4.3 THE PSYCHOMETRIC BATTERY

The questionnaire was made up of four sections. Section one measured the independent variable, cross-cultural training, section two collected information on sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock, section three measured supplementary variables, such as previous overseas experience, host country friends, English language proficiency and section four gathered demographic information on the respondents.

4.3.1 Cross-cultural training

In this study, cross-cultural training is the independent variable. Due to a lack of a unifying theoretical framework for CCT and the extensive theoretical approaches guiding CCT programmes, there is no standardised scale to measure CCT. From evaluation of past literature, there is a general consensus that training techniques, content, duration, timing and rigour of training, are the main components encompassing a well-designed and effective cross-cultural training programme (Black et al., 1992). Furthermore, a semi structured focus group interview was conducted with the human resource department of the participating organisation; to ascertain what CCT practices are being implemented (Appendix 1). This led to the development of specific questions, which linked with the research objectives of this study.

CCT was classified into nine training techniques and participation in a pre-departure CCT technique was confirmed with a single yes/no question. If the answer was positive, the participants then had to answer additional questions on training duration. Training effectiveness was measured on a rating scale ranging from 'minimum effective' to 'very effective'. A high score reflected high levels of perceived effectiveness of a training technique.

4.3.2 Sociocultural adjustment scale

Black (1988) developed this 12-item scale for his germinal work measuring work role transitions of American expatriates living in Japan. His study confronts the theoretical dialogue by expanding on and refining cross-cultural adjustment. In his pioneering study of expatriate adjustment, he recommended a multi-faceted conceptualisation of the adjustment construct, outlining general, interaction and work adjustment.

In 1989, Black and Stephens adapted the initial scale to include 14-items and modified the subscales to measure spousal adjustment. Although this measuring instrument is available in the public domain, the author requested permission to use the Sociocultural Adjustment Scale. The author received an email from Stephens granting permission to use the instrument.

The rationale for this scale is that it operationalises Black and Stephens cross-cultural adjustment construct and measures it as a multi-faceted concept validating the existence of three adjustment dimensions. For the expatriate to be successful on an international assignment, he needs to adjust to the host country people and the general environment, and not only to the work environment. This scale is appropriate for use in this study because it measures expatriate and spousal/partner adjustment.

4.3.2.1 Dimension

There are three dimensions measuring 12 items. The general adjustment subscale included seven items indicating the extent to which the expatriate and spouse/partner were adjusted to housing conditions, shopping, food, general living conditions, entertainment, health care and cost of living. The work adjustment subscale included two items indicating the extent to which the expatriate was adjusted to the job and work responsibilities and working with local co-workers.

The interaction adjustment subscale included three items indicating the extent to which the expatriate and spouse/partner were adjusted to interacting, with host nationals on a day-to-day basis, socialising with host nationals and speaking to host nationals. Black and Stephens (1989) scale was adapted to fit the attributes of the sample population. Since expatriate spouses did not work on assignment in South Africa, the work adjustment subscale was omitted in their questionnaire.

4.3.2.2 Administration

The scale is self-explanatory and was completed online, individually by respondents. Supervision was not necessary. The online questionnaire provided clear instructions as to its completion. The respondents had to rate their perceived degree of adjustment in response to various aspects of the host culture.

4.3.2.3 *Scoring and interpretation*

This 12-item scale captured a range of perceived self-reported adjustment on a 7-point Likert type scale, anchored 1 = not adjusted and 7 = very well adjusted. For each item, the respondents were required to rate their level of adjustment. The total score reflects the respondent's perception of their level of sociocultural adjustment. The highest obtainable score is 84. Respondents with high scores reflect high levels of sociocultural adjustment and respondents with low scores reflect low levels of sociocultural adjustment.

4.3.2.4 *Reliability and validity*

The Sociocultural Adjustment Scale has a good internal consistency and test-retest reliability (Chiu et al., 2007). Palthe (2004) reported a reliability coefficient of .75. A study by Kittler and colleagues (2008) obtained Alpha coefficients of .81, .85 and .75 for general, interaction and work adjustment respectively. Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl (2009) supported these findings in their studies that yielded Cronbach alpha coefficients for general, interaction and work of .81, .90 and .91. More recently, studies by Jenkins and Mockaitis (2010) reported a Cronbach's alpha of 0.92.

In various studies, Black's scale has been operationalised (Black and Stephens, 1989) and validated (Gilley et al., 1999; Ramalu, Rose & Wei, 2011). The theoretical framework encompasses a multi-faceted concept of the sociocultural aspects of adjustment. Schaffer and colleagues comprehensively tested Blacks scale, validating the existence of all three adjustment dimensions (Gilley et al., 1999). They reported reliability coefficients of .83 for work adjustment, .89 for interaction adjustment and .87 for general adjustment.

4.3.2.5 *Justification for inclusion*

The Sociocultural Adjustment Scale was used because it not only measures adjustment in the workplace but also adjustment to everyday situations. This is important because an expatriate is interacting with and adjusting to all aspects of the host country, and not just those in the work environment. This scale was chosen because of its effective implementation in other studies even though these studies were testing a somewhat different hypothesis from those being tested in this work. The scale is a flexible instrument and can be easily modified according to the characteristics of the expatriate and spouse/partner sample.

4.3.3 Psychological general well-being index

Dr. Harold Dupuy developed the General Well-Being Schedule for the US National Center, as an initial effort for Health Statistics in 1970 (Chassany et al., 2004). This schedule, which was later, termed the Psychological General Well-Being Index (PGWBI), was linguistically adapted in many languages and cross-culturally validated for the use in several countries under the coordination of the MAPI Research Institute. It has been mainly used in clinical research, clinical trials and national health surveys.

The scale is designed to assess how the individual feels about his 'inner personal state' rather than about external conditions (Dupuy, 1978). It captures what we would call a subjective perception of well-being. Since the researcher is interested in the expatriate's and spouses/partners psychological adjustment only during the overseas assignment, this scale focusses on short-term affective well-being like happiness and not on more enduring life changes like purpose and direction in life.

4.3.3.1 Dimensions

The PGWBI is composed of six dimensions divided into 22 items: anxiety, depressed mood, positive well-being, self-control, general health and vitality. The domains can be summarised to provide a total score representing the respondent's level of well-being.

4.3.3.2 Administration

The PGWBI is a self-administered scale that can be conducted individually or among groups of people. The scale comprises of 22 self-administered questions rated on a six-point scale. The respondent had to choose the option that corresponds to his psychological and general well-being. The scale is self-explanatory and was completed online, individually by respondents.

4.3.3.3 Scoring and interpretation

The score for all dimensions can be summarised into a summary score, which reaches a maximum score of 132, representing the best achievable level of well-being. A high score is indicative of high levels of psychological well-being and a low score represents severe distress. In some items the most positive options were placed first, in others the most negative.

4.3.3.4 *Reliability and validity*

Blackburn et al. (2003) tested the psychometric characteristics of the PGWBI on African-American women and the total score demonstrated a strong internal consistency of 0.92 and a modest reliability ranging from 0.70 to 0.92. Their results also suggest that the scale can be shortened and translated without a loss of reliability. The Turkish version of the test yielded a Cronbach's alpha of 0.93 (Ay, 2010). In a Spanish version of the scale, the overall internal consistency measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient was 0.94.

Concurrent validity was confirmed by comparing reference standards of the items to the Haemangioma Family Burden (HFB) version of the Health-Related Quality of Life Questionnaire, which showed a significant inverse correlation with the PGWBI ($p < .0001$) (Boccaro et al., 2015). Bradley, Gibney, McMillan, Russell-Jones and Sonksen compared two measures of psychological well-being (2006). Their studies yielded a reliability of .96. They also found that the PGWBI correlated strongly with other measures of well-being, physical functioning and mental health. The authors attributed the high completion rate and the good acceptability by respondents to high face validity. The external validity has been found to be high in several trials in health related disorders. (Bech, Norholm & Rasmussen, 1999). A short version of the PGWBI yielded alpha coefficients of .92. (Cerutti et al., 2006). A correlation coefficient of .90 supported the construct validity of the PGWBI (Ahlborg, Jonsdottir, Lundgren-Nilsson & Tennant, 2013).

4.3.3.5 *Justification for inclusion*

Most research studies on expatriate adjustment used the General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) to measure psychological adjustment. The author found some disadvantages in using the GHQ for this study. Firstly, the scale is not freely available and must be purchased. Secondly, because the scale is mainly a screening tool for detecting psychiatric disorders, this has implications for interpretation of scores. There was also concern over the severe depression subscale, which includes confrontational questions for the respondent to answer. The PGWBI was chosen for this study because it focuses on psychological general well-being. It does not measure a specific psychological anomaly nor does it include the evaluation of physical health.

Expatriation is a stressful experience and adjustment helps minimise this stress. Logically adjustment to this stressful experience would be indicated by higher levels of psychological well-being.

Using a sociocultural adjustment scale with a psychological adjustment scale, better addressed the comprehensive definition of expatriate cross-cultural adjustment and the framework used in this current study. This scale will determine the level of psychological well-being among German expatriates in South Africa working for a specific organisation and that of their spouses/partners.

4.3.4 Culture shock index

The Culture Shock Index was developed by Mumford (1998) to measure culture shock among young British volunteers working in diverse cultural environments overseas. Kalervo Oberg (1960/2006) was the first to use the term 'culture shock' to describe the stress reaction that people go through in an unfamiliar environment. This stress reaction can range from slight uneasiness to severe anxiety. Taft (1977) outlined six facets of culture shock, which included identity confusion, anxiety, depression, and feelings of hopelessness. Mumford acknowledged these facets and used Taft's core components to formulate his questionnaire.

The instrument measures the occurrence and degree of culture shock. This scale explores subjective perceptions about various factors that are the foundation to adjustment. The general items measure the expatriate's and spouse's/partner's sense of control over the host country environment and the interpersonal items measure their degree of sociability and emotional well-being. It is aimed at exploring how expatriates and spouses/partners react to everyday situations in the new culture.

4.3.4.1 Dimensions

The Culture Shock Index is a 12-item scale. The scale contains seven core culture shock items, assessing self-identity, feelings of acceptance and strain to adapt; and five interpersonal stress items, measuring social interaction, and role confusion.

4.3.4.2 Administration.

The Culture Shock Index is self-administered. Participants rated the items on a 3-point Likert scale. Respondents were asked to indicate their agreement/disagreement with each statement by choosing between optional answers graded 'not at all', 'occasionally' and 'most of the time'. The scale is self-explanatory and was completed online, individually by respondents.

4.3.4.3 *Scoring and interpretation*

A total score is calculated by summing up the points for each answer, which produces a range between 0–36 points. Higher scores indicate higher levels of culture shock.

4.3.4.4 *Reliability and validity*

The reliability analysis of the 12 items yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .79 in Mumford's original measure of culture shock (1998). In a recent study (Piper, 2009) on Chinese students at Western Kentucky University, the measure produced an acceptable reliability of .81. Mumford established external criterion validity with reference to the host country, by comparing the results with the Cultural Distance Inventory (Babiker, Cox & Miller, 1980). He confirmed that the greater the perceived cultural differences between home and host country, the greater the culture shock. The analysis yielded an alpha of .60, while a factor analysis of the 12 items lead to a single factor solution. Overall, the scale was considered to be valid and reliable.

4.3.4.5 *Justification for inclusion*

Expatriates and their spouses/partners can moderate their culture shock through adequate preparation. This study focuses on some of the important influencing factors that could reduce culture shock. The Culture Shock Index will be useful in analysing if the cross-cultural training was successful in reducing culture shock levels amongst expatriates and their spouses/partners and to establish if the supplementary variables had any influence on culture shock levels.

4.3.5 Cultural novelty scale

Black and Stephens (1989) also developed the Cultural Novelty Scale. They adopted Torbiörn's (1982) dimensions, which are represented in various domains of society and developed a scale to measure the perceived similarity or differences to various culture related constructs between the host country and the expatriate's home country. The scale measures the perceived cultural distance between two countries. The items in the scale concentrate on the concrete aspects of culture that could be compared between any two cultures.

4.3.5.1 *Dimensions*

This 8-item scale measures all facets of living in a new country from everyday customs to living conditions, health care, transportation, general living costs, food, climate and housing on a 5-point Likert scale.

4.3.5.2 *Administration*

The Cultural Novelty Scale was self-administered. The respondents had to rate how different or similar various societal cultural attributes in the host country are, in comparison to their home country by choosing the appropriate response on a 5-point Likert scale.

4.3.5.3 *Scoring and interpretation*

In the original scale, the response categories vary from 1 = very different to 5 = very similar. The scale consisted of eight items. For easier interpretation of the results, the scale was reverse-coded so that a higher score represented a high cultural distance and a low score represented a low cultural distance.

4.3.5.4 *Validity and reliability*

The original scale (Black & Stephens, 1989) reported a Cronbach's alpha of .80. Jindal-Snape, Todman, Topping and Zhou (2008) studied cross-cultural adjustment among international students. Their studies revealed a higher reliability (alpha = .80). Jaworski et al. (2001) adopted the scale to measure American expatriates in over 30 different countries. A reliability coefficient of .81 was found. A more recent study yielded a higher internal consistency of .94 (Wiese, 2013).

4.3.5.5 *Justification for inclusion*

The scale is easy to respond to and covers all main criteria responding to cultural distance. Researchers have found that cultural distance impacts expatriate adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991c; Klein & Mohr, 2004). It incorporates measurable concepts from the physical and social environment that the expatriate is confronted with on a daily basis. Therefore this scale will be able to provide useful information to this study.

4.4 STATISTICAL DATA PROCESSING

This section details ways in which the data collected was measured, to describe the characteristics of the sample and to explore relationships among the variables. The decision of which statistical tests to use depended on the research design, the type of variable and the distribution of the data. Descriptive statistics was used to summarise the data in a meaningful way to ease interpretation. Inferential statistics provided more insight and helped determine the strength of relationships within the sample. The statistical software package used for the data analysis was SPSS version 18.

Because this study collected data over two phases, this enabled the researcher to measure changes in the variables over time. Test scores from Phase 1 could not be linked to test scores in Phase 2 as this requires some form of ID that links the two surveys of the same person therefore paired t-tests could not be used. Independent t-tests were used to calculate whether the means of the groups in Phase 1 and Phase 2 were significantly different from one another. The slightly different sample sizes did not cause a problem for the t-test, and did not require the results to be interpreted with any extra care. T-tests were conducted separately for sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and for culture shock comparing Phase 1 and 2 respectively.

4.4.1 Descriptive statistics

Using graphical descriptions and frequency tables, the data was organised into a purposeful form so that any trends emerging from the data could be easily interpreted. The descriptive statistics used were minimum and maximum scores, means, standard deviations and frequency distributions, which provided an indication of the distribution of the scores of the various variables (Haslam & McGarty, 2014). Furthermore, descriptive statistics and frequency tables were used to compare the differences in sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock in Phase 1 and Phase 2. Frequency distributions were also used to summarise the data on organisational CCT and support.

4.4.2 Correlations

The researcher used correlation analysis to establish if a relationship existed between cultural distance and cross-cultural adjustment. Since the two variables are measured on an

interval scale, Pearson's correlation coefficient (r) was the appropriate test to determine if a linear relationship existed between the two variables (Field, 2002).

4.4.3 Inferential statistics

Inferential statistics through the use of robust tests, provide us with a way to make predictions about a greater population from the analyses of a limited sample (Coolican, 2013). Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests tested the effect of various supplementary variables on the dependent variable. These were the appropriate statistical tests to measure the dependent variable CCA and the supplementary variables previous overseas experience, language proficiency and host country friends that were measured on ordinal scales. Statistical significance is determined by a p-value (probability value). When the p-value is less than the set significance level, then the null hypothesis was rejected and concluded that the result is statistically significant (Buskirk, 2008). In this study, a p-value of .05 and lower was used to confirm statistical significance. If the ANOVA showed significant differences between means ($p \leq .05$) a post-hoc test was then useful in determining where the differences occurred between three or more subgroups. The Tukey-Kramer procedure was used in this study because it is sensitive to unequal sample sizes. Significant differences are determined by a significance value. A significance value equal to or less than .05 confirms a statistically significant difference between two groups.

4.5 RESEARCH HYPOTHESES

The following research hypotheses were formulated in conjunction with the specific aims of the research.

H1a: Cross-cultural training positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H1b: Cross-cultural training positively influences psychological well-being.

H1c: Cross-cultural training negatively influences culture shock.

H2a: Language proficiency positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H2b: Language proficiency positively influences psychological well-being.

H2c: Language proficiency negatively influences culture shock.

H3a: Host country friendships positively influence sociocultural adjustment.

H3b: Host country friendships positively influence psychological well-being.

H3c: Host country friendships negatively influences culture shock.

H4a: Previous overseas experience positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H4b: Previous overseas experience positively influences psychological well-being.

H4c: Previous overseas experience negatively influences culture shock.

H5a: Cultural distance negatively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H5b: Cultural distance negatively influences psychological well-being.

H5c: Cultural distance positively influences culture shock.

H6a: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H6b: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences psychological well-being.

H6c: Spousal/Partner adjustment negatively influences culture shock.

4.6 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter described the empirical study. The selection of the sample population, the measuring instruments and data collection methods were discussed. The statistical processing of the data was outlined. and the relevant statistical analyses that was used in data analysis were also discussed. The chapter also outlined the research hypotheses. Chapter 5 addresses the results of the empirical study.

5. CHAPTER FIVE: RESULTS

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents and discusses the results from the various statistical analyses performed to answer the research questions and test the hypotheses. Descriptive, inferential and correlational statistics was used to describe the data sample, test the hypotheses and make generalisations from the sample population. The results of the empirical research will be presented in tables and graphs.

As outlined in Chapter 1, the purpose of this study was to determine the effectiveness of cross-cultural training (independent variable) on the cross-cultural adjustment (dependent variable) of expatriates. Since cross-cultural adjustment is a multifaceted construct, the study delineated this construct into sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock, for ease of measurement. Additional attributes previously proven to facilitate adjustment were also investigated: language proficiency, host country friends, previous overseas work experience and cultural distance. Adjustment is a variable that changes over time, therefore the study was undertaken over two phases: 6 months and 1 year into assignment.

5.2 PREPARING THE DATA

The first step in analysis was cleaning up the data. The survey results were exported to an Excel spreadsheet. Any incomplete or invalid entries were discarded. There were five respondents in Phase 2 who did not participate in the first survey, so they were removed from the data. All items in the Excel spreadsheet were translated into English for data analysis. Thereafter the data was coded manually. In all the standardised scales, the coding was provided with the scales when the author received permission to use the scales. All questions on CCT and demographic data had to be self-coded. Collected data was then transferred to SPSS 18.0 (Student Version) for data analysis. The Analysis "Toolpak" in Microsoft Excel was also used for data analysis.

5.3 DEMOGRAPHICS

In Phase 1, 99 expatriates responded and in Phase 2, 84 expatriates responded to the survey. Table 5.1 outlines the demographic characteristics of the sample population. With regard to age, the majority of the respondents (88%) were in the 30-50 age category and (13%) belonged to the over 50 age group. The item “accompanied by” was divided into nobody, partner and partner and kid/s. The distribution of the sample was the following: 9% were alone on assignment, 14% were accompanied by their partner and 77% were accompanied by their partner and kid/s.

Table 5.1 . *Expatriate Demographics*

Variable	Indicators	Phase 1		Phase 2	
		<i>f</i>	%	<i>f</i>	%
Age	30-50	87	88	73	87
	Over 50	12	12	11	13
Accompanied by	Nobody	9	9	6	7
	Partner	14	14	9	11
	Partner and Kid/s	76	77	69	82

Following the demographic characteristics of the sample population, the results now focus on questions related specifically to the study’s research questions and hypotheses.

5.4 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

In the following section the research questions are answered with regard to the company’s CCT programme. The recommendations in the literature review will be compared to the company’s training policies for expatriates.

5.4.1 What CCT programmes exist within the organisation?

At the outset, the organisation advises potential expatriates to utilise an online tool on the company’s intranet before making the decision to go on an international assignment.

This online tool provides basic knowledge about the host country's culture. The potential expatriate is also given a *Family* brochure. This collective exploration of personal, career, family and organisational related issues helps the expatriate and his family to make a mutual decision on whether they want to take up the challenge of an international assignment or not. Thereafter an initial briefing takes place in which the human resource department provides detailed information on the expatriation process, schooling, housing, compensation policy, and host country relevant logistical information. This briefing does not include any culture specific information.

After the initial briefing, the assignee and his spouse visit the host country for a week. This helps them to obtain an initial impression of the country and its people, become familiar with the new environment, and meet future work colleagues. This visit is also used for house-hunting and gathering information about schooling, shopping, sporting facilities. Thereafter the expatriates and their spouses attend a 4-day training seminar held by an external company, where they learn about culture in general and distinct cultural differences between the expatriates culture and the culture of the host country.

Crime and safety is also a major issue facing expatriates moving to SA. Therefore a safety training course is provided which includes personal safety and home security. Assignees and their families also have the opportunity to participate in an English language course. An online test assesses their proficiency level after which a suited language course is then provided. The organisation also arranges an informal get-together with former expatriates to share their experiences, and exchange first-hand information and 'tips' regarding the host country.

5.4.2 Does the organisation's CCT programme reflect any of the recommendations made by researchers?

Researchers have proposed an array of training models to facilitate expatriate adjustment to new cultural environments. In Chapter 3 predominant factors surrounding a well-designed CCT programme was discussed. These main factors will be used as a point of reference for evaluating the organisation's CCT programme.

Firstly, major findings (Table 5.2) have classified CCT methods into three main approaches: cognitive, affective and experiential (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996). Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) propose an information giving or cognitive approach (low rigour).

This approach typically uses lectures, films and reading materials to provide factual information on work, living conditions as well as cultural aspects of the home country. The affective approach (moderate rigour) raises cultural awareness of one's own culture, and teaches to accept and appreciate cultural differences between one's own culture and the host country culture. The experiential approach (high rigour) provides realistic simulations of cultural situations in the host country and emphasises learning by doing.

From information obtained from former and current expatriates, it was clear that the organisation's CCT programme incorporated the above approaches. The cognitive approach was made up of reading material, films and lectures. This information-giving approach focussed on practical information on living conditions in the host country, political, economic and cultural facts about the host country. The affective approach was made up of the cultural awareness, sensitivity training, cultural assimilator, focussing on understanding the host culture in a more personal and meaningful way. Experiential training consisted of role play and a visit to the host country.

Secondly, the duration and timing of CCT is also determinative, depending on the duration of the assignment and the degree of cultural distance of the host country (Gudykunst & Hammer, 1983). Researchers recommend (Table 3.3) 4 to 20 hours of CCT training if the assignment is a month or less, 20 to 60 hours CCT training if the assignment is a year or less and 60 to 180 hours CCT training if the assignment is one year and longer (Black et al., 1992). The organisation provided more or less 32 hours of training at the 4-day seminar which excluded the number of hours spent on the language training and a trip to the host country. The duration of training recommended by researchers includes language training and field experiences (Black et al., 1992). So it is somewhat difficult to make comparisons here regarding duration because the duration of language training depends on individual needs therefore researchers cannot possibly recommend a predefined duration. It is not possible to assess how many hours of language training the expatriates received in total because they also attended post arrival language training in the host country that extended between 3 months to 2 years. The organisation provided a one-week visit to the host country. If it is assumed that they had a regular 8-hour day on their field trip, a fair conclusion can be that they probably had 40 hours of field experiences. But then again, another question that arises is the content of the visit to the host country. Apart from gaining first-hand cultural knowledge, the greater part of the trip was used for house hunting.

From the information given (Table 5.2) it can be assumed that the duration of the organisations CCT conformed more or less to the minimum number of hours suggested by

experts in the field (Black et al., 1992). It was impossible to establish the exact duration of each training method as researchers provided no clear-cut delineations in their works, and the expatriates provided differing answers to these questions. Some of the possible reasons for this could be: that the sample of expatriates did not all attend the same CCT workshop at the same time; the CCT workshop had no rigorous format, and was customised to the questions, responses and cultural competence of the actual group attending at that time; and could also lie in the fact that training typically progresses within the course of the day from one method into another without clear boundaries or breaks, so that the flow of information is not interrupted, therefore the author could not give an exact timeframe for each training method. The timing of CCT was clear in that almost all CCT was done pre-departure, only language training was provided in the host country.

Finally training rigour was also a central issue among the major findings (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). Training rigour involves the degree of mental involvement in the training method. Low training rigour involves memory and information recall and high training rigour involves profound cognitive involvement. Research studies (**Table 5.2**) propose starting with low rigour training and moving to more rigorous methods as training progresses. (Black et al., 1992). Expatriates confirmed that within the 4-day training seminar, low, moderate and high rigour training methods were adopted.

Table 5.2. Comparisons Between the Organisation's CCT Programme and an Integration of Findings across Studies

Recommended		Rigour	Received	
Hours of training	Training methods		Training methods	Hours of training
60-180 hours	Cognitive	Low	Books	Reading Material
	Lectures		Lectures	
	Language training		Basic English Course	
			Films	
	Affective	Moderate	Case studies	Cultural assimilator training
	Cultural assimilator training		Sensitivity training, Self-awareness training	
	Sensitivity training		Intermediate English course	
	Self-awareness training			
	Language training			
	Experiential	High	Field trips	Visit to host country
	Role play		Role play	
	Simulations		Advanced English course	
	Interactive language training			

5.4.3 Is the cross-cultural training adequate?

The researcher assessed the adequacy of the organisation's CCT by segmenting it into two components, based on the literature study and on the empirical study. From a literary standpoint, firstly looking at the content of the CCT programme, training was provided in the various methods proposed by academics. Secondly, the duration of the organisations CCT conformed more or less to the minimum number of hours suggested by experts in the field. Lastly, expatriates confirmed that within the 4-day training seminar, low, moderate and high rigour training methods were adopted.

What deviates from the literature is that academics recommend a CCT programme that spans over a specific timeframe, beginning a few months and held on a regular basis before departure, and ending a few months after arrival in the host country (De Leon et al., 1998) so that the CCT skills that participants learn are reinforced on a regular and continual basis. Although the organisation provided a once-off 4-day pre-departure seminar, which integrated all the main training methods, they did not provide expatriates with cross-cultural training after arrival in the host country. Only a language course was provided in the host country.

From the empirical study, expatriates were asked with a single yes/no answer if the pre-departure training was adequate and if the post arrival training was adequate. Looking at Figure 5.1, it was clear that the majority (96%) of the expatriates found post arrival training in the host country inadequate. This is not a straightforward question to answer. Although the content, duration and rigour of training was adequate, expatriates believed that the amount of post arrival CCT was not adequate.

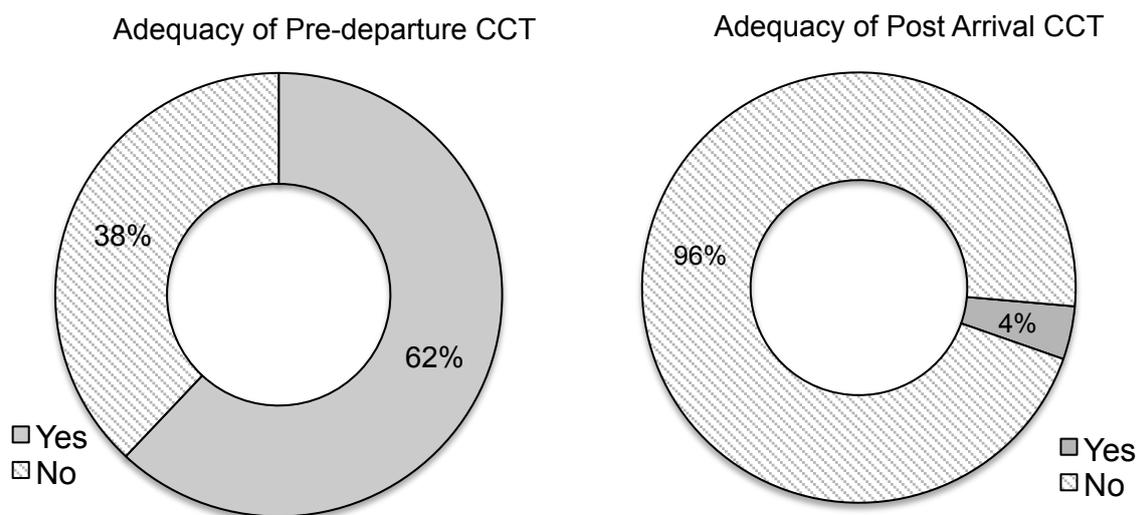


Figure 5.1 Adequacy of Pre-Departure and Post-Arrival Cross-Cultural Training

5.4.4 Which CCT techniques are perceived as effective?

The organisation's CCT was made up of nine training methods. The respondents had to rate the perceived effectiveness of each training method (Figure 5.2). The majority of the expatriates rated most training methods positively. The visit to the host country was rated by 67% and 33% of the expatriates "as very effective" and "effective" correspondingly. A large sample of expatriates rated cultural awareness (72%), sensitivity training (68%) and cultural assimilator (60%) as "effective". Only 33% of the expatriates participated in role play and 26% in films. Lectures were considered as minimum effective by 28% of the expatriates. A language course was attended by 62% of the expatriates.

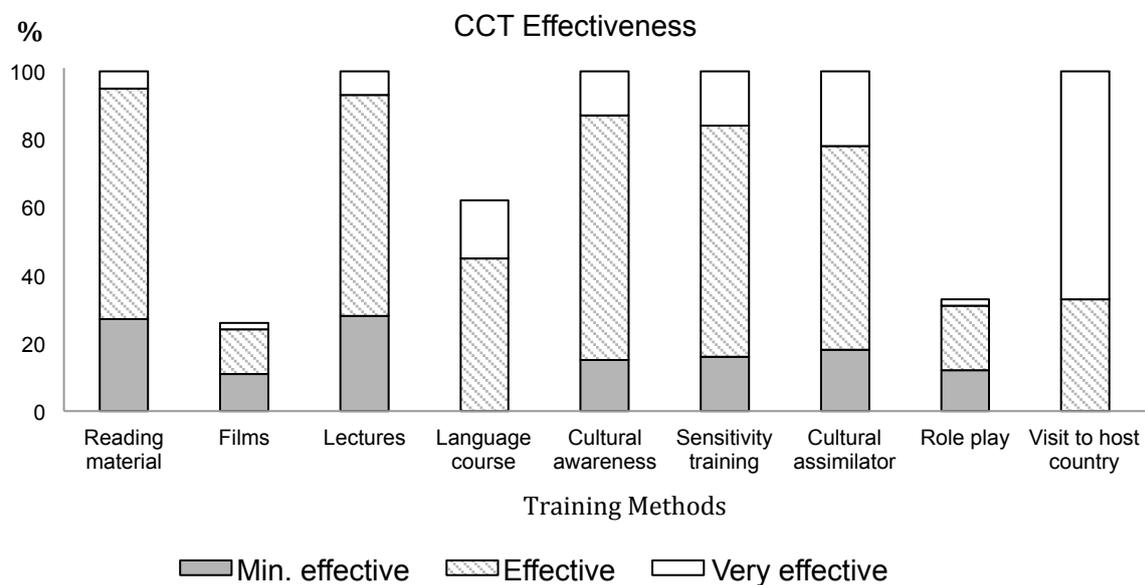


Figure 5.2 Perceived Effectiveness of Training Methods

5.4.5 What other organisational support was provided?

From the results it can be seen that the organisation provided pre-departure (Figure 5.3) and post-arrival (Figure 5.4) support. The acquisition of all necessary documents like visas, work permits and temporary residence permits was directly taken care of by the organisation. All expatriates had to undergo a medical examination and were advised on vaccinations, malaria and aids awareness. The organisation contracted a professional tax consultancy to help with all tax matters and a moving company to organise the relocation. The organisation provided advice on the schooling system in SA to 42% of the expatriates. This was only relevant to those expatriates who already had school-aged kids or whose kids were going to be schooled in SA. Those expatriates (38%) who maintained a residence in the home country received a maintenance allowance. The company paid a fixed sum of these costs only to those expatriates who were home owners.

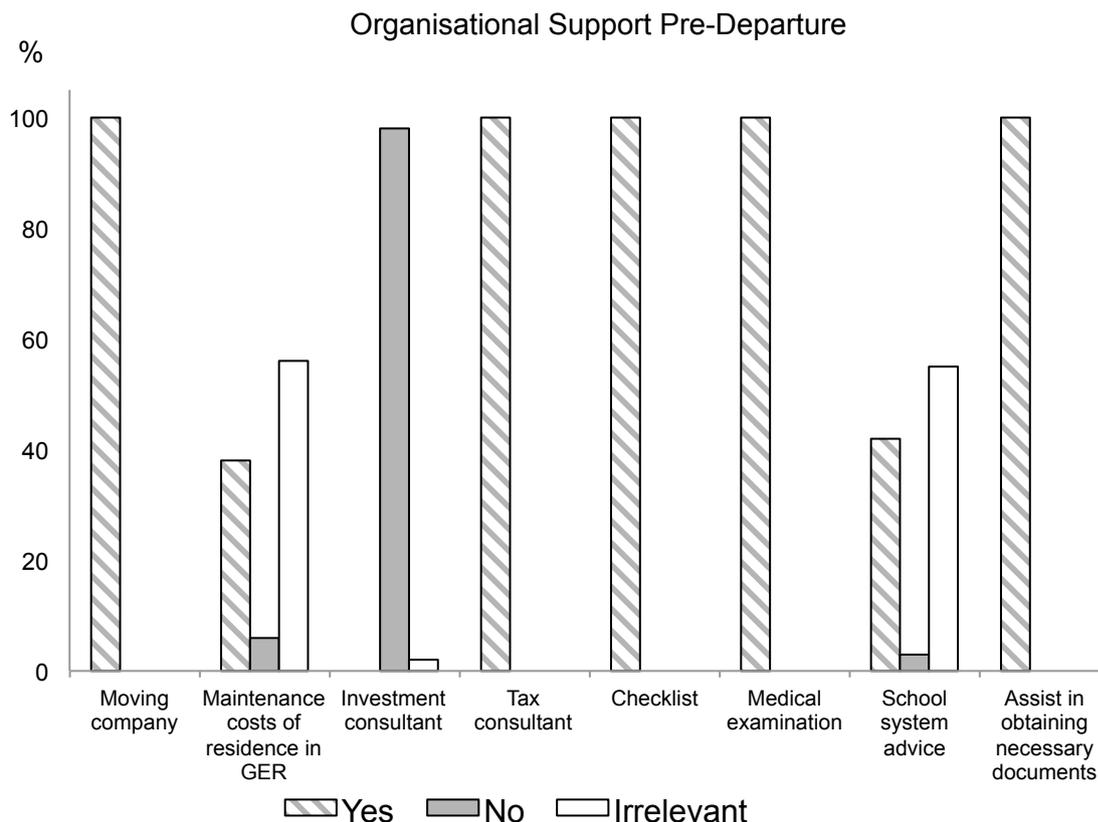


Figure 5.3 Pre-Departure Organisational Support

On arrival in the host country, a company car was available on a leasing basis. The local human resource department assisted with house hunting. The expatriates also received free health insurance and a home flight once a year for each family member. The expatriate spouse/ partner received a yearly allowance. While she was not allowed to work in SA, this allowance could be used for career development.

Regular contact with the home country human resource department was not maintained. Those 15% of expatriates who communicated with the home country HR department, only did so because of immediate and short term problems with housing, education etc. Once the problems were solved, they also had no further communication. Besides its not well seen, by the host country human resource department that when an expatriate had a problem, they contacted the home human resource department first.

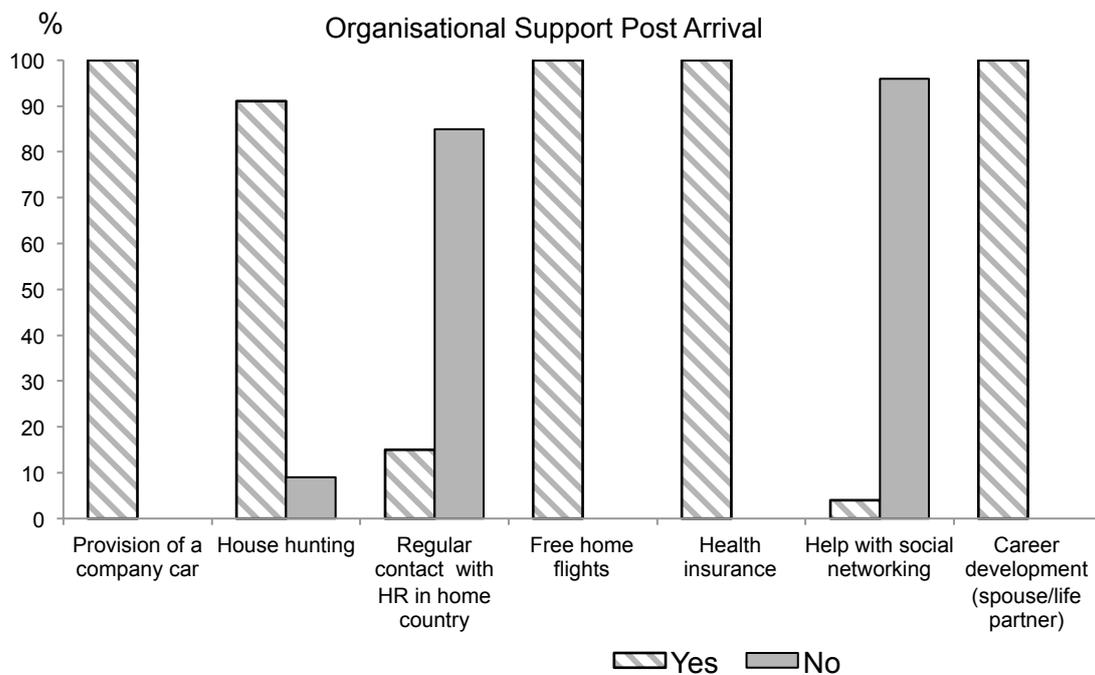


Figure 5.4 Post-Arrival Organisational Support

5.4.6 What other sources of information were used?

Although this question is not part of the main research questions, it was included to explore what other information means the expatriates utilise to prepare them for their foreign assignment. Most expatriates consulted other sources, for information about the host country, its culture and relocation in general (Figure 5.5). All expatriates used the internet and found it helpful (10%) or very helpful (90%). The foreign affairs department, the SA consulate and travel agents were not popular information sources, with just a total of 10% of the respondents using these information sources together. From the 35% of the respondents using films/DVDs as an information source, 8% found this not helpful. A large number of expatriates rated reading material as helpful (26%) or very helpful (43%).

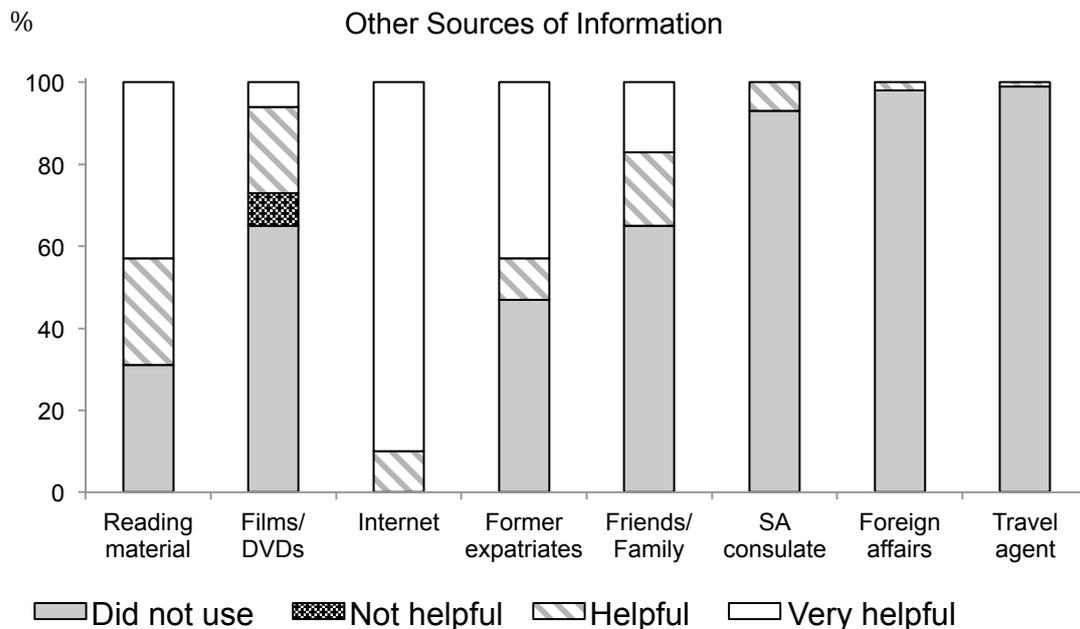


Figure 5.5 Other Sources of Information

5.4.7 What degree of sociocultural adjustment do the expatriates exhibit?

Figure 5.6 displays the Sociocultural Adjustment Scale scores for Phase 1 and Phase 2. The total score of the respondent was analysed. The scale was scored so that a higher score reflects better adjustment. It is clear that the respondents rated their adjustment to various aspects in the host country more positively in Phase 2. The minimum score improved from “20-27” in Phase 1 to “44-51” in Phase 2. A t-test (Table 5.4) was conducted to further investigate if the difference in scores in Phase 1 and Phase 2 were significant. The results of the t-test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference in mean score for Phase 1 and Phase 2 ($p \leq .05$).

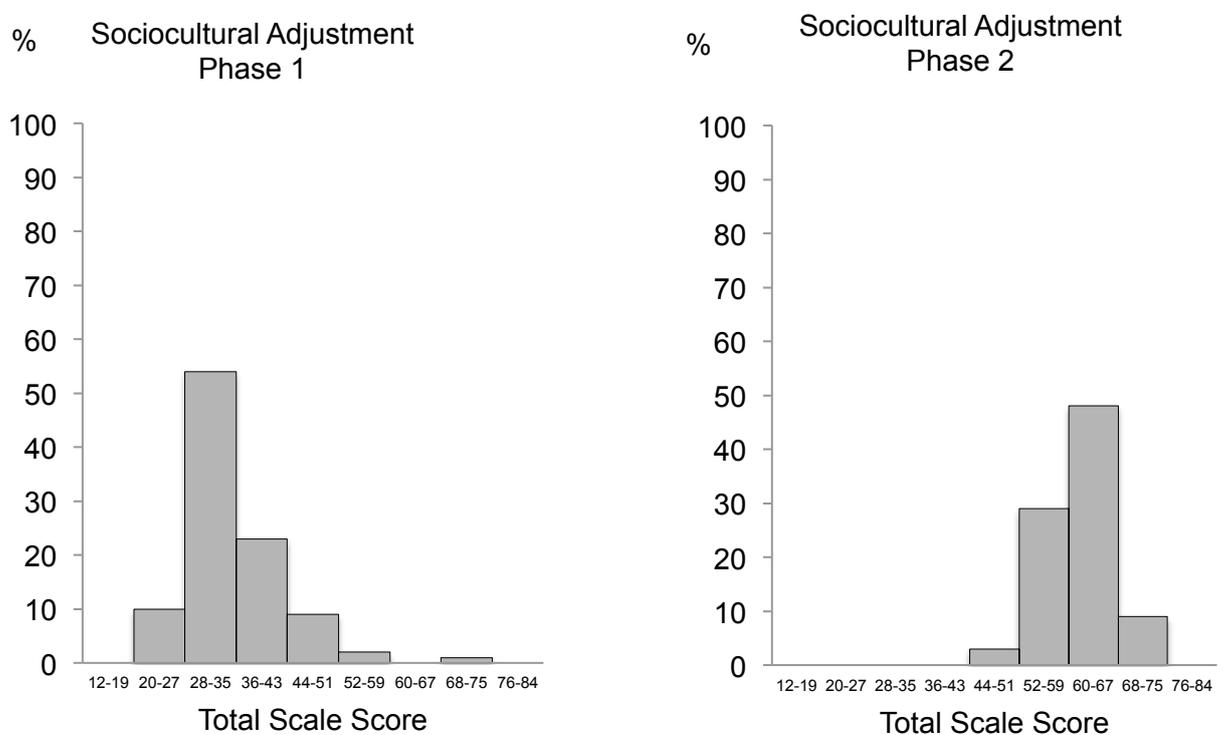


Figure 5.6 Phase 1 and Phase 2 of Sociocultural Adjustment

5.4.8 What degree of psychological well-being do the expatriates exhibit?

Figure 5.7 compares the results for the Psychological General Well-Being Index between Phase 1 and Phase 2. The total score of the respondent was selected for analysis. The scale was scored so that a higher score reflects better psychological well-being. It is clear that psychological well-being improved over Phase 2. The minimum score improved from “67-88” in Phase 1 to “89-110” in Phase 2. A t-test (Table 5.4) was conducted to investigate if the difference between the scores on psychological well-being in Phase 1 and Phase 2 were statistically different. The results of the t-test indicated that for psychological well-being there was a statistically significant difference in mean scores for Phase 1 and Phase 2 ($p \leq .05$).

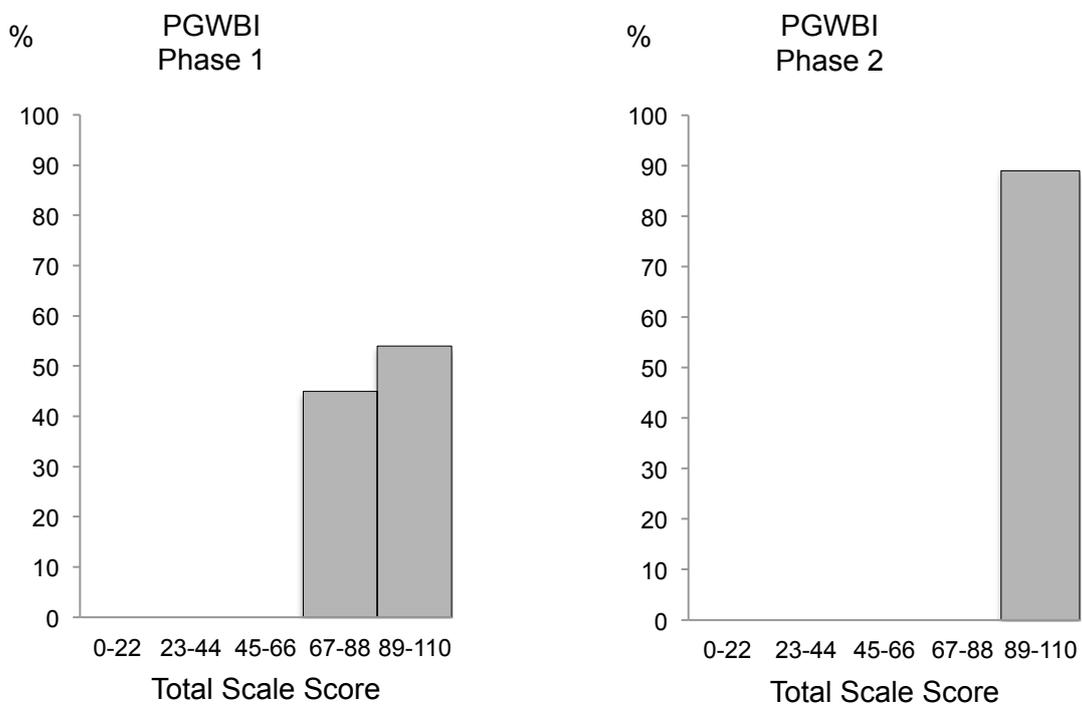


Figure 5.7 Phase 1 and Phase 2 of Psychological General Well-Being

5.4.9 What degree of culture shock do the expatriates exhibit?

Figure 5.8 compares the results for the Culture Shock Index between Phase 1 and Phase 2. The total score of each respondent was selected for analysis. The scale is scored so that a lower score reflects lower culture shock. The scale measures various aspects of culture shock: longing for family and friends, irritation over minor frustrations, having stereotypes about the culture and people in the host country or feeling exploited or cheated by the local people. Overall the expatriates experienced a low level of culture shock.

In Phase 1, the expatriates have been 6 months in the host country. One of the items in the scale asks about missing family and friends. In Phase 1, 57 % answered with “often” and in Phase 2, 13%. Question 6: “Have you found things in your new environment shocking and disgusting”. In Phase 1, 43% answered with “often” and in Phase 2, 0%. It is clear that culture shock decreased in Phase 2. The maximum score decreased from “8-11” to “4-7” in Phase 2. A t-test (Table 5.4) was conducted to investigate if the difference in scores between Phase 1 and Phase 2 were statistically significant. The results of the t-test indicated that for culture shock there was a statistically significant difference in mean scores for Phase 1 and Phase 2 ($p \leq .05$).

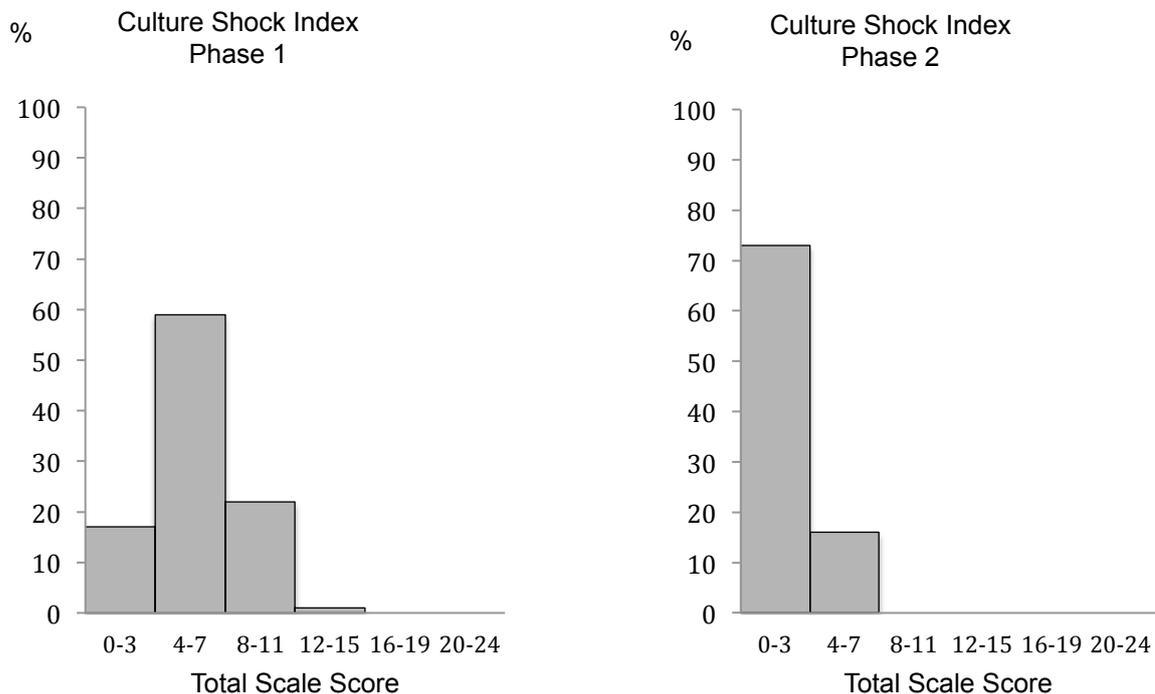


Figure 5.8 Phase 1 and Phase 2 of Culture Shock

5.4.10 Descriptive statistics for the dependent variables

Descriptive statistics for the main dependent variables examined in this study are provided in Table 5.3. Firstly, the three scales measuring the dependent variables sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock all have Cronbach Alpha values above .7 and can therefore be considered reliable. (George & Mallery, 2003). In Phase 1, sociocultural adjustment scores based on twelve items ranged from 22 to 68 with a mean of 34.31 (SD=7.6). Scores on the PGWBI (based on 22 items) ranged from 73 to 102 with a mean of 89.21 (SD=6.4). Culture shock scores (based on twelve items) ranged from 1 to 12 with a mean of 5.82 (SD=2.4).

In Phase 2, sociocultural adjustment scores ranged from 48 to 71 with a mean of 61.05 (SD=4.8). PGWBI scores ranged from 91 to 104 with a mean of 98.30 (SD=2.4). Culture shock scores ranged from 0 to 6, displaying a mean of 2.47 (SD=1.14).

In Phase 1 sociocultural adjustment displayed a relatively large standard deviation, which could reflect a large amount of variation within the sample. One of the reasons for this dispersed data set could be a number of outliers. In Phase 2, the scale showed a more clustered data set. Because descriptive statistics are sensitive to outliers, in order to investigate this dispersion further, the interquartile range was calculated. This revealed a positively skewed distribution, because the majority of the scores fall toward the lower side of the scale and there are very few high scores.

In order to validate the detected outliers, the respective individual high scores were analysed. Any assumptions regarding incorrect data entry or measurement errors were quickly rejected. The respondent who received a high score of 68 on the sociocultural adjustment scale also rated his English language proficiency as “very good”, the number of local friends as “more than 5”. The respondent also confirmed having more than two years overseas experience and being in South Africa previously for business purposes. It was impossible to establish if the respondent was previously an expatriate in SA or visited SA on shorter business trips. The very high sociocultural adjustment rating could be attributed to one or an interplay of the above factors. Further analysis of the other three respondents who scored high on the Sociocultural Adjustment Scale (a score between 50 and 60), revealed some commonalities. They were all proficient in English and had acquaintances who were locals. In Phase 1, the PGWBI scores also displayed a dispersed standard deviation. But a boxplot analysis revealed that there were no outliers. It just reflects a large amount of variation in the sample being studied. Culture shock scores decreased from Phase 1 ($M=5.82$, $SD=2.4$) to Phase 2 ($M=2.47$, $SD= 1.14$). The t-test results in Table 5.4 clearly indicate that there is a significant difference in sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock scores for Phase 1 and Phase 2.

Table 5.3 *Descriptive Statistics for Phase 1 and Phase 2*

Phase	Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	α
Phase 1	SCA	99	22	68	34.31	7.6	0.93
	PGWBI	99	75	102	89.21	6.2	0.82
	CS	99	1	12	5.82	2.4	0.74
Phase 2	SCA	84	48	71	61.05	4.8	
	PGWBI	84	91	104	98.3	2.4	
	CS	84	1	6	2.47	1.14	

Table 5.4 *Independent T-test Results for Phase One and Phase Two*

Scale	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference	
						Lower	Upper
CS	11.7171	181	0.0001	3.35	0.286	2.78	3.91
PGWBI	11.5531	181	0.0001	-8.3	0.718	-9.71	-6.88
SCA	27.8679	181	0.0001	-26.74	0.96	-28.63	-24.84

Note:(Phase1 - N = 99, Phase 2 - N = 84)

5.5 HYPOTHESES

The following research hypotheses were formulated in conjunction with the specific aims of the research:

H1a: Cross-cultural training positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H1b: Cross-cultural training positively influences psychological well-being.

H1c: Cross-cultural training negatively influences culture shock.

H2a: Language proficiency positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H2b: Language proficiency positively influences psychological well-being.

H2c: Language proficiency negatively influences culture shock.

H3a: Host country friendships positively influence sociocultural adjustment.

H3b: Host country friendships positively influence psychological well-being.

H3c: Host country friendships negatively influences culture shock.

H4a: Previous overseas experience positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H4b: Previous overseas experience positively influences psychological well-being.

H4c: Previous overseas experience negatively influences culture shock.

H5a: Cultural distance negatively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H5b: Cultural distance negatively influences psychological well-being.

H5c: Cultural distance positively influences culture shock.

H6a: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences sociocultural adjustment.

H6b: Spousal/Partner adjustment positively influences psychological well-being.

H6c: Spousal/Partner adjustment negatively influences culture shock.

5.5.1 Hypothesis one

The first hypothesis that cross-cultural training positively influences sociocultural adjustment was examined in this section. The author found that it made sense to research CCT only in Phase 1. Because of the long time period between actual training and Phase 2, it would not have been possible to get accurate information.

From the frequencies obtained (Table 5.5), it is apparent that the majority (68%) of the expatriates rated the CCT training as “effective”. Only 6% found the CCT training “very effective” and 26 % found the CCT training “somewhat effective” (Figure 5.9).

Table 5.5 *Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness Responses*

Indicator	Number of responses	Frequency
Somewhat Effective	26	26%
Effective	67	68%
Very effective	6	6%
Ineffective	0	

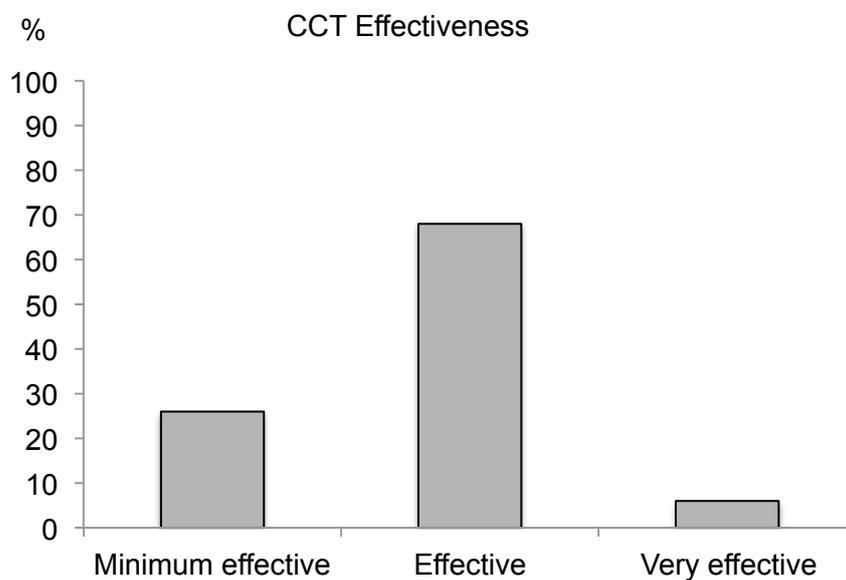


Figure 5.9 Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness

An analysis of the descriptive statistics (Table 5.6) clearly showed that those expatriates who rated the cross-cultural training as “very effective” reported lower levels of adjustment (M = 31, SD = 4.47). Those expatriates who rated the cross-cultural training as “somewhat effective” scored high on the sociocultural adjustment scale (M = 36.04, SD = 10.34) and exhibited higher psychological well-being (M = 88.53,SD = 7.24). These respondents also displayed lower levels of culture shock (M = 5.23, SD = 2.89).

Table 5.6 *Descriptive Statistics for Cross-cultural Training Effectiveness*

Scale	CCT effectiveness rating	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
SCA	Somewhat effective	22	68	36.04	10.34
	Effective	22	53	33.94	6.45
	Very effective	26	37	31	4.47
PGWBI	Somewhat effective	73	102	88.53	7.24
	Effective	75	102	89.5	6.11
	Very effective	75	98	86.33	8.6
CS	Somewhat effective	1	11	5.23	2.89
	Effective	1	12	6.01	2.31
	Very effective	4	10	6.33	2.33

From the results of the significance values obtained in the one-way ANOVA in Table 5.7 for cross-cultural training effectiveness (N=99), there was no statistically significant difference between levels of CCT effectiveness and sociocultural adjustment, $F(2,96) = .133, p = .270$; psychological well-being, $F(2,96) = .23, p = .791$ or culture shock, $F(2,96) = 1.07, p = .347$. Therefore, the hypotheses H1a, H1b, and H1c for Phase 1 was rejected. To address the research question ‘does cross-cultural training influence cross-cultural adjustment’, the results clearly show that CCA did not influence CCT in this study.

Table 5.7 ANOVA for Cross-cultural Training Effectiveness

Scale	Effect	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
SCA	Between groups	152.6	2	76.3	1.33	0.2705
	Within groups	5524.7	96	57.5		
	Total	5677.3	98	57.9		
PGWBI	Between groups	20.0	2	10.0	0.23	0.7910
	Within groups	4092.5	96	42.6		
	Total	4112.5	98	42.0		
CS	Between groups	13.1	2	6.6	1.07	0.3478
	Within groups	590.9	96	6.2		
	Total	604.1	98	6.2		

5.5.2 Hypothesis two

The second hypothesis that English language proficiency influences cross-cultural adjustment was examined in this section. Results of the current study from responses to survey question 9: “Evaluate your English language proficiency”, appear in Table 5.8 and Figure 5.10 .

In Table 5.8 the frequencies for English language proficiency Phase 1 and Phase 2 are reported. The number of respondents who evaluated their English language proficiency as “basic” decreased from 15% in Phase 1 to 2% in Phase 2. The percentage of respondents who evaluated their language proficiency as “intermediate” showed only a very slight change from 68% in Phase 1 to 64% in Phase 2. In Phase 1 and Phase 2, 16% and 34% of the respondents evaluated their language proficiency as “advanced” respectively. These results show that the expatriates rated their English language proficiency more positively in Phase 2 (Figure 5.10).

Table 5.8 *English Language Proficiency*

Phase	Response	Number	Frequency
Phase 1	Basic	15	15%
	Intermediate	68	69%
	Advanced	16	16%
	Total	99	100%
Phase 2	Basic	2	2%
	Intermediate	54	64%
	Advanced	28	34%
	Total	84	100%

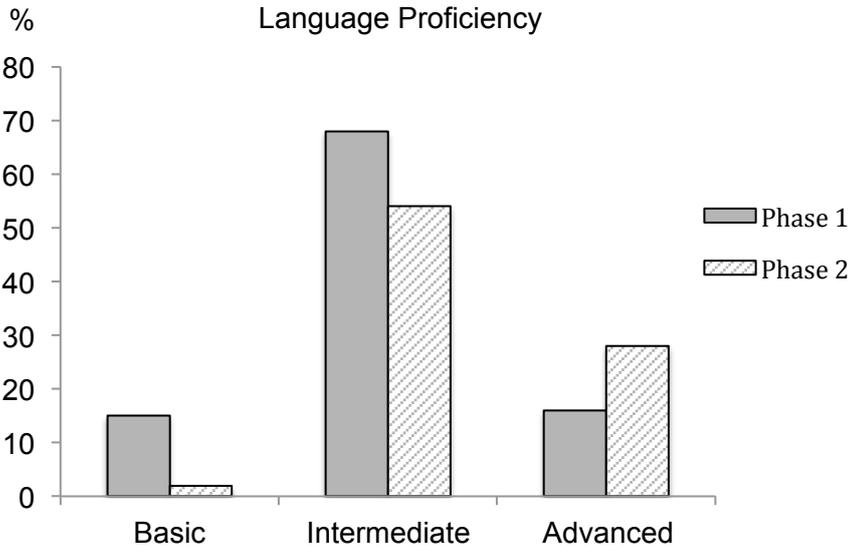


Figure 5.10 *English Language Proficiency*

Descriptive statistics in Table 5.9 outline the mean scores for the three scales, sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock, differentiating between the three language proficiency levels.

Results showed that in Phase 1, sociocultural adjustment scores were significantly different between the three levels of language proficiency: basic ($M = 30.5$, $SD = 6.2$), intermediate ($M = 33.6$, $SD = 6$), and advanced ($M = 40.8$, $SD = 10.8$). This indicated that respondents with a higher language proficiency experienced more successful sociocultural adjustment than participants with basic language skills. Although the scores on sociocultural adjustment improved in Phase 2, this could hardly be attributed to language proficiency as those respondents who evaluated their English skills with basic ($M = 62$, $SD = 7.1$) and advanced ($M = 61.7$, $SD = 4.7$) scored almost similarly on the adjustment scale. When the standard deviations of the two timeframes are compared within the scores for the 'basic', it is clear that in Phase 2 the standard deviation increased which shows that variability within the sample had increased. After further investigation it was found that only 2 respondents answered with basic in Phase 2, with scores of 57 and 67 respectively. This could be an explanation for a mean similar to the advanced group.

In Phase 1, the scores for the PGWBI were slightly different between the basic ($M=86.8$, $SD=5.7$), intermediate ($M=89.1$, $SD=6.3$) and advanced ($M=91.5$, $SD=7.1$). In Phase 2, there was no distinct difference between language proficiency levels and PGWBI test scores. In comparison to Phase 1, the standard deviations in Phase 2 were closer to "0" which showed a distinctly smaller variation in test scores. Furthermore, the standard deviations between the sociocultural adjustment and PGWBI test scores in Phase 2 revealed that there was a greater variation in responses on sociocultural adjustment than on psychological well-being.

In Phase 1, there was a clear distinction between culture shock scores and the levels of language proficiency: basic ($M=6.5$, $SD=2.5$), intermediate ($M=5.7$, $SD=2.4$) and advanced ($M=5.3$, $SD=2.5$). This shows that those respondents who were more proficient in English had experienced lower levels of culture shock. But this difference between language proficiency level and culture shock did not recur in Phase 2, as the scores for intermediate English proficiency were slightly lower than the advanced group.

Table 5.9 *Descriptive Statistics for English Language Proficiency*

Phase	Scale	Language proficiency level	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Phase 1	SCA	Basic	22	45	30.5	6.2
		Intermediate	22	58	33.6	6
		Advanced	28	68	40.8	10.8
	PGWBI	Basic	73	98	86.8	5.7
		Intermediate	75	102	89.1	6.3
		Advanced	76	101	91.5	7.1
	CS	Basic	3	11	6.5	2.5
		Intermediate	1	12	5.7	2.4
		Advanced	1	11	5.3	2.5
Phase 2	SCA	Basic	57	67	62	7.1
		Intermediate	48	71	60.4	4.8
		Advanced	51	70	61.7	4.7
	PGWBI	Basic	95	98	96.5	2.1
		Intermediate	94	104	98.1	2.2
		Advanced	93	104	98.9	2.7
	CS	Basic	3	5	4	1.4
		Intermediate	0	5	2.4	1.1
		Advanced	1	4	2.5	1

Visual inspection reveals that English language proficiency had some effect on sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock in Phase 1.

A one-way ANOVA (Table 5.10) was conducted to test if the effect was statistically significant. From the results of the significance values obtained in Phase 1, for English language proficiency among respondents (N=99), it can be seen that there was no statistically significant difference between levels of English and culture shock, $F (.96) = .96$, $p = .388$; and levels of English skills and psychological well-being, $F (2,96) = 2.08$, $p = .130$.

In Phase 2, there was also no evidence that English language skills had any significant influence on any of the three dependent variables.

But in Phase 1, for sociocultural adjustment, the observed p-value of .000 is well below the chosen alpha of .5. The F (obtained) is 9.49, which far exceeds the F-critical of 3.09 for this test when using an alpha of .05. By either standard, the null hypothesis can be rejected, in support of the conclusion that English language proficiency really does have an effect on sociocultural adjustment. In fact, if a more stringent alpha level (e.g., .01 or .001) was used, the null hypothesis would still be rejected.

Table 5.10 ANOVA for English Language Proficiency

Phase	Scale	Effect	SS	df	MS	F	p-value
Phase 1	SCA	Between groups	937.5	2	468.8	9.49	0.0002
		Within groups	4739.8	96	49.4		
		Total	5677.3	98	57.9		
	PGWBI	Between groups	171.0	2	85.5	2.08	0.1302
		Within groups	3941.6	96	41.1		
		Total	4112.5	98	42.0		
	CS	Between groups	11.8	2	5.9	0.96	0.3882
		Within groups	592.3	96	6.2		
		Total	604.1	98	6.2		
Phase 2	SCA	Between groups	35.0	2	17.5	0.77	0.4673
		Within groups	1846.5	81	22.8		
		Total	1881.6	83	22.7		
	PGWBI	Between groups	17.9	2	9.0	1.59	0.2095
		Within groups	455.6	81	5.6		
		Total	473.6	83	5.7		
	CS	Between groups	5.0	2	2.5	2.16	0.1215
		Within groups	93.8	81	1.2		
		Total	93.8	83	1.2		

A post-hoc analysis using the Tukey-Kramer criterion for significance was performed to determine between which of the language proficiency levels, a significant difference exists. The Tukey-Kramer test (Table 6.11) revealed that those with advanced English skills had better sociocultural adjustment, than those expatriates with basic or intermediate English skills. But those with intermediate English skills did not show better sociocultural adjustment than those with basic English skills. Therefore the hypothesis H2a that language proficiency positively influences sociocultural adjustment, was partially supported in Phase 1.

To address the research question ‘does language proficiency influence cross-cultural adjustment’ , the results indicate that language proficiency only influenced sociocultural adjustment in Phase 1.

Table 6.11 *Tukey-Kramer Post Hoc Analysis of English Language Proficiency Levels*

Contrast	Mean difference	Std. error	Sig.	95% Confidence interval	
				Lower bound	Upper bound
Basic-intermediate	-3.1	2.00	.2809	-7.8	1.7
Basic-advanced	-10.3	2.53	.0003	-16.4	-4.3
Intermediate-advanced	-7.3	1.95	.0010	-11.9	-2.6

5.5.3 Hypothesis three

The third hypothesis that host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment was examined in this section. Results of the current study from responses to survey question 9: “do you have host country friends?” appear in **Table 5.12**.

The first step was to analyse the independent variable and see how the responses ranged. In Table 5.12 the frequencies of social networks for Phase 1 and Phase 2 are reported. The number of respondents (Figure 5.11) who stated that they had locals as friends increased from 75% in Phase 1 to 98% in Phase 2.

Table 5.12 *Host Country Friends*

Phase	Response	Number	Frequency
Phase 1	Yes	74	75%
	No	25	25%
	Total	99	100%
Phase 2	Yes	82	98%
	No	2	2%
	Total	84	100%

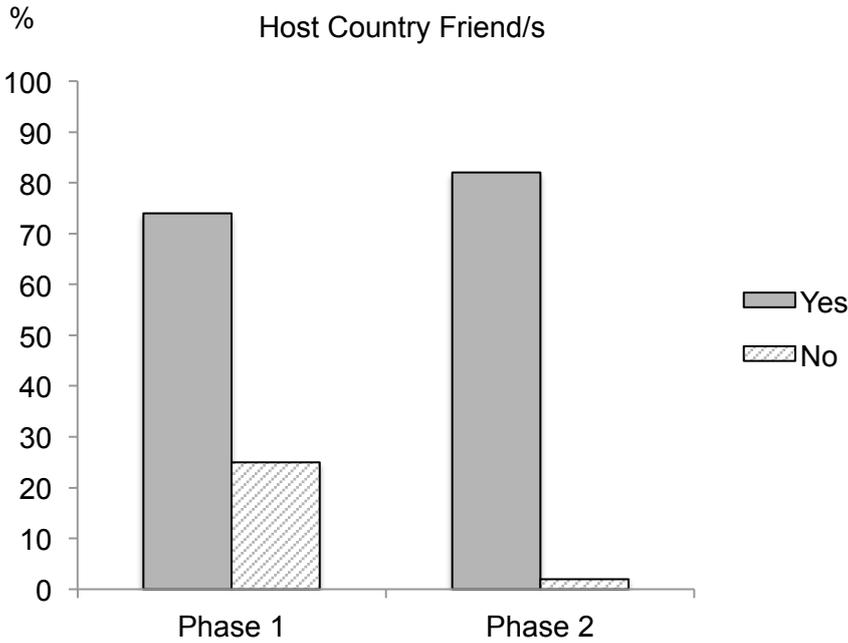


Figure 5.11 *Host Country Friends*

Descriptive statistics in Table 5.13 outline the mean scores for the three scales, sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock, differentiating between the three language proficiency levels.

In Phase 1, expatriates with local friends reported higher sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being than those with less/no local friends, with means of 35.92 and 90.2 respectively. Expatriates with local friends, also experienced a lower culture shock ($M = 5.3$, $SD = 2.33$) than those with no friends.

In Phase 2, only two expatriates reported having no local friends. If this was possible after a year on assignment given the fact that these two expatriates had school-going kids, is questionable. On the other hand, Germans have more distinct boundaries between those they consider as friends (“Freunde”) and those they describe as acquaintances (“Bekannte”).

Table 5.13 *Descriptive Statistics for Host Country Friends*

Phase	Scale	Local friends	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Phase 1	SCA	no	22	42	29.56	4.69
		yes	25	68	35.92	7.76
	PGWBI	no	73	98	86.32	6.9
		yes	75	102	90.2	6.06
	CS	no	3	11	7.4	2.29
		yes	1	12	5.3	2.33
Phase 2	SCA	no	56	67	61.5	5.5
		yes	48	71	60.85	4.74
	PGWBI	no	98	99	98.5	0.5
		yes	93	104	98.3	2.42
	CS	no	1	4	2.5	1.5
		yes	0	5	2.4	1.08

Since the question was a simple “yes/no” categorical variable, a t-test (Table 5.14) was carried out to further examine the data. The results of the t-test for Phase 1 indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between those expatriates who had local friends and those who did not, and their sociocultural adjustment ($p \leq .05$), psychological well-being ($p \leq .05$) and culture shock levels ($p \leq .05$). Therefore the hypotheses that host country friendships positively influences sociocultural adjustment (H3a) and psychological well-being (H3b) and negatively influenced culture shock (H3c) levels in Phase 1 was accepted. In other words, those expatriates with host country friends experienced less culture shock.

In Phase 2, no statistical analysis on the data could be performed as there was no comparable groups within the sample to analyse. The majority (98%) of the expatriates had local friends. But 23% more expatriates had local friends in Phase 2 and cross-cultural adjustment scores on all three scales improved. If this increase in host country friends had any influence on any of the cross-cultural adjustment dimensions, remains unconfirmed. To address the research question ‘does host country friendships influence cross-cultural adjustment’, the results indicate that having host country friends positively influenced CCA in Phase 1.

Table 5.14 *Independent T-Test Results for Host Country Friends*

Scale	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference	
						Lower	Upper
SCA	3.8591	97	0.0002	-6.36	1.648	-9.63	-3.09
PGWBI	2.6608	97	0.0091	-3.87	1.454	-6.76	-0.98
CS	3.9203	97	0.0002	2.10	0.536	1.04	3.17

Note: (N = 99)

5.5.4 Hypothesis four

The fourth hypothesis that previous overseas experience influences cross-cultural adjustment was examined in this section. A simple yes/no question distinguished between those respondents who had previous overseas work experience and those who did not. Results of hypothesis four appear in Table 5.15 and Figure 5.12 from responses to survey question 9: Have you had any previous overseas experience?

In Table 5.15 the frequencies of expatriates who had, and did not have previous overseas work experience are displayed. In Phase 1, 39% had worked overseas previously and in Phase 2, 40% had previous overseas work experience. No analyses could be made or conclusions drawn on these figures because previous overseas experience is an independent variable that remains constant during the timeframe of the study. The expatriates merely stated if they had previous work experience abroad or not. And the differences in frequencies between Phase 1 and Phase 2 is only due to the number of respondents that participated in each survey phase.

Table 5.15 *Previous Overseas Work Experience*

Phase	Response	Number	Frequency
Phase 1	Yes	39	39%
	No	60	61%
	Total	99	100%
Phase 2	Yes	36	43%
	No	48	57%
	Total	84	100%

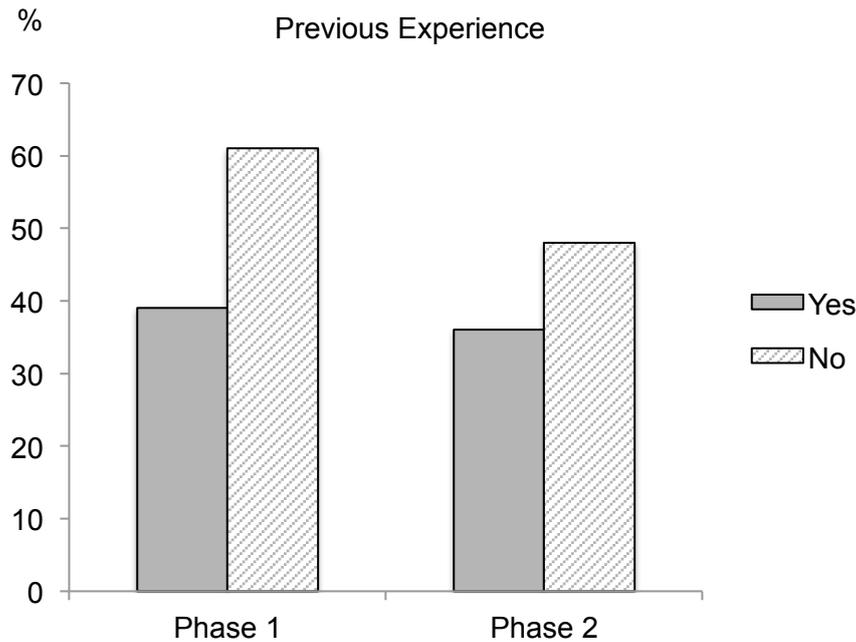


Figure 5.12 Previous Overseas Work Experience

Results from the descriptive statistics (Table 5.16) showed that in Phase 1 sociocultural adjustment scores were slightly higher between those expatriates who had previous overseas work experience (M = 36.6, SD = 8.9) as compared to those who did not (M = 32.8, SD = 6.3). Although the standard deviation was high for those who had previous overseas work experience, a boxplot revealed that there were no outliers. Psychological well-being scores also differed between those expatriates who had previous overseas work experience (M = 89.6, SD = 6.4) to those who had no previous experience (M = 89, SD = 6.6). Culture shock scores yielded lower results for those expatriates who had previous overseas experience (M = 5.6, SD 0 2.4).

In Phase 2 a different scenario is observed, in that those expatriates with no previous overseas work experience showed better sociocultural adjustment (M = 61.92, SD = 4.5) and lower culture shock (M = 2.44, SD = 1.2) than those expatriates who have been on previous international assignments.

Table 5.16 *Descriptive Statistics for Previous Overseas Work Experience*

Phase	Scale	Overseas experience	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD
Phase 1	SCA	Yes	23	68	36.6	8.9
		No	22	53	32.8	6.3
	PGWBI	Yes	76	102	89.6	6.4
		No	73	99	89	6.6
	CS	Yes	1	11	5.6	2.4
		No	1	12	5.9	2.6
Phase 2	SCA	Yes	48	70	59.5	4.85
		No	54	71	61.92	4.5
	PGWBI	Yes	94	104	98.7	2.32
		No	93	104	98	2.41
	CS	Yes	1	4	2.5	0.94
		No	0	5	2.44	1.2

A t-test (Table 5.17) was conducted to further investigate this variable. The results of the t-test indicated that in Phase 1 and Phase 2, there was a statistically significant difference between those expatriates who had previous overseas work experience and those who did not and their sociocultural adjustment ($p \leq .05$). Therefore the hypothesis H4a that previous overseas work experience influences sociocultural adjustment in both phases of the research is accepted. The hypothesis H4b and H4c in Phase 1 and Phase 2 was rejected. To address the research question ‘does previous overseas experience influence cross-cultural adjustment’ , the results confirm that previous overseas experience positively influenced sociocultural adjustment in both phases and had no influence on psychological well-being or culture shock.

Table 5.17 *Independent T-Test Results for Previous Overseas Work Experience*

Phase	Scale	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference	
							Lower	Upper
Phase 1	SCA	2.49	97	0.0145	-3.8	1.526	-6.83	-0.77
	PGWBI	0.4657	97	0.6424	-0.62	1.338	-3.28	2.03
	CS	0.6031	97	0.5479	0.31	0.512	-0.71	1.33
Phase 2	SCA	2.394	82	0.0189	2.44	1.021	0.41	4.48
	PGWBI	1.3246	82	0.189	-0.69	0.524	-1.74	0.35
	CS	0.1435	82	0.8863	-0.03	0.242	-0.52	0.45

5.5.5 Hypothesis five

The fifth hypothesis that cultural distance influences cross-cultural adjustment, will be examined in this section. The respondents were asked to indicate on a five-point Likert-type scale how similar or different a number of conditions were in South Africa as compared to their home country Germany. The highest rating yields a score of 40 and the lowest rating yields a score of 8. For easier interpretation of the results, the scale was reverse scored in the analysis to make a higher score represent a higher cultural distance.

Table 5.18 compares the results for the Culture Novelty Scale Phase 1 and Phase 2. The total score of each respondent was selected for analysis. The scale is scored so that a higher score reflects a larger cultural distance between host and home country.

Just perusing the data, confirms that the results shifted from a more dispersed to a clustered data set. It is clear that the perceived degree of cultural distance increased in Phase 2.

We see in Table 5.18 that the expatriates rated SA as being different to Germany. There was a difference in mean scores between Phase 1 (M = 30.47, SD = 3.98) and Phase 2 (M = 31.03, SD = 2.57).

Table 5.18 *Descriptive Statistics for Cultural Distance*

Phase	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Phase 1	22	38	30.47	3.98
Phase 2	24	37	31.03	2.57

A closer analyses of the data in Table 5.19 for cultural distance Phase 1 and 2 showed that an overwhelming majority of the expatriates found the climate (Phase 2 : M = 4.99, SD = .11) the transportation system (Phase 2 : M = 4.98, SD = .15) and the health care system (Phase 2: M= 4.92, SD = .28) in South Africa very different to that in Germany.

The perceived difference in housing conditions between SA and Germany increased in Phase 2 (M = 4.62, SD = .73). Expatriates also found a strong contrast in general living conditions (M = 4.7, SD = .45). It is interesting to take note that the perceived difference in cost of living between Germany and South Africa decreased from `different` in Phase 1 (M = 4.11, SD = 1.18) to `somewhat similar` in Phase 2 (M = 2.73, SD = 1.38). As Phase 1 passed, the expatriates found that the cost of living in South Africa is more or less comparable to Germany (Figure 5.13).

Table 5.19 *Cultural Distance Index items*

Phase	CD items	Mean	SD
Phase 1	Daily habits/practices	2.27	0.93
	General living conditions	3.89	1.02
	Health system	4.64	0.54
	Transport system	4.89	0.31
	Cost of living	4.11	1.18
	Quality and choice of food	2.36	0.95
	Climate	4.86	0.35
	Housing conditions	3.44	1.28
Phase 2	Daily habits/practices	1.48	0.74
	General living conditions	4.7	0.45
	Health system	4.92	0.28
	Transport system	4.98	0.15
	Cost of living	2.73	1.38
	Quality and choice of food	2.63	1.19
	Climate	4.99	0.11
	Housing conditions	4.62	0.73

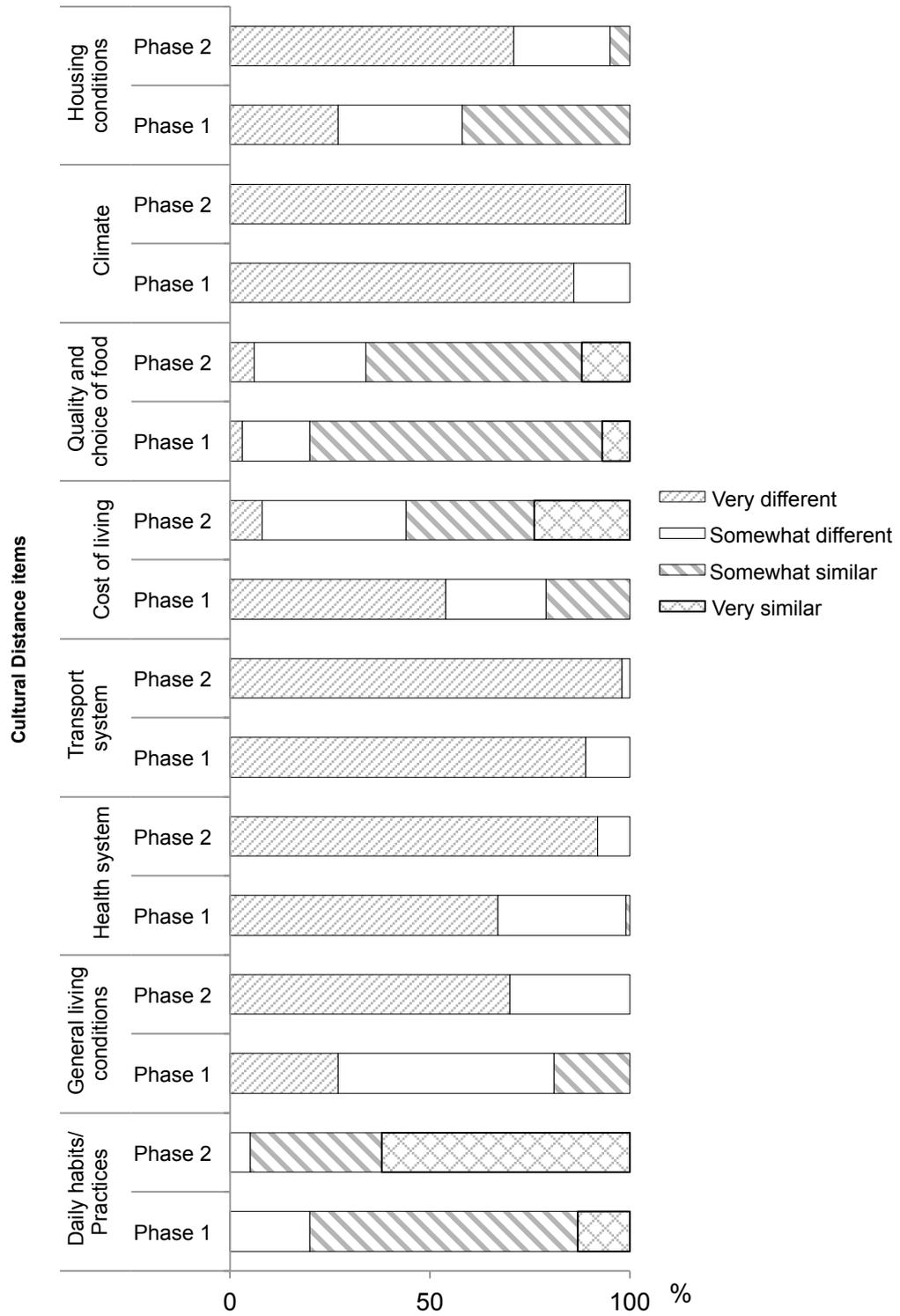


Figure 5.13 Cultural Distance Index Items

Pearson's Correlation Coefficients (Table 5.20) pointed to several relationships of interest. In Phase 1, cultural distance had a significant negative effect on sociocultural adjustment ($p = -.396$) and psychological well-being ($p = -.482$). This suggested that the greater the expatriates considered the cultural distance between Germany and South Africa, the less socioculturally adjusted they were and the lower their psychological well-being. However cultural distance had a significant positive relationship on culture shock ($p = .413$). Expatriates who perceived a greater cultural distance between the host and home country experienced greater culture shock. Therefore the Hypotheses H5a, H5b and H5c in Phase 1 was accepted.

In Phase 2, (Table 7.21) cultural distance had a weak negative effect on sociocultural adjustment ($p = -.292$) and psychological well-being ($p = -.247$) and no effect on culture shock ($.007$). Although to a small effect, a relationship does exist, therefore the hypotheses H5a and H5b for Phase 1 was rejected and the hypothesis H5c was not rejected. To address the research question 'does cultural distance influence cross-cultural adjustment' , the results indicate that cultural distance had a negative influence on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being in both phases and it had a positive influence on culture shock only in Phase 1.

Table 5.20 *Correlations between Cross-cultural Adjustment Scales and Cultural Distance (Phase 1)*

Phase 1		SCA	PGWBI	CS	CD
SCA	Correlation coefficient	1			
	Sig.(2-tailed)				
	N				
PGWBI	Correlation coefficient	.444**	1		
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000			
	N	99			
CS	Correlation coefficient	-.291**	-.527**	1	
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.003	.000		
	N	99	99		
CD	Correlation coefficient	-.396**	-.482**	.413**	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.000	.000	.000	
	N	99	99	99	

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 7.21 *Correlations Between Cross-cultural Adjustment Scales and Cultural Distance (Phase 2)*

Phase 2		SCA	PGWBI	CS	CD
SCA	Correlation coefficient	1			
	Sig.(2-tailed)				
	N				
PGWBI	Correlation coefficient	.037	1		
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.738			
	N	84			
CS	Correlation coefficient	.104	-.205	1	
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.346	.06		
	N	84	84		
CD	Correlation coefficient	-.292**	-.247**	.007	1
	Sig.(2-tailed)	.007	.02	.949	
	N	84	84	84	

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

5.5.6 Hypothesis six

The research design of the study was also set out to analyse the effect of spousal/partner adjustment on expatriate adjustment. This was to be achieved by asking the respondents to assign a 5-digit code made up of numbers and alphabets to themselves and their spouses/partners. But this was seen with great scepticism among the expatriates therefore this procedure was eliminated. As a result, corresponding data related to spousal/partner adjustment and expatriate adjustment could not be gathered. As a result, the researcher could not address the research question 'does spouse/partner adjustment influence expatriate cross-cultural adjustment'.

Regardless of this lost opportunity, valuable information on spousal/partner adjustment was collected. The demographics review (Table 5.22) shows that the majority of spouses/partners were between 30-50 years old and accompanied their spouse/partner and children. When comparing the spousal/partner descriptive results (Table 5.22) with that of the expatriates (Table 5.3) the results show that spousal/partner sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock scores were relatively similar to that of the expatriates in Phase one. But in Phase two, expatriates scored higher on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being and experienced less culture shock than the spouses/partners. A t-test (Table 5.24) confirms that there was a significant difference between Phase 1 and Phase 2 for sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock for spouses/partners.

Table 5.22 *Spousal/Partner Demographics*

Variable	Indicator	Phase 1		Phase 2	
		f	%	f	%
Age	30-50	77	89	71	90
	Over 50	10	11	8	10
Accompanied by	Spouse/partner	11	13	10	13
	Spouse/partner and children	76	87	69	87

Table 5.23 *Descriptive Statistics for Spousal/Partner Adjustment*

Phase	Scale	N	Minimum	Maximum	M	SD	Cronbach alpha
Phase 1	SCA	87	16	57	32.32	9.12	0.9
	PGWBI	87	74	102	88.45	5.91	0.83
	CS	87	2	13	5.69	2.55	0.72
Phase 2	SCA	79	46	71	56.51	6.43	
	PGWBI	79	86	105	95.98	4.2	
	CS	79	1	7	3.94	1.64	

Table 5.24 *Independent T-test Results for Spousal Adjustment, Phase One and Phase Two*

Scale	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean difference	Std. error difference	95% confidence interval of the difference	
						Lower	Upper
SCA	19.5669	164	0.0001	-24.19	1.236	-26.63	-21.74
PGWBI	9.3759	164	0.0001	-7.53	0.803	-9.11	-5.94
CS	5.2001	164	0.0001	1.75	0.337	1.08	2.41

(Phase1 - N = 87, Phase 2 - N = 79)

Table 5.25 *Summary of Hypotheses Results*

Hypothesis	Phase 1	Phase 2
CCT positively influences SCA	rejected	no data for this phase
CCT positively influences PGWBI	rejected	
CCT positively influences CS	rejected	
Language positively influences SCA	partially accepted	rejected
Language positively influences PGWBI	rejected	rejected
Language positively influences CS	rejected	rejected
Host country friends positively influences SCA	accepted	no
Host country friends positively influences PGWBI	accepted	comparable groups in
Host country friends positively influences CS	accepted	sample
Previous overseas experience positively influences SCA	accepted	accepted
Previous overseas experience positively influences PGWBI	rejected	rejected
Previous overseas experience positively influences CS	rejected	rejected
Cultural distance negatively influences SCA	accepted	accepted
Cultural distance negatively influences PGWBI	accepted	accepted
Cultural distance positively influences CS	accepted	rejected
Spousal/partner SCA positively influences expatriate SCA	no statistics	no statistics
Spousal/partner PGWB positively influences expatriate PGWB	no statistics	no statistics
Spousal/partner CS negatively influences expatriate CS	no statistics	no statistics

5.6 DISCUSSION

By integrating the literature findings on CCT (Chapter 3), it was clear that researchers paralleled in their recommendations on an appropriate CCT programme. Some of the main factors that need to be incorporated into a well-designed CCT programme were firstly, the three training levels: cognitive, affective and experiential (Mendenhall & Odoou, 1986). Secondly, the duration and timing of CCT (Black et al., 1992) was regarded as important depending on the length of the international assignment. And thirdly, training rigour (Black & Mendenhall, 1989) was also considered an influential factor in the success of CCT.

The researcher established that the organisation provided a once-off 4-day training seminar and in addition, language courses. The 4-day seminar adopted the three training levels and, low, moderate and high rigour training methods. It was difficult to find clear classifications regarding the training method and the duration of training, firstly because experts in the field included language training into their hours of training (Table 3.3), and secondly in the training seminar, there were no clear boundaries between the training methods. But it was established that the duration of training fitted more or less to the minimum hours recommended in the literature.

The visit to the host country was rated as 'very effective' and 'effective' by most expatriates. But the content of the field trip raises a few questions and is an issue that requires more research and discussion. The expatriates and their spouses/partners participated in a weeklong visit to the host country. Apart from meeting with the host country work colleagues, most time was spent on house hunting. Is this beneficial to the expatriate's adjustment? And can this be categorised as CCT? Or is it organisational support? Therefore more work needs to be done here on the purpose of the field trip, what are the aims of the visit and what methods or strategies can be used to achieve these aims. For example, the expatriate family spends a day with a host country family.

From the results, it was clear that the organisation needs to offer more post arrival CCT. At the moment only language training is offered. This brings us back to Selmer's sequential training (De Leon et al., 1998) where he suggests that training should be coordinated and provided according to the phases of adjustment. He recommends that CCT is spread out over a specific timeframe beginning a few months and held on a regular basis before departure and ending a few months after arrival in the host country. The organisation on the other hand provided pre-departure, a once-off 4-day seminar which integrated all the main training methods, and only a language course in the host country.

Maybe the timing of CCT would make more sense rather than just a once-off 4-day seminar. Feedback from former expatriates could prove useful in providing valuable information on meeting deficit-training needs in the host country.

Another interesting result is that expatriates found all training methods effective. And it was clear that the internet was a valuable information source to the expatriates. The organisation provided adequate pre-departure and post arrival support varying from health insurance, tax consultancy to advice on schooling and home flights. As much as this array of support seems adequate, an important aspect which is considered very helpful for the settling-in phase of adjustment was not offered. Expatriates did not receive any help with social networking.

While the organisation did not provide any formal channels for social networking with the locals or with other expatriates, expatriates took the initiative themselves to meet other expatriates by word of mouth or through former contact in the home country. They used their vacations to tour the country with other expatriates. Expatriates who had school-going children were at an advantage in that this provided the background to meet other expatriates and locals on an informal basis. Local acquaintances were mainly work colleagues and families of school friends. The school organised regular activities promoting German and South African tradition and culture, like Oktoberfest and Heritage day. The host country human resource department was only responsible for all 'official' questions and concerns.

A comparison was made between Phase 1 and Phase 2 in sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and culture shock. Expatriates found that their sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being improved with time. It is only natural that after initial settling-in difficulties, expatriates have more time to enjoy and participate in sport and recreation. Once the final personal touches are added to furnishing and decorating their dwelling, and turning a house into their home, they develop a sense of belonging, and once they acclimatise to the climate in South Africa; they start to develop a positive frame of mind towards the host country. As time passes, expatriates learn to adapt and become more familiar with the new culture. They find it easier to interpret cultural cues which helps promote social networks. Therefore what was strange and shocking at the beginning of the assignment, after a while felt familiar or was accepted. As time passes, expatriates learn to overcome the stresses of the initial adjustment phase by adopting appropriate strategies. Their positive progress in cross-cultural adjustment is also reinforced by the low culture shock scores in Phase 2.

The study examined various antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment. The main factor, CCT effectiveness, which is the independent variable in this study, showed no significant influence on cross-cultural adjustment, although the expatriates found the CCT to be effective. Therefore the central hypothesis was rejected. This could be due to the difficulty in linking the training methods with levels or dimensions of adjustment. There is a need for more longitudinal qualitative studies that capture exactly which training method facilitated which adjustment dimension. Although more time consuming, these studies could provide more accurate information. Additionally, the research incorporated the impact of supplementary attributes proven critical to adjustment in previous studies. The supplementary attributes are language, host country friends, cultural distance, previous overseas experience and spousal adjustment.

Expatriates rated their English language proficiency more positively in Phase 2. A plausible explanation for the expatriates more positive evaluation of their English skills in phase two, could be due to the fact that the expatriates were in the host country for a year before the second survey was conducted. Within this time, they participated in an English course in the host country and through regular interaction with locals on a daily basis and building social networks, they felt more confident of their English skills.

The results of the influence of English language proficiency on adjustment can be analysed in two segments. Firstly, English language proficiency only had a significant effect on sociocultural adjustment. Language skills enhance daily interactions with host nationals, which indirectly helps to understand the local culture and in getting information on shopping, transport etc. This in turn facilitates sociocultural adjustment. These results are also confirmed in Selmer's study (2006). Secondly, English language proficiency had no effect on cross-cultural adjustment in Phase 2. After the initial settling-in phase where language skills are essential, language proficiency thereafter is not as important as other factors in facilitating adjustment because expatriates have already accumulated the necessary general information and learnt the subtle cultural cues guiding behaviour.

The number of expatriates who had locals as acquaintances increased from Phase 1 to Phase 2. As expatriates adapt to the new culture and integrate with the locals as they go about their everyday lives, they will make local acquaintances through shopping, children's schooling, neighbours and home maintenance services. Local acquaintances assist expatriates in understanding behaviour and customs easier thus easing adjustment. In phase one it was clear that the influence of having local acquaintances positively affected cross-cultural adjustment and reduced culture shock levels.

Those expatriates with previous overseas experience reported higher levels of sociocultural adjustment and lower levels of culture shock in Phase 1. Previous international experience increases familiarity with foreign cultural environments whereby, the expatriate learns relocation skills, develops routines and schemata that expedites cultural adjustment in the present assignment. In Phase 2 however, those expatriates with no previous international experience showed better sociocultural adjustment and lower levels of culture shock. There is a risk that previous experience could be a drawback to cross-cultural adjustment. The expatriate could take the new cultural environment for granted and ignore the specific cultural differences that are important for successful adjustment. Furthermore previous experience in a foreign country could build up expectations of an easy and quick adjustment, which could if it was not accomplished, result in frustration, resentment and withdrawal.

Cultural distance had a significant negative effect on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being and a positive effect on culture shock in Phase 1. The conception that a perceived greater cultural distance impedes adjustment is based on the notion that the expatriate will simply not know, or even be able to identify, appropriate behaviour (Brewster & Suutari, 1998) and in turn will experience difficulty in adjustment and a higher culture shock. These results are also confirmed by Mumford (Babiker et al., 1980) in section 4.3.4.4. who found that the greater the perceived cultural difference between home and host country, the greater the culture shock. Expatriate adjustment is affected not only by objective distance which includes cultural differences, but also by the mind-set of the expatriate. The expatriate's perceptions about the similarities and differences between the home and host countries also affects cross-cultural adjustment.

It is clear that the degree of cultural distance increased over time with some expatriates. Generally, expatriates perceived that SA had a greater cultural distance to Germany. During the initial phases of adjustment, expatriates found South Africa to be very different to Germany especially regarding the health care system, transportation and the climate. The climate is no surprise that South Africa has milder winters and more humid and hotter summers than in Germany. Secondly, coming from Germany, which has a very well developed and efficient public transportation network, expatriates found it hard to adjust to the informal public transport in South Africa. The 'minibus' taxis which have no official routes or timetables and in an advanced stage of disrepair was a 'no-go' for expatriates who are used to something a bit more organised in their home country.

Cycling is also a common form of transportation in Germany. Expatriates found that the lack of cycle lanes made it difficult or almost impossible to use bicycles in South Africa. Expatriates relied heavily on private cars to transport their kids to school, for daily chores, to get to work, or during outings.

One cannot deny that Germany's health care system is quite different to South Africa. In Germany every citizen has compulsory medical insurance whereas in South Africa there exists a highly inequitable two-tiered system in which the vast majority of the population does not have medical insurance. Expatriates found that generally a large number of the population mainly the lower income group in South Africa had no medical insurance or easy access to health care. But they found the quality of health care similar to Germany. The only variables that expatriates rated similar to Germany was the quality and choice of food and the daily habits of the locals.

In Phase 2, although expatriates still perceived the cultural distance between the two countries as high, over time, these differences are accepted and expatriates learn to adapt. Therefore perceived cultural distance had no significant effect on cross-cultural adjustment in Phase 2. The perceived difference in housing conditions between SA and Germany increased in Phase 2. Expatriates felt that the houses in South Africa are more spacious, open-plan and free in design, whereas in Germany, the design of the houses are strongly controlled by the local authorities and real estate costs are high forcing people to build smaller homes. Expatriates also found a strong contrast in general living condition. In Germany, access to water and electricity is taken for granted and within reach. In South Africa many people still live without basic services, in particular, water and sanitation.

It is interesting to take note that the perceived difference in cost of living between Germany and South Africa decreased from phase one to phase two. As time passed, the expatriates found that the cost of living in South Africa is more or less comparable to Germany. Although the company paid for medical aid and accommodation, expatriates found that their local salary did not stretch as far as they expected. Groceries consumed a large chunk of an expatriate's budget together with transport, telecommunications and education. The cost of education in South Africa is relatively high considering that expatriate kids are sent to a special private school, where German language courses are offered. Unforeseen expenses like pool maintenance, garden services and a domestic worker were just some of the financial surprises facing expatriates.

The results for spousal adjustment show that expatriates displayed higher sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being and lower culture shock in phase two. In terms of influencing factors, the spouse goes through a similar adjustment process to that of the expatriate. The expatriate comes to the host country with a definite advantage in that he has a predefined job with inherent responsibilities, an organizational support system and has the opportunity at work to establish a social network with host nationals. Whereas the spouse faces a loss of her established social networks, a stable career and familiar surroundings. Because expatriate spouses come into contact with more local people and face challenges of the host country culture on a daily basis, than the expatriate, they may experience these differences between the host and home country as more perceptible. As time passed spousal cross-cultural adjustment improved.

5.7 SUMMARY

This chapter presented the statistical analysis, reporting and interpretation of the data gathered. The presentation of the biographical data was followed by descriptive statistics for the variables. ANOVA and post hoc tests were conducted to confirm statistically significant differences among groups in order to accept or reject the hypotheses. The reliability of each measuring instrument was established and reported. The discussion of the results acknowledged the unique factors that contribute to cross-cultural adjustment. Herewith the research aims of the study have been achieved.

In the next chapter, conclusions regarding the literature findings and the empirical investigation will be discussed. Limitations of the study will be reviewed and finally recommendations for the organisation and for future research will be made.

6. CHAPTER SIX: CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, conclusions will be drawn relating to the research questions based on the literature review and the empirical study. The limitations of the study will be discussed and recommendations for the organisation and for international human resource management will be made.

6.1 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE LITERATURE AIMS OF THE STUDY

6.1.1 Conceptualise CCT from a theoretical perspective

The first aim, to conceptualise CCT from a theoretical perspective was accomplished in Chapter 2. After an exhaustive analysis of the vast literature on CCT, Tung's (1981) and Kealey and Protheroe's (1996) definitions were integrated and adopted as "an organised educational experience with the objective of helping sojourners learn about, and therefore adjust to their new work and home in a foreign land", for its simplicity, generalisability and adaptability. In comparison to traditional training and development programmes, which encompass the acquisition of new information, CCT is a process of expanding an expatriate's worldview to understand and appreciate his own culture and the differences to other cultures.

6.1.2 Identify the components of a well-designed CCT programme

The second aim was realised in Chapter 3. It was clear that amongst the diverse CCT models, most theorists and researchers shared common ideas. Most of the significant studies on CCT echoed three key elements. Firstly, training methods are categorised into cognitive, affective and experiential techniques (Black & Mendenhall, 1989). Secondly, the duration of the assignment and the cultural distance of the host culture determines training duration (Black & Mendenhall, 1989; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Thirdly, training rigour is dependent on the duration of the assignment, the level of interaction with the host nationals, the cultural distance of the host culture and the expatriate's cultural skill level. (Black et al., 1992).

Further developments in CCT methodologies placed emphasis on the timing of CCT and extended CCT practices to include assistance and support after arrival in the host country. Although there is no universally accepted CCT methodology, the study was successful in integrating the main ideas and formulating a well-designed CCT programme.

6.1.3 Conceptualise CCA from a theoretical perspective

The third aim to define CCA and its facets was realised in Chapter 2. The study selected the definition of CCA by Black et al. (1991). They defined cross-cultural adjustment as “the process of adaptation to living and working in a foreign culture, and the perceived degree of psychological and sociocultural comfort, and familiarity a person has with the new host culture.” Chapter 2 also clearly identified CCA as a multidimensional construct whereby the expatriate has to adjust to the work environment, the general environment and interaction with host country nationals (Jaworski et al., 2001; Ronen et al., 2005). More importantly, it was established that the expatriate subjectively goes through sociocultural and psychological adjustment. These two adjustment processes provided the groundwork for the empirical study.

6.1.4 Explore whether cross-cultural training influences cross-cultural adjustment

This aim was discussed in Chapter 3. Evidence of the effectiveness of CCT on CCA remains inconclusive. While some studies have found positive influences of CCT (Bean, 2008; Bürgi et al., 2001; Ko & Yang, 2011; Selmer, 2001), other researchers observed no influence, or a negative impact of CCT on adjustment (Kittler et al., 2008; Selmer, 2005). Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl (2009) found that although CCT facilitates interaction, work and general adjustment, its effect differed depending on the expatriate’s country of origin. Hofstede’s (1983) dimensions further reinforce their findings that the larger the cultural distance between home country and host country, the more evident are the effects of CCT.

Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) found that CCT has a strong impact on skills development, adjustment and performance. Bürgi et al. (2001) proposed a theory of met expectations in assessing the effectiveness of CCT, suggesting that the more relevant the CCT, the more accurate the expectations of the expatriates, and this in turn, positively affects cross-cultural adjustment. Eschbach et al. (2001) found cross-cultural training effective in reducing the time required to adjust and achieve cultural proficiency. Hence their studies broadly support the effectiveness of cross-cultural training in improving expatriate efficiency. One reason for these inconsistent findings may be that most studies had marked research design deficiencies.

6.1.5 Determine the theoretical relationship between CCT and CCA?

The next aim, to confirm the theoretical relationship between CCT and CCA was resolved in Chapter 3. From the literature review, it was established that there is an interrelation between CCT and CCA. More specifically, research has repeatedly confirmed the facilitating effect of CCT on CCA (Bean, 2007; Panaccio & Waxin, 2005; Zakaria, 2000). The expatriate goes through a series of difficulties in the acculturation cycle. A well planned cross-cultural training programme can help the expatriate to alleviate the everyday stresses associated with adjustment and minimise culture shock through recognising and reconciling differences and adapting to changes.

6.1.6 Explore whether language proficiency influences CCA

The literature confirms that knowledge of the host country language is essential for living and working in a foreign country. It helps in understanding the perspective of the people with whom one works and interacts with (Ashamalla, 1998). Takeuchi et al. (2002) confirmed that language proficiency helps expatriates learn appropriate work values, which in turn enables them to behave appropriately in their work place. Furthermore language skills create and foster daily interactions with host nationals and help expatriates to understand the local culture (Dolainski, 1997). More especially in Asian countries, language proficiency facilitates interaction adjustment and helps to learn appropriate cultural and work values (Tran & Wang, 2012).

It has been argued, however, that language skills may be more important in some expatriate positions than in others. The Gilley et al. (1999) study found language fluency to be much more important for the interaction adjustment of technical expatriates than for managerial expatriates. This may be indicative of the highly specialised role of technicians in the transfer of knowledge to host country nationals.

Haslberger (2005) found that the perception of possessing sufficient language skills is positively related to cognitive and emotional adaptation. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) concluded that language skills are a means to create and foster interpersonal relationships and understanding of the dynamics of a new culture. The above evidence verifies that language proficiency is important for effective cross-cultural adjustment in a foreign country.

6.1.7 Explore whether host country friendships influence CCA

Chapter 2 confirms that the ability to develop friendships with host-nationals is an important factor in successful overseas adjustment. The friendship that HCNs extend to the expatriates has been found to help expatriates overcome the stressful period they face while going through the early stages of adjustment (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b). Expatriates need to learn what to expect, how to interpret various stimuli, and how to behave appropriately in their new role in the host country (Black & Mendenhall, 1990b; Bochner & Furnham, 1986). HCNs possess the requisite knowledge and through supportive friendships provide, information, emotional reassurance, encouragement or help in dealing with stressful situations, which in turn helps the expatriate, deal with unexpected or unpleasant experiences (Nelson & Quick 1999). Gençöz and Özlale (2004) confirm that the establishment of a social network in the host country positively predicts expatriate psychological well-being. They also confirmed that the number, variety and depth of social encounters with host nationals might be the most important factor, related to expatriate adjustment.

It was even suggested that the knowledge gained from HCNs cannot be substituted by formal training that the organisation may provide beforehand (Caligiuri & Di Santo, 2001; Oddou, 2002). This is substantiated by various studies where expatriates with host country friendships adjusted more easily (Andreason, 2003; Apud, Johnson, Lenartowicz, 2006; Kanungo & Wang, 2004). Expatriates who frequently interact with host nationals are less surprised, and experience less cultural shock (Bell & Harrison, 1996). On the otherhand, contradictory to the host country friendship findings, western expatriates working in China found working with locals increased stress as the cultures differed dramatically (Selmer, 1999b). This raises the question of the impact of cultural distance on the positive influence of social support networks on expatriate adjustment.

6.1.8 Explore whether previous overseas experience influences CCA

In trying to explore whether prior international experience influences CCA, the researcher found inconsistent research findings. Researchers (Choi et al., 2012; Kabongo & Okpara, 2011; Seyedimany, 2014) postulate that the relationship of prior international experience to present adjustment may depend on the similarity or distance of prior host countries to the current host country.

Prior international experience in dissimilar countries may have little to do with an expatriate's current adjustment experiences, by engendering misleading expectations. But Bandura (1977) posited that previous experiences helps in the formulation of realistic expectations as to the degree of difficulty one should expect. For previous expatriate experience to become an adaptation facilitating force, it must have been a positive one (Haslberger, 2005). He stresses that the nature and quality of the previous experience may be important. Church (1982) argued that previous cultural exposure in other foreign locations or in the host country may serve to reinforce stereotypes and defences, which inhibit adjustment. Kabongo and Okbara dismissed this premise in their study (2011), in that expatriates, irrespective of the nature of their previous overseas experience, showed a positive relationship to all three adjustment dimensions. Thus, the nature, quality, and similarity of the previous cultural experience may be more important than the quantitative amount of previous experience.

Although there is inconsistency in the empirical findings relating to prior international experience, it is reasonable to assume that previous experience living overseas reduces culture shock and allows quicker and more complete adjustment, in the country to which a person is currently assigned. Expatriates who had prior international experience have already developed their own way of interacting with people from foreign cultures. Exactly how previous international experience facilitates CCA or what factors inhibit or magnify the impact of previous experience has yet to be comprehensively determined by scholars in the field.

6.1.9 Explore whether cultural distance influences CCA

In Chapter 2, the influence of cultural distance on CCA was explored. Studies show that it was easier for expatriates to adjust when a low cultural distance was perceived (Farooq & Pengiran 2015; Redmond, 2000). Cultural similarity also allows for greater accuracy in expatriate ability to predict and explain host national behaviour. The expatriate's perception of the cultural distance between the home and host country plays a major role in adjustment. Kang (2011) studied Korean expatriates in the US and established that the greater the expatriates perceived the difference between home and host culture, the lower the adjustment level.

Living and working is less stressful in culturally similar countries than in culturally distant countries because expatriates are likely to adjust more easily to countries similar to their home country where they have spent most of their lives.

Expatriates on assignment in foreign countries must try to make sense of the new environment in order to function effectively. Adjustment to a different cultural context is a daily challenge for expatriates.

Chiu, Selmer and Shenkar (2007) proposed that it could be as difficult for expatriates to adjust to a similar as to a dissimilar host culture. It is easier for expatriates assigned to culturally different host cultures to be aware of the dissimilarity, while those in cultures similar to their own often fail to identify any differences that do exist. Hence, ensuing problems that occur may be inappropriately attributed to other factors rather than to cultural differences. Because of this, the expatriate may not acquire and retain new variants of behaviour, and thus will continue to exhibit inappropriate behaviours, no matter how significant (Chiu et al., 2007). Chiu et al. (2007) also offered new insights into the concept of cultural distance. They found that the impact of culture distance is also dependent on the direction of the assignment.

6.1.10 Explore whether spousal/partner adjustment influences expatriate CCA

This literature aim was explored in Chapter 2. Researchers reinforced that the impact of the spouse/partner's adjustment correlated strongly to expatriate adjustment in numerous studies around the world (Eschbach et al., 2001; Larson, 2006; Wiese, 2013). An accompanying spouse/partner provided social and emotional support for the married expatriate, which buffered against stress.

The international relocation often has a greater impact on the spouse/partner than on the expatriate. The expatriate finds work life continuity in the familiar job structure and network of work colleagues, whereas the expatriate spouses/partners on the other hand experience disruption of their personal lives often leaving behind friends, relatives and meaningful activities. In the foreign assignment, the spouse/partner generally becomes more immersed in the new culture on a daily basis.

Heretofore few studies have looked at the expatriate adjustment process from the spouse's point of view, despite ample evidence indicating that the inability of the spouse to adjust may be a direct and indirect cause of premature expatriate returns (Black, 1988; Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1982).

Black and Stephens (1989) and Shaffer (1996) found that the degree to which an expatriate's spouse/partner adjusts to living abroad, will have a strong impact on the probability that the expatriate will stay for the duration of the assignment and influence his cross-cultural adjustment while on assignment. Since spouse/partner adjustment is a key component in the CCA process of the expatriate there is a greater need to build on existing literature focused on the family unit.

6.2 CONCLUSIONS RELATING TO THE EMPIRICAL AIMS OF THE STUDY

This section focuses on the empirical investigation and conclusions are drawn on each specific research aim.

6.2.1 Identify existing CCT programmes within the organisation

With the help of the human resource department, former and present expatriates; it was possible to establish exactly what CCT programme is available within the organisation. Apart from the formal four-day seminar, the organisation provides language training, a visit to the host country and an information exchange social with former expatriates. Host country specific safety training was also provided.

6.2.2 Establish whether the company has taken the advice of researchers in designing a CCT programme

Chapter 5 gives a detailed comparison between recommendations made by academics in the field and the organisation's CCT programme. After an exhaustive exploration of the CCT literature in Chapter 1, the researcher adopted the principal components frequently mentioned and compared these to what the organisation offered. The organisation's CCT programme paralleled recommendations from researchers in several facets representing training methods, duration and rigour. Therefore, the question if the company's CCT programme reflects any of the recommendations made by researchers, was successfully answered.

6.2.3 Determine the effectiveness of the organisation's CCT programme

This empirical aim was achieved by asking the expatriates to rate the different CCT methods provided. All expatriates found the visit to the host country 'very effective'. Films as an information source was perceived as 'least effective'. The majority of the expatriates rated most training methods as 'effective'.

6.2.4 Establish whether the cross-cultural training was adequate

From a single yes/no answer it was confirmed if the CCT was adequate. Studies recommended that CCT be spread out over a specific timeframe (Caligiuri & Tarique, 2009; Selmer, 2010), beginning a few months and held on a regular basis, before the international assignment begins and ending a few months after arrival in the host country. The organisation on the other hand provided pre- departure, a once-off 4-day seminar that integrated all the main training methods, and only offered a language course in the host country. From the responses, it was clear that expatriates found the post-arrival training inadequate or non-existent.

6.2.5 Determine the degree of sociocultural adjustment among expatriates

The Sociocultural Adjustment Scale measured the level of sociocultural adjustment among expatriates. It was clear that the expatriates rated their adjustment to various factors in the host country more positively in Phase 2. Most expatriates displayed an average level of adjustment in Phase 1 and a higher level of adjustment in Phase 2.

6.2.6 Determine the degree of psychological adjustment among expatriates

The Psychological General Well-Being Index was used to measure psychological adjustment among expatriates. Although the results show that there was a statistically significant improvement in psychological well-being from Phase 1 to Phase 2, the expatriates displayed positive psychological well-being in both phases of the research.

6.2.7 Determine the degree of culture shock among expatriates

The Culture Shock Index was used to measure the degree of culture shock that the expatriates experienced. Although expatriates displayed low levels of culture shock in both phases, there was a significant decrease in culture shock levels from Phase 1 to Phase 2.

6.2.8 Ascertain whether CCT influences CCA

In order to determine if a relationship exists between perceived CCT effectiveness and adjustment in this study, a one-way ANOVA was conducted to test the statistical significance of this relationship. The findings reveal that there was no significant relationship between CCT and sociocultural adjustment, psychological adjustment or culture shock.

6.2.9 Ascertain whether language proficiency influences CCA

The relationship between language proficiency and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment was examined in Chapter 5. Results indicated that language proficiency had no significant effect on psychological well-being or culture shock in both phases. But a one-way ANOVA revealed that language proficiency had a statistically significant influence on expatriate sociocultural adjustment only in Phase 1.

6.2.10 Ascertain whether host country friendships influence CCA

In Chapter 5, it was confirmed that host country friendships had a significant positive influence on sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and a negative influence on culture shock. Expatriates with local friends experienced higher sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being and lower levels of culture shock.

6.2.11 Ascertain whether previous overseas experience influences CCA

In Phase 1, those expatriates who had previous overseas experience displayed higher levels of sociocultural adjustment, psychological well-being and lower levels of culture shock. But in Phase 2, previous overseas experience had a significant positive influence only on sociocultural adjustment.

6.2.12 Ascertain whether cultural distance influences CCA

The influence of cultural distance on CCA was examined in Chapter 5. In Phase 1, cultural distance had a significant negative influence on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being and a positive influence on culture shock. This suggested that the greater the expatriates considered the cultural distance between Germany and South Africa, the less socioculturally adjusted they were, the lower their psychological well-being and they experienced greater culture shock. In Phase 2, cultural distance had a weak negative effect on sociocultural adjustment and psychological well-being, and no effect on culture shock.

6.2.13 Ascertain whether spousal/partner adjustment influences expatriate CCA

The research design of the study was set out to analyse the influence of spousal/partner adjustment on expatriate adjustment. This was to be achieved by asking the respondents to assign a 5-digit code made up of numbers and alphabets to themselves and their spouses/partners. But this was seen with great scepticism among the expatriates therefore this procedure was eliminated for ethical reasons. As a result, corresponding data related to spousal/partner adjustment and expatriate adjustment could not be gathered. Therefore the aim to establish if there is a relationship between spousal/partner adjustment and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment was not achieved.

6.3 LIMITATIONS OF THE LITERATURE REVIEW

Because cross-cultural adjustment is a multi-faceted concept, there was a trend among researchers to break it down into dimensions. Black (1988) posited that sociocultural adjustment consisted of three dimensions: work adjustment, interaction with host nationals and general adjustment to the environment. Black's choice of dimensions is far too broad to be meaningful to the respondents. For example, what makes the work adjustment dimension relate only to expatriates? Depending on the job characteristics, expatriate work adjustment does not differ much from a new job domestically. Furthermore, expatriates generally have good technical skills and/or managerial skills and this eases work adjustment. Maybe here research can explore more concrete aspects of the work environment like subsidiary work culture, business culture and etiquette, and interaction with host country colleagues.

Most CCT programmes were developed from models that relied heavily on theories (Black, 1988; Searle & Ward, 1990), and not as a product of explorative studies on expatriates. There was a strong emphasis on training methods, duration and rigour. But is this enough and does this facilitate adjustment to a different culture? Academics need to see beyond this and move towards a training needs analysis framework. For an international assignment, training needs should not only be analysed on an individual, job and organisational level, but can be supplemented with situational variables. Despite the vast research on CCT, there exists many gaps and great scepticism (Kittler et al., 2008; Ehnert et al., 2004; Morris & Robie, 2001) concerning the effectiveness of CCT on cross-cultural adjustment. Considering the multifaceted and complex nature of the influence of CCT on expatriate adjustment, the construct is particularly difficult to investigate and this could account for the strong variance in research findings.

6.4 LIMITATIONS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

This study is not without limitations. Firstly, it was based on the perceptions of a small convenience sample from one culture and bounded by the organisation's policies, which is common among studies on expatriates (Beehr et al., 2003). Therefore, the results cannot be generalised without further research across different cultures, organisations and biographical groups; in order to gain more robust results of the issues addressed by the research questions. Although CCT yielded weak effects on adjustment, these effects failed to show any significance. It is possible that the small sample size could have contributed to the lack of statistically significant results. Furthermore, data was derived only from expatriate responses. There is the risk that these perceptions may be subjective and relate more to expatriate assumptions rather than real experiences. Therefore, a multisource feedback from work colleagues, customers and host country friends may reflect a more accurate picture of the level of adjustment.

Thirdly, the study used Black's Adjustment Scale (Black & Stephens, 1989) to measure sociocultural adjustment. Within the context of this study, the items on the scale together presented a holistic measure of host country characteristics. However, Black adopted Torbiörn's (1982) Cultural Novelty Scale, which is somewhat superficial in that it includes items like living conditions and shopping which do not really operationalise the complexities and difficulties, which are faced by expatriates. It has been criticised in the literature as being too broad and arbitrary (Hippler, 2000; Lazarova & Thomas, 2006). Torbiörn even acknowledges selecting certain aspects on a basis of general assumption about people's needs.

Furthermore, Torbiörns' Cultural Novelty Scale, although having significant effects on cross-cultural adjustment in this study, measured cultural distance in the expatriate's immediate environment. This may be different to the rest of the host country. It could be beneficial for future research to develop and compare additional cultural distance measures while taking into account regional variations. Despite its limitations, the instrument has functioned quite satisfactorily as a rough index of cultural distance.

Finally, the influence of spousal adjustment on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment could not be explored due to insecurities displayed by the respondents with regard to providing a self-assigned 5-digit code to identify and correspond responses with that of the spouse/partner. Maybe more effort could have been put into reassuring the respondents that confidentiality and anonymity will be strictly adhered to and that the codes were solely for statistical analysis and do not by any means serve as a form of identification. It has long been recognised that expatriate cross-cultural adjustment is a process that develops over time. The lack of studying it as such, i.e. longitudinally, has an equally long history (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Lazarova & Thomas, 2012). Although this study measured expatriate adjustment over two phases, it is not an ideal representation of a longitudinal study in that the major limitation of a two-wave study is that any and all change from Phase 1 to Phase 2 is linear and it is impossible to determine the form of change over time (Singer & Willett, 2003). Differences between the two phases are simply an increment of difference. It is difficult to establish change patterns over time (Ployhart & Vendenberg, 2010). Therefore, a longitudinal study with at least three measurement phases would generate a richer data source, where different patterns of adjustment can be identified and compared.

6.5 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE ORGANISATION AND IHRM

This section realises the final empirical aim in the research by making recommendations for the organisation and for international human resource management. From the results of the research an overwhelming majority of the expatriates found the post arrival training inadequate. Although researchers underrate or ignore the influence of cross-cultural training in the host country, training during this phase is of utmost importance because it reinforces the training that was already received in the home country. Moreover, expatriates may face an array of situations, topics and challenges not covered in the pre-departure training. During the first few months in the host country, they have limited contact with host nationals and in their communication choices, therefore cross-cultural training after arrival in the host country is of vital importance.

Post arrival training need not be a formal training course, but can take the form of a workshop, where expatriates can exchange information and discuss their first impressions, behavioural experiences and thoughts about the host country. In the first months on arrival in the host country, there are many changes facing the expatriate.

Apart from the language barrier, there are living conditions, traffic signs, workplace, colleagues, shopping, food and schools that the expatriate needs to adjust to. Moving home in the same city can be a stressful experience, therefore it is normal that expatriates experience change fatigue in the host country due to an array of changes that they need to adapt to. How much change can a person cope with at the same time when some people get stressed when they just move home in the same city. Therefore, post arrival CCT interventions can be especially effective because the training directly links to recent experiences in the host country, which helps the expatriate to plan and focus on what needs to be done in order to cope with all the challenges and facilitate his adjustment. To manage post arrival training further, cultural mentoring programmes are also an efficient intervention in assisting expatriates in the adjustment process. Through support and guidance, a mentor can help the expatriate overcome the initial uncertainty phase related to stereotypes, cultural biases and language related issues and develop intercultural competencies that change attitudes and behaviours to effectively interact in the new environment. But caution needs to be taken when choosing an ideal mentor. Mentors should have knowledge of the expatriate's country, the host country and the expatriation process (Carraher, Crocitto & Sullivan, 2005).

The study also revealed that spouses displayed lower levels of adjustment than expatriates. Although it is clear that the organisation plays a leading role with their spousal adjustment programme by providing language training, cross-cultural training and spousal career assistance; there are a few areas where attention needs to be paid. The post arrival training was considered inadequate by 81% of the spouses in this study. Quite often organisations underestimate the effect of an expatriate assignment on the spouse. The interruption of a spouse career and the resulting loss of income coupled with the stress of adjusting to an unfamiliar environment could lead to a loss of identity and feelings of powerlessness and isolation. Former expatriate spouses can be very helpful here, in that they can provide accurate and practical advice since they have first-hand experience of living in the host country. More importantly, practical support during the settling-in period is a valuable form of assistance upon arrival and within the first few weeks of entering the host country.

The organisation can also provide a platform for networking whereby the spouse can contact other expatriate spouses and exchange information like membership to social clubs, voluntary welfare programmes, available activities in the region, informal courses or for pursuing hobbies or interests.

These part-time activities will not only keep the spouses occupied but can be useful in creating new contacts by meeting new people and finding avenues to find meaning once again in their lives. An online newsletter or an expatriate portal on the organisation's own intranet is a helpful way of providing information and resources for future and current expatriates. Apart from useful information on housing, health and education, the internet serves as a valuable platform for social networking and information exchange.

6.6 RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Ideally CCT effectiveness should be measured using control groups, pre and post-tests measuring attitude and behaviour. This type of sophisticated research is difficult to design due to time constraints, costs involved and logistical planning within organisations and across international borders. Measuring the effectiveness of each training intervention on cross-cultural adjustment is almost impossible since the knowledge and skills acquired during these training sessions cannot be regarded as separate entities. The cognitive and behavioural skills learnt during training help develop new competencies and attitudes that are translated into specific behaviours during everyday situations. It is difficult to use standardised measuring instruments to measure this behavioural and attitudinal change.

Researchers need to re-examine their approach to training and instead of reinventing the wheel, they need to learn from mistakes. Researchers have confirmed time and time again that CCT is effective in facilitating CCA (Bürgi et al., 2001; Hess et al., 2006). The emphasis needs to move away from the effectiveness of formal training methods to training and support mechanisms, training content and sequencing of training. In planning a training programme, organisations need to adopt a holistic approach. This is where research fails to deliver. Cross-cultural training should not be a one-time intervention, but rather it needs to be an ongoing process especially during the first three months of the assignment. Instead of looking at CCT as a separate entity, researchers need to integrate CCT with other support and orientation interventions, because it has been confirmed in many studies (Denisi & Toh, 2007; Haslberger, 2005 Redmond, 2000) that there are other factors that have a positive influence on CCA.

One needs to admit that the term cross-cultural 'training' poses a fundamental restriction, in that we immediately start focussing on formal training practices. If CCT should in the future integrate formal training with support and orientation activities, then maybe rephrasing the term could shift the focus away from conservative training methods to broader cross-cultural enhancement interventions.

Quite often we see, mixed results on the effectiveness of pre-departure training (Ko & Yang, 2011; Hess et al., 2006). Taking the period of time that has elapsed between the actual pre-departure training and arrival in the host country, expatriates have great difficulty in relating the short training experience to the reality faced in the host country. Pre-departure training is too short in duration to achieve fundamental changes in attitude and behaviour, which are needed to adjust to the host country culture. Researchers need to focus their attention on integrating the phases of the cultural adjustment cycle with that of the appropriate CCT method and content. Furthermore, each expatriate experiences the culture shock phase at different points in time. Therefore, future studies need to concentrate on specific interventions for specific needs like e-learning or on-site mentoring. CCT cannot have a fixed duration. The sequencing of training, to correspond to the phases of cross-cultural adjustment is important.

Furthermore, there is a need for more explorative studies. Qualitative studies could disclose more specific information about expatriates' adjustment overseas helping organisations to target specific concerns. Only if the critical components of CCT are identified, in other words, those elements that really do improve preparation and facilitate adjustment of the expatriate; can the overall effectiveness of CCT be raised. Researchers need to collaborate with organisations and training institutes in order to direct new research areas. We have seen in this study that post arrival training and support needs serious consideration. More detailed studies could target specific phases and the difficulties experienced during each phase in the expatriate adjustment process in order to discover concrete ways of improving each phase and isolating training and support interventions. Emphasising individual training is important as each expatriate adjusts at his own pace in his own way. Expatriates go through the stages in different order, at different times or not at all.

The U-curve theory (Lysgaard, 1955) cannot be used as a baseline of the expatriate adjustment process. For example, not every expatriate goes through the “honeymoon stage”. Some expatriates are unhappy with their host culture from day one or experience culture shock from day one. It could also be beneficial to rephrase or reinterpret the different phases of adjustment. For example, there is a difference in adjustment challenges and needs in the first month immediately upon arrival in the host country as compared to six months of living in the host country.

Despite the aforementioned limitations, the present study clearly highlighted valuable information on the relationship between previous overseas experience, host country friends, language proficiency and cultural distances on cross-cultural adjustment over a period of time. This study confirmed that as time passed in the host country, only cultural distance had an effect on CCA. Further studies may elaborate on this by incorporating longitudinal designs. Longitudinal studies could reveal more on the weight of the influence of the various factors that facilitate CCA during different phases of the adjustment process. Last but not least, there needs to be more research involving a South African context. There are many international organisations in South Africa that have an expatriate community. More research based on the uniqueness of this multi-cultural country can be invaluable to organisations.

It cannot be overemphasised that the quality of the expatriate’s experience functions in tandem with the experience of the expatriate’s family. The participation of the expatriate’s family in cross-cultural training may be especially important given how influential the family’s adjustment can be in the employee’s success while on assignment. Definitely, more research needs to be undertaken in this area. We need to examine the CCT approaches that are not only suitable but also successful for family adjustment. Going further and looking at the family as a social unit could also have an influence on adjustment. Another obvious and under-utilised resource is host country nationals and their role in the adjustment process.

6.7 CONCLUSION

CCT is a valuable intervention in the complex process of adjustment during international assignments. However, as a single intervention, it is not a remedy for all assignment difficulties. More specifically pre-departure CCT should be seen as an initial and important component in a series of carefully sequenced training and support interventions. Companies will need to consider an ever-widening range of alternative preparatory procedures. Researchers need to shift the focus of CCT from a one-time intervention to an integrated and coordinated process.

6.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter concluded the final steps in the study. The results of the empirical study were discussed in this chapter in conjunction with the research aims. Conclusions were drawn from the study and possible limitations of the literature review and empirical study were elaborated on. In addition, recommendations and practical suggestions for the organisation, for international human resource management and for future research were presented.

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APPENDIX 1

Human Resources Interview Outcome

A semi structured interview schedule was compiled to provide information that would achieve the research aims. The senior manager of a subdivision of the human resource department, responsible for expatriate work assignments, asked three staff members to participate in the interview. Beforehand an email inviting participation and presenting information about the study was sent to the three respondents. The respondents have 5-10 years knowledge and experience in the international human resource field. Two of the respondents are directly involved in the selection and training process of expatriates and the third respondent manages the expatriation process on a daily basis, from contract agreement to repatriation, specifically for expatriates in SA.

The employees were interviewed all at once in a focus group. Although a focus group is not a reliable technique for determining point of view, it saves time, is cost effective and gives respondents an opportunity to support and expand on each other's knowledge in providing accurate information. Furthermore, the interview questions did not require the respondents' personal opinions and views. The answers relied on straightforward factual information.

The focus group session with human resources took place in a conference room to ensure that there were no distractions or interruptions during the interview. The meeting started with an introduction. This entailed explaining the purpose of the meeting and giving the individuals some background on the topic being studied. The interview took 1,5 hours. The interviewer took notes during the interview and subsequently transcribed them. Transcribed interviews were sent back to the respondents as an e-mail attachment and the respondents were asked to correct and/or complement the content where necessary. In addition, some clarifying further questions were asked where necessary.

The following questions and answers were the outcome of the focus group sessions with the company's human resource department.

Interview Questions and Answers

Reasons for the use of expatriates.

Notes

- Demand-oriented
- Knowledge transfer
- Technical knowledge
- Managerial and marketing knowledge
- Just over 100 expatriates in SA
- Duration of expatriate assignments is between 2-5 years

Does the company have a CCT program for expatriates?

Yes

Is the CCT pre-departure, post arrival or both?

Both

What pre-departure training is offered?

Notes

- Intercultural training
- Language training
- Safety and security training
- Look and see trip
- Family Brochure
- Fit on Assignment
- Going Abroad Handbook

Is the training in-house or outsourced?

Notes

- Intercultural training – outsourced
- Language training -outsourced
- Safety and security training-outsourced
- Look and see trip –in house
- Spouse and Family Brochure – outsourced
- Fit on Assignment - outsourced
- Going Abroad Handbook – in house
- Before departure meeting

What training methods/ techniques are adopted?

Notes

- Family Brochure - Reading material (concerns and questions for expatriate family)
- Fit for Abroad – 4 day seminar
 - Reading material
 - Sensitivity training
 - Culture awareness
 - Culture assimilator and role play
- Private language lessons – basic and intermediate
- Going Abroad Handbook – Reading material
- Safety and security training – Lectures, films
 - role play
- Look and See trip – Field trip,
 - interactive experience
- Before Departure - Intensive meeting

What other pre-departure support is available?

Notes

- Schooling consultation
- Visas, documents, permits etc.
- Vaccines
- Medical examination
- Moving company
- Booking of flights
- Home maintenance plan
- Meeting former expatriates

What post arrival training is offered?

Notes

- Language training

What post arrival support is given?

Notes

- Arrival orientation service
- Temporary accommodation in hotel for few weeks
- Housing and negotiation of rental contracts
- Private schooling with German teachers
- Relocation services (Banking, drivers licence etc)
- Regular visits from home country representative
- Spousal career assistance (seminars, courses, studies)
- Home leave
- Transportation program
- Emergency leave
- Medical aid

I

Is the MNC successful with its expatriate training program?

Yes

Notes

- Corporate academy through networking provides leading edge skills and knowledge for expatriates.
- Expatriates complete their assignments
- Early returns only due to career advancement
- Expatriates adjust easily and quickly – 3 month target.

APPENDIX 2

Focus Group Discussion – Former expatriates

A focus group was conducted to collect data from former expatriates. Former expatriates were invited via e-mail to attend a focus group. Information about the study, the objective of the focus group, the proposed agenda and a list of questions the group will discuss was explained in the invitation. Eight former expatriates who worked in South Africa between 2-4 years participated in the discussion that lasted 2 hours. The following questions and answers were the outcome of the focus group discussion with former expatriates.

What were the major areas of concern for you and /or your partner?

Notes

- Safety issues
- Schooling
- Quality of living
- Language

What were the most challenging obstacles that you had to adjust to?

Notes

- Speaking the host language – daily communication with locals
- Difficult to make friends with the locals – superficial relationships
- General safety – home security
- Using the car as a main means of transport
- Weather- especially in summer

What was the key factor/s that facilitated your adjustment?

Notes

- Speaking and understanding the host language
- Help from the locals
- Company support – logistical, benefits, cultural awareness training
- Family togetherness

How do you think the expatriate process can be done differently at your organisation?

Notes

- Providing a local as a contact person to show one the ropes
- More safety awareness
- Better communication channels between home and host company
- More specific assistance with kids schooling – choosing subjects, obtaining German books, etc.
- Fulfill expectations set – orientation help

What advice would you give future expatriates relocating to SA?

Notes

- Too get as much information about the host country – use the internet, specialised websites.
- Speak the same language – learn the language and the culture.
- Follow current events, politics, read the local papers, watch the news etc- is important for everyday conversation.
- Interact with the locals - get involved in social groups, join a gym, or any extracurricular activity which can serve as both a personal outlet and means by which to improve your cultural knowledge and language skills.
- If you take some basic precautions you should not have to worry about your personal safety too much and you will feel and stay safe.
- The importance of attitudes- expatriates should try to be positive and open-minded and not allow small problems in the beginning to depress them, nor should they have too high expectations.
- Form a network outside of the office - meeting other parents from the school, join professional associations, leisure activities, or volunteering; anything that can help you develop a social network.
- Keep contact with the home family, friends etc. – important for teenage kids to reintegrate back into their social circle later.
- Take favourite products from home

Appendix 3

1. Wieviel Vorbereitungszeit hatten Sie zwischen Personalauswahl und Ausreise?

- bis 1 Monat
 1 – 3 Monate
 mehr als 3 Monate

2. Fanden Sie die Vorbereitungszeit ausreichend?

- Ja Nein

Interkulturelles Training, Vorbereitungsmaßnahmen und Unterstützung vor der Ausreise

Die folgenden Fragen beziehen sich nur auf den Zeitraum "VOR" Ihrer Ausreise.

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

3. Erhalt von Büchern oder Lesematerial
(Mit Informationen über Südafrika, Landsleute, Klima, Schulwesen, medizinische Einrichtungen, Wohnungswesen)

- Ja Nein

4. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit.

- Nicht effektiv
 Minimal effektiv
 Effektiv
 Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

5. Filme

(Mit Informationen und Fakten über Südafrika, Landsleute, Klima, Schulwesen, medizinische Einrichtungen, Wohnungswesen)

Ja Nein

Sie haben sich mit Filmen vorbereitet.

6. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

7. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

8. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

9. Unterricht

(Mit Informationen und Fakten über Südafrika, Landsleute, Klima, Schulwesen, medizinische Einrichtungen, Wohnungswesen)

Ja Nein

Sie haben am landesspezifischen Unterricht teilgenommen.

10. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

11. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

12. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

13. Englische Sprachkurse

Ja Nein

14. An welchem Englisch Sprachkurs haben Sie teilgenommen ?

- Grundkurs
- Aufbaukurs
- Kurs für Fortgeschrittene

Sie haben am Englisch Grundkurs teilgenommen.

15. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

16. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

17. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Sie haben am Englisch-Aufbaukurs teilgenommen.

18. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

19. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

20. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Sie haben am Englischkurs für Fortgeschrittene teilgenommen.

21. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

22. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

23. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

24. Kulturbewusstseinstaining

(Bewusstsein für die eigene Kultur verbessern sowie die Unterschiede zwischen südafrikanischer und deutscher Kultur erkennen)

Ja Nein

Sie haben am Kulturbewusstseinstaining teilgenommen.

25. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

26. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

27. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

28. Sensitivitätstraining

(Verändern der eigenen Einstellung, um unbekanntes Verhalten der Gastgeber zu akzeptieren und zu respektieren)

Ja Nein

Sie haben am Sensitivitätstraining teilgenommen.

29. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
 1x wöchentlich
 Mehrmals wöchentlich
 1-3 x monatlich

30. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
 6-20 Stunden
 21-60 Stunden
 mehr als 60 Stunden

31. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
 Minimal effektiv
 Effektiv
 Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

32. Kulturassimilator

(Kritische Ereignisse aus der Gastkultur werden erklärt, um mögliche Missverständnisse zu vermeiden und bessere Kommunikation zu ermöglichen)

Ja Nein

Sie haben am Kulturassimilatortraining teilgenommen.

33. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

34. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

35. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

Haben Sie an der - durch Ihren Arbeitgeber angebotenen - Trainingseinheit bzw. Vorbereitungsmaßnahme vor der Ausreise teilgenommen?

36. Rollenspiele

(Interaktive Darstellung einer Situation zum Umgang mit Menschen aus der Gastkultur)

- Ja Nein

Sie haben Rollenspiele durchgeführt.

37. Häufigkeit (Wie oft haben Sie an dieser Trainingseinheit teilgenommen?)

- Einmalig
- 1x wöchentlich
- Mehrmals wöchentlich
- 1-3 x monatlich

38. Dauer (Wieviele Stunden haben Sie sich insgesamt mit dieser Trainingseinheit beschäftigt?)

- 1-5 Stunden
- 6-20 Stunden
- 21-60 Stunden
- mehr als 60 Stunden

39. Bitte bewerten Sie die Effektivität dieser Trainingseinheit

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

40. Hat Ihr Arbeitgeber Ihnen einen Besuch im Gastland vor der Ausreise ermöglicht?
(Besuch des Gastlandes, um erste Eindrücke von der neuen Umgebung zu sammeln sowie auf Haus- oder Wohnungssuche zu gehen)

- Ja Nein

41. Bitte bewerten Sie den Besuch des Gastlandes?

- Nicht effektiv
- Minimal effektiv
- Effektiv
- Sehr effektiv

42. Welche - nicht von Ihrem Arbeitgeber bereitgestellten - Informationsquellen haben Sie noch genutzt und wie hilfreich waren diese?

	nicht benutzt	nicht hilfreich	hilfreich	Sehr hilfreich
Bücher, Zeitschriften	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Filme, DVD's	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Internet	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Ehemalige Expatriates	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Freunde, Bekannte	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Südafrikanisches Konsulat	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Auswärtiges Amt	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Reisebüro	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

43. Hatten Sie Unterstützung vom Arbeitgeber bei:

	Nicht relevant	Nein	Ja
Bereitstellung der Umzugsfirma bzw. Lagerung der Möbel	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Kosten zur Aufrechterhaltung Ihres Wohnsitzes während des Aufenthalts im Ausland	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Geldanlage oder Investmentberatung	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Steuerberatung	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Checkliste, was vor Ausreise zu tun ist	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
medizinischer Untersuchung, Beratung (z.B. Impfungen, Aids, Malaria)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Vorstellung des Schulsystems bzw. Vorschläge zur Schulauswahl	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Erhalt aller notwendigen Dokumente (z.B. Visa, Zoll)	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Interkulturelles Training und Unterstützung im Einsatzland

44. Haben Sie am Englisch-Sprachkurs im Einsatzland teilgenommen?

- Ja
 Nein

45. Welchen Trainingszeitraum bevorzugen Sie, um sich für einen Auslandseinsatz vorzubereiten ?

- Vor Ausreise
 Nach Ankunft im Ausland
 Beides (vor Ausreise und nach Ankunft)

46. Finden Sie die Trainingseinheiten und Vorbereitungsmaßnahmen vor der Ausreise ausreichend ?

- Ja Nein

47. Finden Sie die Trainingseinheiten im Einsatzland ausreichend ?

- Ja Nein

B. Interkulturelle Anpassung

1. Soziokulturelle Anpassung

Dieser Teil beinhaltet Fragen, wie Sie sich fühlen und wie es Ihnen in letzter Zeit gegangen ist.

Ihre Anpassung wird anhand einer numerischen Skala von 1 (überhaupt nicht angepasst) bis 7 (voll und ganz angepasst) eingeteilt. Bitte kreuzen Sie bei jeder Frage die Antwort an, die am besten auf Sie zutrifft.

48. Wie angepasst fühlen Sie sich an:

	1 gar nicht angepasst	2	3	4	5	6 voll und ganz angepasst
die neuen Lebensbedingungen	<input type="radio"/>					
die neuen Wohnverhältnisse	<input type="radio"/>					
das Essen in Südafrika	<input type="radio"/>					
das Einkaufsverhalten	<input type="radio"/>					
die Lebenshaltungskosten	<input type="radio"/>					
die Freizeitaktivitäten	<input type="radio"/>					
das Gesundheitswesen	<input type="radio"/>					
Ihren Job und damit verbundene Verantwortung	<input type="radio"/>					
die Zusammenarbeit mit südafrikanischen Kollegen	<input type="radio"/>					
den täglichen Umgang mit Einheimischen	<input type="radio"/>					
das freundschaftliche Zusammenleben mit Einheimischen	<input type="radio"/>					
die verbale Kommunikation mit Einheimischen	<input type="radio"/>					

2. Psychologische Anpassung

Dieser Teil der Untersuchung beinhaltet Fragen zu Ihrem allgemeinen Wohlbefinden, um herauszufinden, wie es Ihnen in letzter Zeit gegangen ist.

49. Wie haben Sie sich im vergangenen Monat im Allgemeinen gefühlt?

- ausgezeichnet
- sehr gut
- überwiegend gut
- mal gut - mal schlecht
- überwiegend schlecht
- ganz schlecht

50. Wie oft haben Sie im vergangenen Monat unter Krankheiten, an körperlichen Störungen, Beschwerden oder Schmerzen gelitten?

- jeden Tag
- fast jeden Tag
- etwa die Hälfte der Zeit
- ab und zu, aber weniger als die Hälfte der Zeit
- selten
- nie

51. Haben Sie sich während des vergangenen Monats deprimiert gefühlt?

- ja, so sehr, daß ich mir hätte das Leben nehmen können
- ja, so sehr, daß mir alles egal war
- ja, fast jeden Tag sehr deprimiert
- ja, verschiedene Male ziemlich deprimiert
- ja, ab und zu etwas deprimiert
- nein, ich habe mich nie deprimiert gefühlt

52. Haben Sie im vergangenen Monat Ihr Verhalten, Ihre Gedanken und Ihre Gefühle fest im Griff gehabt?

- ja, absolut
- ja, größtenteils
- im allgemeinen schon
- nicht so gut
- nein, ich fühle mich etwas durcheinander
- nein, ich fühle mich sehr durcheinander

53. Haben Sie im vergangenen Monat unter Nervosität gelitten?

- ganz extrem - so daß ich nicht arbeiten oder mich um Dinge kümmern konnte
- sehr stark
- ziemlich stark
- etwas - aber genug, um mir zu schaffen zu machen
- ein bisschen
- überhaupt nicht

54. Wieviel Energie, Schwung oder Vitalität haben Sie im vergangenen Monat verspürt?

- ich war ganz voller Energie - hatte viel Schwung
- meistens ziemlich energiegeladen
- meine Energie schwankte ziemlich
- im allgemeinen wenig Energie oder Schwung
- meist sehr wenig Energie oder Schwung
- überhaupt keine Energie oder Schwung - ich fühlte mich ausgelaugt

55. Im vergangenen Monat fühlte ich mich niedergeschlagen und betrübt.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

56. Waren Sie im allgemeinen angespannt oder haben Sie im vergangenen Monat irgendwelche Spannungen verspürt?

- ja, ich war immer oder meistens extrem angespannt
- ja, meistens sehr angespannt
- ich fühlte mich mehrere Male ziemlich, aber nicht überwiegend angespannt
- ich fühlte mich ein paar Mal etwas angespannt
- meine allgemeine Anspannung war ziemlich gering
- ich fühlte mich nie angespannt, hatte keinerlei Spannungsgefühle

57. Wie glücklich oder zufrieden waren Sie mit Ihrem Leben im vergangenen Monat?

- ausgesprochen glücklich, ich hätte nicht zufriedener sein können
- meistens sehr glücklich
- im allgemeinen zufrieden
- manchmal ziemlich glücklich, manchmal ziemlich unglücklich
- im allgemeinen unzufrieden, unglücklich
- immer oder meistens sehr unzufrieden oder unglücklich

58. Haben Sie sich im vergangenen Monat gesund genug gefühlt, um die Dinge zu tun, die Sie tun wollten oder mussten?

- ja, absolut
- größtenteils
- gesundheitliche Probleme haben mich in einigen wichtigen Bereichen eingeschränkt
- ich war gerade gesund genug, um mich selbst zu versorgen
- ich brauchte einige Hilfe bei der Selbstversorgung
- für alle oder die meisten Dinge brauchte ich die Hilfe von jemandem

59. Haben Sie sich im vergangenen Monat so traurig, entmutigt oder hoffnungslos oder problembeladen gefühlt, dass Sie sich fragten, ob irgendetwas noch einen Sinn hat?

- ganz extrem - so daß ich nahe daran war aufzugeben
- sehr stark
- ziemlich stark
- etwas - aber genug, um mir zu schaffen zu machen
- ein bisschen
- überhaupt nicht

60. Im vergangenen Monat wachte ich erfrischt und ausgeruht auf.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

61. Haben Sie im vergangenen Monat wegen Ihrer Gesundheit Sorgen oder Befürchtungen gehabt?

- ganz extrem
- sehr starke
- ziemlich starke
- einige, aber nicht viele
- praktisch nie
- überhaupt nicht

62. Hatten Sie im vergangenen Monat Grund sich zu fragen, ob Sie den Verstand oder die Kontrolle über Ihr Handeln, Sprechen, Fühlen oder Gedächtnis verlieren?

- überhaupt nicht
- nur ein bißchen
- etwas, aber nicht genug, um deswegen besorgt zu sein
- etwas, und ich war ein bißchen besorgt deswegen
- etwas, und ich bin ziemlich besorgt deswegen
- ja sehr, und ich bin sehr besorgt deswegen

63. Im vergangenen Monat war mein Alltagsleben voller Dinge, die mich interessierten.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

64. Haben Sie sich im vergangenen Monat aktiv und schwungvoll oder benommen und matt gefühlt?

- jeden Tag sehr aktiv, schwungvoll
- meistens sehr aktiv, schwungvoll - niemals wirklich benommen und matt
- ziemlich aktiv, schwungvoll - selten benommen und matt
- ziemlich benommen und matt - selten aktiv, schwungvoll
- meistens benommen und matt - nie wirklich aktiv, schwungvoll
- jeden Tag sehr benommen und matt

65. Waren Sie im vergangenen Monat ängstlich oder besorgt?

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

66. Im vergangenen Monat war ich ausgeglichen und mir meiner selbst sicher.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

67. Haben Sie sich im vergangenen Monat entspannt und gelassen oder angespannt und aufgeregt gefühlt?

- ich fühlte mich im ganzen Monat entspannt und gelassen
- ich fühlte mich meistens entspannt und wohl
- im allgemeinen fühlte ich mich entspannt, aber manchmal angespannt
- im allgemeinen fühlte ich mich angespannt, aber manchmal entspannt
- ich fühlte mich meistens angespannt oder aufgeregt
- ich fühlte mich den ganzen Monat meistens angespannt oder aufgeregt

68. Ich fühlte mich im vergangenen Monat fröhlich, beschwingt und heiter.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

69. Ich fühlte mich im vergangenen Monat müde, ausgelaugt, verbraucht oder erschöpft.

- nie
- selten
- manchmal
- ziemlich oft
- meistens
- immer

70. Waren Sie oder fühlten Sie sich im vergangenen Monat unter Druck, Stress oder Belastung?

- ja - fast mehr als ich aushalten oder ertragen konnte
- ja, unter ziemlich starkem Druck
- ja etwas - mehr als gewöhnlich
- ja etwas - aber nicht mehr als gewöhnlich
- ja, ein bißchen
- überhaupt nicht

3. Anpassungsprozess

71. Fühlen Sie sich angespannt durch das Bestreben, sich an die neue Kultur zu gewöhnen?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

72. Haben Sie in letzter Zeit Ihre Familie oder Freunde zuhause in Deutschland vermisst?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

73. Fühlen Sie sich generell von den einheimischen Menschen in der neuen Kultur akzeptiert?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

74. Haben Sie sich schon gewünscht, aus der neuen Umgebung zu flüchten?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

75. Haben die Eigenarten der Gastkultur Sie in ihre eigenen kulturellen Identität verwirrt?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

76. Fühlen Sie sich von Dingen in Ihrer neuen Umgebung geschockt oder gar abgestoßen?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

77. Haben Sie sich schon mal hilf- oder kraftlos beim Eingewöhnen in die neue Kultur gefühlt?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

78. Fühlen Sie sich besorgt oder unbehaglich bei Treffen mit Einheimischen?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

79. Verstehen Sie die Gestiken beim Kommunizieren mit Einheimischen?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

80. Fühlen Sie sich unbehaglich, wenn andere Menschen Sie anstarren?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

81. Glauben Sie, dass die Einheimischen Sie beim Einkaufen betrügen wollen?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

82. Empfinden Sie es als großen Aufwand, nett zu den Einheimischen zu sein?

- nein
- gelegentlich
- oft

4. Kulturelle Unterschiede

83. Bitte lesen Sie nun aufmerksam die folgenden Fragen durch und beurteilen anhand der Skala, wie ähnlich bzw. unähnlich Ihre Heimat im Vergleich zu Südafrika ist.

	sehr unähnlich	ziemlich unähnlich	entweder ähnlich oder unähnlich	einigermaßen ähnlich	sehr ähnlich
tägliche Gewohnheiten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
allgemeine Lebensbedingungen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Gesundheitssystem	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Transportwesen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Lebenshaltungskosten	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Qualität und Auswahl des Essens	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Klima	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
Wohnbedingungen	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

5. Soziale Netzwerke

84. Wie viele einheimische Bekannte haben sie im Gastland ?

- Keine
- 1-5
- mehr als 5

88. Wie häufig informieren Sie sich über das aktuelle Tagesgeschehen? (z.B. Politik, Kultur, Gesundheit, aktuelle Themen...)

- Nie
- Selten
- Manchmal
- Häufig

C. Allgemeine Angaben

Die folgenden Fragen helfen, die Ergebnisse dieser Umfrage zu klassifizieren. Hierfür benötigen wir einige Angaben zu Ihrer Person. Ausgewertet werden die Daten nicht nach Person, sondern nach Gruppen, zu denen man Sie zum Beispiel entsprechend Ihres Alters oder Ihrem Geschlecht zuordnet.

89. Geschlecht

- Männlich
- Weiblich

90. Alter

- unter 30
- 30-50
- über 50

91. Sie werden begleitet von:

- keinem
- Ehepartner bzw. Lebensgefährten
- Ehepartner bzw. Lebensgefährten und Kind(-ern)
- nur Kind(-ern)

92. Zahl der Kinder im Schulalter während des Auslandsaufenthalts:

- keines
- 1
- 2 und mehr

93. Haben Sie bereits Auslandserfahrungen als Expat oder durch Geschäftsreisen gesammelt ?

- Ja Nein
-

94. Wie lange waren Sie im Ausland?

- gelegentlich auf Geschäftsreise
 bis 1 Jahr
 bis 2 Jahre
 mehr als 2 Jahre

95. Vorherige Aufenthalte in Südafrika (ohne „Look-See“ Trip)

- Ja Nein
-

96. Was war der Zweck Ihres Südafrikaaufenthalts?

- Urlaub
 Studium
 Beruflich

97. Wie gut beherrschen Sie die Sprache Ihres Gastlandes im Augenblick ?

- gar nicht
 etwas
 gut
 sehr gut