



DOCTORAL THESIS

Title	Enhancing the understanding of expatriate adjustment: concept and multi-sample empirical support
Presented by	S. Kubra Canhilal
Centre	ESADE BUSINESS SCHOOL
Research Unit	Future of Work Chair
Department	People and Organization
Directed by	Prof. Simon Dolan

Acknowledgements

This PhD thesis was completed over a period of four years at ESADE Business School and was made possible by several individuals whom I had the good fortune to meet and work with during this time.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude to Prof. Dolan, who has not only been a wonderful supervisor, but also acted as a kind of father to me in Spain. This thesis is a result of his constant guidance and support and his faith in me. He has been a great mentor to me throughout these four years. I have learned a lot from him not only professionally, but also personally. It was an honor to work with him and I know that we are not saying goodbye, but that this is only the beginning of our journey working together.

I would also like to thank to the ESADE PhD Program and in particular Prof. Agell, Prof. Gimenez, Pilar Gallego and Olga Linares, who were the other members of my ESADE family. Your support will never be forgotten.

I am grateful to my colleagues, especially to Joonho Shin, Fathima Saleem, Matthew Hawkins and Tuba Yesim Bakıcı for their true friendship, love and support. I could not imagine my PhD life without you.

I also wish to express my gratitude to Dr. Racheli Shemueli Gabel and Ben Capell for their great collaborations. It has been an honor to work with you.

I would also like to thank to Prof. Maak for letting me use his students as my research sample; Prof. Emmerling for his reviews; all my MRES professors and all the VAC project members for their collaborations and contributions.

Last but not least, I would like to express my immense gratitude to my parents and my brother, as well as to William Tessaro and the Tessaro family for their constant support, love and patience.

Without those mentioned above, my PhD endeavor would have not been possible. I love you all!

ABSTRACT

As organizations, regardless of their sizes, seek opportunities to become multinationals, the significance of expatriates is expanding. While expatriation is not a new concept, the known identity of expatriates is adjusting to the new demands of new generations. Following World War II, expatriation began when organizations initiated sending their own employees abroad to work in their subsidiaries. However, along with the new generation, a new type of expatriates emerged as self-initiated expatriates; people who decided to work abroad without the support of a parent organization in their home countries.

This thesis attempts to understand the differences between organization expatriates and self-initiated expatriates by presenting three papers that consider different samples and diverse methods. Each chapter has its own conclusions and limitations; following on, the final chapter of the thesis will summarize, compare and contrast the findings of these papers.

The overall findings reveal that self-initiated expatriates and organizational expatriates seem to contrast in their meaning of 'success', as well as in their motivation for going abroad, but face similar obstacles in terms of spousal adjustment and language. The findings are supported with quotes from interviewees.

Table of Contents

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION	1
1.1 ABOUT THE AUTHOR	2
1.2 EXPATRIATION: AN INTRODUCTION.....	3
1.3 EXPATRIATION: THEORIES	5
1.4 DIVERSE POPULATIONS OF EXPATRIATES	15
1.5 STRUCTURE AND PURPOSE OF THE THESIS.....	17
1.6 CONTRIBUTION OF THE PAPERS TO THE EXPATRIATE LITERATURE	20
1.7 INTERCONNECTION OF THE PAPERS	21
CHAPTER 2: ANTECEDENT FACTORS CONTRIBUTING TO SUCCESS IN INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS: THE CASE OF EXPATRIATES IN PERU	30
2.1 INTRODUCTION	31
2.2 ANTECEDENT FACTORS FOR SUCCESS IN INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT	34
2.3 INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT - SUCCESSFUL OUTCOMES	39
2.4 SAMPLE, METHODS AND PROCEDURES	41
2.5 RESULTS	45
2.6 DISCUSSION.....	48
2.7 CONCLUSION	59

2.8 LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	61
CHAPTER 3: EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT: LANGUAGE AND WILLINGNESS TO COMMUNICATE.....	72
3.1 INTRODUCTION.....	73
3.2 OVERVIEW OF EXPATRIATE LITERATURE.....	76
3.2.1 <i>Multiple shareholder view</i>	76
3.2.2 <i>Pre and post arrival aspects of expatriate adjustment</i>	77
3.2.3 <i>Language barrier</i>	79
3.2.4 <i>Discretion and perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate</i>	81
3.3 SAMPLE AND METHODOLOGY.....	83
3.3.1 <i>Questionnaire design and measures</i>	83
3.3.2 <i>Sample and data collection</i>	84
3.3.3 <i>Measurement assessment</i>	86
3.4 RESULTS.....	92
3.5 DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS.....	94
CHAPTER 4: INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT OF SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATES AND COMFORT ZONE: THE CASE OF YOUNG TURKS.....	105
4.1 INTRODUCTION.....	106

4.2 EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT LITERATURE	108
4.3 COMFORT ZONE	114
4.4 RESEARCH QUESTION	117
4.5 SAMPLE	119
4.5 METHODOLOGY	122
4.6 FINDINGS	127
4.6.1 <i>Expatriate societies</i>	127
4.6.2 <i>Turkish self-initiated expatriates without previous overseas experience</i>	129
4.6.3 <i>Turkish self-initiated expatriates with previous overseas experience</i>	130
4.6.4 <i>Immigrant societies</i>	131
4.6.5 <i>The motivation to go abroad to work</i>	133
4.6.6 <i>Marital status and the situation of spouses</i>	135
4.7 DISCUSSION AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY	137
CHAPTER 5: CONCLUSION	148
5.1 INTRODUCTION	149
5.2 DEFINITION OF SUCCESS FOR ORGANIZATIONAL EXPATRIATES AND SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATES	152
5.3 IMPLICATIONS OF PREVIOUS OVERSEAS EXPERIENCE	153

5.4 MOTIVATION TO GO ABROAD FOR SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATES AND ORGANIZATIONAL EXPATRIATES	154
5.5 SPOUSAL ADJUSTMENT	156
5.6 LANGUAGE ABILITY, INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT AND HOST-COUNTRY NATIONALS	157
5.7 GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.....	159
5.8 DIMENSIONS OF CONTEXT AND ITS APPLICATION TO THE GENERAL FINDINGS	160
5.8 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH.....	165
APPENDIX	169
ESADE BUSINESS SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT RESEARCH	170
INTERVIEW SAMPLE	178

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 3.1: Research Model.....	82
Figure 4.1: Expatriate Adjustment.....	119
Figure 4.2: Sample Mind Map.....	126
Figure 5.1: Overall view of the thesis.....	151

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1: Individual, organizational, and contextual antecedent factors for success in international assignment.....	11
Table 1.2: Summary of the Chapters/Papers.....	25
Table 2.1: Demographic Information of the Sample.....	43
Table 2.2: Individual, organizational, and contextual antecedent factors for international assignment outcomes.....	46
Table 3.1: Demographics Cross-tabulations	86
Table 3.2: Factor Loadings and Descriptive Statistics.....	89
Table 3.3/4: Correlation amongst dependent, independent and control variables.....	91
Table 3.5: Correlation Matrix.....	92
Table 3.6: Table of Step-wise Regression Results.....	93
Table 4.1: Demographic information of the sample.....	121

Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 About the author

Publications

Capel B., Canhilal K., Alas R., Sommer L., Ossenkop K., (2013), *Mapping Values in the Old vs. the New Members of the European Union: Comparative Analysis of Public Sector Cultures*, Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, Vol 4. 3.

Canhilal K., Vera E., Borgonovi E. (2013), *Exploring the Values in the Italian Public Sector using the Tri-axial Model*, Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal, Vol. 4, 3

Research in Progress

Antecedent factors contributing to success in international assignments: A qualitative integrative based analysis

Authors: Racheli Gabel Shemueli, Simon Dolan, S. Kubra Canhilal

Adjustment and creating the comfort zone: Case of Turkish self-initiated expatriates in Europe and United States

Author: S. Kubra Canhilal (HRM Workshop Copenhagen April 2013)

Decision-making power and institutional logic in higher education institutions; A comparative analysis of European Universities

Authors: S. Kubra Canulal, Benedetto Lepori. (University of Lugano)

1.2 Expatriation: An introduction

The internationalization of business has resulted in a significant increase for the need of expatriates and in the willingness of people to be assigned to international assignments. Though expatriation is not a novel concept, many of its characteristics nonetheless remain confusing to academic and practitioner communities.

Starting after World War II, with the commencement of the new modern era, expatriation has since increased drastically. Hemingway's *The Sun Also Rises* (1926) already addressed the situation of (American) expatriates:

“You're an expatriate. You've lost touch with the soil. You get precious. Fake European standards have ruined you. You drink yourself to death... You spend all your time talking, not acting. You are an expatriate, see? You hang around cafes” (pp.115).

Although today's expatriates do not suffer as much as Hemingway did, there are still multiple barriers to overcome. Within the context of theories of

International Economy, the argument that is often raised is that contrary trends exist in today's societal cultures due to globalization: the more the world becomes globalized, the more there is the tendency to be localized in the sense of protecting and promoting one's own culture and economy (Yu, 2002).

As a result, the professional development and training of expatriate workers has become important for multinational organizations over the past few decades (see for example Adler, 2008; Bartlett and Ghoshal, 2003; Javidan and House, 2001; Mendenhall, 2006; Mezias and Candura, 2005; Tung, 1987). Terms like "global mindset" and "global leaders" have been created in order to meet the need of differentiating expatriates from other employees (Dalton, 1998; Feldman and Bolino, 1999).

The word "expatriate" derives from Latin terms like *ex* ("out of") and *patria* ("country, fatherland"). In today's world, expatriation is defined as the task assigned voluntarily or by the organization to work in an international assignment. Generally, the task requires relocation, cultural training, language training and most importantly, the objectives that have to be reached within the company.

1.3 Expatriation: Theories

The literature on cross-cultural adjustment was initiated by studies of culture shock and employee turnover. When Oberg (1960) introduced the concept of “culture shock”, it was associated with anxiety and psychological discomfort (Black, 1990c). Subsequently, researchers found that the anxiety and psychological discomfort of being abroad was subject to variation according to personal characteristics (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985). During the 1980’s there was an increase in expatriate adjustment research, generated by relatively high rates of expatriate failures. Expatriate failure was defined as an incomplete international assignment that had caused consequential costs on the organizations involved in the process.

Following on, expatriate adjustment research began evolving through two different streams. In 1984, Nicholson’s work-role transition theory focused on the change in individuals in order to meet the new roles of a new environment. The theory suggests that adjustment to a new position happens through role innovation and personal change. Role innovation concerns engaging in an activity as a response to adjustment and which causes a person to change the requirements of a role so that “they can better match his/her needs, abilities and identity” (Nicholson, 1984:175). On the other hand, personal change involves a “change which is absorbed

through the person altering his or her frame of reference, values or other identity related attributes” (Nicholson, 1984:175).

The work of Nicholson (1984) constituted the first stream of research, while the second and most-often used stream was Black et al.'s (1991) theory of adjustment (see Black, 1988; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black et al., 1991). According to a meta-analysis published by Bhaskar and Shivas (2005), it was the most cited model among scholars.

The theory of adjustment put forward three aspects of adjustment: general, work and interaction adjustment. Naturally, each aspect has its own antecedents or corresponding factors, such as language ability, previous overseas experience, etc. Each aspect also has a different (moderating or mediating/negative or positive/weight) effect on the performance of an expatriate. The main criticism of the theory has not been on the reliability or the validity of the measures used, but rather on how scholars had been unintentionally led to investigate some specific variables in the model and not others (Takeuchi, 2010).

Most of the research citing Black et al.'s (1991) theory has focused on various individual, contextual and organization factors on interaction, general and work adjustment. Kraimer et al.'s (2001) study examined the relationship between the three facets of adjustment and suggested that interaction adjustment would lead to general adjustment, which would lead

to work adjustment; however, according to their structural equation analyses, no significant relationship was found between general and work adjustment.

Shay and Baack (2006) integrated the two main streams of research in expatriate literature (Black et. al., 1991 and Nicholson, 1984) in their research. The model was also extended by adding expatriate task and contextual performance as proposed by Caligiuri (2001) and was tested on 153 expatriate managers and 364 host country nationals using structural equation modeling. In their results, Shay and Baack (2006) found a significant relationship between personal change and general adjustment, as well as between interaction adjustment and general adjustment. General adjustment was also found to be positively related to work adjustment; however, there was no relationship between role innovation and work adjustment.

Recently, Hemmasi et al. (2010) provided a comprehensive review and empirical evidence in support of nine individual outcome criteria for success in international assignments: cross-cultural adjustment; work-related adjustment; career development; HQ-subsiidiary coordination; assignment completion; professional/skill development; shaping and controlling subsidiary; satisfaction; and overall assignment effectiveness or performance (see also Bhaskar Shirnivas et al., 2005; Black et al., 1991;

Caligiuri, 1997; Jun et al., 2001; Kraimer and Wayne, 2004; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998).

In Table 1.1, a recent literature review on expatriate adjustment has been divided into three perspectives in order to make more sense of it and to consider the process from an individual, organizational and contextual perspective. The explanation of the table will be given in Chapter 2 of the thesis.

To begin with, individual factors were divided into two main branches: direct factors and indirect factors. The former involves characteristics related to the expatriate, while the latter concerns the close environment surrounding the expatriate, such as their spouse and the social support of co-workers. Direct factors were divided into soft and hard factors. Some of the soft direct factors that related to the success of an expatriate in an international assignment were personality traits, cognitive, cross-cultural and emotional abilities, social skills, stress management, language ability and the motivation for travelling abroad. Direct hard factors involve biographical information (age, gender, etc.), as well as technical and managerial knowledge that the expatriate needs during the international assignment.

Secondly, organizational factors involve the practices of the Human Resources department. Therefore, how the Human Resources office

functions influences the success of an international assignment, especially for organizational expatriates who are sent on an international assignment by their parent company. These factors involve recruitment and selection of the expatriate to be sent to an international assignment, cross-cultural training, career development and organizational support.

Finally, contextual factors are related to the host country's characteristics and how these characteristics are different from those of the expatriate's home country (i.e., cultural distance).

The factors mentioned above (see also Table 1.1) all effect an international assignment in terms of being successful. This perspective is different from that of Black et al. (1992) or Nicholson (1984) and considers all the factors together in order to facilitate a more integrative approach.

One of the difficulties in most expatriate research is measuring the success of an expatriate or an international assignment. In the literature, generally, the data used for measuring success is self-reported. Even though there is a clear measure for expatriate failure, which is an uncompleted international assignment, the measure of success is still a subject open to discussion in expat literature (Hemmasi et al., 2010).

Furthermore, with the emergence of self-initiated expatriates, the definition of success of an expatriate has become more individual than organizational. Individual meaning of success is concerned with the expatriate him/herself only. Therefore, from this perspective, success is about individual performance, satisfaction and cross-cultural adjustment (see Aycan, 1997a; Caligiuri, 1997a, 2000; Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001). On the other hand, the organizational meaning of success is stronger related to the international human resources strategies of a company; in the case of organizational expatriates, it is related to recruitment and selection, as previously mentioned in the organizational factors (McNulty and Tharenou, 2004).

Perspective	Factor	Definition	References
Individual Direct factors	Personal characteristics – Soft Factors		
	Personality traits	Specific personality characteristics that enable international assignees to operate and function effectively in new cross-cultural environments.	Caligiuri, et al., 2009; Holopainen and Björkman, 2005
	Cognitive ability	The ability to effectively absorb, process, learn and manage information such as abstract concepts. Cognitive ability is related to different activities such as evaluating performance, strategic options and designing strategies.	Jokinen, 2005; Kayes and Yamazaki, 2005
	Cross-cultural abilities	Certain personal traits, behavior, skills, values and knowledge that enable individuals to perform and interact effectively outside their own nations and in multiple culture contexts.	Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Den and Gibson, 2009; Kayes et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2008; Macnob et al., 2012
	Emotional abilities	Responses and behavior in responding to and acting emotional expressions, understanding experience in cross-cultural encounters.	Den and Gibson, 2009; Tan et al., 2005
	Relational and social skills	An effective interpersonal, person-to-person interaction and repertoire of tools and techniques that facilitate the formation of relationships in cross-cultural environments.	Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Jokinen 2005
	Stress management	Effectively handling stressors that are mismatched with an international assignee's personal resources – coping with working and living during an overseas assignment.	Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shay and Baack, 2006. Hashimoto, 2012
	Cross-cultural adjustment	Good adjustment for IA – reduced conflict and increased fit between the international assignee and the work and non-work environment in the host country. Good adjustment means integrating new behavior, norms and roles while being open to a new culture.	Black et al., 1991; Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003

	Global managerial abilities	Understanding and effectively managing the specific responsibilities in directing, managing, achieving goals and managing people during an international assignment.	Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Storc et al., 2012
	Motivation international assignment	Various reasons for accepting international assignment positions.	Haines III et al., 2008; Stahl, et al., 2009 ; Pinto et al, 2012
	Personal characteristics – Hard factors		
	Business and organizational knowledge	Acquiring specific knowledge on organizational and business philosophy, principles, strategies and objective results, as well as policies and practices that are intangible resources and represent a distinctive ability of firms.	Harvey and Moeller, 2009
	Technical and functional expertise	Specific technical and functional skills and tangible expertise that refer to job requirements.	Selmer, 2004; Triandis, 2006
	Biographical factors		
	Previous international experience	See references for finding review	Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005 ; Takeuchi et al., 2005
	Organizational tenure		
	Time on the assignment		Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009
	Language fluency		Graf and Harland 2005;
	Native language		Jassawalla et al., 2004
	Demographic data		
	Age, gender, marital status	See references for finding review	Sinangil and Ones, 2003; Hutching et al., 2012; Cole and McNulty, 2011; Harrison 2012; Lazarova et al., 2010; Selmer and Laring, 2011
Individual indirect factors	Social support	The availability of various sources that help the international assignee by providing relevant information, emotional support and instrumental support in overseas host country assignments.	;Kraimer and Wayne, 2004; Liu and Shaffer, 2005

Organizational	Spouse adjustment	The degree and extent to which the international assignee's spouse feels comfortable and familiar with features of the new host cultural environment, lifestyle and adopting noteworthy new roles.	Andreason, 2008; Lazarova et al., 2010
	HR strategy and management		
	Strategy and purpose(s) for IA	Definitions of the extent to which international assignees contribute to a company's competitive advantage in international environments through their role in overseas assignment.	Connelly et al., 2007; Shih et al., 2005;
	IA management	Management as a set of systematic and rational policies and practices for IA – including the definition of assignee professional profiles and number of assignments required to achieve the international business strategy.	Harvey and Moeller, 2009; McKenna et al., 2009
	International assignment practices		
	Recruitment and selection	Organizational practices and processes for identifying quality candidates, assessing and selecting the most appropriate candidates that possess the required knowledge and abilities; additionally, bio-demographic data to ensure future success in overseas assignment.	Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009; Caligiuri et. al., 2009; Graf and Harland, 2005
	Cross-cultural training	Any intervention designed to increase knowledge and familiarization with the host country's norms and behaviors and develop cross-cultural skills to enable candidates to cope and operate effectively in the host culture.	Caligiuri et al., 2001; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005
	Career development	A process of capitalization of talents through international assignment career path advancement and learning opportunities for professional growth, acquiring and improving general management skills and intercultural abilities.	Suutari andTaka, 2004; Stahl et al, 2009
	Organizational support	Resources, rewards, benefits and services that organizations (parent company and the foreign facility) provide to the international assignee and the family.	Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Kraimer and Wayne, 2004. Warner and Schneider, 2011
	Job performance appraisal	Assessment process of international assignees' behavior and outcomes that are relevant to obtaining successful outcomes for tasks and responsibilities.	Caligiuri, 1997; Shay and Baack, 2006
Incentive and compensation	Pay and benefits for the international assignee until task is completed.	Toh and DeNisi, 2005; Woods, 2003	

	Repatriation	Return, re-entry, and reintegration in the home country and work in the parent organization after an extended foreign assignment.	Hyder and Lovblad, 2007; Lee and Liu, 2007
Contextual	Culture differences	The extent to which international assignees' own norms, values, beliefs and assumptions about human nature and human behavior differ from dominant values in the host country.	Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Van de Vijver, 2008; Kim et al., 2012 Ramsey, 2005; Toh and DeNisi, 2005
	Host country characteristics	The host country's political, economic, social and cultural profile. For example, institutional characteristics (law, regulations and normative systems), social relations and lifestyle (what is culturally acceptable and appropriate behavior) and business knowledge (markets, customer, material and human resources).	

Table 1.1: Individual, organizational and contextual antecedent factors for success in international assignment.

1.4 Diverse populations of expatriates

In September 2013, Huffington Post released an article on Generation Y and why they were unhappy. The article was immediately picked up by social media and shared on Facebook in many countries. It emphasized the importance of the aspirations of Generation Y having been ingrained by their parents as examples, and how disappointed this age group was at the time in having to deal with the ongoing economic crisis.

One of the two types of expatriates – self-initiated expatriates – features mostly in the Generation Y category. Yet most of the research conducted on expatriates focuses on organizational expatriates (Thomas, 2002). There could be a variety of reasons for this; the possibility of attaining data, the availability of performance indicators and of possibility, having more control variables might be some. It is harder to reach a self-initiated expatriate community and even if reached, it is more difficult to establish sound research without having performance indicators or having less control variables, especially in terms of contextual aspects (see Table 1 for contextual aspects).

The fundamental difference that can be described as the distinguishing characteristic between self-initiated expatriates and organizational expatriates is

the motive behind deciding to move abroad. Organizational expatriates are particular employees of a company whom the company decides to expatriate. There are usually expatriation packages (assistance with moving, language classes, job search for the spouse, school/s for the children to attend and raised wages) to help organization expatriates settle in the host country. Self-initiated expatriates, on the other hand, are individuals who decide on their own to work in another country (Al-Meer, 1989; Begley et al., 2008; Inkson et al., 1997; Shahid et al., 2001). Expatriation packages are rarely available to a self-initiated expatriate and they must in most cases cover all costs themselves.

Self-initiated expatriates have been linked in the literature to boundaryless careers (Inkson et al., 1997). This notion displays a different type of career as opposed to a traditional one. This career is not determined by the organization an employee works for; instead, there are multiple employment settings (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Mirvis and Hall, 1994) and the career is shaped, planned and designed by the individual him/herself.

Some other differences between organizational and self-initiated expatriates include that self-initiated expatriates do not envisage repatriation as do organizational expatriates (Crowley-Henry, 2007; Suutari and Brewster, 2000). One of the reasons for this might be the age difference between the two groups. Self-initiated expatriates tend to begin their international career at a younger age than organizational expatriates (Bieman and Andresen, 2009). Most of the

younger generation self-initiated expatriates are Generation Y individuals, who have different values concerning careers and life in general than organizational expatriates. Because of their young age and different career and life aspirations, self-initiated expatriates tend to have higher organizational mobility in their careers and perceive changes therein as a natural pattern (Arthur, 1994).

One of the characteristics that appear to be the same in both groups is the perceived value of the international assignment (Bieman and Andresen, 2009). Both groups tend to perceive the international assignment or the experience as very valuable. However, the primary difference concerning this aspect between the two groups is the deep motive with respect to mobility and career aspirations.

1.5 Structure and purpose of the thesis

This thesis is submitted under the requirements for the PhD (Doctor of Philosophy) in Management Sciences at the Future of Work Chair in ESADE (Escuela Superior de Administración y Dirección de Empresas) Business School, according to the rules of attaining a PhD degree from Ramon Llull University (URL). This thesis follows the format of “Monograph based on articles” in which “PhD candidates may present a monograph whose central chapters are derived from articles that have not all been published. The journal or conference where

each respective chapter is to be published must be indicated. The thesis should have an introduction and general conclusions that justify the coherence and unity of the work done.”

The thesis therefore contains three papers that were written by the defendant during the PhD candidate research period (See Figure 1.2). All three papers focus on expatriate adjustment and performance. Each paper considers the concept from a different point of view. However, it is crucial to highlight that the fieldwork for each paper was different; thus, the samples collected for deriving data and the reported findings are different.

The first paper “*Antecedent Factors Contributing to Success in International Assignments*” was written jointly with Dr. Racheli Gabel Shemueli and Prof. Simon Dolan and covers the perceived international assignment success of organizational expatriates and the antecedent factors contributing to it. This paper was presented at the EGOS 2013 conference (Montreal, Canada) and is currently being prepared for submission to Emeralds' *Journal of Global Mobility*. The research for this paper conducted semi-structured interviews for data collection and the analysis employed the “thematic analysis methodology”.

The second paper, “*U-Curve Hypothesis and Expatriate Adjustment: Perceived Willingness of the Host Society's Intention to Communicate*” was presented at the International HRM Conference held in Seville in May 2011; it was also published

in the conference proceedings. This paper focuses on self-initiated expatriates and their adjustment process. Data was collected from MBA students at ESADE Business School. A pre-validated questionnaire was developed and employed to attain the data. A quantitative analysis, Multiple-regression procedures, was used to test the proposed hypotheses.

The third and final paper, “Interaction Adjustment of Self-Initiated Expatriates and Comfort Zone: The Case of Young Turks” has been accepted for presentation at the International HRM Conference held in Copenhagen (2013). However, I was unable to attend the presentation due to logistical issues and budgetary limitations. The paper focuses on real self-initiated expatriates who have decided to re-locate from Turkey to different parts of the world. Again, thematic analysis was employed, given that the data was collected in a qualitative format using semi-structured interviews.

In sum, the central theme of this thesis is as articulated in the title given to the thesis: **“Enhancing the understanding of expatriate adjustment: concept and multi-sample empirical support”**. Despite the fact that some theoretical background across the three papers may seem repetitive, each paper employs a different perspective, focus, design, sample characteristics and respective analytical procedures to derive reasonable conclusions.

1.6 Contribution of the papers to the expatriate literature

The intended theoretical contributions of the papers presented in this thesis are numerous. Firstly, it is important to highlight that the theoretical background of each paper derives from different streams of theories in expatriate literature.

To begin with, in Chapter 2 of the thesis, the intention of the paper to present an integrative model of the antecedent factors relating to the success of an international assignment. Once this has been achieved by means of a literature review, the most important contribution is to analyze the importance or relative weight of each factor according to a certain context. In Chapter 2, the context that has been indicated is Lima, Peru. One of the reasons for choosing Peru is because no specific research has been conducted on expatriates in Peru. Most of the research focusing on expatriates either address American expatriates living in China or Japan, where the culture is extremely different to the American context. Another reason is that despite the existence of expatriate research in South America, South America itself is very different and needs to be differentiated.

Secondly, in Chapter 3, the important contribution is the inclusion of perceptions regarding host-country nationals. In Chapter 3, Black et al.'s (1992) theory, along

with questionnaires, was used for the regression analysis. As such, the questionnaires were pre-validated, although the questions regarding host-country nationals were developed and pre-tested using a pilot study.

Finally, Chapter 4 presents sample specific data. The sample used for obtaining the data was intentionally chosen – Turkish self-initiated expatriates. The contribution of this paper is to provide an insight about Turkish self-initiated expatriates and to reveal the common and contradicting points in relation to the previous literature on self-initiated expatriates. Furthermore, a commonly used term, “comfort zone”, is introduced and how it is connected to cross-cultural adjustment is investigated in a bid to better understand the friendship relations of Turkish self-initiated expatriates by asking the question, “who is in your comfort zone as a friend?”

1.7 Interconnection of the papers

The main aim of the thesis is to enhance the knowledge on different expatriate populations by examining the factors related to adjustment. The thesis reaches its aim by comparing and contrasting the three papers presented from the perspective of different expatriate populations. Therefore, it is crucial to note that each paper has different sample characteristics. In Chapter 2, the expatriates in

Peru were intentionally chosen as organizational expatriates working in different companies in Peru. Therefore, in this chapter, the focus is on organizational expatriates. Success factors were identified along with the meaning of success.

In Chapter 3, MBA students were used as the research sample. Expatriate literature has always hesitated to use students as their sample, as the characteristics of an MBA life (or student life) are perceived as being different than that of an organizational or a self-initiated expatriate. One of the reasons for this is because there is no clear indication of performance; students' grades were used in some of the research conducted, but scholars of expatriate literature remain unconvinced about the representativeness of the samples. However, if the research is concerned with adjustment and especially with interaction adjustment (Black et al. 1992), there are some points that could justify the sample. Firstly, work adjustment has not been taken into consideration in this research. The main aim of the paper is to introduce the perception of expatriates regarding host country nationals regarding and the effect of this on interaction adjustment. Secondly, the fact that the sample size is reasonably good and culturally diverse supports the model introduced in the paper. In this paper, the importance of host country nationals and the willingness to communicate are examined. Language ability is also one of the factors affecting interaction adjustment.

The sample chosen for Chapter 4 concerns Turkish self-initiated expatriates. The friend-making pattern of the sample was examined by considering their previous overseas experience. Their motivation for going abroad and spouse adjustment were also some of the aspects that were explored.

Ultimately, in Chapter 2, examining the factors leading to a successful international assignment in the Peruvian context was the first goal. Following on, discovering the nine most important factors leading to success in the Peruvian context helped to identify some of the factors for subsequent chapters. Individual factors were used in Chapter 2, such as language ability, alongside the introduction of host country nationals, which could be interpreted as social support. In Chapter 4, previous overseas experience was found to be a determinant for the friend-making pattern. Additionally, spousal adjustment and motivation for going abroad were discussed.

The conclusion in Chapter 5 presents the results derived from the three chapters that were compared according to the samples and context. The differences between organization expatriates and self-initiated expatriates are discussed. The findings were also examined in the light of contextual theory (Johns, 2006). The importance of context for expatriate research was underlines and its implications were highlighted.

The strength of this thesis lies in its ability to consider context as an important factor. Most of the research done on expatriates were conducted on American and Chinese expatriates. The rationale behind such choice is assumed to be the interest in the findings and the availability of the data. The mainstream expatriate locations are found to be also either Asia for American expatriates and United States for Chinese or Japanese expatriates. In this thesis, one of the expatriate locations is Lima, Peru in which the more than half of the sample already speaks Spanish. This is an important case in order to understand the antecedent factors for a successful international assignment in such a context. Moreover, the thesis includes a chapter merely on Turkish expatriates in different expatriate locations and investigates the importance of previous overseas experience with importance given to certain expatriate locations. Johns (2006) reviews the organizational behavior field in the light of the importance of the context. Therefore the last section of the conclusion chapter is dedicated to different dimensions of context and how the findings of this thesis are related to them as conveyed in his work. The research questions, key results, along with sample and methodology are demonstrated in Table 1.2, which aims to clearly present the chapters of the thesis.

	Chapter 2	Chapter 3	Chapter 4
Research Question	What are the relative weights of the antecedent factors that contribute to international assignment success in the Peruvian context?	The relationship between the interaction adjustment and language ability, perception about the host country nationals and willingness of the expatriate to communicate.	Is there is a pattern of selection of friends in the comfort zone according to the previous overseas experiences of the expatriates? What is the motivation behind the expatriation for Turkish self-initiated expatriate interaction adjustment and the location of expatriation
Sample	Organizational Expatriates from Peru	MBA students from ESADE Business School	Turkish expatriates in various countries
Methodology	Qualitative (Content Analysis)	Quantitative (Regression Analysis)	Qualitative (Content Analysis)
Table 1.2 Summary of the Chapters/Papers findings	The findings reveal that the individual perspective (473 events) accounts for 70% of the antecedent factors that are most associated with IA success, followed by organizational and contextual perspectives (157 and 51 events; 23% and 8%, respectively).	Findings demonstrate that perception about host country nationals, along with language ability and the expat's willingness to communicate as having a positive influence on interaction adjustment. Among the three variables, language ability was found as the strongest, followed by the perception of the host country nationals. Adjustment is shown to be stronger associated with the culture and the pace of life in the host country.	The Turkish self-initiated expatriates in the sample were all adjusted to and had been living in the host country for at least one year and mostly for more than two years; the friends in their comfort zones had two different patterns. Expats with previous overseas experience tend to choose friends with international backgrounds, whereas expats without previous experience tend to choose Turkish friends.

Table 1.2 Summary of the Chapters/Papers

References

Adler, N. 2008. *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Thomson-Southwestern: Ohio.

Al-Meer, A.R. 1989. Organizational commitment: a comparison of Westerners, Asians, and Saudis. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 19:74-84.

Arthur, M.B. 1994. The boundaryless career: a new perspective for organizational inquiry. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 15:295-306.

Arthur, M.B. and Rousseau, D.M. 1996. *The Boundaryless Career: A New Employment Principle for a New Organisational Era*. Oxford University Press: Oxford.

Bartlett, C. A. and Ghoshal, S. 2003. What is a global manager? *Harvard Business Review*, 81:45-51.

Begley, A., Collings, D.G. and Scullion, H. 2008. The cross-cultural adjustment experiences of self-initiated repatriates to the Republic of Ireland labour market. *Employee Relations*, 30:264-82

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D.A., Shaffer, M.A. and Luk, D.M. 2005. Input-based and time based models of international adjustment: meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48:57-281.

Bieman, T. and Andresen, M. 2009. Self-initiated foreign expatriates versus assigned expatriates: Two distinct types of international careers? *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 25:431-448.

Black, J. S. 1988. Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19:277-94.

Caligiuri, P. 1997. The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53:67-88.

Crowley-Henry, M. 2007. The Protean career. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 37:44-64.

Dalton, M. A. 1998. Developing leaders for global roles. In C. D. McCauley, R. Moxley and E. Van Velsor (Eds.). *The center for creative leadership handbook of leadership development*. Jossey-Bass: California.

Feldman, D. C. and Bolino, M. 1999. The impact of on-site mentoring on expatriate socialization: A structural equation modeling approach. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10:54-71.

Why Generation Y Yuppies Are Unhappy. Huffington Post, http://www.huffingtonpost.com/wait-but-why/generationunhappy_b_3930620.html
Viewed 15/09/2013

Hemingway, E. 1926. *The Sun Also Rises*. Scribner: New York.

Inkson, K., Arthur, M.B., Pringle, J. and Barry, S. 1997. Expatriate assignment versus overseas experience: contrasting models of international human resource development. *Journal of World Business*, 32:351-68.

Javidan, M. and House, R. J. 2001. Cultural acumen for the global manager: Lessons from project GLOBE. ***Organizational Dynamics***, 29:289-305.

Johns, G. 2006. The Essential Impact of Context in Organizational Behavior. ***Academy of Management Review***, 31:386-408

Jun, S., Gentry, J.W. and Hyun, Y. J. 2001. Cultural Adaptation of Business Expatriation in the Host Marketplace. ***Journal of International Business Studies***, 32:396-377.

Kraimer, M. and Wayne, S. 2004. An examination of perceived organizational support as a multidimensional construct in the context of an expatriate assignment. ***Journal of Management***, 30:209-237.

Mendenhall, M. E. 2006. The elusive, yet critical challenge of developing global leaders. ***European Management Journal***, 24:422-429.

Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. 1985. The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. ***Academy of Management Review***, 10:39-48.

Mezias, J. M. and Scandura, T. A. 2005. A needs-driven approach to expatriate adjustment and career development: A multiple mentoring perspective. ***Journal of International Business Studies***, 36:519-538.

Mirvis, P. and Hall, D. 1994. Psychological success and the boundaryless career. ***Journal of Organizational Behavior***, 15:365-80.

Shaffer, M. and Harrison, D. 1998. Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, no work, and family influences. ***Personnel Psychology***, 51:87-118.

Shahid, N.B., Al-Shammari, E.S. and Jefri, O.J. 2001. Work-related attitudes and job characteristics of expatriates in Saudi Arabia. ***Thunderbird International Business Review***, 43:21-31.

Suutari, V. and Brewster, C. 2000. Making their own way: international experience through self-initiated foreign assignments. ***Journal of World Business***, 35:417-36.

Takeuchi, R. 2010. A Critical Review of Expatriate Adjustment Research Through a Multiple Stakeholder View: Progress, Emerging Trends, and Prospects. ***Journal of Management***, 36:1040-1064.

Thomas, D.C. 2002. ***Essentials of International Management: A Cross-cultural Perspective***. Sage: California.

Tung, R. L. 1987. Expatriate assignments: Enhancing success, minimizing failure. ***Academy of Management Executive***, 1:117-126.

Xintian, Yu. 2002. Cultural Impact on International Relations. *Chinese Philosophical Studies*, XX. ***The Council for Research in Values and Philosophy***.

**Chapter 2: Antecedent Factors Contributing to
Success in International Assignments:
The Case of Expatriates in Peru**

2.1 Introduction

The number of international assignments continues to grow and the management complexity involved in this process is evident. Therefore, research that identifies the factors associated with success in an international assignment (hereafter, IA) has gained momentum.

The terms 'success' and 'failure' in IA have been used to describe multiple criteria for international assignment outcomes and for embracing individual and organizational perspectives (Takeuchi et al., 2002, among others). Recently, Hemmasi et al. (2010) provided a comprehensive review and empirical evidence in support of nine individual outcome criteria for success in IA: cross-cultural adjustment; work-related adjustment; career development; HQ-subsidary coordination; assignment completion; professional/skill development; shaping and controlling subsidiaries satisfaction; overall assignment effectiveness or performance (see also Bhaskar Shirnivas et al., 2005; Black et al. 1991; Caligiuri, 1997; Jun et al., 2001; Kraimer and Wayne, 2004; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998).

While a great deal of research has been done on predicting and defining the criteria for success in overseas assignments, our understanding of the key factors that underlie success in international assignments as it concerns specific

cultures remains unclear and requires further exploration (e.g., McKenna and Richardson, 2007; Shaffer et al., 2006; Takeuchi et al., 2005).

Some research contributes these conflicting conclusions to the lack of consensus and inconsistencies in connecting the relevant factors associated with success in international assignments. This might be due to the emergence of various theoretically based models and the broad definitions used in such research, as well as the various measurements of antecedent factors related to success in international assignments (e.g., Connelly et al., 2007; Holopainen and Björkman, 2005). Takeuchi et al. (2005) insist on the need for extending the effort in applying an integrative and holistic approach that may be more useful to form frameworks consistent with the relevant factors related to international assignee success. These relevant factors are of great importance for international organizations and expatriates. On the other hand, the contribution of the weights of the antecedent factors leading to IA might differ in relation to specific cultures.

In this study, Peru was chosen as the expatriate destination, as few similar studies have been acquitted in this particular area. The existing literature is largely concerned with expatriates in Japan, China or India, the cultures of which are significantly different from the American culture. Studies have been conducted about the expatriates in Latin America; however there is heterogeneity within Latin America in terms of the culture as well.

Consequently, this study aims to contribute to the IA knowledge base in two important ways. Firstly, the study examines, compares and synthesizes the findings of published research in order to identify the broad range of factors associated with and leading to success in IA. The review is driven from three perspectives: individual, organizational and contextual. We argue that such a multi-level perspective may contribute to a more refined understanding of the need to form an integrative framework that addresses the most relevant factors related to success in IA (e.g., Shih et al., 2005). Secondly, this study assesses the relative perceived importance and the contribution of each of the factors related to success in IA of expatriates, particularly in Peru (e.g., Wang 2008).

The paper commences with a review of the literature on the principal factors associated with success in IA. The research methodology and the interview analysis results are then described. Lastly, a discussion and implications are delivered.

2.2 Antecedent factors for success in international assignment

One generic conclusion based on previous findings is that IA success originates from individual, organizational and contextual factors (see Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova, Beehr and Christiansen, 2003).

Individual perspective: the individual perspective includes direct and indirect individual-related factors and characteristics that either promote or inhibit effectiveness and success in overseas assignments (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Caligiuri et al., 2009). Personal characteristics are divided into two dimensions: 'soft' and 'hard' data. Within the broad list of antecedents, the main soft factors are: personality traits, cognitive emotional and cultural abilities, personal drive and motivation, relational and social skills, stress management, cross-cultural adjustment skills and managerial abilities (Black et al., 1991; Jassawalla et al., 2004; Jokinen, 2005; Kets de Vries and Florent-Treacy, 2002; Wu et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2008; Macnab et al., 2012; Storck et al., 2012; Pinto et al., 2012; Hashimoto, 2012).

Certain personality characteristics are known to enable international assignees to operate and function effectively in new cross-cultural environments (Caligiuri et al., 2009; Holopainen and Björkman, 2005; Jokinen, 2005; Kayes and Yamazaki,

2005). Applying the evolutionary theory of personality, extroversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness are among these characteristics (Caligiuri, 2000). Moreover, cognitive abilities facilitate effective assimilation processes and the learning and managing of information such as abstract concepts. Cognitive ability is related to different activities such as evaluating performance and strategic options and designing strategies (Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Den and Gibson, 2009; Kayes et al., 2000; Wu et al., 2011; Thomas et al., 2008; Macnob et al., 2012).

Cross cultural abilities also fall under the category of individual soft factors. These abilities can be defined as certain personality traits, behavior, skills, values and knowledge that enable individuals to perform and interact effectively outside their own nations and in multiple culture contexts (Den and Gibson, 2009; Tan et al., 2005).

Additionally, emotional abilities such as responses and behavior in responding to and acting out emotional expressions, understanding experience in cross-cultural encounters, as well as relational and social skills (effective interpersonal interactions or having a repertoire of tools and techniques that facilitate the formation of relationships in cross-cultural environments) are also crucial factors that inhibit IA success (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Jokinen, 2005; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shay and Baack, 2006; Hashimoto, 2012).

Finally, global managerial abilities – understanding and effectively managing the specific responsibilities in directing, managing, achieving goals and managing people during an international assignment – is also an important factor for a successful IA (Black et al., 1991; Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003; Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Storck et al., 2012; Bartlett, C. A. and Ghoshal, S., 1992).

'Hard' data, on the other hand, includes demographic and biographical data, as well as broad knowledge based on business, organizational, factual, customer, technical and functional factors that have been identified as related to success (e.g., Selmer, 2006a, b; Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Triandis, 2006). The literature points out that different sources of support, such as leadership, spousal and peer, as well as family adjustment, are associated with higher levels of international assignee effectiveness and success (e.g., Hutchings et al., 2012; Cole and McNulty, 2011; Harrison, 2012; Selmer and Laring, 2011).

Moreover, the availability of various sources that help the international assignee by providing relevant information, emotional support and instrumental support in overseas host country assignments increases the likelihood of having successful IA (Kraimer and Wayne, 2004; Liu and Shaffer, 2005).

Furthermore the degree and extent to which the international assignee's spouse feels comfortable and familiar with features of the new host cultural environment,

lifestyle and adopting noteworthy new roles is relatively important for an expatriate (Andreason, 2008; Lazarova et al., 2010).

Organizational perspective: the organizational perspective includes IA strategy, and management practices that support the international business strategy and objectives (e.g., Harvey and Moeller, 2009; McKenna et al., 2009; Bartlett, C. A. and Ghoshal, S., 1989). The most common IA management practices cover issues such as recruitment and selection, cross-cultural skills training and development, support for international assignees and their families, job performance appraisal and evaluation, incentive and compensation and lastly, repatriation and career management. These are the practical factors that have the greatest impact on the success and effectiveness of an IA (e.g., Wang 2008; Warner and Schneider, 2011).

The company's definitions of the extent to which international assignees contribute to a company's competitive advantage in international environments through their role in overseas assignment summarizes the strategy and purposes of why a company needs and values expatriation (Connelly et al., 2007; Shih et al., 2005; Baruch, Y. and Altman, Y., 2002). Furthermore, creating and managing a set of systematic and rational policies and practices for IA – including the definition of assignee professional profiles and the number of assignments required to achieve the international business strategy – is part of the

organization's responsibility (Connelly et al., 2007; Shih et al., 2005; Harvey and Moeller, 2009; McKenna et al., 2009).

In addition, organizational practices for identifying quality candidates, assessing and selecting the most appropriate candidates that possess the required knowledge and abilities, as well as bio-demographic data to ensure future success in overseas assignments, are part of the organizational aspects that contribute to the success of IA (Caligiuri and Tarique, 2009; Caligiuri et al., 2009; Graf and Harland, 2005).

Finally, cross-cultural training and career development supported by the organization are crucial for an expatriate, as cross-cultural training increases knowledge and familiarity with the host country's cultural norms (Caligiuri et al., 2001; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005). Career development, on the other hand, is a process of capitalization on talents through international assignment career path advancement and learning opportunities for professional growth, acquiring and improving general management skills and intercultural abilities (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Stahl et al., 2009).

Contextual perspective: a growing body of research has discussed the differences between home and host country characteristics, as well as the variety of national characteristics and institutional norms. These are all important factors

that are considered critical contextual aspects related to success in IA (e.g., Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Van Vianen et al., 2004; Kim et al., 2012).

The extent to which the international assignee's own norms, values, beliefs and assumptions about human nature and human behavior differ from the dominant values in the host country constitutes 'cultural differences' (Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005; Van de Vijver, 2008; Kim et al., 2012; Ramsey, 2005; Toh and DeNisi, 2005). The host country's political, economic, social and cultural profile, for example, institutional characteristics (law, regulations and normative systems), social relations and lifestyle (what is culturally acceptable and appropriate behavior) and business knowledge (markets, customer, material and human resource) are some of the host country characteristics that should be taken into consideration.

2.3 International Assignment - Successful

Outcomes

Previous literature concerning the types of criteria used for the evaluation of an IA demonstrates some variations (Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Black et al., 1999a). The evaluation of an IA (whether it was successful or a failure) can be

approached from two perspectives or two different levels. At the individual level, the main concern is the expatriate. Expatriate retention, individual performance or cross-cultural adjustment are some of the factors related to the individual level (e.g., Aycan, 1997a; Caligiuri, 1997a, 2000; Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001; Ones and Viswesvaran, 1997; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2002).

Organization perspective, on the other hand, is concerned with the effectiveness of the international human resources strategies practiced in the organization. Recruitment, selection and compensation are some examples of these strategies, as well as the return of the investment (McNulty and Tharenou, 2004; Yan et al., 2002).

Recently, as a reaction to stress in IA, affective, cognitive and behavioral outcomes such as job and wellbeing, satisfaction, withdrawal cognition and premature termination and performance have been analyzed in a systematic way as critical criteria for successful IA outcomes (e.g., Aycan, 1997b; Caligiuri, 1997a, b, 2000; Cerdin, 1999; Kraimer et al., 2001). The perception of the expatriate about the IA is crucial for the satisfaction and effective outcomes. It is important to highlight at this stage that in current research, expatriates are asked to define success according to their perspectives; no additional information (i.e., performance indicators of the parent company) were used.

2.4 Sample, methods and procedures

Sample: 45 participants were selected and drawn from a population of professionals who were involved in international assignments in Peru, as well as others who had previously been on assignment abroad. The country of origin of sample varied, as the expatriates interviewed were from Spain (13), Israel (2), Brazil (3), Chile (3), Guatemala (2), Italy (5), Canada (5) and USA (7). The dominant gender in the sample was male, as the sample only had two female expatriates. The sample was drawn from subsidiaries of 15 international companies, representing a variety of industries (oil, mining, consumer products, financial services, chemicals and professional services) and the remaining two participants were professionals who had extensive experience in IA and were currently working in their home country. The participants met the following criteria: (a) each held a management or supervisory position; (b) each had been living in the host country for at least one year. Table 2.1 provides the demographic profiles of the interviewees according to the four groups created by the authors solely for the clarity of demographic profiles. The groups were identified according to the expatriates' duration of IA. The first group consisted of two professionals with long experience in IA and who were not currently working in IA positions; the second group consisted of 10 senior managers who had more than 10 years' experience in IA and who held senior positions in subsidiaries in

the host country (i.e., managing director, senior manager and general manager). The third group consisted of 18 participants in intermediate-senior management positions who had between five to 10 years' experience in IA and had held strategic and functional positions in subsidiaries in the host country (general managers, managing directors). Finally, the fourth group consisted of 15 middle-level expatriates with less than six years' experience in IA and who held mainly technical positions.

Demographics	Group I a	Group II	Group III	Group IV	Total number of participants b	% of the participants c
n	2	10	18	15		
Sex						
Male	2	10	16	13	41	91
Female			2	2	4	9
Age						
< 30			4	2	6	14
30-39			5	12	17	40
40-50	1	6	8	1	16	37
> 50	1	4	1		6	14
Accompanied/not accompanied	n.a.					
Accompanied by spouse		7	15	12	34	79
Single/not accompanied		3	3	3	9	21
Time on assignment at the time of interview	n.a.					
< 2 years		2	5	6	13	30
3-5 years		4	10	5	19	44
> 5 years		4	3	4	11	26
Position level	n.a.					
Senior manager		10	9		19	44
Middle manager			9	2	11	26
Technical supervision				13	13	30
Prior international assignment	n.a.					
None			8	4	12	28
< 5 years		2	9	3	14	33
5-10 years		3	3	7	13	30
> 10 years		5		1	6	14

Table 2.1: Demographic Information of the sample.

Note: **a**: only included sex and age description; other demographic variables were irrelevant for respondent not being presently in IA. **b**: total number of participants: n=45 for sex and age: n=43 for the other variables. **c**: percentages were calculated for the total participants, where n=45 for sex and age, n=43 for the other variables.

Data collection and procedures: a semi-structured interview was developed, validated and employed for collecting data. The interview protocol was driven from IA success literature that points to four related outcomes of success in IA and 32 potential key factors in three main areas: (1) individual; (2) organizational; (3) contextual. Thus, the first series of questions included: *What do you believe are the main factors that influenced your success in IA? How do you define and measure success in IA? What are the main barriers to or elements of success in IA? What is the profile of a successful international assignee?* The interviewers asked additional questions to gain further comprehensive understanding, for instance: *Can you give an example of what you have just mentioned?*

All the interviews were conducted by qualified interviewers with extensive professional experience in interviewing. Interviews were conducted at corporate premises and all the interviews were recorded and lasted about 45-60 minutes. The interviews were voluntary and no claim is made as to the randomness or representativeness of the sample. The interviews were subsequently analyzed using visual qualitative data analysis software, ATLAS - Ti, version WIN 5. The interview recordings were fully transcribed and then processed. Two researchers analyzed and codified the interviews using a qualitative *a priori* coding system classification based on content analysis (Neuendorf, 2002). Firstly, the three main perspectives (individual, organizational and contextual) and their respective categories and factors related to success (as suggested in IA literature) were

established and listed in a codebook. Secondly, the factors were operationalized as accurately as possible and then applied to half of the interview transcripts to ensure the quality of the content-analytical categories. Any disagreements between coders were discussed and resolved. Subsequently, the percentage of use for each category and factor was calculated by adding the frequency and a given factor was introduced to address the total events reported by the respondents.

2.5 Results

The content analysis yielded 678 total events for antecedent factors in the pre-codification method. These are presented in Table 2.2.

Perspective	Category and factors	Total frequency			Total %		
		Factors	Category	Perspective	Factors	Category	Perspective
Individual				473			70
Direct Factors	Personal characteristics		253			37	
	- Soft Factors		217				
	1. Personality traits	17			2.51		
	2. Cognitive ability	9			1.33		
	3. Cross-cultural abilities	51			7.52		
	4. Emotional abilities	33			4.87		
	5. Relational and social skills	31			4.57		
	6. Stress management	16			2.36		
	7. Cross-cultural adjustment	11			1.62		
	8. Managerial abilities	14			2.06		
	9. Motivation international assignment	35			5.16		
	- Hard factors		36				
	10. Business and organisational knowledge	16			2.36		
	11. Technical and functional expertise	20			2.95		
	II. Biographical data		128			19	
	12. Previous international experience	32			4.72		
	13. Organisational tenure	8			1.18		
	14. Time on the assignment	34			5.01		
	15. Language fluency in the assignment	31			4.57		
	16. Mother language	23			3.39		
	III. Demographic data		45			7	
17. Age	1			0.15			
18. Gender	16			2.36			
19. Marital status	28			4.13			
Indirect factors			47			7	
	20. Social support	7			1.03		
	21. Spouse adjustment	40			5.90		
Organisational				154			23
	IV. HR strategy and management		23			3	
	22. Strategy and purpose(s) for IA	7			1.03		
	23. IA management	16			2.36		
	V. International assignment practices		131			19	
	24. Recruitment and selection	40			5.90		
	25. Cross-cultural training	8			1.18		
	26. Career development	22			3.24		
	27. Organisational support	12			1.77		
	28. Job performance appraisal	27			3.98		
	29. Incentive and compensation	12			1.77		
	30. Repatriation	10			1.47		
Contextual				51			8
	VI. Culture		46			7	
	31. Culture differences	46			6.78		
	VII. Environment		5			1	
	32. Host country characteristics	5			0.74		
	Total:	678			100.00		

Table 2.2: Individual, organization and contextual antecedent factors for international assignment outcomes.

Of the three main perspectives of antecedent factors for IA success, the results indicate that the individual perspective (473 events) accounts for 70% of the antecedent factors that are most associated with IA success, followed by the organizational and contextual perspectives (157 and 51 events; 23% and 8%, respectively). Of the 32 pre-codified antecedent factors for IA success, some nine factors were most frequently mentioned by the interviewees (over 30 events, 4.5%) and these account for 55% of IA antecedent events.

Within the direct factors of individual perspectives, personal characteristics (253 events, 37%) and cross-cultural abilities (51 events; 7.52%) appeared to be the most relevant factors, followed by motivational aspects and emotional abilities (35 events, 5.16% and 33 events, 4.87%). In addition, biographical data (128 events, 19%) was perceived to be associated with success – especially time spent on the assignment, previous international experience and language fluency (34, 32 and 31 events, 5%, 4.27% and 4.57%, respectively). As for the individual's indirect factors, spousal adjustment was reported as an important factor associated with success (40 events, 5.9%).

Of the related categories and factors of the organizational perspective, IA practices represented the most important associated factor (131 events, 19%), especially the recruitment and selection process (40 events, 5.9%), followed by job performance appraisal (27 events, 3.98%) and career development (22

events, 3.24%). Finally, of the contextual factors, cultural differences were reported as the factor most associated with success (46 events, 6.78%).

2.6 Discussion

In sum, nine factors were found to encompass the main antecedent factors leading to success – as ranked by the frequency with which they were mentioned. In order to have a clear understanding of the findings the authors will discuss the results in depth, taking the individual, organizational and contextual perspectives into consideration.

Direct and Indirect Individual Factors

Cross-cultural ability is the first factor and was reported as the most relevant individual direct antecedent factor. This finding highlights the challenges that arise while working and living overseas and is in line with recent research that calls for research that goes beyond the traditional expatriate and IA frameworks related to the abilities needed by global leaders (e.g., Stahl et al., 2009).

Some authors suggest that definitions of global or cross-cultural abilities refer to cultural flexibility and a liberal mindset that can interact effectively and transmit multidisciplinary knowledge in different cultures (Suutari and Taka, 2004). The

abilities needed to succeed in overseas assignments were exemplified by an interviewee as follows:

“[Y]ou have to work with your mind and methodology set according to the culture ... it’s not about saying I can do it better than you, it’s a matter of developing a path in which you feel that they have something positive to offer and you have something positive to change”.

The spousal adjustment factor (considered in this study as an indirect individual factor) was reported as the second main individual antecedent factor that may have a significant impact on international assignee success or failure. This factor was explained by one of the interviewee as follows:

“The big failures occur due to a lack of adaptability by the family. For example, I know of foreigners who have come here and whose families weren’t able to adapt. The family’s ability to adapt and get used to a new environment is very influential; if the family doesn’t adapt then the employee will start lagging behind”.

This finding supports a considerable number of studies that have shown that spousal adjustment has crossover effects on various work and non-work aspects, and thus has a particularly influential role in international assignee adjustment and success (e.g., Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2005). A recent study by Lazarova et al. (2010) provides a promising conceptual model for

understanding the relationship between work and family roles and forms of adjustment for effective performance in IA. Their model proposes family adjustment as a new and independent dimension of adjustment (in addition to work and cultural adjustment) and points to spillover and crossover relationships between family adjustment and cultural and work adjustment. Due to the complexity of the adjustment process, we support the need for further conceptual and empirical research to expand our knowledge of the nature, role, contribution and type of relationship between family and spouse adjustment and international assignee adjustment.

The individual's motivational aspects for IA placed as the third important antecedent factor in the individual factors category. As evidenced by the recent development of global theoretical frameworks for the careers of leaders, there is a growing recognition of the individual's direct responsibility for managing his/her career destiny. Mobility and track record are strongly linked to personal motivation and an interest in international career development (e.g., Cappellen and Janssens, 2008). The following quote may illustrate the multiple reasons for holding an overseas assignment:

"I think we usually move to another country because of some motivating factor, whether it's material or career advancement, there is always a motivating factor behind our decisions".

Our findings are in line with other research evidence of multiple drivers and motivations for accepting IA positions. In this connection, we back the recommendations of others who emphasize the need for identifying and distinguishing between the main types of motivations derived from intrinsic needs and/or extrinsic incentives (such as intercultural experience, personal development and economic factors) as linked to career and international career development (e.g., Haines et al., 2008; Stahl, et al., 2009). Alternatively, employees who are compelled to move abroad by their organization seem to have a negative perception about the adjustment process, as well as lower satisfaction levels and higher withdrawal intentions (Pinto et al, 2012).

Among the biographical data, three main factors also appear as relevant antecedents for IA success. These are: time on assignment; previous international experience; language fluency. These factors are placed after motivational factors regarding the frequency mentioned in the interviews. In this regard, some authors point out that time on assignment and experience in overseas assignment positions or living abroad are often significant elements associated with an effective learning of the host country's norms, behaviors and language, as well as with developing strategies to cope and integrate socially and emotionally with the host culture. Therefore, more time on assignment for international assignees may facilitate their learning about the host country and help them develop more effective intercultural abilities (e.g., Caligiuri and

Tarique, 2009). The survey results of 151 married Korean employees by Kim et al. (2012) demonstrate that host-country characteristics and occupational role commitment have a direct effect on the willingness of the employee to work abroad. The results also show that that host-country economic level interacts with occupational role commitment. The following quote is illustrative of this:

“Someone who lacks stability will ask to be transferred after six months and will then want to leave again after six months. You have to be aware that adapting takes time”.

In addition, previous international experience can be conceived as multifaceted, beneficial in reducing workplace strain in a different cultural context and useful in establishing a cognitive schema for learning different cultural values and systems (e.g., Takeuchi et al., 2005). An example of this factor was expressed by one of the interviewees when he described the type of profile for IA:

“I am looking for people who in the first place have international experience because I noticed that the adjustment risk is very high for people in their first [international] experience. Therefore, I look for people with international experience”.

Among the direct individual characteristics, emotional abilities and relational and social skills were found to be significant antecedents for success. Recent research points to the importance of emotional abilities in handling cross-cultural

situations and adjustment. Some authors suggest that the expression, experience and management of emotions are shaped by cultural values, beliefs and norms, and that emotion may be a crucial aspect in social and cultural social encounters. Thus, emotional effectiveness may be manifested in terms of responses and behavior in handling and acting across cultures and adapting to environmental demands and pressures during the IA (e.g., Tan et al., 2005). The emotional abilities needed to face possible personal difficulties in overseas assignment were described by one of the interviewees:

“Many expatriates [who] had good marriages all of sudden end up divorced or in similar situations, so we must assess the ability to adapt ... not just at a professional level but also at a personal level”.

In addition, relational and social skills involve effective person-to-person interaction and include many types of abilities related to interpersonal interaction. These skills may facilitate the establishment of an interpersonal tie network with the host nationals and other international assignees in the workplace, as well as in the social context (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). In this regard, Caligiuri and colleagues (2009) argue that personality characteristics such as relational skills (extroversion and agreeableness), as well as social skills (e.g., openness), have a positive relationship with cross-cultural adjustment and job success. This is because these characteristics and abilities facilitate learning the host country's

culture and the development of solid interpersonal relations in and outside the workplace. An example of the importance of building a positive social relationship in IA was stated by one of the interviewees as follows:

“[A] person with relational problems will have difficulty being successful overseas professionally; the person who is most capable of relating will be more successful”.

An effective development of relational and social ties may facilitate the learning of acceptable behavior that is crucial for successful adjustment (e.g., Jokinen, 2005). Some claim that relational and social abilities can also be defined as social intelligence (or social ability) and that this quality is essential for any interpersonal interaction, and may have similar behavioral components as other abilities that reflect interpersonal abilities, for example, emotional and cultural intelligence (e.g., Kumar et al., 2008). Therefore, we agree with the call by Kumar et al. for additional empirical research to identify the key relational and social skills that facilitate or inhibit building a solid relationship with people from different cultures (e.g., Yamazaki and Kayes, 2004). Further research on social ties and relational networks in intercultural environments may be a promising area to explore.

Finally, as stated by the participants, host country language fluency was perceived to be a facilitating factor that may lead to success in IA. This factor was manifested as follows by an executive who spoke the host country's language:

"I think what most matters is the ability to communicate with people in their own language [which] is a blessing, it's great not to have to make any special effort to understand and be understood – which may not [be the case for] 100% [of incidents] but [perhaps] 99%."

This finding is in line with previously reported studies suggesting that international assignees' willingness to learn the host language is viewed as demonstrating a positive attitude and openness to learn the host country's culture. Secondly, research evidence has also shown that knowledge of the local language is positively associated with building effective interaction, interpersonal relationships and communication, and is considered as a potential predictor of and positively related to IA success (Mol et al., 2005). However, in the Peruvian context, this study revealed that the ability to speak Spanish did not have priority in relation to other individual (direct and indirect) factors. The reason for this result could be argued by the authors as related to 13 interviewees in the sample having been Spanish, and who therefore did not feel a need to mention this factor.

Organizational Factors

Regarding organizational factors, the recruitment and selection practice was the only one the interviewers considered a crucial antecedent and preliminary factor of success in IA. The risk in overlooking the importance of this process was clearly illustrated by an interviewee as follows:

“[An inadequate selection process] ... is damaging firstly because the recognition that we [have not] used an adequate selection process is bad for an expanding organization, as you have to send individuals [on IA] who are technically efficient and can also interact and deal with people properly”.

This is in line with research findings highlighting that recruitment and selection is one of the main challenges in international human resource management and the extremely high direct and indirect costs of failure (Zhu et al., 2006). In addition, Caligiuri and colleagues argue that selection is one of the most complicated processes, as it includes (in addition to specific job abilities, knowledge and duties) contextual criteria such as the ability to live and perform overseas. The assessment of these criteria is critical for success in overseas assignment, and therefore, an optimal recruitment process is crucial (e.g., Caligiuri et al., 2009).

Contextual factors

Finally, cultural difference, a contextual antecedent factor, was ranked as the most important contextual antecedent among participants. Research has addressed the impact of differences between home and host countries, and has generally reported that when the international assignee perceives major culture discrepancies he or she is likely to experience greater difficulty adjusting, which may have a significant impact on success (e.g., Van Vianen et al., 2004).

Our results are also consistent with previous classifications of cultural difference factors into surface and deep-level types (see Van Vianen et al., 2004 for a complete review). In this respect, although the literature on cultural differences is useful for identifying the differences within a country and their influence on successful outcomes, we support recommendations that further studies should more carefully determine the role of cultural differences in various situations, such as countries on the same continent and sharing language similarities (e.g., Suutari and Taka, 2004). For instance, an illustrative quote for this antecedent factor was expressed by an interviewee as follows:

“When we decided to come to Latin America and Peru we thought it was a good idea because we would find the same culture, the same language and a people and history that we were familiar with, but this was [not the case] and at the end

of the day [we wished we] had gone to Asia, because then we would have received a year of cross-cultural training to understand the language and habits”.

Success of international assignments

The individual perspective of success in the most relevant outcome was evident in the context regarding an individual's activities and reactions (e.g., Aycan, 1997b; Caligiuri, 1997a, 2000; Kraimer et al., 2001; Takeuchi et al., 2002). Several authors have recommended considering three main criteria of IA success: job performance, desire to leave the assignment early and satisfaction (Caligiuri, 1997a, b, 2000; Cerdin, 1999; Aycan, 1997b; Kraimer et al., 2001). Among these three factors, two were described by the interviewees as the most important self-indicators for a successful IA.

Job performance: is considered one of the major factors for success in IA. It focuses on those outcomes that are relevant to the position and to the goal of the organization (Viswesvaran, Ones and Schmidt, 1996).

Regarding effective job performance criteria, a young professional of an international consulting company stated:

“I think two variables are fundamental in determining performance on the job. The first concerns business figures. For any [type of business] firm, like for any company, billing, number of open cases, new customers, type of cases or

keeping your clients – and keeping them satisfied – [having a clear understanding of whether] they are happy with their [professional], their willingness to pay the [professional's] fees and to do so promptly, [are all] issues and figures we have to look at”.

General Satisfaction: presumed to create an affective or positive emotional attitudinal response to positions overseas and to the general context. The literature mentions that in the IA context, general satisfaction appears to be an important criterion in success evaluations (Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). Terms such as 'happiness' and 'positive perception' are likely to be interpreted as signs of positive satisfaction. The following description was given by a supervisor in an international manufacturing company in commenting on his colleagues:

“I am lucky the two expats I work with seem more adapted ... they have good language skills and know what they have to do and they are very happy to be here and teach the people and train their successors”.

2.7 Conclusion

Several conclusions can be drawn from these empirical findings. The first is related to the three perspectives discussed in the literature (individual,

organizational and contextual antecedent factors). All three perspectives appear to be relevant and contribute to success in IA; therefore, they can be conceptually integrated and examined as a whole in conducting research (see also, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Brewster and Suutari, 2005).

A second conclusion refers to the weight of contribution of each of these three perspectives in the Peruvian context. Our findings suggest that the individual's antecedent factors account for 70% of factors and play the most determinant role for success in IA. In the Peruvian context, cross-cultural abilities and spousal adjustment were the most direct and indirect individual antecedent factors, followed by the motivation to be assigned to the IA; language ability was the last important individual antecedent.

It should be noted that this study distinguished between cross-cultural abilities and other types of 'soft' IA antecedent factors for two reasons. Firstly, because we share the view of some scholars that there are broad definitions of international assignee abilities, in particular cross-cultural abilities, that in some cases contain very similar items or reflect only semantic differences (e.g., Deng and Gibson, 2009). Secondly, we echo Joiner's (2005) conclusions that many of the existing frameworks for cross-cultural abilities integrate multiple types of personal characteristics (such as traits, behavior, knowledge, attitude, intelligence and skills) within the same model of abilities. Thus, we conclude that

understanding and defining the specific abilities of these effective international assignees remain ambiguous.

Finally, our findings yield additional support to the claim that the personal characteristic antecedents of effective IAs should be assessed as different constructs. This is because although personal characteristic antecedents may interact, each characteristic may also make a unique contribution to success in IA (see, for example, Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Den and Gibson, 2009).

2.8 Limitations and Future Research

This is a *qualitative-based approach* and while the study is rich in terms of capturing respondent feelings and opinions, it is subject to a variety of limitations that can affect the interpretation and generalization of the findings. Furthermore, the single data collection method that derives data only from participant responses may be a potential source of bias, especially about the perceived success of IA. Future research should also investigate and furthermore compare successful assignments versus unsuccessful assignments. In addition, the authors feel the responsibility to state that the dominant gender of the sample was male; therefore, we cannot generalize the findings to the women expatriates in Peru.

The antecedent factors were examined from different theoretical angles such as the cross-cultural abilities to adjust, assignment practice management, global leader skills and career development, as well as assignment effectiveness (e.g., Stahl et al., 2009). Some scholars have, however, pointed out that these broad definitions may cause theoretical frameworks to overlap and yield crossover definitions that may result in misleading findings (e.g., Connelly et al., 2007).

In this study, we clearly addressed this potential barrier by giving a specific definition for each of the antecedent factors. In this way, the study distinguished between the antecedent factors and thereby offered a better understanding of the unique contribution of each factor as an independent construct.

Practical implications for international human resource management:

In terms of the practical implications for international human resource management, several recommendations can be drawn from the findings. In particular, the nine antecedent factors identified may be integrated and addressed in practical implications for IA selection, training and development practices, especially for expatriates in Peru.

References

Ang, S., Van Dyne, L., Koh, C., Yee Ng, K., Templer, K. J., Tay, C. and Chandrasekar, N.A. 2007. Cultural intelligence: its measurement and effects on cultural judgment and decision-making, cultural adaptation and task performance. ***Management and Organization Review***, 3(3):35-71.

Ashkanasy, N. M. and Daus, C. S. 2002. Emotion in the workplace: the new challenge for managers. ***Academy of Management Executive***, 16:76-86.

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M.A. and Luk, D. M. 2005. Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 48:257-281.

Black, J.S., Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. 1991. Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: an integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. ***Academy of Management Review***, 16: 291-317.

Brewster, C. S. and Suutari, V. 2005. Global HRM: Aspects of research agenda. ***Personnel Review***, 34:5-21.

Caligiuri, P. 1997. The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rate performance. ***Personnel Psychology***, 53:67-88.

Caligiuri, P. M., Phillips, J., Lazarova, M., Tarique, I. and Bürgi, P. 2001. The Theory of Met Expectations Applied to Expatriate Adjustment: The Role of Cross-Cultural Training. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 12:357-72.

- Caligiuri, P. and Tarique, I. 2009. Predicting effectiveness in global leadership activities. ***Journal of World Business***, 44:336-346.
- Caligiuri, P., Tarique, I. and Jacobs, R. 2009. Selection for international assignments. ***Human Resource Management Review***, 19:251-262.
- Cappellen, T. and Janssens, M. 2008. Global managers' career competencies. ***Career Development International***, 13:514-537.
- Connelly, B., Hitt, M. A., DeNisi, A. S. and Ireland, R. D. 2007. Expatriates and corporate-level international strategy: governing with the knowledge contract. ***Management Decision***, 45:564-581.
- Cole, N. and McNulty Y. 2011. Why do female expatriates "fit-in" better than males? An analysis of self-transcendence and socio-cultural adjustment. ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 18:144-164.
- Den, L. and Gibson, P. 2009. Mapping and modelling the capacities that underlie effective cross-cultural leadership-An interpretive study with practical outcomes. ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 16:347-366.
- Graf, A. and Harland, L. 2005. Expatriate selection: evaluating the discriminant, convergent, and predictive validity of five measures of interpersonal and intercultural competence. ***Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies***, 11:46-62.
- Haines III, V.Y., Saba, T. and Choquette, E. 2008. Intrinsic motivation for an international assignment. ***International Journal of Manpower***, 29:443-461.
- Harrison, E. C. and Michailova, S. 2012. Working in the Middle East: Western female expatriates' experiences in the United Arab Emirates. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:625-644.

- Harzing, A. 2001. Of bears, bumble-bees and spiders: The role of expatriates in controlling foreign subsidiaries. ***Journal of World Business***, 4:366-379.
- Harvey, M. and Moeller, M. 2009. Expatriate managers: A historical review. ***International Journal of Management Review***, 11:275-296.
- Hechanova, R., Beehr, T.A. and Christiansen, N.D. 2003. Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignment: A meta-analytic review. ***Applied Psychology: An International Review***, 52:213-236.
- Hemmasi, M., Downes, M. and Varner, I.I. 2010. An empirical-driven multidimensional measure of expatriate success reconciling the discord. ***The International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 21:982-998.
- Holopainen, J. and Björkman, I. 2005. The personal characteristics of the successful expatriate. A critical review of the literature and an empirical investigation. ***Personnel Review***, 34:37-50.
- Hutchings, K., Lirio, P. and Metcalfe, B. D. 2012. Gender, globalisation and development: a re-evaluation of the nature of women's global work. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:1763-1787.
- Hyder, A.S. and Lovblad, M. 2007. The repatriation process – a realistic approach. ***Career Development International***, 12:264-281.
- Jassawalla, A., Truglia, C. and Garvey, J. 2004. Cross-cultural conflict and expatriate manager adjustment: An exploratory study. ***Management Decision***, 42:837-849.
- Jokinen, T. 2005. Global leadership competencies: a review and discussion. ***Journal of European Industrial Training***, 29:199-216.

- Jun, S., Gentry, J.W. and Hyun, Y. J. 2001. Cultural Adaptation of Business Expatriation in the Host Marketplace. ***Journal of International Business Studies***, 32:396-377.
- Kets de Vries, M.F.R. and Florent-Treacy, E. 2002. Global leadership from A to Z: creating high commitment organizations. ***Organizational Dynamics***, 295:1-16.
- Kim, J. and Froese, F. 2011. Expatriation willingness in Asia: the importance of host-country characteristics and employees' role commitments. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:3433.
- Kraimer, M. and Wayne, S. 2004. An examination of perceived organizational support as a multidimensional construct in the context of an expatriate assignment. ***Journal of Management***, 30:209–237.
- Kumar, R., Che Rose, R. and Subramaniam. 2008. The Effects of Personality and Cultural Intelligence on International Assignment Effectiveness: A Review. ***Journal of Social Sciences***, 4:320-328.
- Lazarova, M., Westman. M. and Shaffer, M.A. 2010. Elucidating the positive side of the work-family interface on international assignments: a model of expatriate work and family performance. ***Academy of Management Review***, 35:93-117.
- Lee, H.W. and Liu, C.H. 2007. An examination of factors affecting repatriates' turnover intentions. ***International Journal of Manpower***, 28:122-134.
- Liu, X. and Shaffer, M.A. 2005. An Investigation of Expatriate Adjustment and Performance: A Social Capital Perspective. ***International Journal of Cross Cultural Management***, 5:235-253.

Locke, L. F., Spirduso, W.W. and Silverman, S. J. 2000. ***Proposals that Work: A Guide for planning Dissertations and Grant Proposals*** (4th ed.). Sage: California.

Mayer, J. D., Caruso, D. R. and Salovey, P. 2000. Selecting a measure of emotional intelligence. In R. Bar-On and D. A. Parker (Eds.). ***The handbook of emotional intelligence***: 320-342. Jossey-Bass: San Francisco.

McKenna, S., Ducharme, M. J. and Budworth, M. H. 2009. What Happens on Tour, Stays on Tour: Failure and Teams on Short Term International Assignment. ***Research and Practice in Human Resource Management***, 17:112-127.

MacNab, B., Brislin, R. and Worthley, R. 2012. Cultural Intelligence: Domain and Assessment. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:1320-1341.

McKenna, S. and Richardson, J. 2007. The increasing complexity of the internationally mobile professional: issues for research and practices. ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 14:307-320.

Mol, S.T., Born, M. Ph., Willemsen, M.E. and Van Der Molen, H.T. 2005. Predicting expatriate job performance for selection purposes: A quantitative review. ***Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology***, 36:1-31.

Neuendorf, K.A. 2002. ***The content analysis guidebook***. Sage: California.

Peterson, B. 2004. ***Cultural Intelligence: A Guide to Working with People from Other Cultures***. Intercultural Press: Boston.

- Pinto, L. H., Cabral-Cardoso, C. and Werther, W. B. 2012. Compelled to go abroad? Motives and outcomes of international assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23:2295-2314.
- Qualter, P., Gardner, K. J. and Whiteley, H.E. 2007. Emotional intelligence: Review of research and educational implications. *Pastoral Care in Education*, 25:11-20.
- Ramsey, J.R. 2005. The role of other orientation on the relationship between institutional distance and expatriate adjustment. *Journal of International Management*, 11:377- 396.
- Selmer, J. 2004. Psychological barriers to adjustment of Western business expatriates in China: newcomers vs long stayers. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 15:794-813.
- Selmer, J. 2006a. Language Ability and Adjustment: Western Expatriates in China. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 48:347-368.
- Selmer, J. 2006b. Practice Makes Perfect? International Experience and Expatriate Adjustment. *Management International Review*, 48:347-368.
- Selmer, J. and Luring, J. 2011. Marital status and work outcomes of self-initiated expatriates: Is there a moderating effect of gender? *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 18:198-213.
- Shaffer, M. and Harrison, D. 1998. Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel Psychology*, 51:87-118.

Shaffer, M., Harrison, D., Gregersen, H., Black, J. and Ferzandi, L. 2006. You can take it with you: Individual differences and expatriate effectiveness. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 91:109-125.

Shih, H.A., Chiang, Y.H. and Kim, I.S. 2005. Expatriate performance management from MNEs of different national origins. ***International Journal of Manpower***, 26:157-176.

Sinangil, H.K. and Ones, D.S. 2003. Gender Differences in Expatriate Job Performance. ***Applied Psychology: An International Review***, 52:461-475.

Suutari, V. and Taka, M. 2004. Career anchors and career commitment of managers with global careers. ***Journal of Management Development***, 23:833-47.

Stahl, G. and Caligiuri, P. 2005. The effectiveness of expatriate coping strategies: The moderating role of cultural distance, position level, and time on the international assignment. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 90:603-615.

Stahl, G.K., Chua, C.H., Caligiuri, P., Cerdin, J.L. and Taniguchi, M. 2009. Predictors of Turnover Intentions in Learning-Driven and Demand-Driven International Assignments: The Role of Repatriation Concerns, Satisfaction with Company Support, and Perceived Career Advancement Opportunities. ***Human Resource Management***, 48:89-109.

Stock, R. M. and Genisyürek, N. 2011. A taxonomy of expatriate leaders' cross-cultural uncertainty: insights into the leader-employee dyad. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:3258-3286.

- Tan, J.A.C., Härtel, C.E.J., Panipucci, D. and Strybosh, V. E. 2005. The effect of emotions in cross-cultural expatriate experiences. ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 12:4-15.
- Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S. and Lepak, D. P. 2005. An integrative view of international experience. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 48:85-100.
- Takeuchi, R., Yun S. and Tesluk P. E. 2002. An examination of crossover and spillover effects of spousal and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment on expatriate outcomes. ***Journal of Applied Psychology***, 87:655-666.
- Thomas et al. 2008. Cultural Intelligence: Domain and Assessment. ***International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management***, 8:123.
- Toh, S.M. and DeNisi, A.S. 2005. A local perspective to expatriate success. ***Academy of Management Executive***, 19:132-146.
- Triandis, H.C. 2006. Cultural intelligence in organizations. ***Group and Organization Management***, 31:6-20.
- Van de Vijver, F. J. R. 2008. Personality Assessment of Global Talent: Conceptual and Methodological Issues. ***International Journal of Testing***, 8:304-314.
- Van Vianen, A.E.M., De Pater, I.E., Kristof-Brown, A.L. and Johnson, E.C. 2004. Fitting In: Surface- and Deep-level Cultural Differences and Expatriates' Adjustment. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 27:697-709.
- Wang, I.M. 2008. The relations between expatriate management and the mentality and adjustment of expatriates. ***Social behavior and personality***, 36 (7):865-882.

Warneke D. and Schneider M. 2011. Expatriate compensation packages: what do employees prefer? ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 18: 236-256.

Waxin, M. F. and Panaccio, A. 2005. Cross-cultural training to facilitate adjustment: it works. ***Personnel Review***, 34:51-67.

Woods, P. 2003. Performance management of Australian and Singaporean expatriates. ***International Journal of Manpower***, 24:517-534.

Wu, P. Ang and Siah, H. 2011. The impact of expatriate supporting practices and cultural intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment and performance of expatriates in Singapore. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***. 22: 2683-2702.

Yamazaki, Y. and Kayes, D.C. 2004. An experiential approach to cross-cultural learning: a review and integration of competencies for successful expatriate adaption. ***Academy of Management Learning and Education***, 3:362-379.

Zhu, W., Luthans, F., Chew, I. K. H. and Li, C. 2006. Potential expats in Singaporean organizations. ***Journal of Management Development***, 25:763-776.

Chapter 3: Expatriate Adjustment: Language and Willingness to communicate

3.1 Introduction

“The reasonable man adapts himself to the world: the unreasonable one persists in trying to adapt the world to himself. Therefore all progress depends on the unreasonable man”.

George Bernard Shaw

In the dynamic and chaotic business environment we are witnessing today, the ability of managers to cope with global experience has become a central concern for both HR managers and academics interested in international business. The literature on expatriates highlights the costs of expatriate failures. Additionally, non-financial costs include damage to customer relations, the self-esteem of the expatriate and the lowered morale in a company managed by a maladjusted expatriate (Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Therefore, the real costs of unsuccessful expatriates can extend beyond the expatriates themselves and the company by negatively affecting future interactions between companies and the host countries (Zeira and Banai, 1985).

As the traditional boundaries among people and countries disappear, the impact that social identity has on cultural experiences has become a growing issue of focus in organizations. Social units learn more about their own identity by comparing themselves with other cultures. As such, people learn about themselves not in isolation from others but when interacting with them (Meerman, 1999).

Cross-cultural adjustment is the level of feeling comfortable one has outside their home country while interacting with a host culture (Black, 1990; Black and Gregersen, 1991). Cross-culturally adjusted expatriates are more open to the host culture and possess an integrative approach to adjustment (Church, 1982). On the other hand, maladjusted expatriates are less subject to the host country's culture and tend to become more attached to their own cultures (Black, 1990). Therefore, as Black (1990) suggests, cross-cultural adjustment is "the individual's affective psychological response to the new environment" (Black 1990, p. 122).

This study reviews the international adjustment literature with a particular focus on factors such as pre and post arrival aspects and language barriers in the host country (Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Baker and Ivancevich, 1971; Black et al., 1991; Black and Stephens, 1989; Harvey, 1985). The objective of the study is to confirm the existing literature on the positive association between language ability and interaction adjustment. Moreover, to introduce the host country nationals in the equation of interaction adjustment by adding willingness to

communicate of the expatriate and perception of expatriates about host country nationals. Thus, the paper contributes to understanding the effect of the expatriate's perception about host country nationals on adjustment to the host culture.

In the next section, overview of the expatriate literature has been presented starting with Multiple-share holder view of Takeuchi (2010). The review extends to Black et al. (1991) theory on expatriate adjustment by explaining the pre and post arrival aspects of adjustment. Among these aspects, language barrier has been given more attention due to the interest of the research. Finally, the review is concluded with the research of Haslberger (2005) with the aim of introducing the variables related to perception of expatriates regarding host country nationals.

3.2 Overview of Expatriate Literature

3.2.1 Multiple shareholder view

Over the past couple of decades, the research on expatriate literature has gained momentum due to globalization. Globalization has resulted in a substantial growth in the number of multi-national companies and due to the increase of cross-departmental training, especially for upper management and MBA training programs, people are being exposed to new cultures now more than ever. This is further evident in a surge in research concerning expatriate issues.

Among the earlier studies (Black, 1988; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Nicolson, 1984), Black et al.'s (1991) adjustment model remains the most cited and used model among scholars in expatriate literature. In Black et al.'s (1991) theory, adjustment is divided into three different aspects: general, work and interaction adjustment. Each adjustment has anticipatory factors such as language ability, previous overseas experience, cultural novelty, etc. Takeuchi's (2010) multiple shareholder view criticizes the theory of Black et al. (1991), because it unintentionally leads to investigating only the variables that are in the model. Takeuchi (2010) states that it is crucial to look at the how expatriate adjustment is affected by family (Caligiuri et al., 1998), host country nationals (Toh and DeNisi, 2003) and parent organization (Aycan, 1997a, 1997b).

Research concerning the effect of host country nationals on expatriate adjustment has primarily considered interaction with host country nationals and the support of co-workers in the host country (Black et al., 1991). Caligiuri et al. (1999) included perceived positive attitudes more concentrated on female expatriates. Selmer (2001) added social interaction with host country nationals regarding adjustment of the expatriate. Johnson, Kristof-Brown, Van Vianen, De Pater and Klein (2003) investigated the depth of relationship with the host country nationals concerning adjustment.

Takeuchi (2010) investigated certain questions to be answered in a critical review of the literature. One of these questions was “How would host country nationals play a role in moderating the relationships between antecedents and expatriate adjustment (and other outcomes)?” (pp.1057).

3.2.2 Pre and post arrival aspects of expatriate adjustment

In the theory of Black et al. (1991), one of the pre-arrival antecedents of expatriate adjustment is previous overseas experience. Prior/existing research demonstrates that previous experience of living in a foreign country facilitates adjustment (Church, 1982). However, according to Black, it appears that experience does not have an effect on the overall adjustment (Black, 1988).

According to the meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005), previous overseas experience is positively correlated with work and interaction adjustment.

Another antecedent is pre-departure training, which is the training that expatriates receive before travelling to the host country. The purpose of this training is to learn more about the culture of the country being travelled to and the language spoken there. Black and Mendenhall (1990) state that there is a positive effect of cross-cultural training on the cross-cultural adjustment of these individuals. On the other hand, Kealy and Protheroe (1996) claim that the consequences of the research on pre-departure training are limited and argue that these trainings fail to be effective when the task of the expat is challenging. Furthermore, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) found a negative correlation between cross-cultural training and with all three facets of adjustment. Language ability is also considered as a pre-arrival antecedent. According to Takeuchi (2010), it is significantly and positively related to interaction, but not to general or work adjustment.

One of the post arrival aspects concerns the job itself and takes into consideration role clarity, discretion and novelty (Black et al., 1991). In the meta-analysis of Hechanova et al. (2003), role clarity and role discretion were positively related to all three aspects of adjustment; however, role conflict was negatively related to work and interaction adjustment. Cultural novelty and family

adjustment were consequently negatively and positively related to all three aspects of adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010).

Individual skills have been categorized by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) in three different dimensions. These are self-dimension, the relationship dimension and the perception dimension. In this paper, we are chiefly concerned with the latter two, because we are investigating at the relationship level and the perception of this relationship with the host nationals.

3.2.3 Language barrier

Most expatriates face a language barrier in their host countries. In the globalized business world, English is seen as the common business language; however, English is not spoken everywhere and by everyone. Yang and Bond (1980) suggest that learning a new language may influence the learner to discover more about the host country's culture. According to Hall (1973), culture is about communication; therefore, language is an important component for expatriates to comprehend the culture of the host country. However, most multi-national corporations' official language is English, because they recruit employees from all over the globe. Therefore, an expatriate might not need to learn the host country's language for work, but will still need to be able to communicate for non-work related activities. Despite expatriates using the foreign language, Neal

(1998) interviewed French expatriates in Britain and deduced that the language barrier was a main source of frustration and that it increases the feeling of being an outsider.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) state that the components of the relationship dimension are “relationship development” and “willingness to communicate”. Therefore, language skills are not understood as the ability to speak the language of the host country, but as a willingness to speak the language, confidence in interacting with host nationals and a desire to understand the host nationals (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985).

In this paper, we emphasize that even if expatriates try to learn the language of the host country, between the culture shock and the adjustment phases (6-12 months) (Black and Mendenhall, 1991), they will try to communicate in any way they are able. We argue that the perceived attitude of the host nationals’ willingness to communicate might affect the adjustment process of the expatriates.

Therefore, we put forward the following hypothesis:

H1: The language ability of the expatriates has a positive association with the interaction adjustment

3.2.4 Discretion and perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate

Haslberger (2005) takes a different stance from Black et al.'s (1991) theory and discusses the dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation by considering cognitions and emotions. Haslberger (2005) states that, "in order to establish the usefulness of a separate measurement of cognitions and emotions, the following independent constructs will be used: novelty, discretion, self-efficacy and social networks" (pp.87).

According to Berry et al. (1988), discretion has two sources: level of tolerance of the host society and socio-economic level of the expatriate in the host country. The level of tolerance concerns the society's pressure to conform and its openness to strangers. Haslberger's (2005) research is more concerned with the tolerance in the society. The size of the city, the pressure to conform and the openness of the people are related to the cognitive and emotional adaptation of the expatriate. Therefore, when we talk about the perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate in this paper, we refer to the openness of the people and the tolerance of the society.

Accordingly hypotheses put forward are:

H2: Expatriate's willingness to communicate has positive association with interaction adjustment

H3: Perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate has positive association with interaction adjustment

For the overview of the research model, please see Figure 3.1 where three independent variables are presented along with the dependent variable interaction adjustment.

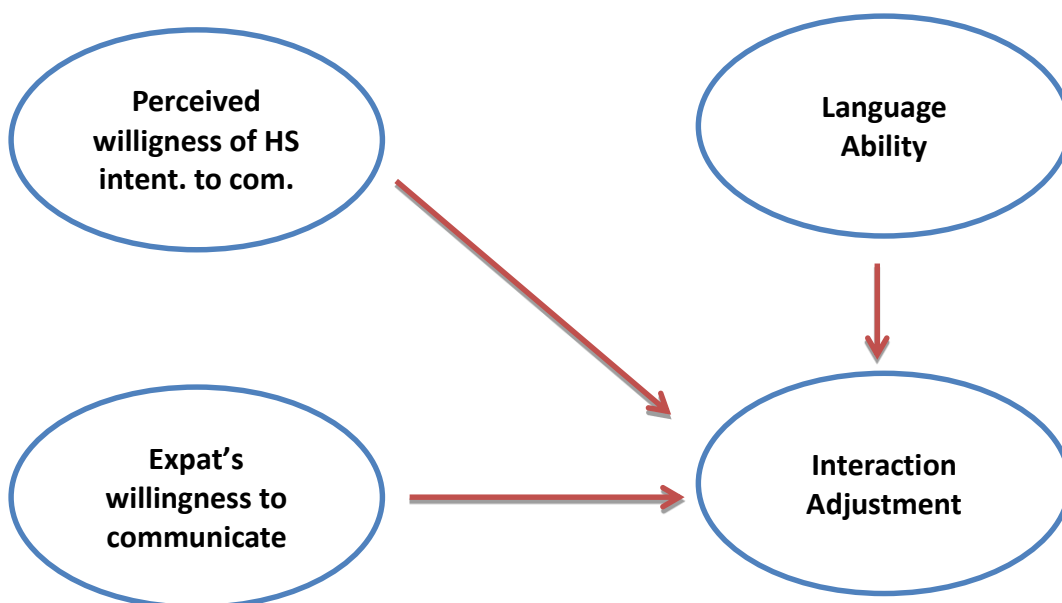


Figure 3.1: Research Model

3.3 Sample and Methodology

3.3.1 Questionnaire design and measures

A questionnaire was designed based on the work of Black et al. (1991) and Haslberger (2005). It was structured in four parts; first, respondents were asked to fill their demographic information along with information about previous overseas experience and level of Spanish fluency. Second part of the questionnaire consisted questions regarding interaction adjustment adjusted for university context by Tarique and Caligiuri (2009). Third part of the questionnaire was designed to measure willingness to communicate and perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate (Haslberger, 2005). The last part of the questionnaire was dedicated to stages of adjustment where respondents first read the definition of each adjustment (Black and Mendenhall, 1991) and answer which stage they believe they are experiencing at that given time. (See Appendix). The author did not see the necessity to translate the questionnaire to other languages since the sample consisted of MBA students with high level of English knowledge.

The questionnaire was pre-test with 10 expatriates living in Barcelona before presented to the sample. Following the pilot study conducted on 10 expatriates, the questionnaire was reviewed in order to increase the level of clarity.

3.3.2 Sample and data collection

The questionnaire was given to the MBA students prior to an exam they were taking in ESADE Business School in Barcelona campus. The time given for them to fill out the questionnaire was 15 minutes. The questionnaires were distributed in class and were collected by the assistants, and were manually introduced into Excel to be prepared for SPSS. Spanish students were asked to leave the questionnaire empty. 187 students have taken the exam and there were no empty questionnaires among the non-Spanish students (N=137). Therefore all the foreign students who attended the exam completed the questionnaire. Moreover the questionnaire administration was linked to the exam session and students were not notified beforehand about the questionnaire therefore non-respondent bias is not an issue in this study.

The survey was conducted on first year full-time MBA students in a business school in Barcelona known to be very cosmopolitan. All students were in their first year of MBA education. Out of 187 surveys, 137 were returned, mostly completed correctly. The students were from 30 different countries (USA, Mexico, Belgium,

France, Germany, UK, UAE, Japan, India, China, Philippines, and Turkey, etc.). The average age of participants was 30. In addition, the average of years the students had lived abroad prior to coming to Barcelona was three years, with a S.D of 4.3. In order to classify the experiences, the data was recoded into categories as “no previous experience”, “1-3 years”, “3 to 5 years” and “5 and more years”. Previous overseas experience is one of the antecedent factors of interaction adjustment (Black et al. 1991) therefore in the analysis it was introduced as a control variable. Of the sample, 70% was male and 30% was female. Of the males, 55 were single and among the females, the number of singles was 31. There were no relationship between gender type and the dependent variable, interaction adjustment.

The question regarding the U-curve hypothesis was the last question, accompanied by explanations of each stage (honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment and mastery). Respondents were asked to order the stages they had experienced thus far and include their current stage. The resulting order was generally going into honeymoon, culture shock, adjustment and mastery; however, some students had not experienced culture shock. Students hailing from South America or Italy stated that their culture was similar to Spanish culture and as such, they had not experience culture shock. In our sample, 64.7% of the students claimed that they were in the adjustment stage and 26.5% of the MBA students classified themselves in the mastery stage.

		yearsabroadcateg				Total	current stage				Total
		0-5	5-10	10-15	15-20		honeymoon	culture shock	adjustment	mastery	
gender	male	70	16	6	3	95	4	2	67	22	95
	female	34	5	2	0	41	2	4	21	14	41
	Total	104	21	8	3	136	6	6	88	36	136

Table 3.1 Demographics Cross tabulation

In Table 3.1, the distribution of gender among demographic variables is demonstrated. The first variable is the years abroad category which represents the previous overseas experience. The second variable on the other hand is the perceived adjustment stage. Most of the respondents have lived abroad before and most of them perceive that they are in their adjustment stage.

3.3.3 Measurement assessment

Once all the data was collected and introduced in SPSS, the data analysis took place. First, the data was examined to ensure that it was complete and accurate. Next, descriptive statistics were run for the demographic information to describe the sample. The next step of the analysis was to run Cronbach's Alpha on each of the construct used in the research. The constructs were built upon two main research existing in expatriate literature (Black et al., 1991 and Haslberger,

2005). There were two reasons for doing this. One was to confirm that the scales still exhibited the sample's expected internal validity.

Interaction adjustment was measured using a 5-point Likert scale developed by Black et al. (1991). The questionnaire later on was adjusted by Tarique and Cagliuri (2009) in order to adapt to university structure. Since, in this research the sample is students and not working expatriates, the adapted version was used to measure interaction adjustment

For the first independent variable, language ability, the students were asked to rate their Spanish level, which was given as “none, beginner, intermediate, upper intermediate/advanced and native speaker”. The students were also asked about their ability to understand the Spanish language. Therefore, there were two questions, which mainly addressed language ability. Of the participating students, 34.6% were at the beginner level, with 25% at the intermediate stage and 40% in upper intermediate and native language level.

Second independent variable perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate was measured by asking students questions related to perception as it concerned the host society. The construct was measured according to seven items with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.645.

Willingness to communicate as the last independent variable was measured by asking the respondents about how much they were willing to communicate with host country nationals (Haslberger, 2005) Five items were used with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.647. One sample question was, "I try to make host nationals understand my culture"; participants were asked to rate this in a 5-point Likert scale, starting from strongly agree to strongly disagree.

To conduct the empirical part of this study, two control variables were introduced. Previous overseas experience is the first control variable introduced since the meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) has revealed that previous overseas experience is positively correlated with work and interaction adjustment. Secondly, perceived adjustment stage was controlled to be know the stage in the U-curve.

Factor Analysis

Items measuring the independent variables as well as dependent variable were examined by principal component analysis with Varimax rotation (PCA) using IBM SPSS. All the multi-item scales used are uni-dimensional (with a percentage of variance of PCA's first axis greater than 66%). Among the three independent variables measuring interaction adjustment, two have used multiple-item scales as language ability was not subject to such measurement. In order to understand whether the variables loaded strongly on one factor, PCA was applied on

willingness to communicate (5 items) and perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate (7 items). Two components were extracted with expected strong loadings, except percwillhost7 (0,2) (Please see Table 3.2).

Factor analysis results show that total variance of willingness to communicate variable is higher (60.44 %) than perceived willingness of host country's intention to communicate variable (46.74%). The total variance of interaction adjustment is found to be the highest. (63.82%).

Factor	Item	Mean	StDev	Alpha Cronbach	%of explained variance (unidimen)	Loadings
Interaction adjustment	Intad1	3.84	.92	.842	63.82%	.56
	Intad2	3.87	.86			.71
	Intad3	3.52	1.1			.77
	Intad4	3.37	1.1			.75
	Intad5	4.18	.83			.64
	Intad6	3.99	.83			.71
	Intad7	3.70	.88			.61
	Intad8	3.54	1.0			.76
	Intad9	3.43	.80			.70
Willingnesstocom	Willignesstocom1	2.07	1.12	.647	60.44%	.54
	Willignesstocom2	3.93	.92			.65
	Willignesstocom3	3.64	1.1			.74
	Willignesstocom4	1.93	.93			.70
	Willignesstocom5	2.37	.80			.68
Perceivedwillignessof host societys intentiontocomm	Percwilhost1	3.57	.97	.645	46.74%	.60
	Percwilhost2	3.40	1.2			.61
	Percwilhost3	3.41	1.0			.79
	Percwilhost4	2.20	1.4			.58
	Percwilhost5	4.20	.80			.66
	Percwilhost6	3.76	.96			.82
	Percwilhost7	4.23	.94			.22

Table 3.2 Factor loadings and descriptive statistics

Among the items used, one item only was excluded (Percwilhost7). The question of the this item perhaps was very general therefore did not reach to a significant loading. Correlation among the variables including items for each dependent and independent variables as well as two control variables were examined.

A summary of intercorrelations among all the major variables are presented in Table 3.3. Potential covariates between the dependent variable and independent variables are presented. ($p < .01$ and presented correlations above $r > .50$).

Interaction adjustment item *making yourself understood* (Intad4) is positively correlated with willingness to communicate item *make host country nationals understand my culture* (Willignesstocom1) ($r = .66$, $p < .001$).

Among the items of perceived willingness of host society's intention to communicate *host country nationals try to communicate with me* (Percwilhost2) is positively correlated with interaction adjustment item *working with faculty members* (Intad4) ($r = .58$, $p < .001$).

The criteria to include the control variables was to be related to the dependent variable. For this reason, previous overseas experience was excluded from further analysis. (See Table 3.3 and Table 3.4).

3.4 Results

As it was mentioned earlier, the method used for the analysis is stepwise (hierarchical) regression method. The reasoning behind such a choice is to be able to understand the contribution of each added variable to explain interaction adjustment. Initially, correlation matrix analyses was conducted to determine which of the potential covariates were related to the dependent variable. Control variables as well as independent variables were checked for multi-collinearity

	<i>willingnesstocom</i>	<i>perceivedhcn</i>	<i>previousoverseasexp</i>	<i>currentstageucurve</i>	<i>interactionadj</i>	<i>languageability</i>
<i>willingnesstocom</i>	-	.291**	-.05	.06	.503**	.459**
<i>perceivedhcn</i>	-	-	-.06	.227**	.199*	-.09
<i>previousoverseasexp</i>	-	-	-	.14	-.03	.02
<i>currentstageucurve</i>	-	-	-	-	.172*	0.12
<i>interactionadj.</i>	-	-	-	-	-	.66**
<i>languageability</i>	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 3.5 Correlation Matrix

According to Table 3.4, we confirm the existing literature that there is a positive and significant correlation ($r = .67, p < .001$) between language ability (H1) (in our case the ability to speak the language of the host country) with interaction adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010).

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.182 ^a	.033	.018	.70960
2	.671 ^b	.451	.438	.53677
3	.715 ^c	.512	.497	.50807
4	.728 ^d	.530	.512	.50054

Table 3.6 Table of Step-wise Regression Results

To analyze the effect of “willingness to communicate” (H2) and perceived willingness of the host society’s intention to communicate” (H3), the variables were introduced in stepwise regression model (See Table 3.5) along with language ability. The findings reveal that, language does play an important role for interaction adjustment but does not explain the whole story. Willingness to communicate of the expatriate was found the second significant factor influencing the interaction adjustment. On the other hand, perception about the intention of the host society had very little effect.

In order to understand the perception about host society’s intention to communicate, I ran regression analysis to understand if the variable was influencing “willingness to communicate” variable. The underlying reason for this analysis was to understand whether willingness to communicate variable already included the explanatory power of the perception about host society’s intention to

communicate variable. The results show a positive significant correlation between the two variables ($r = .52$, $p < .001$). Therefore it does explain partially the expatriates' willingness to communicate but not wholly. Since willingness to communicate is also dependent on personal factors, I believe that personality of an expatriate or even cross-cultural training could explain the willingness of the communicate of an expatriate (Caligiuri et al., 1999; Takeuchi, 2010)

3.5 Discussion and Limitations

The framework for cross-cultural adjustment developed by Black et al (1991) is one of the most cited models used in expatriate literature. It is a model that uses integrated multiple theoretical perspectives. In their model, Black et al. found early indicators of the role of the host country nationals and how it could affect the adjustment of an expatriate. However, host country nationals were not included in the model. The research question in this paper builds on the importance of host country nationals and the perception about them. The role of host county nationals has recently been included in cross-cultural training for expatriate assignment or overseas experiences. On the other hand, two-thirds of European organizations arrange informal meetings for expatriates to meet host country nationals as preparation (Harris and Brewster, 1999). Black et al. (1992) stated that interaction adjustment was considered the most difficult and the most

important for the adjustment of the expatriates. Therefore, the results of this research, even examined on MBAs, have relative importance in the literature. Florkowski and Fogel (1991) noted that perceived host-country ethnocentrism, host units' unwillingness to accept foreign managers, host opposition and resistance towards expatriates were crucial for the interaction adjustment of expatriates (Florkowski and Fogel, 1991, p. 784). Toh and DeNisi (2007) were the first to introduce a model that includes the antecedents and consequences of host country national behaviors. The model points out the importance of salience of national identity and out-group categorization of the expatriates by host country nationals.

In the present study, language ability was found to have influence on interaction adjustment however did not explain the whole story. Expatriates' willingness to communicate was found also to be an important factor explaining interaction adjustment. Perception about host county nationals on the other hand, caused only a minimal effect. Support for these hypotheses is indicated because of the change in R^2 after adding the independent variable, which was statistically significant. The change in R^2 after including willingness to communicate increases from $R^2=.451$ (language ability) to $R^2=.512$ (language ability and willingness to communicate). On the other hand, perception about host county nationals causes a minimal increases the $R^2=.530$.

Most of the research in expatriate adjustment literature reveal results on certain types of expatriates such as American expatriates, British expatriates or Japanese expatriates in certain expatriate locations. This study on the other hand, even though having a sample of students examines expatriates from 30 different countries in order to explain interaction adjustment.

The first limitation of this research is that it was not carried out on business expatriates but on MBA expatriates. The reason for choosing such a data sample was due to the availability of the data and the speed of obtaining the data. Secondly, our research only took one school and one culture into account, which was adjustment to Spanish culture; the study was not longitudinal therefore we cannot generalize our results, since we only considered one event and one culture to adapt to. However, the fact that the research was only interested in interaction adjustment but not work adjustment can be a reason to justify the sample. On the other hand, interaction adjustment is measured according to the perception of the sample therefore; common source bias is an issue in this research. In order to avoid such bias, future research can link the interaction adjustment to work adjustment with performance data.

Third limitation is that the Cronbach's Alphas both for willingness to communicate and perceived willingness of the host society's intention to communicate were relatively lower than general and interaction adjustment. These two measures should be reviewed and improved to reach a higher level of Cronbach's Alpha.

One of the ways of doing this would be to test the model on real expatriates as opposed to MBA students.

Lastly, the method used for the analysis of the data could raise questions and doubts. The biases and shortcomings of stepwise multiple regression are well known in statistics however an examination of the research behavioral and ecological literature from 2004 suggests that the use of this technique is quite high (57%) (Whittingham et al., 2006). As Pedhazur (1997) stated, practical considerations in the selection of specific predictors may vary, depending on the circumstances of the study, the researcher's specific aims, resources, and frame of reference, to name some. Clearly, it is not possible to develop a systematic selection method that would take such considerations into account (p. 211).

Accordingly, a cross validation was conducted in order to test the validity of the results. To do this, the data was randomly split into two sets as 75% and 25%. While the former becomes the training sample, the latter is named as the validation sample. The training sample was used to develop the model and then tested its effectiveness on the validation sample. The reason behind such method is to validate the applicability of the model on the sample that was not used to develop it. To test its success, two important factors were taken into consideration. Firstly, both samples should produce the same subset of predictors. Secondly, if the first requirement was met, then a comparison

between the R^2 s of both samples were done in order to calculate the difference of the shrinkage. In order for the results to be considered as valid, the shrinkage should be 2% or less.

The results of the cross validation analysis was successful as the difference between the R^2 of the validation sample and the training sample was less than 2%. The R^2 for the 75% training sample was 0.464 and the R^2 for the 25% validation sample was 0.471, resulting in a value of $.464 - .471 = -.007$ for shrinkage. Since $-.007 \leq .02$, the validation is successful.

The intention of this paper was to comprehend whether interaction with host country nationals and perception about host country nationals had any effect on the adjustment of expatriates. Further research can also consider the culture distance of the expatriates. The variables that influence the perception of the host society should also be examined in future research.

The findings of this study might lead to focusing more on the perception of the expatriates about host country nationals and how these perceptions are formed mainly to alter the expatriates' willingness to communicate. Following that, new variables such as perception about the host country nationals and antecedents could be added to the model of Black et al. (1991) to gain a better overview of the expatriate adjustment process.

References

Arthur, W., and Bennett, W. 1995. The International Assignee: The Relative Importance of Factors Perceived to Contribute to Success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48:99-114.

Aycan, Z. 1997. Acculturation of expatriate managers: A process model of adjustment and performance. In Z. Aycan (Ed.). *New approaches to employee management (Expatriate management: Theory and research)*: 1-40. Greenwich, CT: JAI).

Aycan, Z. 1997. Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: Individual and organizational level predictors. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8:434-456.

Baker, J. C. and Ivancevich, J. M. 1971. The Assignment of American Executives Abroad: Systematic, Haphazard or Chaotic? *California Management Review*, 13:39-44.

Becker T, Amar. 1968. Patterns of attitudinal changes among foreign students. *American Journal of Sociology*, 73:431-42.

Berry, J. W., Kim U. and Boski, P. 1998. Psychological acculturation of immigrants in Kim, Y. Y. and Gudykunst, W. B. (Eds.). *Cross-cultural Adaptation – Current Approaches*. Sage Publications: California.

Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D.A., Shaffer, M.A. and Luk, D.M. 2005. Input-based and time based models of international adjustment: meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48:57-281.

- Black, J. S. 1990. The Relationship of Personal Characteristics with Adjustment of Japanese Expatriate Managers. *Management International Review*, 30:119-134.
- Black, J. S. 1988. Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19:277-94.
- Black, J. S. and Gregersen, H. B. 1991. Antecedents to Cross-cultural Adjustment for Expatriates in Pacific Rim Assignments. *Human Relations*, 44:497-515.
- Black, J. S. and Mendenhall, M. E. 1990. Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness: A Review and Theoretical Framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 15:113-136.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M. E. and Oddou, G. R. 1991. Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment: An Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16:291-317.
- Black, J. S., and Stephens, G. K. 1989. The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15:529-544.
- Blau, P. M. 1964. *Exchange and power in social life*. John Wiley: New York.
- Caligiuri, P. M., Hyland, M. A. M., Joshi, A. and Bross, A. S. 1998. Testing a theoretical model for examining the relationship between family adjustment and expatriates' work adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83:598-614.

Caligiuri, P. M., Joshi, A. and Lazarova, M. 1999. Factors influencing the adjustment of women on global assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10:163-179.

Church, A. 1982 .Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 91:540-77.

Davis, F. James. 1963. Perspectives of Turkish students in the United States. *Sociology and Social Research*, 48:47-57.

Davis, F. James. 1971. The two-way mirror and the U-curve: Americans as seen by Turkish students returned home. *Sociology and Social Research*, 56:49-43.

Golden, Jeshua S. 1973. Student adjustment abroad: A psychiatrist's view. *International Educational and Cultural Exchange*, 8:28-36.

Hall, E. T. 1973. **The silent language**. New York: Doubleday.

Harvey, M. G. 1985. The Executive Family: An Overlooked Variable in International Assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 20:84-92.

Haslberger, A. 2005. Facets and dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: refining the tools. *Personell Review*, 34:85-109.

Hechanova, R., Beehr, T. A. and Christiansen, N. D. 2003. Antecedents and consequences of employees' adjustment to overseas assignment: A meta-analytic review. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 52:213-236.

Homans, G. C. 1961. **Social behavior**. Harcourt, Brace and World: New York.

Johnson, E. C., Kristof-Brown, A. L., Van Vianen, A. E. M., De Pater, I. E. and Klein, M. R. 2003. Expatriate social ties: Personality antecedents and

consequences for adjustment. ***International Journal of Selection and Assessment***, 11:277-288.

Kealy, D.J. and Protheroe, D.R. 1996. The effectiveness of cross-cultural training for expatriates: an assessment of the literature on the issue. ***International Journal of Intercultural Relations***, 20:141-65.

Layton, B.D. and Insko C.A. 1974. Anticipated Interaction and the Similarity-Attraction Effect. ***Sociometry***, 37:149-162.

Mendenhall, M. and Oddou G. 1985. The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. ***Academy of Management Review***, 10:39-48.

Mendenhall, M., Kuhlmann, T., Stahl, G. and Osland, J. 2002. Employee development and expatriate assignments: A review of the expatriate adjustment theory literature. In M. Gannon and K. Newman (Eds.). ***Handbook of cross-cultural management***. Sage: California.

Meerman, M. 1999. Gebroken Wit: Over Acceptatie van allochtonen in Arbeidsorganisaties Broken white: About the Acceptance of Ethnic Minorities in Organizations. Amsterdam: *thela Thesis*.

Neal, M. 1998. ***The culture factor: Cross national management and the foreign venture***. McMillan Press: UK.

Nicolson, N. 1984. A Theory of Work Role Transitions. ***Administrative Science Quarterly***, 29:172-191.

Pedhazur, E. J. 1997. ***Multiple regression in behavioral research*** (3rd ed.). Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace.

Selby, Henry A. and Clyde M. Woods. 1999. Foreign students at a high pressure university. ***Sociology and Education***, 39:138-5. Selmer, J. 2001. Psychological barriers to adjustment and how they affect coping strategies: Western business expatriates in China. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 12:151-165.

Surdam, Joyce C. and James K. Collin. 1984. Adaptation of international students: A cause for concern. ***Journal of College Student Personnel***: 240-45.

Takeuchi, R. 2010. A Critical Review of Expatriate Adjustment Research Through a Multiple Stakeholder View: Progress, Emerging Trends, and Prospects. ***Journal of Management*** 36:1040-1064.

Tarique, I. and Caligiuri, P. 2009. The role of cross-cultural absorptive capacity in the effectiveness of in-country cross-cultural training. ***International Journal of Training and Development***, 13:148-164.

Toh, S. M. and DeNisi, A. S. 2003. Host country national (HCN) reactions to expatriate pay policies: A proposed model and some implications. ***Academy of Management Review***, 28:606-621.

Ward, C. and Kennedy, A. 1999. The *measurement* of sociocultural adaptation. ***International Journal of Intercultural Relations***, 23:659-77.

Whittingham, M.J., Swetnam, R.D., Wilson, J.D., Chamberlain, D.E., Freckleton, R.P. 2006. Why do we still use stepwise modelling in ecology and behaviour? ***Journal of Animal Ecology***, 75:1182–1189.

Yang, K. S. and Bond, M. H. 1980. Ethnic affirmation by Chinese bilinguals. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 11:411-42.

Zeira, Y. and Banai, M. 1984. Selection of Expatriate Managers in Multinational Corporations: The Host Environment Point of View. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 15:33-51.

**Chapter 4: Interaction Adjustment of Self-Initiated
Expatriates and Comfort Zone: The Case
of Young Turks**

4.1 Introduction

In the dynamic and chaotic business environment we are witnessing today, the ability of managers to cope with global experience has become a central concern for both HR managers and academics interested in international business.

Today, many organizations seek to increase their competitive advantage by employing a highly skilled foreign workforce. Self-initiated expatriates (SIE) contributed to the growth of many organizations during the last decade. A SIE is an individual who is hired in an organization abroad and not transferred overseas by the parent organization (Lee, 2005). Therefore, SIEs are expatriates who are neither short-term travelers (sojourners) nor immigrants (Richardson and Zikic, 2007).

Cross-cultural adjustment is the level of feeling comfortable one has outside one's home country while interacting with a host culture (Black 1990; Black and Gregersen, 1991). Cross-cultural adjusted expatriates are more open to the host culture and possess an integrative approach to adjustment (Church, 1982), whereas maladjusted expatriates are less open to the host country's culture and tend to get more attached to their own cultures (Black, 1990). Therefore, as Black

(1990) suggests, cross-cultural adjustment is “the individual's affective psychological response to the new environment” (Black 1990, p.122).

A meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) found that social support from HCNs is positively related to expatriate adjustment. Furthermore, Van Vianen et al. (2004) suggests that deep level cultural differences between host country and expatriates are strongly related to work and interaction adjustment. While the former states the importance of having the social support of HCNs, the latter confirms that the value differences are related to the relationship of expatriates with HCNs.

Similarity/Attraction theory (Byrne, 1971) highlights that similar individuals with similar attitudes and values share common life experiences, which facilitates the interaction between individuals in a positive manner. Thus, in the case of SIEs, interacting with people similar to them will decrease their stress levels in a foreign country and make them feel better adjusted. This exploratory research aims to give more insight into interaction adjustment and friends in the comfort zone of already adjusted expatriates, as well as the importance of host country nationals for self-initiated expatriates.

4.2 Expatriate adjustment literature

Most studies on expatriate adjustment focus on the potential variables affecting expatriate adjustment prior to arrival and after arrival in the host country. In Black et al.'s (1991) highly cited and used model, there are three facets of adjustment: work adjustment (adjustment to the new job, tasks and responsibilities), interaction adjustment (adjustment to the host country nationals) and finally, general adjustment (adjustment to the culture, weather, food, etc.). Before arrival, proper selection of the expatriate, previous international assignment experience and language ability plays an important role in adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 2001a; Oddou, 2002). Upon arrival, spousal adjustment is one of the most important variables contributing to the success of an expatriate, as well as work and individual adjustment (self-efficacy and interaction with others) (Caligiuri, 2000).

According to Morris and Robie (2001, p.117), adjustment is “the process of achieving harmony between the individual and the environment, including work adjustment or general adjustment”. Adjustment is also defined by Liu and Lee, (2008, p.180) as “reducing stress arising from psychological uncertainty of the unfamiliar environment and culture”. Another definition for adjustment is the degree of the expatriate’s psychological comfort in relation to the different characteristics of a host country (Lee and Sukoco, 2007, p. 924; Chew, 2004).

Similar to the many definitions of adaptation, we can also define adjustment as the situation in which the expatriate has created his/her comfort zone.

Among the three different dimensions of adjustment (work, interaction and general), the most difficult for an expatriate is the interaction adjustment (Black, 1991). Expatriates are confronted with a new culture and the differences in the mental constructs and non-written rules of the host society. Successful interaction adjustment involves not only successful interaction with colleagues, but also with host country nationals outside of the work zone (Black et al, 1991).

One solution for successful adjustment in all three dimensions is the help of host country nationals, including providing information about the cultural traditions in the host country to the expatriate. In the beginning of the international assignment, expatriates will generally experience loneliness and sometimes culture shock. Studies suggest the help of host country nationals (work or non-work related) could diminish the side effects of entering into a new environment (Toh and Denisi, 2007). Support from the organization, such as financial support, assistance with housing, schooling, a job for the spouse, language classes and cross-cultural training are crucial to all three facets of expatriate adjustment (Kramer et. al., 2001).

From the expatriate literature, some of the antecedent factors affecting adjustment can be summarized as personality traits (Caligiuri, et al., 2009;

Holopainen and Björkman, 2005), relational and social skills (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Jokinen, 2005), stress management (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Shay and Baack, 2006. Hashimoto, 2012), global managerial abilities (Cappellen and Janssens, 2008; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Storck et al., 2012) and motivation for international assignment (Haines III et al., 2008; Stahl, et al., 2009; Pinto et al., 2012).

Family Situation

The literature points out that different sources of support, such as leadership, spousal and peer support, as well as family adjustment, are associated with higher levels of adjustment and eventually with the success of the expatriate (Hutchings et al., 2012; Cole and McNulty, 2011; Harrison 2012; Selmer and Laring, 2011).

It is crucial for the organization to comprehend the family situation of the expatriate (e.g., if the expatriate is married and if they have children that need to be brought with them). The first important information to process is whether, aside from the expatriate, other family members (spouse and children) are also willing to be relocated. In case of a maladjusted family member or members, the expatriate might perform poorly and might even consider abandoning the international assignment (Black et al. 1992, pp.74).

According to Tung, (1987), in the case of Japanese expatriates this is different, as Japanese women do not want to be the cause of failure. Therefore, the literature on spousal adjustment indicating failure seems to relate to expatriates from Europe and America.

Previous Overseas Experience

Another important factor is previous overseas experience of the expatriate. Researchers have found that experience gained in previous international assignment may facilitate the adjustment of the expatriate in future international assignments (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Takeuchi et al., 2005). Waxin and Panaccio (2005) also claim that for expatriates with previous overseas experience, cross-cultural training might not be as effective as for those in their first international assignment.

Self-initiated Expatriates

Self-initiated expatriates are individuals who seek international career opportunities on their own and without the presence of an organization (Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010). Self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) have begun being employed by international organizations, as in today's globalized economy, there is a bigger need for mobility and flexibility (Jokinen et al., 2008). Research on SIEs has concentrated on managing SIEs (Suutari and Brewster, 2000) as well

as trying to comprehend the difference between SIEs and organizational expatriates (OEs) (Jokinen et al., 2008, Doherty et al., 2011).

The fundamental difference, which could be described as the distinguishing characteristic between self-initiated expatriates and organizational expatriates, is the motive behind deciding to act abroad. Organizational expatriates are certain employees of a company that are identified by the company for expatriation. There are usually expatriation packages (assistance with moving, language classes, job search for the spouse, school for the children and raised wages) to help organization expatriates settle in the host country. Self-initiated expatriates, on the other hand, are people who decide on their own to work in another country (Al-Meer, 1989; Begley et al., 2008; Inkson et al., 1997; Shahid et al., 2001). There are rarely expatriation packages available for SIEs; therefore, in most cases, a self-initiated expatriate will follow their own course in order to settle in the host country.

It is also important to point out the difference between migrants and SIEs. In migration studies, a migrant is one who moves from a less developed country to a developed country, whereas SIEs are those who move between developed countries (Al Ariss, 2010).

Self-initiated expatriates have been linked in the literature to the concept of the boundaryless career (Inkson et al., 1997). This concept displays a different kind

of career from the traditional one. The boundaryless career is not determined by the organization an employee works for; instead, there are multiple employment settings (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Mirvis and Hall, 1994) and the career is shaped, planned and designed by the individual him/herself.

The term 'career' is most often defined as the "sequence of a person's work experience over time" (Arthur et al., 2005 p.179). The success of a career, on the other hand, contains two aspects: objective and subjective success (Ng et al., 2005). The former has more tangible indicators, whereas the latter concerns a person's internal satisfaction.

Research on boundaryless careers highlights that personal meaning and satisfaction gained by the career has steadily been gaining more importance (Arthur et al., 2005; Doherty et al., 2011; Richardson and Mallon, 2005). Compared to organizational expatriates, self-initiated expatriates tend to have stronger intrinsic motivation and personal goals for living and working abroad (Doherty et al., 2011; Harvey, 2011). Therefore, subjective evaluation and career success appears to be major criteria for self-initiated expatriates.

4.3 Comfort zone

'Comfort zone' is a widely used term in daily life, yet it is hard to track down the specific origins of it scientifically. The term has always been used as a metaphor rather than a model (Eccelstone, 2004). As a model, it is used within adventure education literature, which can be based on the idea that when people are placed in a stressful event, they will respond by overcoming their fears and grow as individuals. It is also important to underline that being "outside of one's comfort zone" becomes a measure of success in adventure education.

Aside from adventure literature, the first relation of comfort zone to performance can be found in the title of Judith Bardwick's (1991) work *Danger in the Comfort Zone: From Boardroom to Mailroom – How to Break the Entitlement Habit that's Killing American Business*. Even though the author of the text applies the term in the title, inside the book, she lets the term explain itself.

From the perspective of adventure literature, the term is rooted in psychological contexts of cognitive development (Piaget, 1977, 1980) and cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957). From the cognitive development perspective, when an individual confronts a new experience, the important factor is whether the experience is similar to a previous experience. If so, the assimilation process starts. Assimilation is the integration of the new experience into the existing cognitive structure formed by previous experiences. On the other hand, if the

experience is not similar to any previous experiences and therefore does not match the existing cognitive structure, the accommodation process starts instead. Accommodation involves the modification of the existing cognitive structure to incorporate the new experience. Therefore, the tension between these two processes helps to develop new understandings and create a new equilibrium (McInerney and McInerney, 1998).

The theory of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1957) from within the field of social psychology concerns how people deal with inconsistencies in their cognitions. 'Cognition' here refers to the knowledge that people have about their beliefs, actions and environment. When faced with a situation where there is dissonance, people will try to reduce the dissonance by either changing one of their cognitions or by adding new ones (Cooper and Carlsmith, 2001). "The question is whether all cases of dissonance reduction boil down to an analogous tendency to keep cognitions logically consistent. A number of authors believe that some non-cognitive, emotional factors often also play a role" (Gleitman, 1986, p.375). An example of this view is that people with high self-esteem tend to be more sensitive to cognitive dissonance, yet also more resistant to its effects, as they can convince themselves of their own strengths, which will eventually dilute the need for solving the dissonance problem (Cooper and Carlsmith, 2001).

The term comfort zone as it relates to performance is defined as “a behavioral state within which a person operates in an anxiety-neutral condition, using a limited set of behaviors to deliver a steady level of performance, usually without a sense of risk” (White, 2008, pp.3).

This definition implies that unless there is a change in the anxiety level or the skills applied, people's performance will stay constant. However, a change in one of these two factors might either cause an increase or decrease in the performance of a person.

Carnall (1995), in his research on managing change, found that there was a direct correlation between people’s self-esteem and their performance. He also supported the mice experiment of Yerkez and Dodson (1907), which posed that anxiety or stress increased performance to a certain level. In performance management, this zone is called the “optimal performance zone”. Overreaching this level is called the “danger zone”, where the performance starts to decrease because of too much anxiety.

In expatriate literature, the comfort zone is defined as 'adjustment'. Cross-cultural adjustment is the level of comfort one has outside his/her home country while interacting with a host culture (Black 1990; Black and Gregersen, 1991). Haslberger (2005) takes a different approach than Black et al.'s (1991) theory and discusses the dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation by considering

cognitions and emotions by considering the size of the city, the pressure to conform and the openness of the host people as related to the cognitive and emotional adaptation of the expatriate. In this paper, the reason why the term 'comfort zone' was used instead of 'adjustment' was that the author wanted to understand whether the interviewees had reached the comfort zone or adjustment points. The questions asked in the interview were designed in a way that would help to yield a better understanding of whether the interviewees had created a comfort zone and who featured into their comfort zone as a friend. These friends are assumed the people expatriates trusted and relied on.

4.4 Research question

This paper aims to explore the interaction adjustment of self-initiated Turkish expatriates who are currently working in different parts of the world. The reason for introducing the term 'comfort zone' was that this research explores the friend-making process of self-initiated expatriates in a host country. Therefore, the research takes a cognitive and emotional approach (Also see Figure 4.1). Taking Black et al.'s (1992) interaction adjustment term as referring to interaction with host country nationals, the author tries to understand how interacting or not interacting with host-country nationals might affect the interaction adjustment of

these particular expatriates. Therefore, the research aims to understand the mix of friends (nationality-wise) of Turkish self-initiated expatriates who are situated in the comfort zone of the expatriates.

While exploring the research aim, certain variables were taken into consideration. The marital status of the expatriates and the situation of their spouses were explored. Previous overseas experience, whether for work or study reasons were taken into consideration. The decision to move abroad and language abilities were also considered as control variables. The research also points out the importance of the location of the expatriates, such as whether it is an expatriate country (e.g., Dubai), whether the location has a Turkish immigrant society (e.g., Germany) and explores the experiences of young Turkish self-initiated expatriates and those in their close social network as friends.

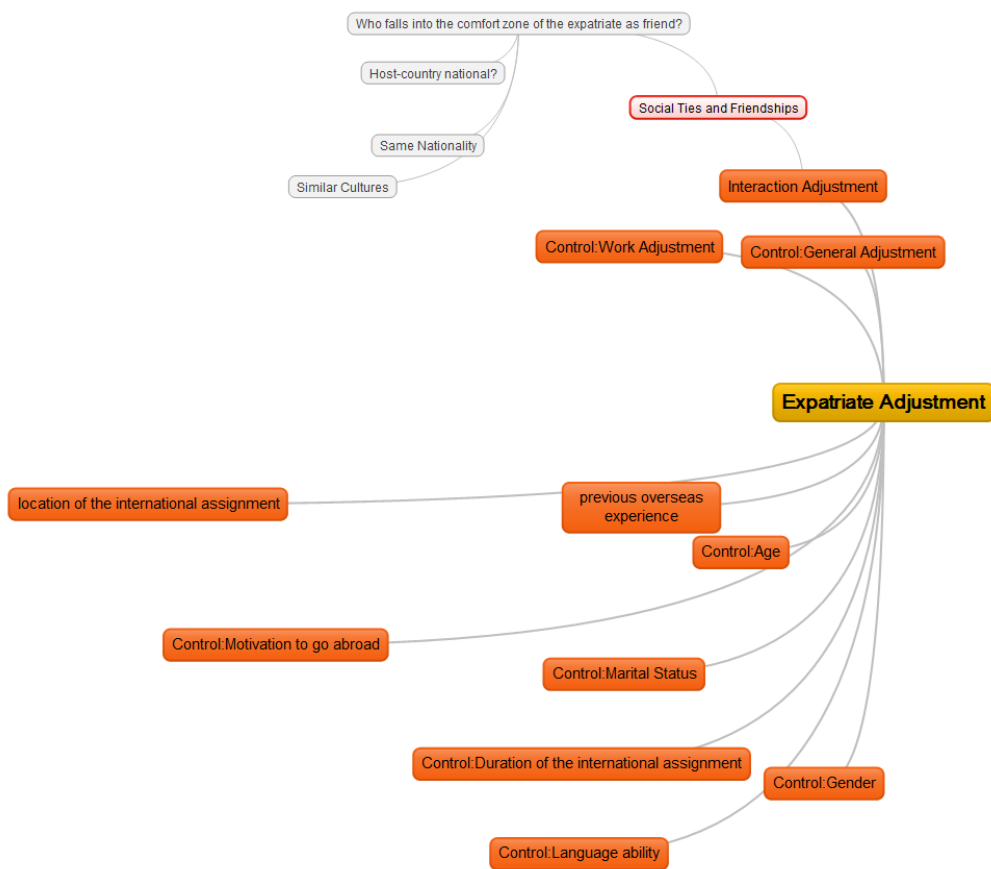


Figure 4.1: Expatriate Adjustment.

4.5 Sample

The sample of this paper consisted of 10 Turkish self-initiated expatriates in different countries (See Table 4.1). The countries that these expats lived and worked in were the USA, Spain, Switzerland, Netherlands, Germany, Dubai,

Slovakia and Scotland. The demographic information on the sample is shown in Table 1. Unfortunately, the sample only had two females; therefore, we cannot make any claims as to the gender issue in expatriate literature.

Most of the interviewees had at least a Master's degree and all of them spoke English, whether they lived in English-speaking countries or not. It should be noted that the sample was very educated according to Turkey standards. Not only did they have Masters Degrees, but some interviewees hailed from very good high schools and universities in Turkey. Some studied their BA outside of Turkey, while others did not. Only three out of 10 were married and lived with their spouses.

Language ability and previous overseas experience of the sample

Most of the sample individuals spoke the language of the host country. However, people who worked in international companies did not feel the necessity to speak the language at work. They only used it when it was necessary. Five out of 10 people did not have previous experience in a foreign country. Those who did have previous experience had usually gained it as being part of an internship or a Master's program. All of the interviewees had been expatriates for at least two years. Therefore, in the interviews, we asked them to think back to the first months they spent in the host country and to explain to us how they experienced

the adjustment process; following on, they were asked to continue on to reflecting on the time when they started feeling adjusted to the host nation.

Sample	Age	Gender	M.Status	Location	Pre. Ex.	H.C. Lang
1	27	F	S	USA	no	advanced
2	27	M	S	Switzerland	no	intermediate
3	30	M	Ma.	Germany	yes	intermediate
4	28	M	S	Slovakia	no	intermediate
5	26	M	S	Dubai	yes	advanced
6	27	M	S	Spain (Md)	yes	beginner
7	27	F	Ma.	Scotland	yes	advanced
8	26	M	S	Netherlands	yes	beginner
9	28	M	Ma.	USA	no	advanced
10	35	F	S	Spain (Bcn)	no	advanced

Table 4.1: Demographic information of the sample.

4.5 Methodology

The methodology used in this research is qualitative-based. Quantitative research explains phenomena by collecting numerical data, which is afterwards used for statistical methods (Mujis, 2004). These statistics are used for providing answers such as "how many" or percentage questions. Qualitative research, on the other hand, aims to answer the "how" questions by providing insights. Qualitative research is also used to examine phenomena that are complex and where it is hard to break down constructs into single variables (Flick, 2002). Due to its nature, qualitative research is therefore not concerned with generalizing findings, but doing an in-depth study instead (Denzin and Lincoln, 2000). The goal of qualitative methods is not about testing what is already known using other variables, but to discover new things. This will in turn help future empirically grounded theories to be formulated (Mujis, 2004).

There are several reasons for why a qualitative methodology was applied in the present research. The main reason was the nature of the research, which is aimed at being exploratory and the author wanted to explore the problems Turkish self-initiated expatriates face within the host country. Many questions were asked of the interviewees (see Appendix for a sample interview) that are not used in this research. One of the reasons for this was to make the interviewees talk about their experiences and really be genuine with their answers.

The second reason for using a qualitative interview was the availability of the data. Due to the small sample size identified prior to the interviews, it was decided by the author that a questionnaire would not be suitable. Because nearly the entire sample were already in their second or third year in the host country, a questionnaire was deemed insufficient for having them reflect back to the first year of their adjustment.

Some of the interviews were done face-to-face and some on Skype using the video calling option. The data from the interviews were content analyzed. The interview data was collected and tapes were transcribed. The interviews were conducted in English; as such, there was no need for translation. All the interviewees spoke a very good level of English and as such, there were no issues with the language or the clarity of the questions or the answers.

Coding was the second step of the analysis. Most of the categories that the material was to be coded in were already defined a priori with the literature review. However, other categories became evident during the interviews and were added afterwards. One of these categories was spousal adjustment, as it became evident in the interviews that some of the interviewees were married and they wanted to share the experiences of both their spouses and themselves. Silverman (2006) notes that the researcher has to be careful about not missing data just to make it fit into the a priori categories.

During the data analysis process, each narrative responding to a category was color-coded. This helped to keep track of content concerning the meaning of the experiences of expatriates. In addition, it helped to understand the non-fitting narratives for creating new categories. In each category, quotes to be used later were also added. After examining the codes, narratives and quotes, the variations and similarities of the experiences were compared and contrasted on a mind map (Akerlind, 2005).

Reliability and validity are two concerns for every type of research, whether qualitative or quantitative. Some researchers believe that the influence of the researcher in qualitative research is unavoidable and that reliability is therefore not possible to attain, and should not be the concern of the research. However, Flick (2002) and Silverman (2006) argue that reliability can be measured by making the research process as clear as possible to the reader. Some of the ways to do this are to have the raw data available and not only the summaries. Additionally, adding quotations in the results is one way of making the research clearer to readers. For this reason, quotations, as well as the mind map used in the analysis, are demonstrated in the paper. Moreover, readers are given the chance to read a sample interview, which can be found in the Appendix.

Validity, on the other hand, is concerned with the conclusion of the research (McBurney and White, 2007), in particular, whether the findings of the research

correspond with the reality (Flick, 2002). The findings should also be supported by past or recent literature and the method for data selection and analysis should be justified. On this account, the findings of this research are supported by the previous literature and data selection and analysis are justified as much as possible.

In qualitative research, theory and evidence are debatable issues due to the arguments surrounding the relativism (Hammersley, 1995). Validation of the research in qualitative research is a crucial process in which the researcher and the reader should be able to comprehend the inter-subjective meaning. As Becker (1970) has pointed out “to understand why someone behaves as he does you must understand how it looked to him, what he thought he had to contend with, what alternative he saw open to him” (pp.64). In qualitative research, the analysis of a case study is concerned with the interpretation of the raw data based on a theoretical background (Ball, 1983). Accordingly, the aim of the research is to start from a certain theoretical background and try to capture the reality by not only adhering to the existing theory and claiming the variations in terms of the experiences of the sample.

Figure 4.2 is a visualization of the mind map created for the sample according to the findings. The figure aims to make readers envision the sample in order to make more sense out of the findings and the quotes.

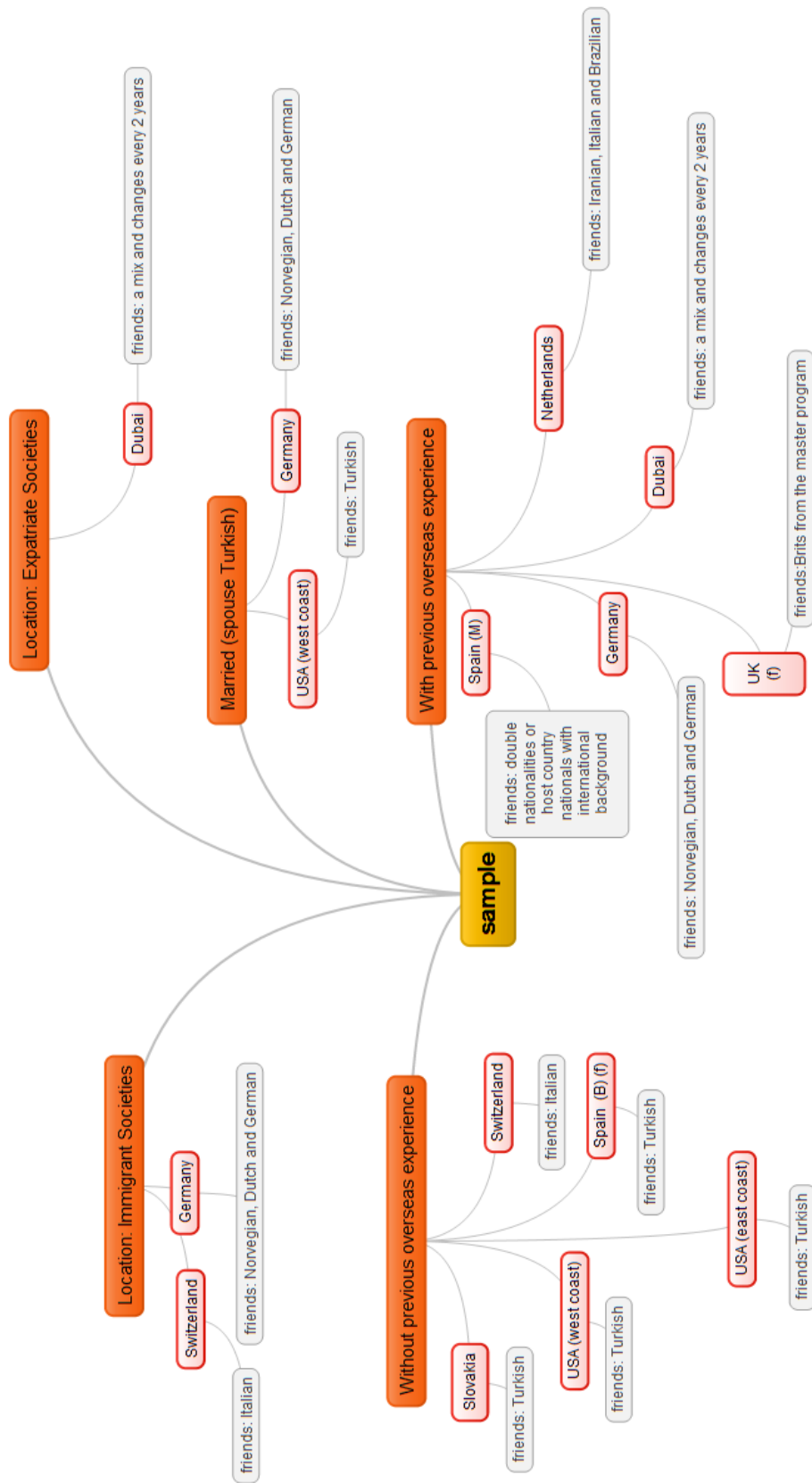


Figure 4.2 Sample Mind Map

4.6 Findings

4.6.1 Expatriate societies

In a survey conducted on expatriates in Dubai by HSBC Expat Explorer, United Arab Emirates as found to be one of the best countries for expatriates. The survey was collected from over 7000 expatriate respondents from 100 countries living in the UAE. The first reason why expatriates chose to come to the UAE was “higher earning potential”.

“Only 12% of the population is host country nationals. I only met one of my neighbors once. Host country nationals usually live in big villas. They have bigger houses with more rooms. You have four kinds of people. Locals, non UAE Arabs, European Asian expats, Indians and Pakistani that work on construction sites and Filipinos that [work] in service industries. Most of the time people don't leave their circle. People around me are ... people like me”. (Dubai)

In cities like Dubai, interaction with host country nationals is very rare. Even though there is no language problem, as all the host country nationals of Dubai speak very good English, the way of living separate the locations where different groups of people live. Therefore, in Dubai, interaction is only with other

expatriates within the category of the particular expatriate, as stated in the above quote.

Cultural norms of Dubai

“Materialistic. Dubai is the heaven of the capitalist. I thought one day, what can you do in Dubai without money? The list is very short. When you have a lot of expats, there is kind of a uniform culture. Wining, dining and partying for young expats. Everybody has their pet hobby. We have lots of parties and drinking and [travel] a lot. You can’t really say there is an identifiable culture. It’s a hedonistic culture which is fine with most of us.” (Dubai)

Even though the U.A.E. is a Muslim country, the above quote tells a different story about the life of expatriates in Dubai it also shows how isolated they are and how isolated host country nationals are.

Not only does the location of expatriation influence the adjustment; whether the city of expatriation is big or small is also a variable for adjustment. According to Haslberger (2005), the size of the city, the pressure to conform and the openness of the people are related to the cognitive and emotional adaptation of the expatriate. The tendency is that the smaller the city, the higher the pressure is to conform and the lower the openness of the people.

4.6.2 Turkish self-initiated expatriates without previous overseas experience

One of the objectives of this study was to explore if there was a pattern in the way Turkish self-initiated expatriates chose their friends (nationality-wise). Among the interviewees, the pattern showed that expatriates who did not have previous overseas experience tended to choose Turkish friends who were also expatriates in the same host country.

“It was mostly an international group. There was something like a transition. I wanted to live with local people [in order to become] integrated. I went out with them but I didn't feel comfortable even [when] I spoke Spanish. Then I met with local people who had international [backgrounds ... half-Spanish half-German or half-French. And then I ... met group of Turkish people and I sort of felt connected to them. So I started spending more time with them. And we speak Turkish with them.” (Barcelona Spain)

“My best friends are Turkish. One [is] from Istanbul and the other is from Adana. We have a good bunch of friends here including expats ... we have people from everywhere.” (Slovakia)

There were also some claims about the host-country nationals, one of which was that the educated host country nationals were more open to foreigners than less educated ones. Another claim concerned having a closed society. These claims were made by three interviewees who were living in Switzerland (Italian part), Barcelona (Spain) and Slovakia.

“I don't have any Catalan friends. I think they [have values] very close to [that of Germans]. It's difficult to get to them. But as soon as you are in [their] environment you are friends forever.” (Barcelona Spain)

4.6.3 Turkish self-initiated expatriates with previous overseas experience

The pattern with Turkish self-initiated expatriates who had previous overseas experience was finding host-country nationals with double nationalities, or who had an international background (e.g., who had previously lived outside of their country as expatriates), as well as finding friends whose cultures were similar to their.

“I didn't have any Turkish [friends]. I knew some but I didn't hang out with them ... I had plenty of Spanish friends and friends from other countries. I didn't feel the

necessity to [socialize with Turks and I don't like the idea of [socializing] with your [own] nationality all the time. I had two buddies. One was half Spanish half British and the other was half Spanish half French.” (Madrid, Spain)

“My best friends are an Iranian guy, Brazilian and an Italian guy.” (Netherlands)

“My former flat mate is still a good friend of mine but he moved to Norway. I have a good friend from Norway. I am good with Norwegians, maybe because of the old connection. My other good friends are a German and [a] Dutch guy. I don't have a Turkish close friend.” (Germany)

Similarity/Attraction theory (Byrne, 1971) highlights that similar individuals with similar attitudes and values share common life experiences, which facilitates interaction in a positive way. Another reason why expats choose people similar to themselves is to reduce stress levels (Black, 1990).

4.6.4 Immigrant societies

Turkish immigrants began moving to Germany around the 1950s, when Germany called for workers from all around the world because of a lack of people in the country to work in German factories. Three different nations responded to Germany's call: Turkey, Italy and Eastern Europe. The fact that Eastern Europeans and Italians at least shared the same religion made it easier for these

two immigrant groups to adjust. However, Turkish immigrants in Germany still experience integration problems today. The laws for Turkish immigrants may also make it hard for Turkish expatriates to adjust to the German culture.

“If I tell them (German people) am from Turkey it takes a while for them to understand. They say you don’t look ... Turkish. They ... judge you. When they [asked] me this question and [I replied that] I’m from Istanbul, they somehow [believed] that Istanbul [was] different than Turkey and they are not surprised. And they say “Oh that’s why.” (Germany)

“To be honest I do not interact with [Turkish immigrants] too much. I don’t have too many [opportunities]. I [lived] in a different area. I knew a couple of them. Sometimes we couldn’t find topics to discuss and we didn’t see each other afterwards. There are some guys who live here and they have their own community and they are more educated so I’m more in contact with [them]. You need some [things in common] to have a community. It’s natural.” (Germany)

Self-initiated expatriates are expatriates who are neither short-term travelers (sojourners) nor immigrants (Richardson and Zikic, 2007). Thinking of moving abroad to a country where there are immigrants from the country of the expatriate might not always be a good idea, especially when negative stereotypes are held about these immigrant societies.

4.6.5 The motivation to go abroad to work

Self-initiated expatriates are different from organizational expatriates, especially in the way they initiate and arrange expatriation (Inkson et al.1997). These expatriates themselves make the decision to move abroad without any financial allowance for expatriation from their employers (Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010). Another important point that has been previously been highlighted is that self-initiated expatriates do not have a definite plan of repatriation when leaving (Suutari and Brewster, 2000).

“After spending a couple of years outside of Turkey, thought I had more chances here in Europe because of the job opportunities. I love my country but I felt like it might be painful because of the mentality issues”. (Germany)

“Why I did not go to Turkey: because of my military duty. Why not Europe: my school was there and I was already working in Europe, but Europe was in the middle of the economic crisis and there were not good opportunities [As for Dubai: I did an internship and they offered [me] a job. I never expected to go to Dubai.” (Dubai)

“I was looking for jobs in Istanbul and it was the beginning of the [economic] crisis ... there were not a lot of jobs in Istanbul so I was offered a job in HSBC. I

hesitated but accepted it. The same day I saw this ad from [a] Spanish company so I applied. [Two or three] weeks [later], I moved to Madrid". (Spain)

For Turkish expatriates, working abroad has always been a positive for their careers. For self-initiated expatriates, as confirmed by the literature, it was initiated by them and they accepted the best option available to them at the time. Another important factor for Turkish male expatriates is the problem of military service. In Turkey, military service is mandatory and a difficult experience. The experience is even more difficult if an individual is sent to problematic parts of Turkey (East), where there is still political and military tension. However, the law allows individuals to have a shortened version of the service (one month) instead of one year if they have been working outside of the country for three years.

The final factor that is important for Turkish expatriates is the fact that the social mentality has been changing in Turkey. Though Turkey is a democracy, it is still a Muslim country and is therefore culturally conservative, especially where it concerns women. Moreover, the country has become more conservative during the past 10 years due to the ruling political party. Therefore Turkish self-initiated expatriates as other self-initiated expatriates seem to have strong intrinsic career motivations and personal goals to go abroad (Doherty et al., 2011; Harvey, 2011).

4.6.6 Marital status and the situation of spouses

Spousal adjustment or any family-related issue is one of the main sources of stress for expatriates and their families during an international assignment (Caligiuri et al., 1998a, b; Shaffer et al., 2001). In the case of self-initiated expatriates, the spouse also agrees to move abroad, believing that there might be job opportunities for him/her as well in the host country. However, every country has different visa procedures for spouses and knowledge of the host country language seems necessary.

“[My wife] actually came here on a dependent visa [which prohibits her from working]. She knew about this before coming [but it is still] hard. She has good degrees [but the USA does not] recognize [any of these] degrees. She tried to find [doing] things that she is interested in. She [volunteers] in the library and she [works] with elderly people and [provide] support to them. She is learning ... meditation. [Her situation will not] change until someone hires her.” (United States of America)

“[My wife] knew the language a bit but she took classes [in Germany]. [Nonetheless], her adjustment was harder [than mine]. I didn't have to speak German in the office but she needs to know a good level of German and she is kind of annoyed with that. [In Germany] there are no international fashion companies ... as a freelancer she has no stable income.” (Germany)

The United States of America has different laws for Turkish spouses entering the country on their wife or husband's visa. With a dependent visa, spouses of expats are not permitted to work until a company hires them and applies for the visa for them. Eventually, they will have to go back to Turkey and wait for the visa to be issued. As laws are different in every country, they should definitely be carefully considered by Turkish expatriates wanting to move abroad.

Most expatriates face a language barrier in the host country where they are located. However, the language of the host country is most often more useful outside of the workplace, since workplaces for expatriates are international environments and the common language spoken within them tends to be English. Yet there are cases, such as in Neal's (1998) research on French expatriates in Britain, where the language barrier was a main source of frustration and increased the feeling of being an outsider for French expatriates. For the spouse of an expatriate, especially those in a different line of work than their husbands/wives (such as the fashion industry, as in one of the interviewees from Germany) not knowing the host-country language will present additional obstacles.

4.7 Discussion and limitations of the study

The aim of the present research was first to understand whether interaction adjustment, defined as “interacting with host country nationals” (Black, 1991) was supported in the case of Turkish self-initiated expatriates. The sample consisted of Turkish self-initiated expatriates who had been living in the host country for more than a year and who believed that they were adjusted and had created their comfort zones. The second objective was to understand if there was a pattern for who fell within expatriates' comfort zones as friends. These objectives were decided a priori; however, the categories were created during the analysis. Marital status and spousal adjustment were added as a side analysis after analyzing the interviews.

According to the findings, for Turkish self-initiated expatriates, interacting with host-country nationals had no effect on feeling adjusted and in creating their comfort zones. Expatriates with no previous experience tended to choose Turkish friends, while expatriates with previous experience tended to choose friends who had an international background or who were culturally similar.

The location of where the expatriate worked was also an important factor in interaction adjustment. In expatriate societies such as in U.A.E., there was nearly zero interaction with host country nationals and expatriates had their own lives, which were very separate from that of the host country nationals. In countries

where there was a negative stereotype towards the country of origin of the expatriate due to immigration and integration problems (which was the case of Turkish immigrants in Germany), the laws concerning expatriates moving abroad can be harder and the perception of the host country nationals towards foreigners can be relatively different.

This research presents useful information particularly for Turkish employees planning to expatriate. It also provides practical information for companies who want to hire Turkish self-initiated expatriates. However, it has many limitations. The first limitation is sample size. The findings cannot be generalized for Turkish self-initiated expatriates or for self-initiated expatriates in general. Even though some of the results corroborate previous findings such as marital status and motivation to move abroad, this research is exploratory in nature and reveals interesting results that are open to discussion.

Because of its exploratory nature, content analysis was believed to be the right methodology for the study. Future research should extend the sample size and look to discover empirical support for the findings.

References

- Al Ariss, A. 2010. Modes of engagement: Migration, self-initiated expatriation, and career development. *The Career Development International*, 15:338-358.
- Äkerlind, G. S. 2005. Variation and commonality in phenomenographic research methods. *Higher Education Research and Development*, 24:321-334.
- Arthur, M. and Rousseau, D. 1996. The boundaryless career as a new employment principle. In M. B. Arthur and D. M. Rousseau, (Eds.). *The boundaryless career*. Oxford University Press: New York.
- Arthur, M. B., Khapova, S. N. and Wilderom, C. P. M. 2005. Career success in a boundaryless career world. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26: 177-202.
- Ball, S. 1983. **Case study research in education: some notes and problems** in H. Hammersley (ed.) *The Ethnography of Schooling*, Driffield, Nafferton Books.
- Bardwick, J. 1991. *Danger in the Comfort Zone: From Boardroom to Mailroom – How to Break the Entitlement Habit that's Killing American Business*. American Management Association.
- Becker, H.S. 1970. *Sociological Work*, Chicago, Aldine.
- Begley, A., Collings, D.G. and Scullion, H. 2008. The cross-cultural adjustment experiences of self-initiated repatriates to the Republic of Ireland labour market. *Employee Relations*, 30:264-82.
- Bhaskar-Shrinivas, P., Harrison, D. A., Shaffer, M.A. and Luk, D. M. 2005. Input-based and time-based models of international adjustment: meta-analytic evidence and theoretical extensions. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48:257-281.

- Black, J. S. 1990. The Relationship of Personal Characteristics with Adjustment of Japanese Expatriate Managers. *Management International Review*, 30:119-134.
- Black, J. S. and Gregersen, H. B. 1991. Antecedents to Cross-cultural Adjustment for Expatriates in Pacific Rim Assignments. *Human Relations*, 44:497-515.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M. E. 1990. Cross-Cultural Training Effectiveness: A Review and Theoretical Framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 15:113- 136.
- Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M. E., and Oddou, G. R. 1991. Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment: An Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives, *Academy of Management Review*, 16:291-317.
- Caligiuri, P. M., Hyland, M. A. M., Joshi, A. and Bross, A. S. 1998. Testing a theoretical model for examining the relationship between family adjustment and expatriates' work adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 83: 598-614.
- Caligiuri, P. M., Joshi, A. and Lazarova, M. 1999. Factors influencing the adjustment of women on global assignments. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10:163-179.
- Caligiuri, P. 2000. The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriates desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53:67-88.
- Caligiuri, P. and Lazarova, M. 2001a. Retaining repatriates: The role of organizational support practices. *Journal of World Business*, 36:389-401.

Caligiuri, P., Tarique, I. and Jacobs, R. 2009. Selection for international assignments. ***Human Resource Management Review***, 19:251-262.

Cappellen, T. and Janssens, M. 2008. Global managers' career competencies. ***Career Development International***, 13:514-537.

Carnall, C.1995. ***Managing Change in Organizations***. NJ: Prentice Hall

Chew, J. 2004. Managing MNC expatriates through crises: A challenge for international human resource management. ***Research and Practice in Human Resource Management***, 12:1-30.

Church, A. 1982. Sojourner adjustment. ***Psychological Bulletin***, 91:540-77.

Cole N. and McNulty Y. 2011. Why do female expatriates "fit-in" better than males? An analysis of self-transcendence and socio-cultural adjustment. ***Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal***, 18:144-164.

Cooper, J. and Carlsmith, K. 2001. Cognitive Dissonance. In N. Smelser and P. Baltes (Eds.). ***International encyclopedia of the social and behavioural sciences***. Elsevier: Amsterdam.

Denzin, N and Lincoln, Y 2000. ***Handbook of Qualitative Research*** Sage Publications, Inc.: California.

Doherty, N., Dickmann, M. and Mills, T. 2011. Exploring the motives of company-backed and self-initiated expatriate. ***The International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 22:595-611.

Eccelstone, K. 2004. Learning in a comfort zone: Cultural and social capital inside an outcome based assessment regime. ***Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy and Practice***, 11:29-47.

Festinger, L. 1957. ***A theory of cognitive dissonance***. Stanford University Press: California.

Flick, O. 2002. ***An Introduction to Qualitative Research***, Sage Publications Ltd.: London

Gleitman, H. 1986. ***Psychology*** (2nd ed.). W.W.Norton: New York.

Haines III, V.Y., Saba, T. and Choquette, E. 2008. Intrinsic motivation for an international assignment. ***International Journal of Manpower***, 29:443-461.

Hammersely, M. 1995. Theory and evidence in qualitative research. ***Quality and Quantity***, 21:55-66

Harvey, W. S. 2011. British and Indian scientists moving to the United States. ***Work and Occupations***, 38:68-100.

Harrison, E. C. and Michailova, S. 2012. Working in the Middle East: Western female expatriates' experiences in the United Arab Emirates. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 23:625-644.

Haslberger, A. 2005. Facets and dimensions of cross-cultural adaptation: refining the tools". ***Personell Review***, 34:85-109.

Holopainen, J. and Björkman, I. 2005. The personal characteristics of the successful expatriate. A critical review of the literature and an empirical investigation. ***Personnel Review***, 34:37-50.

Howe-Walsh, L. and Schyns, B. 2010. Self-initiated expatriation: Implications for HRM. ***The International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 21:260-273.

Hutchings, K., Lirio, P. and Metcalfe, B. D. 2012. Gender, globalisation and development: a re-evaluation of the nature of women's global work. **International Journal of Human Resource Management**, 23:1763-1787.

Inkson, K., Arthur, M.B., Pringle, J. and Barry, S. 1997. Expatriate assignment versus overseas experience: contrasting models of international human resource development. **Journal of World Business**, 32:351-68.

Jokinen, T. 2005. Global leadership competencies: a review and discussion. **Journal of European Industrial Training**, 29:199-216.

Jokinen, T., Brewster, C. and Suutari, V. 2008. Career capital during international work experiences: Contrasting self-initiated expatriate experiences and assigned expatriation. **International Journal of Human Resource Management**, 19:979-998.

Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J. and Jaworski, R. A. 2001. Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. **Personnel Psychology**, Inc., 54:71-99.

Lee, Ch. 2005. A study of underemployment among self-initiated expatriates. **Journal of World Business**, 40:172-187.

Lee, L. and Sukoco, B. M. 2007. The effects of expatriate personality and cultural intelligence on the expatriate adjustment: The moderating role of expatriate. **Proceeding of the 13th Asia Pacific Management Conference**, 922-931.

Liu, C.H. and Lee, H.W. 2008. A proposed model of expatriates in multinational corporations. **Cross Cultural Management**, 15:176-193.

McBurney, D. and White, T. 2007. **Research Methods**. Wadsworth, Cengage Learning: USA.

McInerney, D. and McInerney, V. 1998. **Educational Psychology: Constructing learning** (2nd ed.). Prentice-Hall: Sydney.

Morris, M. A. and Robie, C. 2001. A meta-analysis of the effects of cross-cultural training on expatriate performance and adjustment. **International Journal of Training and Development**, 5:112-125.

Muijs, D. 2004. **Doing Quantitative Research in Education with SPSS**. Sage Publications Ltd.: London

Neal, M. 1998. **The culture factor: Cross national management and the foreign venture**. McMillan Press: UK.

Ng, T. W. H., Eby, L. T., Sorensen, K. L. and Feldman, D. C. 2005. Predictors of objective and subjective career success: A meta-analysis". **Personnel Psychology**, 58:367-408.

Oddou, G. 2002. Managing your expatriates: What the successful firms do. **Human Resource Planning**, 14:301-308.

Panicucci, J. 2007. Cornerstones of adventure education. In D. Prouty, J. Panicucci and R. Collinson (Eds.). **Adventure education: Theory and applications** (pp. 33-48). Champaign, IL : Human Kinetics. Piaget, J. 1977. The development of thought (A. Rosin, Trans.). New York: Viking Press.

Piaget, J. 1987. **Adaptation and intelligence** (G. Eames, Trans.). University of Chicago Press: Chicago.

Pinto, L. H., Cabral-Cardoso, C. and Werther, W. B. 2012. Compelled to go abroad? Motives and outcomes of international assignments. **International Journal of Human Resource Management**, 23:2295-2314.

Richardson, J. and Mallon, M. 2005. Career interrupted? The case of the self-directed expatriate. **Journal of World Business**, 40:409-420.

Richardson, J. and Zikic, J, 2007. The darker side of an international career. **Career Development International**, 12:164-186.

Shahid, N.B., Al-Shammari, E.S. and Jefri, O.J. 2001. Work-related attitudes and job characteristics of expatriates in Saudi Arabia. **Thunderbird International Business Review**, 43:21-31.

Shay, J. and Baack, S. 2004. Expatriate assignment, adjustment and effectiveness: An empirical examination of the big picture. **Journal of International Business Studies**, 35:216-232.

Selmer J. and Lauring J. 2011. Marital status and work outcomes of self-initiated expatriates: Is there a moderating effect of gender. **Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal**, 18:198-213.

Silverman, D. 2005. **Doing Qualitative Research**. Sage Publications Ltd.: London

Silverman, D. 2006. **Interpreting Qualitative Data – Methods for Analyzing Talk, Text and Interaction**. London, Thousand Oaks, New Delhi: Sage Publications.

Silverman, D. 2010. **Qualitative Research**. Sage Publications Ltd.: London.

- Stahl, G. and Caligiuri, P. 2005. The effectiveness of expatriate coping strategies: The moderating role of cultural distance, position level, and time on the international assignment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 90:603-615.
- Suutari, V. and Brewster, C. 2000. Making their own way: International experience through self-initiated foreign assignments. *Journal of World Business*, 35:417-436.
- Suutari, V. and Taka, M. 2004. Career anchors and career commitment of managers with global careers. *Journal of Management Development*, 23: 833-47.
- Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S. and Lepak, D. P. 2005. An integrative view of international experience. *Academy of Management Journal*, 48: 85-100.
- Tharenou, P. and Caulfield, N. 2010. Will I stay or will I go? Explaining repatriation by self-initiated expatriates. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53:1009-1028.
- Toh, S. M. and Denisi, A. S. 2007. Host country nationals as socializing agents: A social identity approach. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 28:281-301.
- Tung, R. L. 1987. Expatriate assignments: Enhancing success, minimizing failure. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1:117-126.
- Van Vianen, A.E.M., De Pater, I.E., Kristof-Brown, A.L. and Johnson, E.C. 2004. Fitting In: Surface- and Deep-level Cultural Differences and Expatriates' Adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 27:697-709.
- Waxin, M.F. and Panaccio, A. 2005. Cross-cultural training to facilitate adjustment: it works. *Personnel Review*, 34:51-67.

White, A.1995. ***Managing for Performance***. Piatkus Books:

White, A. 1996. ***Continuous Quality Improvement***. Piatkus Books:

Yerkes, R. and Dodson, J. 1907.The Dancing Mouse, A Study in Animal Behavior. ***Journal of Comparative Neurology and Psychology***, 18:459-482.

Chapter 5: Conclusion

5.1 Introduction

The final chapter of the thesis is dedicated to the comparison of the three papers on expatriate adjustment and performance. The comparison of the papers is based on the sample used for each article and the results related to the samples. The papers that constitute this thesis have three different samples.

In the first paper of the thesis in Chapter 2, the sample used for the research was organizational expatriates from different countries who were working in Peru. In the second paper of the thesis in Chapter 3, the sample used for the research was MBA students from different countries who were studying at ESADE and living in Barcelona. Finally, the third paper in Chapter 4 included self-initiated expatriates as a sample. In the third paper, the nationality of the sample was chosen especially as Turkish expatriates who lived and worked in different countries.

Figure 5.1 demonstrates the overall view of the three papers in the thesis. The color of the arrows explains the analysis for each paper (blue for Chapter 2, green for Chapter 3 and pink for Chapter 4). The main purpose of this part of the thesis is to compare and contrast the results of the three papers. The subjects to be discussed were specifically chosen according to the common findings in the papers.

The main aim of this thesis was to enhance the knowledge on different expatriate populations by examining various variables influencing their adjustment. This is done by comparing the findings of the three papers in relation to their sample characteristics. Therefore, the main aim of the conclusion is to achieve this goal. In each paper, different variables were examined. However, there were common variables in all three papers, which leads this section to present a comparison on the findings of each study according to two types of expatriates: organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates.

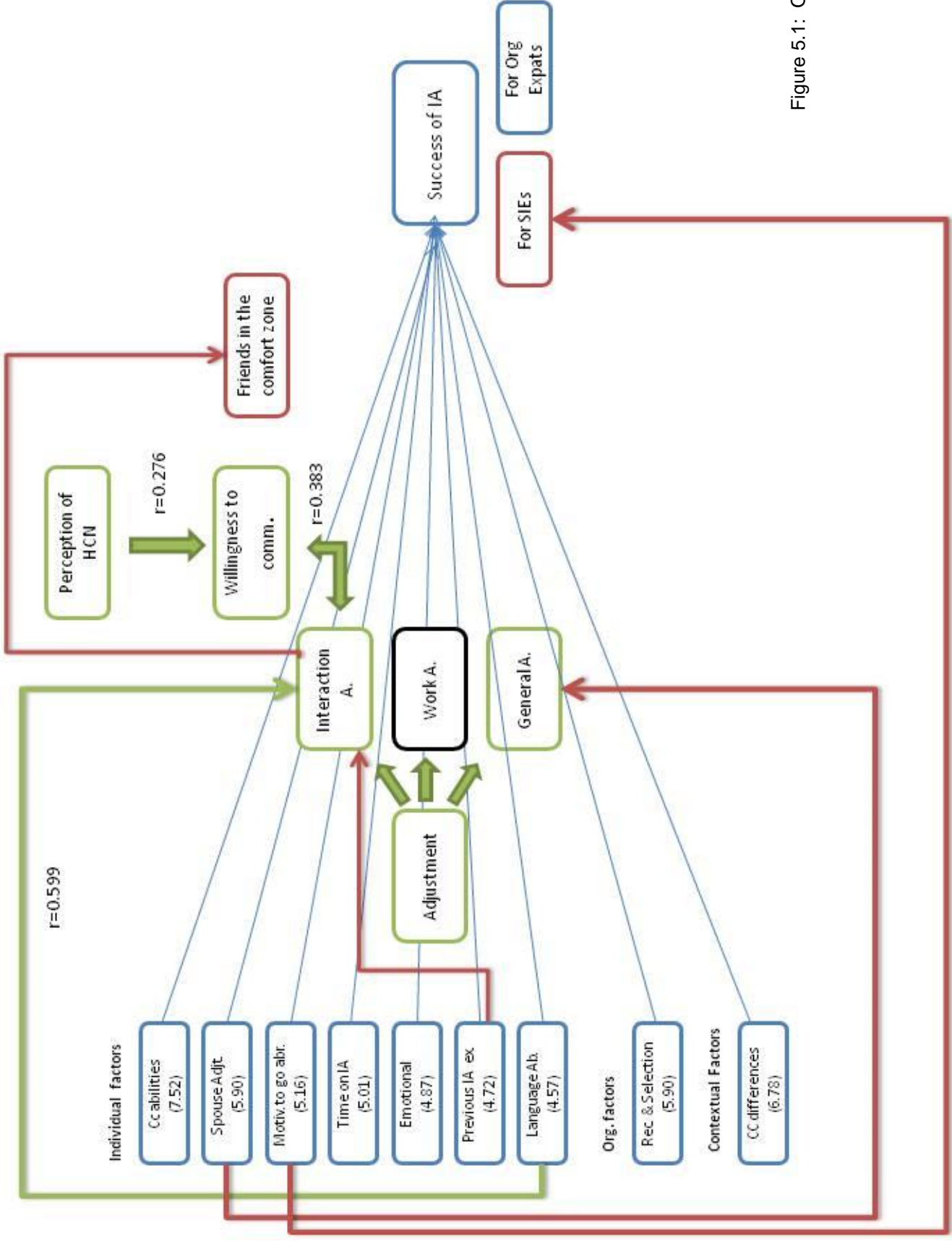


Figure 5.1: Overall view of the thesis.

5.2 Definition of success for organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates

In Chapter 2, the research sample was organizational expatriates from different countries working in Peru. Organizational expatriates are expatriates that are sent on an international assignment by their organization.

The definition of success was among the questions asked of the interviewees, as the term 'success' was defined at different levels in expatriate literature. In this paper, the success of an international assignment was explored at the individual level and it was self-reported as there were no other indicators of performance to be controlled.

In the literature for organizational expatriates, the evaluation of an international assignment had different criteria (Black et al., 1999). However, we can approach the term success from both an individual and organizational level of analysis. Individual level of success is related to the expatriate's individual performance and adjustment (Aycan, 1997a). On the other hand, an organizational perspective of success is concerned with the performance of the international human resources division of a company and return on investment (Yan et al., 2002).

For self-initiated expatriates (see Chapter 4), on the other hand, the literature is linked to boundaryless careers (Inkson et al., 1997). This concept reveals a different type of career, where there is no organization involved in the decision of where the employee will work (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996) and the career is shaped, planned and designed by the self-initiated expatriate. Therefore, subjective evaluation and career success seems to be a major criteria for self-initiated expatriates.

5.3 Implications of previous overseas experience

In Chapter 2, one of the nine factors related to an international assignment successful was a previous overseas experience, as shown by the following interviewee quote.

“I am looking for people who in the first place have international experience because I noticed that the adjustment risk is very high for people in their first [international] experience. Therefore, I look for people with international experience.”

The quote above (Chapter 2) has implications for Chapter 4 as well. In Chapter 4, with Turkish self-initiated expatriates, previous overseas experience was a factor that had an influence on the friends included in the comfort zone. Self-initiated expatriates with previous overseas experience tended to choose friends who had international backgrounds or people who were culturally similar. On the other hand, expatriates without previous overseas experience had a tendency to choose people from their own nationality; in Chapter 4, a Turkish expatriate is quoted on this as follows:

"My best friends are Turkish. One [is] from Istanbul and the other is from Adana. We have a good bunch of friends here, including expats and ... people from [other countries]".

5.4 Motivation to go abroad for self-initiated expatriates and organizational expatriates

Motivation for going abroad is closely linked to personal motivation and an interest in international career development (e.g., Cappellen and Janssens, 2008). The following quote from Chapter 2 (organizational expatriate) may illustrate the multiple reasons for holding an overseas assignment:

“[The reason for IA is] ... probably financial, to manage a career and to [get to know] the culture”.

Self-initiated expatriates are primarily different from organizational expatriates in the way they initiate going abroad. In the case of the former, the decision to go abroad is taken by the expat him/herself and not by the organization (Howe-Walsh and Schyns, 2010).

“I was looking for jobs in Istanbul ... it was the beginning of the [economic] crisis ... there were not a lot of jobs in Istanbul ... I was offered a job in HSBC. I hesitated but accepted it. The same day I saw [an] ad from [a] Spanish company [for a position] so I applied. [Two or three] weeks [later] I moved to Madrid”.

The literature on the comparison of organizational and self-initiated expatriates also point out that the motivation for working abroad is different for the two types of expats (Doherty et al., 2011; Harvey, 2011). For self-initiated expatriates, working abroad is not only about having an international career experience, but also about life standards, about where they want to live and appears to be more intrinsic than for organizational expatriates. In the case of Turkish self-initiated expatriates, there were additional concerns, such as military service and mentality, which has changed in Turkey during the past 10 years.

5.5 Spousal adjustment

A recent study by Lazarova et. al (2010) provides a conceptual model for understanding the balance of work and family roles of expatriates and how this is related to the success of the international assignment. Chapter 2 and Chapter 4 indicate that spousal adjustment is a very important factor for achieving international success and adjustment. In Chapter 4, the category 'spousal adjustment' was added after analysis of the interviews had been completed. For expatriates, whether they were self-initiated or organizational expatriates, the adjustment of the spouse was an important factor for their own adjustment and achieving success in their international assignment. The following quote is from Chapter 2 (organizational expatriate) and indicates the importance of the family.

“The big failures occur due to a lack of adaptability by the family. For example, I know of foreigners who have come here and whose families were not able to adapt. The family’s ability to adapt and get used to a new environment is very influential; if the family doesn’t adapt then the employee will start lagging behind”.

This finding supports a considerable number of studies that have shown that spousal adjustment has crossover effects on various work and non-work aspects, and therefore plays a very influential role in international assignee adjustment and success (e.g., Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2005).

In Chapter 4, in the case of Turkish self-initiated expatriates, other issues were also revealed, such as the laws of a country as they relate to the spouse and the language ability of the spouse. The industry in which the spouse looks for a job appeared to be important as well.

5.6 Language ability, interaction adjustment and host-country nationals

In Chapter 3, in the research involving ESADE MBA students, one of the results that was also supported by the literature (Yang and Bond, 1980; Black et al., 1991) was being able to speak the language of the host country being positively correlated ($r=0.599$) with interaction adjustment. Interaction adjustment, however, is not only about the capability of speaking the language of the host country, but also a willingness to communicate with the host country nationals. The results in Chapter 3 also revealed the connection between willingness to communicate and interaction adjustment, as well as perception about the host society and interaction adjustment. In Chapter 3, an important finding was that the perception about the host country nationals was an important factor for interaction adjustment.

In Chapter 2, language ability was also included in the nine important factors leading to a successful international assignment. In Chapter 4, with the self-initiated expatriates, even though most of the sample spoke the language of the host country, their friends in the comfort zone did not include any host country nationals. This seems to be an important finding, as the definition of interaction adjustment, according to Black et al. (1991), is “adjustment to the host country nationals”. Adjusting to the host country nationals apparently does not include having host country friends.

“I wanted to live with local people to [become] integrated. I went out with them but I didn't feel comfortable even [when] I spoke Spanish. Then I met with local people who had [an] international background”.

Therefore, interaction adjustment is not only about speaking the language of the host country, but also about the host country itself. Mostly it is about the willingness of the expatriate to communicate and the willingness of the host country nationals to communicate. In some cultures, like the Italian part of Switzerland or Barcelona, the host country nationals are distanced from foreigners and it takes a long time to become friends with them. In some cultures, like that of Dubai, there is very rarely interaction with host country nationals. In expat countries like Dubai, we cannot talk about interaction adjustment with host country nationals; however, we can talk about interaction with other expatriates.

Another important factor is the size of the city. The bigger the cities are, the more the tolerance for foreigners increases (Haslberger, 2005). Most of the sample in Chapter 4 stated that they were well adjusted to the host country that they were working and living in; however, the results showed that they did not have any host country nationals as friends in their comfort zones.

5.7 General conclusions

The general findings of Chapter 2 which examined the antecedents of a successful international assignment in the Peruvian context suggests that the individual's antecedent factors account for 70% of factors and play the most determinant role for success in IA. Moreover, cross-cultural abilities and spousal adjustment were the most direct and indirect individual antecedent factors, followed by the motivation to be assigned to the IA; language ability was the last important individual antecedent.

In Chapter 3, the research was conducted on MBA students in ESADE Business School. The findings reveal that the language ability was found to have influence on interaction adjustment however did not explain the whole story. Expatriates' willingness to communicate was found also to be an important factor explaining

interaction adjustment. Perception about host country nationals on the other hand, caused only a minimal effect.

Lastly, in Chapter 4, according to the findings, for Turkish self-initiated expatriates, interacting with host-country nationals had no effect on feeling adjusted and in creating their comfort zones. Expatriates with no previous experience tended to choose Turkish friends, while expatriates with previous experience tended to choose friends who had an international background or who were culturally similar. The location of where the expatriate worked was also an important factor in interaction adjustment.

5.8 Dimensions of context and its application to the general findings

Expatriate literature investigates the issue of adjustment and performance according to many levels. Personality of the expatriate, the training and the age of the expatriate, gender and motivation to go abroad and marital status etc. are some of the individual level aspects of expatriate adjustment and performance. The purpose of the international assignment, organizational support and career development fall in the organizational level aspects that have an influence on the adjustment and the performance of an expatriate. Lastly, there are contextual

factors such as host country-expatriate fit. However, above all, expatriate research tries to examine the interaction of these aspects. This is not an easy task because of the availability, reliability of the data, concerns about statistically significant results and generalization issues. In academia, as much as we are concerned about the generalization of the findings, we are also concerned about the structural validity and robustness of the findings. Therefore especially in the quantitative research of expatriate literature, we control for many of the variables derived from individual, organizational and contextual levels and while doing so, we sometimes fail to catch the significance of these levels and how they might moderate the relationship between the constructs we are examining.

Johns (2006) reviews the organizational behavior field in the light of the importance of the context. The last section of this chapter is dedicated to different dimensions of context and how the findings of this thesis are related to them as conveyed in his work. The main motive under such examination roots from the ability of this thesis to examine context-related expatriate issues such as the sample (as organizational expatriate or self-initiated expatriate; (e.g. Turkish) as well as the importance given to location (Peru, United Arab Emirates).

Context according to Capelli and Sherer (1991) represents “the surroundings associated with phenomena which help to illuminate that phenomenon, typically factors associated with units of analysis above those expressly under

investigation” (pp.56). Johns (2005) also adds the importance of the situation on the meaning of behaviors and the functional relationships between the variables in a phenomenon. Given this, the context can be considered to have two levels of analysis as *omnibus context* and *discrete context*. (Johns, 2006). *Omnibus context* is inspired from the field of journalism where story telling is crucial therefore questions such as *who, where, when and why* are underlined. In the field of organizational behavior, these questions correspond sequentially to occupation, location, time and rationale. *Discrete context* on the other hand has taken its roots from classic social psychology and environmental psychology. The aspects of this context are *task* in terms of autonomy, uncertainty, accountability, resources; *social* in terms of social density, structure and influence; and *physical* in terms of temperature, light and built environment. Discrete context refers to the situational variables that could influence the behavior and more importantly, these elements could mediate the omnibus context. An example provided by Johns (2006) is “thus knowing someone’s occupation often permits reasonable inferences about his or her task, social and physical environment at work, which in turn, can be used to predict behavior and attitudes”(pp. 393).

In expatriate research, one of the elements of the omnibus context *who* which corresponds to the occupation seems to be obvious however there are certain differences in terms of adjustment in accordance with the gender, marital status, nationality and whether the expatriate is an organizational expatriate or a self-

initiated expatriate. An example can be provided by the definition of success for organizational expatriates and self-initiated expatriates. While for the former, individual performance is accompanied with organizational performance in terms of the performance of the human resources department, for the latter, self-evaluation seems to be more crucial. This difference is also moderated by the uncertainty effect, which is an element of the discrete context. An organizational expatriate is an expatriate sent by the parent organization and has plans to repatriate and work in the parent organization again therefore individual performance and relations with human resource department are crucial. On the other hand, for a self-initiated expatriate there is uncertainty in terms of shaping the future career.

Another example could be given from the Peruvian context in the context of language ability. In the Peruvian context, cross-cultural abilities and spousal adjustment were the most direct and indirect individual antecedent factors, followed by the motivation to be assigned to the IA; language ability was the last important individual antecedent. Language ability was the last important individual antecedent because more than half of the sample already knew Spanish. Therefore, language ability is less important than cross-cultural abilities in countries, which share language similarities (e.g., Suutari and Taka, 2004). For instance, an illustrative quote for this antecedent factor was expressed by an interviewee as follows:

“When we decided to come to Latin America and Peru we thought it was a good idea because we would find the same culture, the same language and a people and history that we were familiar with, but this was [not the case] and at the end of the day [we wished we] had gone to Asia, because then we would have received a year of cross-cultural training to understand the language and habits”.

Another element of the omnibus context that could be examined in accordance with the findings of this thesis is the *where* question which corresponds to location. In the research with Turkish expatriates (which falls into *who* element as well), previous overseas experience and location of the current international assignment influences the interaction adjustment of the expatriates. The research points out the importance of the location of the expatriates, such as whether it is an expatriate country (e.g., Dubai), whether the location has a Turkish immigrant society (e.g., Germany). Therefore, there is the interaction of social element of the discrete context with the location element of the omnibus context. A Turkish self-initiated expatriate in an international assignment in Dubai where there is merely interaction among the expatriates and a Turkish self-initiated expatriate in Germany where there is negative stereotype against Turkish people due to the Turkish immigrant society has expected variations in terms of interaction adjustment.

Finally, the question *why* which corresponds to *rationale* in the omnibus context has also has implications for this thesis. The motivation to go abroad has different implications in terms of the type of the expatriate whether the expatriate is an organizational expatriate or a self-initiated expatriate (Peltokorpi and Jintae Froese, 2009). Among the male Turkish male self-initiated expatriates, motivation to go abroad was also found to be related with the compulsory military service as well as the social values that has been changing in Turkey in the last ten years.

Context in expatriate research is crucial in terms of practice. Expatriate research is one of the fields of organizational behavior where the research and practice is closely linked therefore even though there are no current clear definitions of how to report context in terms of taxonomy and systematic language, in this thesis, Johns (2006)'s argument is followed on the importance of the context.

5.8 Practical implications and future research

Research on expatriates is a field in which most of the research implications also serve as practical information for international human resources divisions of companies. Expatriate compensation packages, language classes provided by the companies and financial incentives for expatriate families are some of the practices already evident in today's multi-national corporations. However,

research on self-initiated expatriates specifically has increased over the past 10 years. This is due to the increasing number of self-initiated expatriates working all around the world. In Chapter 2, the country of expatriation is specified and in Chapter 4, the country origin of self-initiated expatriates is specified. Therefore, Chapter 2 provides information for expatriates (or companies who are planning to send their employees) to work in Peru. On the other hand, Chapter 4 provides information for Turkish self-initiated expatriates. Chapter 3 demonstrates the importance of language ability for expatriates and host country nationals in facilitating interaction adjustment.

I believe that future research should focus more on self-initiated expatriates and their adjustment. There appears to be a tendency that the number of self-initiated expatriates will rise and companies will be dealing with a new generation of employees. Generation Y has different expectations, values and different ways of communication than previous generations. Therefore, it is crucial to investigate how company environments are changing alongside this new generation and to address the theories that may be applied to these changes, as they will be important in the future.

References

Arthur, M. and Rousseau, D. 1996. *The boundaryless career as a new employment principle*. In M. B. Arthur and D. M. Rousseau, (Eds.). ***The boundaryless career***. 3-20). Oxford University Press: New York.

Aycan, Z. 1997. Acculturation of expatriate managers: A process model of adjustment and performance." In Z. Aycan (Ed.). ***New approaches to employee management (Expatriate management: Theory and research)***: 1-40. JAI Press: Connecticut.

Aycan, Z. 1997. Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: Individual and organizational level predictors. ***International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 8:434-456.

Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B., Mendenhall, M.E. and Stroh, L.K. 1999. ***Globalizing People Through International Assignments***. Addison-Wesley: Massachusetts.

Black, J.S., Mendenhall, M. and Oddou, G. 1991. Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: an integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. ***Academy of Management Review***, 16:291-31.

Cappellen, T. and Janssens, M. 2008. Global managers' career competencies. ***Career Development International***, 13:514-537.

Doherty, N., Dickmann, M. and Mills, T. 2011. Exploring the motives of company-backed and self-initiated expatriates. ***The International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 22:595-611.

Harvey, W. S. 2011. British and Indian scientists moving to the United States. ***Work and Occupations***, 38:68-100.

Howe-Walsh, L. and Schyns, B. 2010. Self-initiated expatriation: Implications for HRM. ***The International Journal of Human Resource Management***, 21:260-273.

Johns, G. 2006. The Essential Impact of Context in Organizational Behavior. ***Academy of Management Review***, 31:386-408

Inkson, K., Arthur, M.B., Pringle, J. and Barry, S. 1997. Expatriate assignment versus overseas experience: contrasting models of international human resource development. ***Journal of World Business***, 32:351-68.

Lazarova, M., Westman, M. and Shaffer, M.A. 2010. Elucidating the positive side of the work-family interface on international assignments: a model of expatriate work and family performance. ***Academy of Management Review***, 35:93-117.

Shaffer, M. and Harrison, D. 1998. Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, non-work, and family influences. ***Personnel Psychology***, 51:87-118.

Takeuchi, R., Tesluk, P. E., Yun, S. and Lepak, D. P. 2005. An integrative view of international experience. ***Academy of Management Journal***, 48: 85-100.

Yan, A., Zhu, G. and Hall, D. T. 2002. International Assignments for career building: a model of agency relationships and psychological contracts. ***Academy of Management Review***, 27:373-391.

Yang, K. S. and Bond, M. H. 1980. "Ethnic affirmation by Chinese bilinguals". ***Journal of Cross- Cultural Psychology***, 11:411-42.

Appendix

ESADE BUSINESS SCHOOL QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT RESEARCH

PART A

1. Year of Birth: _____

2. Place of Birth _____ (If you have any other culture you associate yourself with please indicate _____)

3. Gender: Female _____ Male _____

4. Marital Status: Single _____ Married _____ Committed _____

5. What is your level of Spanish?

 ___ None

 ___ Beginner

 ___ Intermediate

___Upper intermediate advanced

___Native language

6. Have you ever lived abroad before? If yes how many years?

Yes_____ years NO____

PART B

Please use the scale shown below to make your ratings to the right of each question.

Poor Fair Good Very Good Excellent



(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

1. Rate your adjustment to your living conditions in the Barcelona _____ (e.g. ___2___)

2. Rate your adjustment to your current housing facilities _____

3. Rate your adjustment to the local food _____

4. Rate your adjustment to shopping in the Barcelona _____

Please use the scale shown below to make your ratings to the right of each question.

Poor Fair Good Very Good Excellent



(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

5. Rate your adjustment to the pace of life in Barcelona _____

6. Rate your adjustment to finding your way around Barcelona _____

7. Rate your adjustment to practicing your religion or worshipping in your usual way _____

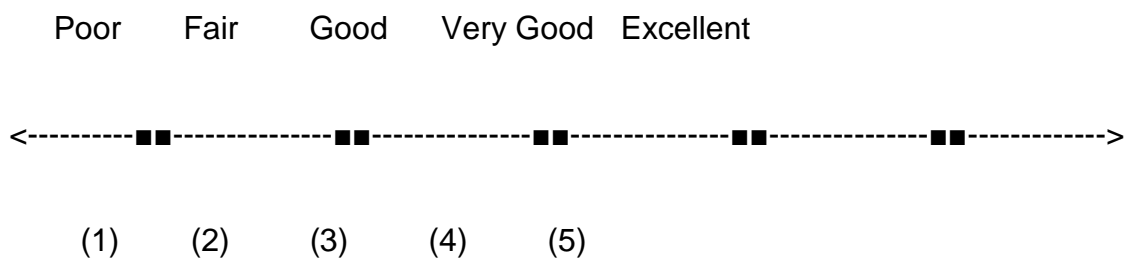
8. Rate your adjustment to the transportation system at ESADE Business School _____

9. Rate your adjustment to the rules and regulations at ESADE Business School _____

10. Rate your adjustment to the climate/weather _____

11. Rate your adjustment to living away from your family members _____
12. Rate your adjustment to local cultural norms _____
13. Rate your adjustment to Spain _____
14. Rate your adjustment to the culture in Barcelona _____
15. Rate your adjustment to the culture at ESADE Business School _____
16. Rate your adjustment to the bureaucracy at ESADE Business School _____
17. Rate your adjustment to the cost of living in Spain _____

(REMINDER) Please use the scale shown below to make your ratings to the right of each question.



18. Rate your adjustment to the entertainment/recreation facilities in Spain _____
19. Rate your adjustment to health care facilities in Spain _____

20. Rate your adjustment to interacting with Spanish/Catalans on campus _____
21. Rate your adjustment to interacting with Spanish/Catalans off campus _____
22. Rate your adjustment to speaking with Spanish/Catalans in general _____
23. Rate your adjustment to understanding the Spanish language _____
24. Rate your adjustment to making friends _____
25. Rate your adjustment to making yourself understood _____
26. Rate your adjustment to speaking with Spanish/Catalan students _____
27. Rate your adjustment to speaking with Spanish/Catalan professors _____
28. Rate your adjustment to interacting with someone who is being unpleasant

29. Rate your adjustment to interacting with people in authority _____
30. Rate your adjustment to interacting with individuals from your country/culture

31. Rate your adjustment to ESADE Business School in general _____
32. Rate your adjustment to working with faculty members _____
33. Rate your ability to discuss class work with Spanish/Catalan students _____

34. Rate your adjustment to communicating with your academic advisor _____

35. Rate your ability to communicate with your foreign student advisor _____

PART C

Please use the scale shown below to make your ratings to the right of each question.

Strongly Disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly Agree



(1) (2) (3) (4) (5)

38. Most of my friends are foreigners _____ Agree 1

39. My friends are mostly host nationals (SPANISH/CATALAN) _____

Agree 5

40. The quality of my friendship with host nationals is satisfying _____

Agree 5

41. Host nationals try to explain to me their culture and customs _____

Agree 5

42. Host nationals try to make me comfortable in the host country ____

Agree 5

43. I feel stressed about social opposition from host nationals ____

Agree 1

44. I speak to host nationals only when I need to ____ Agree 1

45. I try to make host nationals understand my culture and my customs

____ Agree 5

46. I try to speak Spanish/Catalan with host nationals ____ Agree 5

47. I try to communicate with host nationals whenever I can ____

Agree 5

48. I spend most of my leisure time with host nationals ____ Agree 5

49. I am stressed about communicating with host nationals ____ Agree

1

PART D

PLEASE ORDER FOR US YOUR STAGES OF ADJUSTMENT TO THE NEW CULTURE AND INDICATE WHICH STAGE YOU ARE IN AT PRESENT.

Honeymoon: during the honeymoon stage, the expatriate, their spouse and children are usually excited about all the new and interesting things offered by a host country. At this stage, the feeling of being tourists in the host country cannot be avoided.

Culture shock: this is the stage where the expatriate, their spouse and children start to feel uneasy or uncomfortable with daily life in the host country. This phase requires an adequate coping response.

Adjustment: the adjustment stage is the period where the expatriate, their spouse and children feel comfortable and gradually accept the new culture; increasingly, they are able to function effectively in spite of some disturbances.

Mastery: the final stage is the mastery stage, in which the expatriate, their spouse and children possess the ability to effectively function and live in the host country.

YOUR ORDER:

YOUR CURRENT STAGE:

Interview Sample

A. Demographic data

1. Age: 27

2. Nationality: Turkish

3. Gender: female

4. Marital Status: married

5. Educational Background: please tell me about your achievements, starting from high school up to the present.

I went to high school in Izmir and graduated with a very good degree. I always wanted to [study] psychology – clinical psychology that is! [I scored] much better in the exam (OSS) [than I expected]; I chose to go to Bilkent [University] to study IR [on a] full scholarship. During my second year, I applied for exchange study in the US. Then, realizing how much more it would cost to sustain myself there, I withdrew my application. I was then told I could actually apply to do exchange via Erasmus [which I did and] went to Finland [a month later]!

After four months and eight courses completed in Turku, I went back to Turkey. [I] finished my undergrad degree with a good result, it was over 3.50 anyway, and sharp in four years.

In my third year it [became] clear [to me] that I wanted to be an academic. I planned my last year well [and] took all the exams on time. [I nonetheless] have a Plan B, C and D. However, my [main aim] is to study in the UK. I applied for approximately 10 [graduate] courses and I think I got accepted [to them] all. After a painfully long interview, TEV-British Council decided to [grant] me a scholarship to cover all my tuition fees and expenses.

Of all the offers, I chose the [university] that was closest to my heart: Aberystwyth. I absolutely adored the security school rising there and loved being a part of the academic community. I came to the UK in September 2006, on a lovely day.

I managed [to] complete the course; my dissertation was a few points short of [a] distinction mark, but [I had had a hard time completing it]! During that year, I applied for PhD [placements] and [was accepted] but [did not receive any] funding. I continued to apply for [placements] and funding for one more year, then gave up. I wouldn't be able to pay £10K a year for tuition fees.

B. General information about their situation

1. Language: how many languages do you speak and do you speak the language of the country you are living at the moment? Turkish is my native tongue. I'm fluent in English, so yes I do indeed speak the language of the country I live in. I even have a Scottish accent, specifically an Edinburgh accent, they say.

I also speak a bit of French. [I learned] some Finnish when I was [in Finland]; I can still count in Finnish for example. I love learning new languages and believe I am [good at doing so].

2. Have you ever lived abroad before? If yes, where and when and how was your experience in terms of adjusting?

I lived in Finland ... for four months, from January 2004 [to] May 2004. I found the weather very challenging [as well as] the dark morning(s). I quite liked their culture, it was all green and clean. People weren't very friendly until they [had had a lot to drink]. They kept physical contact to a minimum, even with their best buddies; they never hugged, never kissed – very different from Turkey. I didn't mind it so much; I value my personal space, too. I wasn't a fan [of the food] but it might just be [because I was a] student. I really liked the city, I still miss it. I did feel like home [once I had moved past] the homesickness stage. Now that I think about it, I didn't go out for over a month when I first went there, except [to] classes. I kept my possessions in my suitcases and I remember [doing so] giving [me] a strange [feeling of] comfort – like I [could] actually [leave] anytime I [wanted]. I [only really] settled in the room ... perhaps two months after [I had] been there. After that, it was home.

3. Where do you live at the moment?

I live in Edinburgh, [the] capital of Scotland, which is a part of the UK.

4. Is your current house near to where locals live or do you live in an international environment (like your neighbors)?

Some of my neighbors are not British but I wouldn't call it an international environment. It's purely due to high immigration to the UK. I live in a town, on the outskirts on the city – about 20 minutes on the bus to the [city] center. [It] still has [a] little town feel [and has a] good community.

5. Where do you work? What do you do?

I work at a charity called Age Scotland. I am the Individual Giving Fundraiser there, so I work as a part of the Fundraising team and my task is to raise money from individuals via appeal mailings,

phone campaigns, regular giving, events and fundraising in the community.

C. Adjustment Questions

6. How did you decide to move to another country and why did you take this decision?

I met Jamie, who's now my husband, in Aberystwyth. He was doing his Master's degree [as well]. [We] met on 3rd day of arrival [and] were together by the end of our first week there. By the time we submitted our dissertations in September 2007, it was clear that I couldn't secure funding for my PhD or find a job in the UK. I had to go back to Turkey.

We spent about six months [apart]. He came to visit me a couple of times [which cost] him a lot of money. Then I received an invitation for a funding interview at Aberystwyth, which led to a six-month visitor visa. I attended the interview, and then went right up to Edinburgh. In the meantime, Jamie, who [had been] living with his parents since September, found a flat for ... us and we moved in. I just wanted to be with him [and] had no idea what would happen once my visa [expired] and I [had] to go back to Turkey.

Thankfully, Jamie felt the same way and proposed [to me] a few months later. We went to Turkey to get married in June and I travelled back to [the] UK with my spouse visa in August. That was how I moved to another country.

Was it difficult? No, because I already knew [much] about the UK and British culture. I had been to Edinburgh before and I loved (absolutely loved!) the city. Plus, I knew Jamie would be there for me and so would his family.

When I was here on a visitor visa, I couldn't officially work so I volunteered at a local charity shop. I'm not sure if you are familiar [with charity shops] but these are the most "local" places you can possibly [work at]. Local [older] ladies visit every day, they don't always buy something but they come [to talk]. I started saying "Aye!" instead of "Yes". I made my first friends there ... local youngsters and older people, [who] are the typical volunteers.

The positive experience I had as a student and later as a visitor helped me in my decision to move to [the] UK.

7. What is your socio-economic status according to the average in the country you are living in at present? (for example, are you below or above the average according to what you are earning?)

[I earn the same as] any of my British counterparts. I found it difficult to get a job at first. One of the reasons may be that I didn't

... speak the language as fluently as I do now. But I wouldn't say it was the prevailing reason. Once I had some work experience as a volunteer, it was easy enough [to] find a job. I [received] an [employment] offer four months into my voluntary work. My husband, who is British and had previous work experience, found a job ... three months after [graduating]. His job was a temporary contract, whereas my offer was for a permanent role. When I received [the] offer, the charity I was volunteering with offered me a role as well [with the] same salary [and] better job spec.

I stayed in my previous role for almost two years. The sector average is 18 months. So again, my case is pretty typical.

We can afford eating out [or getting take-out] a couple of nights a week and still save some money. In economic terms, I think we're doing just fine (let's hope it continues!)

8. How Turkish do you feel? How much do you identify yourself with being Turkish? In which aspects of your life do you feel more Turkish?

I was born in Turkey [and] lived there [for] most of my life. I do like being from a different country; I like having an "interesting" name as the extremely polite Brits say. Most people think of [Turkey] as a holiday resort; I enjoy telling them how much snow we get in Ankara during winter. I [made a joke about] the fact that life stopped in Edinburgh last year because of three inches of snow!

So yes, one part of me feels very Turkish. I correct people, I like giving out information about it, I promote it as a travel destination, I [have] even shared recipes in the past (which, would you believe, somehow went all the way to the States!). We cook Turkish food frequently at home, my husband cooks perfect pilaf now (he used to boil rice when we first met!).

I like that he says "cok yasa" to me and we call each other "askim". So we do speak the language a bit in the house. However, I struggle when I have to speak Turkish for a long time ... I can't find the words I need as quickly.

On the other hand, I feel a complete stranger looking at how people react to news in Turkey or even the news themselves. I catch myself saying, "If this happened here..." I like living in Scotland. It's very pretty, historic and the English (especially Londoners) think that it is a land far far away – like Narnia. It's honestly not that much colder than any other parts.

I like the language, the way that they change it. I like the words they [have] inherited from [the Scottish] language. I like reading and talking about it too. I also like the people; they're more British than

they realize in terms of politeness, etc. With perhaps added friendliness...

In last year's census, I had to answer a similar question. I said that I felt both Turkish and Scottish but not so much British. Definitely Turkish the most ... but I'm happy to live here. [Many] things I see in Turkey really bothers me [and] I don't want to be a part of that. But then again, I bet many people living there feel the same!

9. How do you communicate with your friends, family in Turkey. How often do you talk to them?

I speak to my parents on the phone, often once a week. I speak to my brother ... when he is available. Sometimes on Facebook, sometimes on the phone...

Facebook is really the only way I communicate [with] my friends. I rarely call or text them. We don't send e-mails either. I don't often speak to my friends ... it depends if we [come] across [one another] on Facebook, often around my lunchtime. Caglar is one ... example – [sometimes] ... we talk every day [for weeks on end]!

10. Tell me your adjustment process in the beginning. Was it hard for you? What is more different? What was similar?

Because I [had] already spent a year in the UK for studying, I didn't find it very difficult. I was alone for ... most of the day when I first arrived on my visitor visa. That was tough! Nobody to talk to, nothing to do, no money to spend... I remember spending a lot of time on Facebook and MSN around that time.

Volunteering at a local charity shop was quite a shock, I suppose. It was just so "local", you know, so different from life at [university] where you hang out with people from [many] different countries. Jamie and his family helped a lot, I think. I never felt completely alone, they were already my family. Then, when I finally started volunteering at the charity, where I also had my first paid job, I made my own friends. I am [now] actually much more social than my husband. I make friends easily and make an effort to keep in touch.

I don't feel I answered the question fully here but please feel free to ask further [questions if need be].

11. Perception about the host country nationals (adjustment): how do you feel about the host country nationals? Do you have good friends who are host country nationals? Who are your best friends in your comfort zone? Are they host country nationals, Turkish or other foreigners? For example, among your friends who do you socialize with most of the time, how

many of them are host country nationals? Can you give an approximate percentage?

I like British people – always polite, making an effort to be politically correct all the time, they try and pronounce my name to the best of their ability. It is always said that they have a terrible sense of humor; I think [this is] not true! Or maybe I'm [better] adjusted...

All of my friends are ex-colleagues and a few from [when I did my] Master's. I'm close to a few ex-colleagues [and share many things with them]. Still, I'd say my best friends are those I made when I was at high school or [university] ... they are all in Turkey.

My friends [in the UK] are all host county nationals. I am friendly with a couple of Polish colleagues/ex-colleagues as well. I haven't made any Turkish friends here.

Percentage-wise: I [socialize] with country nationals 100% of the time ... except when one of my friends from Ankara came to study here last year. I did spend quite some time with him. Still, I think I only spent about the same time [with him] I would spend with any of my British friends.

12. Perception about the country in general (adjustment)

*** How well are you adjusted to the climate?**

I've been here for almost five years now, including my time in Aberystwyth. I am [used] to the weather. It still annoys me that there is [essentially] no summer. I don't think I complain any more than a British person though; it's a huge part of British culture, complaining about [the] weather.

*** How well are you adjusted to the shopping?**

No problems there. I miss the Turkish "pazar" experience with fresh [vegetables] and fruit. [Regarding] clothes shopping, I actually like it here better ... [there are] more choices, petite clothing options and size six [clothing] (continental 34) – such bliss! Shops always have a clear returns policy, so you don't have to try anything at the shop ... it's a very common practice to buy something, consider if you like it or not for about a fortnight and if you decide against it, just give it back – fantastic.

I also like the fact that you can choose your own painkillers at the pharmacy and choose the price you can afford. I know they're against shopping style pharmacies in Turkey but I think they are just awesome.

I would never haggle [in the UK] but [I] like that I have that quality in me ... when I go across to Turkey I know how to haggle.

*** How well are you adjusted to the food?**

I miss fresh fruit and [vegetables] – at least the quality you [can] get at cheap prices in Turkey. I eat less fruit – no peaches, apricots or plums for example, they all taste so off here!

I cook Turkish food [and] use [vegetables] like aubergine, which is not a very British thing at all. [The] British are not renowned for their amazing cuisine ... but [I] like [it nevertheless]. I like a full cooked breakfast if I'm eating out, for example. I eat Scottish food like haggis as well [and] I like a bit of whiskey in some desserts. British people are very open to other cuisines [such as] Indian, Thai, Chinese, Italian [and] Spanish. [As such], not many people in Britain actually eat "British" [food] that often and I guess I'm ... one of them!

*** How well are you adjusted to the transportation?**

I hate travelling by coach ... [I have done] it a few times [and] never again! It smells, they don't assign you seats, [there is] no drink [and] snack service (my husband loves that they [provide] a bit of cake and coffee on coach journeys in Turkey). [The] train, not so bad ... it's busy and really not as good as you would think. Pretty pricey too (especially going down to London)!

In Edinburgh, [travelling] is easy ... the buses are on time, [which is] much better than Ankara/Izmir. I love that people say "hi" and "thanks" to the driver, just that bit of human contact makes a difference. I feel odd [now] in Turkey to get off the bus and not say "cheers" to the driver. At first though, I thought it was a bit weird. Surely, the bus driver does whatever he's paid to do, why does he deserve [a 'thank you'], I used to think. Now I see [how I have adopted] British manners ... you can never say "thanks" enough... My family still thinks it's a bit strange that my husband says thanks to absolutely everything.

*** How well are you adjusted to the local cultural forms (values)?**

I don't really come from a rural background; I grew up in big cities [and was] raised as a fairly liberal girl. I don't think I had to adjust [to] the local cultural values that much.

[I am] not sure if I can answer this question further without more [of an] explanation [of] what kind of "values" we're talking about.

*** How much are you adjusted to the cost of living?**

Pretty well; it's much easier when you earn [a salary]. Obviously, your income [dictates your] spending, so it's not a problem that you pay [a lot] at shops.

*** How well are you adjusted to the entertainment?**

I still find it very strange that they don't have intervals in [the] cinema! This is one thing I just [cannot] get over... How could you

sit through a three-hour film and not need the loo, or a cigarette break (I remember those only too well from when I smoked)? When I was at Aberystwyth, I was amazed at the girls who [went] out for clubbing with practically nothing on but a little dress in the middle of winter. Now I see that it is common [everywhere] in Britain. [Just] another thing I find weird about entertainment here. Apart from [these examples], I'm not sure what is different from Turkey, to be honest.

*** How well are you adjusted to the healthcare system?**

I've not experienced the Turkish health care system that much. Our [university] had its own health center and I only [ever] needed that. Before that, I often went to private clinics nearby my home and had very little experience of hospital queues, etc.

In the UK, I [had] used the NHS surgeries a few times when I was at Aberystwyth, so I knew what to expect when I moved to Edinburgh. It's easy to use [and] doctors are friendly. They tend to avoid giving you medication, unless they think you really need it, which is [different from] what they do in Turkey – antibiotics for every damn thing!

Once, when I was at Aberystwyth, I have no idea why but I [I had issues with my stomach which] was very painful [and the symptoms] didn't go away for days. I went to see a doctor [and] all he suggested was to eat nothing for 12 hours and drink only water. I did [this and] it didn't help. I went to see another doctor a couple of days later [and] she suggested the same!

The NHS also provides a phone service and it has a great online site where you can read about illnesses and their symptoms, etc. I like it!

13. Adjustment

*** Tell me about a good experience and a bad experience with host country nationals. How did you feel after these experiences?**

I spend all my days, every day around [host] country nationals and I really don't think of myself as being different from them. [It's hard] to think [of] a bad experience with British people ... [which is also the case] for a "good" one. All [my] encounters are a part of my daily life now [and the 'bad' and the 'good'] are [all] normal.

Sorry I couldn't help you on this. I did spend some time thinking but [could not come up with any] examples!

14. Who are your best friends? Who do you socialize with most of the time? Who do you trust?

Already answered this in Q11.

15. Your performance at work – how do you think this [has been] affected by your adjustment ups and downs?

As I said in Q7, my career so far [has] followed a very typical pattern. I'm not sure my performance is affected by adjustment ups and downs... I think I had [experienced] all the ups and downs when I was unemployed, probably before then, actually. Even when I was doing my Master's, adjusting to the new education system, which was much more challenging than that of Bilkent, caused ups and downs in my career. I don't remember being so homesick that it affected my performance. Since my experience in Finland, I'm just fine being away from Turkey.

16. Are you planning to go back to Turkey? If so, please explain why.

My husband used to be very keen to move to Turkey [but] not so much anymore. I told him all about the working hours, no annual leave in the first year, etc. Also, it would be a nightmare to find jobs for us. My profession is practically non-existent in Turkey! [Also], Jamie can speak [very] little Turkish.

I think we would consider [it] but not for another ... few years. Our careers are very important right now and I can't bear to go back to Turkey and work in a job that I absolutely hate. Equally, it seems as though the most fitting job for Jamie [in Turkey] would be to teach English and I don't want to force him to that just because he happens to be a native speaker.

Also, [in terms of] the political scene in Turkey, [the situation] is incredibly disturbing. Racism is at [an] all-time high and people are not even bothered about it! Reading [about Turkish events] on news makes my blood boil; I can't possibly live there and pretend it's all OK.

So ... the answer is yes we would [potentially move to Turkey] but not before things are a bit better. Maybe once Turkey joins the EU?!