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DETERMINANTS OF SUCCESS IN INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS FOR QUEBEC EXPATRIATES AND THEIR SPOUSES

Carolle Turcotte

A Thesis
In
The Faculty
of
Commerce and Administration

Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements for the Degree of Master of Science in Administration at Concordia University Montreal, Quebec, Canada

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ABSTRACT

Determinants of Success in International Assignments for Quebec Expatriates and their Spouses.

Carolle Turcotte

Barriers across the world continue to dissolve. In a large context such as this one, firms must be able to compete internationally if they are to survive. Studies on factors that may influence the success of employees sent abroad are therefore of the utmost importance. Previous research indicates that cross-cultural training, social support and culture novelty play a significant role in success or failure overseas.

The current research includes two studies. The first study, conducted with 22 business organizations in Quebec who send employees overseas, explores the cross-cultural training practices of these firms. The second study, conducted with 104 expatriates and 74 spouses currently on assignment abroad, assesses the impact of cross-cultural training, social support, and culture novelty on expatriates' and spouses' adjustment, satisfaction and stress. Their intention to stay and willingness to return overseas is also examined. Finally, the spouse's contribution to outcomes overseas for the expatriate is also appraised.

Results from the first study indicate that less than 50% of the firms offer cross-cultural training to expatriates and spouses. These firms prefer pre-departure cross-cultural training that provides either basic information or addresses "affective" issues. In most cases, training does not differ depending on the position of the expatriate, but methods used may differ
depending on the country of assignment.

Results from the second study indicate that the more rigorous training has a direct positive impact on the expatriate satisfaction, which in turn affects their intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. A weak relationship was observed between culture novelty and expatriate willingness to return overseas. Culture novelty was also found to affect the expatriates' and the spouses' adjustment, and spouse satisfaction. Social support was found to affect the expatriates' and the spouses' adjustment and willingness to return overseas, as well as spouse satisfaction and expatriate intention to stay overseas. Moreover, satisfaction overseas has a positive impact on the expatriates' and the spouses' intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Intention to stay is also influenced by adjustment overseas. Finally, outcomes overseas for expatriates and for spouses are closely related.
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I share the outcomes with all of you.
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INTRODUCTION

Every year, thousands of managers from all over the world are assigned to conduct business overseas (hereafter referred to as expatriates). However, many expatriates do not stay for the intended duration of their assignments or are not effective abroad.

Appointing expatriates means selecting employees from the home country who often have minimal knowledge of the culture, the language and the political system. However, strategically the decision to appoint expatriates has important advantages. In addition to contributing to the home country’s managerial and technical development, it insures identification with the global company strategy and guarantees corporate control over the local subsidiaries. It also provides an opportunity to share newly acquired expertise with personnel at the head office or in other subsidiaries (Kobrin, 1988). It must be noted, however, that the cost of maintaining expatriates abroad is high. In the mid-1990s, the cost for an American with a base salary of US $100,000 and a family of two was US $220,370 in Tokyo; US $180,312 in Singapore; US $157,762 in Beijing; and, US $138,469 in Paris (Birdseye & Hill, 1995). The decision to select expatriates can also result in decreased management effectiveness and conflicts with employees abroad if expatriates fail.

Failure overseas is defined as the premature return or the inability of the expatriate to achieve business objectives (Galperin & Lituchy, 1995). This research will address the problem of premature return, also referred to as internal turnover in the literature (Naumann, 1992). In
fact, research on factors affecting the expatriate's intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration (hereafter referred to as intention to stay) is of utmost importance to firms sending employees overseas. Of equal importance to these firms is research on factors affecting the expatriate's willingness to accept another assignment overseas (hereafter referred to as willingness to return overseas). Indeed, according to Leclair (1996) willingness to go overseas is one of the two most important criteria used by Canadian firms to select employees for overseas assignments.

Intention to stay and willingness to return overseas can actually be predicted by adjustment - to the job and to the host country, satisfaction and a low level of stress. The purpose of this study is to assess the impact of adjustment, satisfaction and stress on intention to stay and willingness to return overseas for expatriates and their spouses. Furthermore, the effects of cross-cultural training, cultural novelty, and social support on adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are examined. The role of the spouse on outcomes for expatriates is also assessed.

In the next chapter, problems associated with the assignment overseas on a temporary basis of home country employees and factors found to affect outcomes overseas are reviewed.
CHAPTER 1: ASSIGNMENTS OVERSEAS - OUTCOMES AND ANTECEDENTS

In this section, the rate, cost and reasons for failure overseas are examined. The issues of intention to stay and willingness to return are discussed. Then, factors that can affect intention to stay and willingness to return are presented.

1.1 Rate and cost of failure overseas

Expatriates who fail in their assignment are often repatriated before the end of the assignment. This is referred to as “recall”. In a study of 144 multinational firms, Tung (1982) reported that only 3% of West European firms and 14% of Japanese firms, compared to 76% of US firms, had a recall rate of more than 10%. Tung’s study suggests that European and Japanese firms have experienced success overseas, while American firms have had disappointing experiences. Researchers have estimated the failure rate of American overseas assignments at 20% to 50% (Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Tung, 1981). A more recent study confirms that when compared to German firms, US firms still have problems retaining employees in overseas assignments (Nicholson, Stepina, & Hockwarter, 1990). On a related topic, Kealey (1988) reported that more than 80% of Canadian technical advisors working in overseas development projects were unsuccessful in transferring knowledge to members of the host country (hereafter referred to as host country nationals). However, in a study with nine Canadian companies sending employees abroad, Leclair (1996) reported a recall rate of 5% (or less) for eight companies, and a recall rate of 10% for the ninth firm.
The costs resulting from expatriates who fail in their assignments are significant. While direct financial costs have not been assessed for Canada, the average for the United States is between US $50,000 and US $200,000 per expatriate per year (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Additionally, the indirect costs associated with expatriate turnover are estimated to be even greater (Harvey, 1985). These indirect costs include reduced productivity and efficiencies, lost sales and market shares, unstable corporate image and tarnished corporate reputation.

1.2 Reasons for failure overseas

In the United States, some reasons for an expatriate’s failure to function effectively in a foreign environment were: (1) the inability of the spouse or the expatriate to adjust to a different physical or cultural environment; (2) other family-related problems; (3) problems associated with the attitude of the expatriate; and, (4) the lack of motivation to work overseas (Tung, 1982). In Canada, family problems, adaptation problems, and attitude problems were among the most often mentioned reasons for failure, along with lack of support from the home or the host country, and unrealistic expectations (Leclair, 1996).

As mentioned above, failure overseas can be caused by negative affective responses to the assignment, e.g., problems in adjusting to the new setting, feelings of uneasiness, and dissatisfaction with the assignment because of unmet expectations. In the next section, these problems are reviewed. First, the issues of intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are covered. Then, the three types of negative affective responses of interest in this research
are discussed. Problems associated with adjustment overseas are presented, followed by problems associated with satisfaction and problems associated with stress overseas.

1.3 Outcomes overseas

1.3.1 Intention to stay overseas

In the international literature, staying in the assignment for less time than its expected duration is referred to as internal turnover (Naumann, 1992). The majority of US multinational corporations suffer from an abnormally high turnover rate among expatriate managers, particularly when compared to foreign-based multinational corporations and domestic operations (Naumann, 1992). The internal turnover rate commonly falls in the 20% to 50% range (Black, 1988; Black and Stephens, 1989). Desatnick and Bennett (1978) and Lanier (1979) suggest that turnover may be as high as 70% for firms with expatriates in less developed countries.

The cross-cultural literature on internal turnover is based on the extensive literature on domestic turnover (Naumann, 1992). Empirical and conceptual studies on domestic turnover have consistently found that job factors such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction were negatively related to intention to leave and that intention to leave was the strongest predictor of actual turnover (Lee & Mowday, 1987).
Intention to stay in the current overseas assignment is defined as "not discussing the possibility of returning in the home country sooner than planned" and "doing just about anything to stay in the assignment for its expected duration".

1.3.2 Willingness to return overseas

It is possible that individuals remain overseas for the duration of the assignment due to factors such as not having the possibility to return early because they would lose their job, or lose opportunities for advancement in the company. Although these persons may remain in the country for the expected duration of the assignment, the probability that they would accept another overseas assignment is low. This can cause problems for companies, who may lose potentially interesting candidates for other assignments. Moreover, research has demonstrated that when selecting candidates for overseas assignments, companies use previous international experience or willingness to go overseas as criteria for selection (Leclair, 1996; Mendenhall et al., 1987; Moran, Stahl & Boyer, 1987). The Canadian Guide to Working and Leaving Overseas (1995) reports that many companies keep a "pool" of expatriates from which they select candidates for future assignments. Every time an expatriate goes through a bad experience and decides not to accept another overseas assignment, the pool gets smaller, thus causing selection problems in the future.

Willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date, with the exception of a small pilot study carried out on a group of 67 expatriates and their spouses in the Limerick region
of Ireland (Moore & Punnett, 1994). They found that satisfaction with the employment situation was positively related to willingness to go on another assignment.

1.3.3 Adjustment overseas

Interactions between different cultures are increasing as multinational operations expand. Overseas job assignments open the door to such interactions. Cross-cultural studies have found that these interactions can suffer due to the inability of the expatriate, or the spouse accompanying the expatriate, to adjust to the new culture (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Black & Stephens, 1989; Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992).

Generally, adjustment has been defined as the degree of psychological comfort as well as the familiarity of an individual with the new culture and assignment (Black, 1988; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985).

Much of the theoretical foundation for cross-cultural adjustment is based on Oberg's (1960) work on culture shock. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) and Torbiorn (1982) have also made important contributions. They suggest that when people enter a new culture, over time they discover that certain behaviours, acceptable at home, are offensive in the host country. The individual must then cope with increased uncertainty about what to do, and how to interpret what is happening. The basis of cross-cultural adjustment is to reduce that uncertainty by learning which behaviours are appropriate and which are not in the new culture. Factors that
will reduce this uncertainty are said to facilitate adjustment, while factors that increase this uncertainty are said to inhibit adjustment.

Building on this logic, theorists have argued that individuals can reduce uncertainty by making anticipatory adjustments before entering a new culture (Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). These adjustments can be facilitated by previous experience in the host country, previous international experience, and pre-departure cross-cultural training. (Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Mendenhall, 1989, 1990).

Following their arrival in the host country, the expatriate and the spouse will make further adjustments. Evidence in cross-cultural literature suggests that adjustment occurs over time. The adjustment process has been described as a four-phase process that follows a U-shaped curve pattern (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). The initial phase, the “honeymoon” phase, is at the top of the U curve and usually lasts the first two months. In this phase, the individual is excited by the discovery of a new culture. Black and Mendenhall (1991) argue that during the first few weeks in the new culture, individuals have a high probability of exhibiting inappropriate behaviours given that they react to elements according to encoded patterns of previous success in their home country. However, because they have just arrived, the expatriates will not perceive dissimilarity between host country models and the models familiar to them during the honeymoon stage. In addition, because they are unable to interpret the cues, they will not perceive the negative feedback given to them.
The second phase is referred to as the disillusionment phase or “culture shock” (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). In this phase, the expatriate and the spouse are frustrated with their inability to cope with uninterpretable cues on a day-to-day basis. Culture shock can be defined as the state of not knowing how to behave appropriately in the new culture and being overwhelmed by the anxiety this creates. According to Black and Mendenhall (1991), culture shock happens when individuals become aware of a high level of negative feedback which implies that they are not exhibiting appropriate behaviours. Because they have very few models to refer to, they have no way of knowing what behaviours are appropriate. The greater the inappropriateness of the behaviours and the greater the scarcity of appropriate models, the more severe the culture shock stage.

The third phase, the “adjustment” stage, is characterized by a gradual adaptation to the new culture and the learning of appropriate behaviours according to the norms of the host country (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). This phase usually appears during the fifth month of the assignment. According to Black and Mendenhall (1991), in the adjustment phase, individuals have more opportunities to observe models in relevant situations, to focus their attention on the modelled appropriate behaviour and retain it. They will be motivated to repeat this behaviour because it increases the positive consequences and/or decreases the negative ones.

During the last phase, the ascending part of the U-curve, individuals begin to “master” behaviours in the foreign culture and are said to be adjusted to the new culture (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). According to Black and Mendenhall (1991), in the final stage, individuals
know and can appropriately perform the necessary behaviours allowing them to function effectively, free of the anxieties brought on by culture differences. This suggests that individuals rely more on associations between behaviours and outcomes, and less on outside models. Research suggests that expatriates become effective only during the fourth phase of adjustment. Therefore, the earlier this stage occurs, the sooner expatriates become effective (Adler, 1994).

Adjustment has been operationalized differently in various studies. While early studies on cross-cultural adjustment have conceptualized adjustment as a unitary construct (Oberg 1960, Torbiorn, 1982), recent research suggests that cross-cultural adjustment is a multifaceted construct (Black 1988, Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Stephens 1989). Included in this multifaceted construct are adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and adjustment to the general environment for expatriates. Research shows that it is more difficult to adjust to the culture and to interacting with host country nationals than to adjust to the job (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989).

For spouses, this multifaceted construct includes the adjustment to interacting with host country nationals as well as the adjustment to the general foreign environment.

Adjustment overseas can affect intention to stay. Black and Stephens (1989) found that expatriate general and interaction adjustment was positively related to expatriate intention to stay. Adjustment to work can also affect intention to stay. Indeed, the theory argues that
individuals generally want to reduce sources of negative affective responses and maintain positive responses (Black & Stephens, 1989). If the expatriate does not adjust to the job, he/she will not want to remain overseas.

The effect of adjustment on willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date. However, adjustment might also affect willingness to return overseas, as the individual might not want to repeat an experience perceived as discomfiting.

A second factor that can affect intention to stay or willingness to return overseas is satisfaction. Problems associated with satisfaction are reviewed below.

1.3.4 Satisfaction overseas

The extent to which people are satisfied with their job and the influence of satisfaction on retention has long been of interest in management research. This is also true in the international literature. Research has demonstrated a negative relationship between satisfaction and turnover (Steers & Mowday, 1981).

Satisfaction has not been conceptualized in a consistent manner in the domestic and international literature. Some researchers have chosen to look at life satisfaction (Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Kealey, 1988). Others have looked at job satisfaction and conceptualized it in a variety of ways such as intrinsic, extrinsic and total satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1990a;
Dunbar, 1992; Naumann, 1992). Finally, some researchers have looked into general satisfaction (Black & Gregersen, 1990a; Camman et al., 1983; Quinn & Staines, 1979; Rehany, 1994). In the current study, satisfaction is defined as general enjoyment of the assignment, met expectations, the feeling of having made the right decision, and the possibility that he/she would recommend it to a friend, without referring to any specific facet of the job (Quinn & Staines, 1979).

Basing their research on Steers and Mowday’s (1981) work, Black and Gregersen (1990a) proposed that general satisfaction as well as work satisfaction are related to intention to leave (or conversely to stay), as the nonwork context plays an equally important part in the expatriate’s decision to remain or not in the assignment. They found that work satisfaction and general satisfaction were significantly related to intention to leave early, general satisfaction being the strongest predictor.

Satisfaction overseas can also affect willingness to return. Because satisfaction is also an affective response (Black & Gregersen, 1990a), the individual might not want to repeat an experience perceived as dissatisfying. Moore and Punnett (1994) found that satisfaction with the employment situation was positively related to willingness to go on another assignment.

Another dimension that affects expatriates overseas is stress. The literature on stress is reviewed below.
1.3.5 Stress overseas

Factors such as significant changes in the cultural environment and difficulties in adjusting to the new country can be a source of stress overseas. Severe change in cultural environment is considered by many social scientists as a stressor (Spradley & Philips, 1972). In an unfamiliar cultural environment, there are new stimuli, as well as familiar stimuli that take on an entirely new significance. There are differences in language, personal space concepts, foods, time schedules, and affective responses (Walton, 1990). Expatriates face many stress-causing changes, such as being confronted with conflicting perceptions and values, and foreign situations that are neither comprehensible nor ethically “correct” (Adler, 1986). In addition, leaving home involves separation, breaks in ties with relatives and friends, and the loss of sociocultural supports (Werkman, 1980). Furthermore, in addition to the personal adaptations to a new setting, as well as those experienced by immediate family members, the expatriate is often affected by decisions made by the head office (Torbiorn, 1982).

Research by Parker and DeCotiis (1983) shows support for the multidimensionality of the stress concept. They define stress as “a particular individual’s awareness or feeling of personal dysfunction as a result of perceived conditions or happenings in the work setting” (1983, p.161), and identify two distinct dimensions of stress: time stress and anxiety. Time stress is closely associated with feelings of being under substantial time pressure, while anxiety is more closely associated with feelings of apprehension and uneasiness.
Stress can also be viewed as a measure of affective responses. In the same manner that adjustment and satisfaction can influence an individual’s intention to stay, so would feelings of being under substantial time pressure (i.e., time stress), or feelings of apprehension and uneasiness (i.e., anxiety). If an individual is experiencing this type of negative affective response, leaving would be an effective means of eliminating its source. The organizational literature suggests that job stress contributes to organizational problems such as low productivity and turnover (Parker and DeCotiis, 1983). Adler (1986) discusses mistrust, miscommunication, and stress in the intercultural setting as causing decreased efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity. Hammer (1987) identifies “the ability to manage psychological stress” as one of three important behaviour skills that North American expatriates perceive as facilitating their intercultural effectiveness. Research indicates that the ability to deal with stress is important to expatriate adjustment (Hammer, Gudykunst & Wiseman, 1978; Hawes & Kealey, 1981).

The effect of stress on willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date. However, stress can also affect willingness to return overseas, as the individual might not want to repeat an experience perceived as stressful.

Based on the above, the current paper hypothesizes that:

\[ H1 \quad \text{Expatriate adjustment and satisfaction will be:} \]

\[ (a) \text{ positively related to expatriate intention to stay; and,} \]

\[ (b) \text{ positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas,} \]
while expatriate stress will be:

(c) negatively related to expatriate intention to stay; and,
(d) negatively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.

1.4 Antecedents that can affect adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas

Many antecedents have been known or suggested to affect adjustment, satisfaction and stress overseas. In this section, the antecedents of interest in the current research are examined. The literature on cross-cultural training, culture novelty, and social support is reviewed.

1.4.1 Cross-cultural training

Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) summarized research on international adjustment. They identified five factors contributing to cross-cultural adjustment: pre-departure training, previous overseas experience, organizational selection mechanisms, individual skills and non-work factors such as culture novelty and family adjustment. Tung (1982) identified similar common denominators in the successful performance overseas among European and Japanese multinationals: the use of more rigorous training programs to prepare candidates for the overseas assignments and the overall qualifications of the candidates. Sixty-nine percent of the Western European firms and 57% of the Japanese firms surveyed by Tung (1982) supported training programs for their expatriates, while only 32% of the US firms offered
training to their expatriates. Other studies report that up to 70% of US expatriates and 90% of expatriate families are sent abroad without any cross-cultural training (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989). A study by Rehany (1994) also similarly suggests that Canadian organizations offer their expatriates very little cross-cultural training.

1.4.1.1 Cross-cultural training approaches

There have been many attempts to group the various training techniques used in cross-cultural training under specific approaches. The first comprehensive attempt was made by Downs in 1969. He described four approaches to cross-cultural training: intellectual model, culture awareness, self-awareness and area simulation. This typology was refined over the years. Brislin, Landis and Brandt (1983) developed what seems to be the most comprehensive typology to date, which consists of six basic approaches to cross-cultural training: information training, attribution training, awareness-sensitivity training, cognitive-behaviour modification, experiential learning and interaction. Because it is the most complete to date, this typology for classifying training techniques is used below to describe the various training approaches. A number of the best known techniques related to each approach are also described.

1.4.1.1.1 Information or fact-oriented training

Also referred to as the “intellectual”, “classroom” or “university” approach, the information training approach focuses on information regarding the people and their culture, with a special
emphasis on customs, values and social institutions (Brislin, Landis & Brandt, 1983). Under this relatively traditional approach, trainees are presented with information about the host country. The content covers issues such as history, geography, economy, climate, and quality of life issues such as housing, schooling, and medical facilities. Differences in everyday behaviour, in decision-making styles (who makes decisions, who reviews alternatives, how long it takes to process input, contribution from political figures), and typical experiences people face on overseas assignments are also explored.

This intellectual model is predicated on the belief that cognitive understanding is essential for effective performance abroad (Brislin, et al., 1983). The underlying rationale is that increased knowledge and an understanding of a culture’s people, customs, institutions and values will result in an increase of the trainee’s empathy towards members of the country.

Increased empathy leads to changes in trainee behaviour which, in turn, leads to adjustment. The information approach stresses cognitive goals, culture specific content and traditional education (“intellectual”) processes (Brislin, et al., 1983). Examples of training techniques under this approach include lectures, group discussion, video tapes and reading materials.

Major critiques of this method contend that the facts presented during the training do not add up to a meaningful whole. Opponents stress the lack of congruence between the individual’s living experience abroad and the classroom environment (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985). However, Grove and Torbiorn (1985) contend that the fact-oriented training is a necessary
beginning, since much can be told and demonstrated about characteristic behaviours of one group that may be misinterpreted by the other group.

1.4.1.1.2 Attribution training

Attribution training helps the trainee learn to explain events and behaviours from the perspective of host country nationals (Brislin, et al., 1983). The objective is for trainees to internalize values and standards of the host culture so that their attributions will become increasingly similar ("isomorphic") to those of their hosts. Individual thought processes are addressed in this approach: attribution processes, stereotypes, and imposition of one's preexisting point of view. Attribution training aims at freeing trainees from their ethnocentrism by focusing on specific discrepancies between the attributions made by trainees and host country nationals. Based on the intellectual approach, attribution training shares its goals (Brislin, et al., 1983). It too pursues goals in the cognitive domain. However, this approach also stresses affective outcomes. Although it focuses mainly on specific cultures, attempts have been made to make it culture-general (skills and knowledge that help move from culture to culture) as well as culture-specific (skills and knowledge aimed at helping achieving effectiveness in country X). Lectures or written exercises are used most of the time.
The culture assimilator is the most familiar technique to be used in this approach. The culture assimilator consists of a series of 75-100 episodes, labelled as problematic situations, describing an interaction between a visitor and a host country national. Incidents can focus on behaviours, ideas, perceptions and attitudes (Brislin, et al., 1983). Once the trainee has read the episode, four different interpretations are examined. If the trainee makes the choice that best explains the interaction, reinforcement is given. If a mistake is made, an explanation is given of why the choice is wrong, and the trainee is asked to restudy the episode and make another selection. Explanations can focus on behaviours, perceptions, cognitions and attitudes as well as on differences in attributions, expectations and norms between members of a target culture and members of one’s own culture.

Opponents of this technique argue that it mirrors some of the limitations of the university model. If the trainee has only learned specific bits of data and generalizations about a culture, his everyday experience in that culture will quickly undermine a major portion of the content knowledge he has received. (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985). However, Grove and Torbiorn (1985) suggest that if the goal of training is to enable trainees to tolerate both focused and pervasive ambiguity, the culture assimilator should be considered a privileged instrument. Indeed, it helps trainees become less disturbed by ambiguity in their mental frame of reference, since it helps the newcomer attribute his behavioural inadequacies to situational factors present in an unfamiliar cultural context rather than to supposed personal deficiencies.
1.4.1.1.3 Awareness - sensitivity training

Taking its roots in the philosophy of cultural relativism, awareness-sensitivity training introduces trainees to the concept of culture and the nature of cultural differences (Brislin, et al., 1983). It focuses on either cultural-awareness or self-awareness. Cultural awareness is described as sensitivity to the cultural factors that influence both parties in human interaction, and self-awareness as the insight into the impact of one’s cultural conditioning which results in better adjustment outside one’s culture. Each of these two specific focuses are explained in more details below.

Cultural awareness. Designed to provide the trainees with culture-general information, culture awareness focuses not on the individual but on cultural influence in a general sense (Brislin, et al., 1983). Thus, the major assumption underlined in this approach is that trainees must understand the cultural system in order to interact effectively with the individuals. By studying behaviours and values that are common to both countries, trainers using this approach acquaint trainees with basic ideas about cross-cultural relations. Their goal is to help trainees identify intercultural communication problems in terms of their own culture-shaped responses, and not merely in terms of the other person’s shortcomings. Emphasis is on cultural insight, with individual awareness an expected by-product.
Self-awareness. The self-awareness approach assumes that the trainee’s understanding of him/herself will lead to a greater ability to adjust to another culture (Brislin, et al., 1983). Here, the underlying assumption is that the individual who understands him/herself better will understand his/her culture better and will, consequently, be more effective abroad. Emphasis is on the individual self, with cultural general understanding an expected by-product. Trainees examine their own feelings, emotions, values and personality traits. They also study their unconscious responses to unstructured activities designed to encourage change in the individual’s self-perception, attitudes and behaviours and then relate them to their potential experiences in another culture.

Developed as an alternative to the university model, which failed to prepare trainees adequately for living and working effectively in the new cultural setting, the purpose of sensitivity training is to promote personal growth rather than the acquisition of information (Brislin, et al., 1983). This approach allows candidates to explore their own interpersonal styles and their underlying values and beliefs. It is expected that increased awareness will expand the individual’s acceptance of other cultures, norms and values. Increased sensitivity to individual differences should result in the acceptance of cultural differences and should improve effective communication, thus increasing behavioural flexibility. This approach stresses cognitive and affective goals, is generally culture-general although it could sometimes be culture-specific, and focuses almost entirely on experiential, participative learning. Examples of training techniques in the awareness-sensitivity approach would be
communication workshops and T-groups.

The major critique of this approach is that it may prompt candidates to adopt values and norms of openness and confrontation that are not universal. In particular, when focusing on self-awareness, this approach can be excessively confrontational and stressful. It can create such resistance and frustration among the trainees that learning is inhibited (Hoopes, 1979). Proponents of this approach argue that it provides an opportunity for internalization, self-understanding and openness (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985).

1.4.1.1.4 Cognitive-behaviour modification

The cognitive-behaviour modification approach focuses on teaching trainees specific behaviours that are used in the host culture (Brislin, et al., 1983). The major assumption is that if the trainees learn the skills necessary to behave appropriately in another culture, they will be able to function more effectively. Three social learning principles are incorporated in the process. First, appropriate behaviours that are used by people in the host culture are modelled by the trainers. The models provide insight into stimulus cues which can then be learned by the trainees. Second, the training takes place in simulated host culture environments. Third, trainees are confronted with situations likely to be encountered in the host culture, thus reducing anxiety and fear.
This approach applies certain principles of learning to the specific problems of cross-cultural adjustment. It prepares the trainee for the specific cultural behaviours and expectations of the host country (Brislin, et al., 1983). The aim is to teach persons from one culture to behave in ways that are appropriate in another culture, and to help them identify situations in which they can reproduce appropriate behaviours in their country. Cognitive-behaviour is based on the belief that specific behaviours can be modelled and imitated, and that attitudes will then change and be projected to a larger field of associated behaviours. As indicated by its name, this approach stresses cognitive and behavioural goals. It is culture-specific in content. An example of a training technique used in this approach is role modelling.

The major critique of this approach is that because the majority of potential trainees are unfamiliar with the host culture, they can only reproduce the behaviours learned, but cannot necessarily identify other inappropriate behaviours. Another important critique is that the demands on trainers are high with respect to specific knowledge about different countries and ready access to that knowledge. Proponents of this approach contend that it may be useful if it assists the trainee by focusing his attention on certain appropriate, agreeable, and well practised activities that can be adapted to the new environment (Grove & Torbiorn, 1985).

1.4.1.1.5 Experiential learning - Area training

Developed in response to limitations in the intellectual model, the aim of the experiential learning approach is to help trainees learn through actual experience. Trainees are involved
emotionally and physically, as well as intellectually (Brislin, et al., 1983). This approach exposes the trainee to the way of life in another culture by having him/her actively experience that culture through field trips or functional simulations which closely duplicate the actual overseas site and assignment. By deriving attitudes and skills from their experiences, trainees are expected to develop new behaviours and approaches to problem solving which will increase their effectiveness while abroad.

Learner centred, this approach provides opportunities to: (1) engage in activity (experience); (2) review this activity critically (sharing of cognitive and affective reactions, comparing, contrasting, reflecting); (3) abstract some useful insight from the analysis (generalization, drawing conclusions, identifying general principles); and, (4) apply the result in a practical situation (application, planning more effective post-workshop behaviour, action plan, identification of other learning needs) (Brislin, et al., 1983).

This training model emphasizes affective and behavioural goals, culture-general as well as culture-specific content, and experiential processes. Training techniques in this approach vary in intensity. From the most intense to the least intense are: cultural immersion, field trip, role playing, and case study.

According to Grove and Torbiorn (1985), experiential learning is most promising, for its emphasis on learning through actual experience carries the greatest potential for perfecting and/or developing needed skills. However, critics say that some training techniques used in
this approach (like cultural immersion and field trip) are too expensive, and that this method has limits in its contribution to the trainees' understanding of the specific phenomena in question (trainees may feel that they have learned something valid, but they may not necessarily have learned something that will aid effective interaction) (Grove & Torbion (1985). Moreover, Elms (1972) suggests that role plays must be emotional to be effective. If the role plays are treated in a trivial manner, no benefits are derived from them.

1.4.1.1.6 The interaction approach

The interaction approach assumes that actual interaction between trainees and host country nationals is an effective way of preparing trainees to live and work abroad. This type of training involves structured or unstructured interactions between the trainees and host country nationals and/or experienced expatriates (Brislin, et al., 1983). The objective is for the trainees to feel more comfortable with the host country nationals, and to learn details about life in the host country. This approach stresses cognitive and affective goals, and is culture-specific in content. Meeting former expatriates or host country nationals is an example of training techniques used in this approach.

Grove and Torbion (1985) suggest that interactional learning may be useful, but only to the extent that the interactions involve guided learning and practice of applicable behaviours. In other words, interactions in itself would not be sufficient.
The training approaches described above vary in their degree of rigour. Rehany (1994) suggests that rigour might be important to assess when studying the impact of cross-cultural training on outcomes overseas. The literature on rigour of cross-cultural training is reviewed below.

1.4.1.2 Rigour of cross-cultural training

Rigour of training can be defined as the degree of cognitive involvement of the learner and the effort made by the trainer and the learner in order for the trainee to learn the required concepts (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Few attempts have been made so far to consider cross-cultural training in terms of rigour. Most studies conducted to date compare training methods one to the other, or to no training at all. Brislin, Landis and Brandt’s (1983) typology did not include an assessment of the rigour of each method. Tung (1982) presented a contingency framework for choosing an appropriate cross-cultural training method and its level of rigour. While her framework specified criteria for choosing cross-cultural training methods (i.e., degree of expected interaction and cultural similarity), it did not define “rigour”.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) provided more specificity in grouping training methods through low, medium and high levels of rigour and by discussing the duration of training with respect to interaction and culture similarity (similarly to Tung’s (1982) criteria). Mendenhall
and Oddou's (1986) first group of methods, in the low continuum of rigour and termed "information-giving", is similar to Brislin, Landis and Brandt's (1983) information or fact-oriented training. Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) second group of methods, in the medium continuum of rigour and termed "affective", is similar to Brislin, Landis and Brandt's (1983) attribution and cognitive-behavioural modification, as well as part of the experiential learning. Finally, Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) third group of methods, in the high continuum of rigour and termed "immersion", is similar to Brislin, Landis and Brandt's (1983) awareness-sensitivity training and interaction approach, as well as part of the experiential learning-area training. However, Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) did not specify how the level of rigour was determined, making it difficult to classify training methods other than those mentioned by them in their continuum.

1.4.1.2.1 The assessment of rigour based on Social Learning Theory

Black and Mendenhall (1989) suggest that Social Learning Theory provides a theoretical framework for systematically examining the level of rigour of specific cross-cultural training methods. According to Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977), learning is affected by observation and experience. Individuals use symbols to anticipate actions and their consequences, thus enabling them to determine how they will behave before the situation happens. Individual learning is based on the consequences of one's actions, and on the observation and imitation of other people's behaviour (Bandura, 1977). Four central elements govern observational learning: attention (selection of what is to be observed),
retention (symbolic coding of observations and retention), motor reproduction (conversion of symbolic coding into appropriate actions) and motivation (greater likelihood of exhibiting modelled behaviour if it results in valued outcomes). From a Social Learning Theory perspective, individuals pay attention to familiar elements and react to these according to encoded patterns of previous success. Therefore, individuals would have problems adjusting to unfamiliar surroundings because they could not identify familiar elements or patterns of success (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

According to Social Learning Theory, two processes are involved in learning: modelling (symbolic and participative) and rehearsal (cognitive and behavioural):

Symbolic modelling involves either cognitively or physically “observing” modelled behaviours. These observations can happen in the observer’s mind (factual briefings, lectures, books) with the observer then translating verbal messages into cognitive images; or they can happen visually through films, role modelling, demonstrations or non participative language training (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

Participative modelling involves participation in addition to observation. On one hand, the trainee can describe what he/she would do through case studies or culture assimilator. On the other hand, the trainee can partake in role playing, interactive language training, field trips or interactive simulations (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).
Rehearsal has two basic forms: cognitive and behavioural. Cognitive rehearsal involves the mental practice of the modelled behaviour. For example, one could practice eating with chop sticks in one’s mind. Behavioural rehearsal involves physical practice of the modelled behaviour (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

By definition, symbolic modelling can use only cognitive rehearsal. Participative modelling can use cognitive and/or behavioural rehearsal. Rigour can be assessed by examining the modelling and rehearsal processed involved (Black & Mendenhall, 1989).

Research on the effect of rigorous cross-cultural training on adjustment overseas based on Black and Mendenhall’s (1989 and 1990) framework has been conducted by Rehany (1994). Rehany’s study compared various training methods on Canadian expatriates in Japan. Rehany ranked training methods in rigour from least rigorous to most rigorous: informative methods, cognitive methods and participative methods. Rehany’s typology will be used in the current study and is reviewed in detail below.

Informative methods. These methods include Black and Mendenhall’s (1989) symbolic verbal and observational methods such as area briefings, lectures, books, films, and nonparticipative language training. These methods were labelled “informative” as they deal strictly with relaying information and require a minimal degree of involvement from the participants.
Cognitive methods. These methods include Black and Mendenhall’s (1989) participative modelling verbal methods such as case studies, culture assimilator, and demonstrations. The methods require more cognitive involvement from the participants, through the thought process in which they must engage.

Participative methods. These methods include Black and Mendenhall’s (1989) participative modelling behavioural methods such as interactive language training, role plays, field trips, and interactive simulations. These methods require active involvement from the trainees.

In addition to the rigour of training (from being strictly information-giving in nature to being increasingly affective and immersion-oriented), Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) suggest that the length of time in training is also important and should increase with an increased need for integration with the host culture.

Cross-cultural training has been suggested to affect adjustment, satisfaction, stress and intention to stay overseas. Research on the effect of cross-cultural training is reviewed in the next section.

1.4.1.3 Research on the effect of cross-cultural training

Many studies have been conducted that compare the effectiveness of training methods one
to the other and/or to no training at all (e.g.: Bird, et al., 1993; Cushman, 1989; Harrison, 1992; Hays, 1971; Pruegger & Rogers, 1994; Ronen, 1989). These studies have consistently suggested that individuals who receive cross-cultural training are better prepared for interpersonal interactions with members of another culture. As early as in 1971, Hays had submitted that cultural adaptability is a learned skill and that people with high skills in this area succeed in overseas assignments. This view is supported by a review of reports from head office personnel, host country nationals and returning expatriates (Ronen, 1989). It seems that a manager’s relational abilities such as interpersonal skills and adaptation to local culture account for the difference between failure and success overseas.

After reviewing empirical studies on cross-cultural training, Brislin, Landis and Brandt (1983) reported a number of positive effects that result from effective cross-cultural training, such as: (1) changes in people’s cognitions (e.g., greater understanding of host country nationals, decrease in the use of negative stereotypes, development of complex rather than oversimplified thinking about another culture); (2) changes in people’s affective reactions (e.g., greater enjoyment in interacting with host country nationals, perception of good working relations with host country nationals, increase in enjoying overseas assignments); and, (3) changes in people’s behaviour (e.g., better interpersonal relationships, better adjustment to the new culture, better job performance, better interactions with host country nationals).
A review of the cross-cultural training literature shows strong empirical support for a positive relationship between cross-cultural training and adjustment overseas for expatriates (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Deshpande and Viswesvaran, 1992). Black and Gregersen (1991a) found a positive relationship between cross-cultural training for expatriates, adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment overseas. Rehany (1994) found that the more rigorous training techniques were seen as being most effective by the expatriates and were correlated with adjustment overseas.

Through cross-cultural training, trainees should gain realistic expectations with respect to their jobs and their lives in the foreign country. Realistic expectations have been linked to greater satisfaction (Steers and Mowday, 1981). Dunbar (1992) found that personnel who endorsed using more culturally appropriate interpersonal skills and cognitions were more satisfied with the assignment abroad. Through cross-cultural training, trainees should also gain a greater understanding of host country nationals (Brislin, et al., 1983). Kealey (1989) found that those with the highest understanding of nationals were most satisfied overseas.

Because cross-cultural training provides the individual with information about the culture of the host country, it can diminish uncertainty, and stress (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Hammer and Martin (1992) found that cross-cultural training significantly affects anxiety reduction. Rehany (1994) found that language training was negatively related to anxiety. Cross-cultural training allows the trainee to make anticipatory determinations of what behaviours to act out. If those determinations were correct, the training would enable the
trainee to execute appropriate behaviours without having to learn by trial and error. Therefore, the person could avoid some instances of inappropriate behaviour and the stressful negative consequences that might be experienced by a nontrained individual (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). In addition, because the person would not have to devote precious time to learning by trial and error, the feelings of being under substantial time pressure should not be as important for the trained individual.

Cross-cultural training should also directly affect the expatriates’ intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Because cross-cultural training produces positive effects such as a greater understanding of the host country nationals, enjoyment of the overseas assignment and better interpersonal relationships, it is reasonable to believe that the expatriate would want to maintain and repeat an experience perceived as positive.

Another variable that has been suggested to influence adjustment, satisfaction and stress overseas is culture novelty. The literature on culture novelty is reviewed in the next section.

1.4.2 Culture novelty

Kepler, Kepler, Gaither & Gaither (1983) estimated culture novelty by assessing the degree of difference between the languages of the host and the home countries. Torbiorn (1982) and Black and Stephens (1989) have defined culture novelty as the similarities or differences in items such as food and climate. The latter definition will be used in the current study, given
that it is the one most often used in recent studies in the cross-cultural arena.

The novelty of the culture is an important factor that influences the adjustment of the expatriate (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). According to Torbiorn (1982), the greater the difference between the home and host culture, the greater the dissimilarity between the individual’s notions of appropriate and inappropriate behaviours. Black and Gregersen (1991a) suggest that the more novel and different the host culture is compared to the home culture, the more difficult the work, interaction and general adjustment are. They found a significant negative relationship between culture novelty, interaction adjustment and general adjustment for expatriates.

Before they leave on assignment, most individuals have expectations about the assignment. These expectations are often based on background events that happened in the home country. When the culture of the host country differs significantly from that of the home country, it is reasonable to assume that these expectations will not always be met, thus decreasing the satisfaction of the individual. Moore and Punnett (1994) reported a significant positive correlation between cultural similarity and satisfaction with the assignment.

The entrance into an unfamiliar culture is stressful for the expatriate (Oberg, 1960). The more novel and different the host culture is compared to the home culture, the more uncertain one would be about appropriate behaviours (Black & Stephens, 1989). As the differences between the culture of the host country and that of the home country increase, the challenges
faced by the expatriates in the current assignment will increase. The eventuality of having to face the negative consequences associated with unsuitable behaviours can result in increased anxiety for the individual. In addition, the more uncertain the person is about appropriate and inappropriate behaviours, the more time the individual must spend on trial and error, increasing the person’s feelings of being under substantial time pressure.

Culture novelty should also directly affect the expatriates’ intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. If the culture of the host country differs significantly from the culture of the home country, the experience in the host country might not be perceived as positive. Moreover, if the expatriates perceive the challenge as too great, they might be inclined to leave the assignment earlier than planned, and to refuse other assignments abroad.

In addition to cross-cultural training and culture novelty, social support has also been suggested to influence adjustment, satisfaction and stress overseas. The literature on social support is reviewed in the next section.

1.4.3 Social support

Social support is defined as the frequency of social interaction off the job with both home country nationals and host country nationals (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Pinder and Schroeder (1987) found that social support facilitates adjustment after a relocation transfer since it provides the newcomer with information about what is acceptable and unacceptable
in the new setting. Association with host country nationals has been found to be positively and significantly correlated with general adjustment (Black, 1988). Interactions with host country nationals have also been found to be significantly related to adjustment to work and adjustment to interacting with host country nationals (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Interactions with home country nationals have been found to be significantly related to work adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991a).

Cross-cultural training can help the individuals develop realistic expectations about the current assignment before they enter the new culture. Similarly, contacts with both host country nationals and home country nationals can help the individuals realign these expectations once they arrive overseas, resulting in greater satisfaction with their assignment. Kahn and Quinn (1970) argue that social support may reduce job dissatisfaction.

Because associating with host country nationals or home country nationals can provide cues concerning the appropriateness of one’s behaviour in the new situation, greater association would likely reduce stress, by reducing the possibility of negative consequences associated with unsuitable behaviours (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Indeed, social interactions can result in increased understanding of host country nationals, and greater expertise and enjoyment in interacting with host country nationals. In addition, the more knowledge the person has about appropriate behaviours, the less time the individual must spend on assessing what behaviour would be appropriate in various circumstances, reducing the person’s feelings of being under substantial time pressure.
Social support should also directly affect the expatriates’ intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Because interactions with both home and host country nationals can produce positive effects such as a greater understanding of the host country nationals, enjoyment of the overseas assignment and better interpersonal relationships, it is reasonable to believe that the expatriate would want to maintain and repeat an experience perceived as positive.

Based on the above, the current paper hypothesizes that:

\[ H_2 \quad \text{Expatriate cross-cultural training and social support will be:} \]

(a) \ positively related to expatriate adjustment and satisfaction; and,

(b) \ negatively related to expatriate stress,

while expatriate culture novelty will be:

(c) \ negatively related to expatriate adjustment and satisfaction; and,

(d) \ positively related to expatriate stress.

\[ H_3 \quad \text{Expatriate cross-cultural training and social support will be:} \]

(a) \ positively related to expatriate intention to stay; and,

(b) \ positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas,

while expatriate culture novelty will be:

(c) \ negatively related to expatriate intention to stay; and,

(d) \ negatively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.

In addition to the above factors, the international literature often refers to spouses as playing
a major role in the success or failure of the expatriate’s overseas assignment (Harris & Moran, 1989; Harvey, 1985). The role of the spouse is examined below.

1.5 The role of the spouse

Although the international literature often refers to spouses as playing a major role in the success or failure of the expatriate’s overseas assignment, very little empirical research has been done on factors affecting outcomes overseas for spouses, or on the relationship between outcomes overseas for spouses and outcomes overseas for expatriates. A study by Black and Gregersen (1991b) focused on the effect of some antecedents on spouse adjustment overseas, while a study by Black and Stephens (1989) covered the relationship between spouse and expatriate adjustment.

Similar factors were found to affect outcomes overseas for the expatriates and the spouses. Black and Gregersen (1991b) found that cross-cultural training and social support were significantly and positively related to spouse adjustment to interacting with host country nationals. They also found that culture novelty was significantly and negatively related to the two facets of adjustment for the spouse (adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment).
Although the effect of cross-cultural training, social support and culture novelty on spouse satisfaction, anxiety, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date, the arguments served previously for the expatriates could also apply for the spouses. Through cross-cultural training and social support, the spouses should gain realistic expectations with respect to the assignment, or realign these expectations once in the host country, resulting in greater satisfaction with the assignment.

Cross-cultural training and social support could also provide cues to the spouses on appropriate behaviours in the host culture, thus helping them to avoid some instances of inappropriate behaviour and the stressful negative consequences associated with unsuitable behaviours.

Finally, the novelty of the culture could influence spouse satisfaction, anxiety, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas the same way it affects expatriate satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Indeed, when the culture of the host country differs significantly from that of the home country, it is reasonable to predict that some of the expectations of the spouses will not be met, thus negatively affecting their satisfaction with the assignment. Moreover, the more novel the culture, the more difficult it is for the spouse to learn appropriate behaviours. The eventuality of having to face the negative consequences associated with unsuitable behaviours can result in increased anxiety for the spouses, or in an inclination to leave the host country before the end of the assignment or to refuse to accompany the expatriate on another assignment abroad.
The effect of spousal adjustment, satisfaction and stress on spousal intention to stay and willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date. However, the arguments served for expatriates could also apply for the spouse. If the spouse is unadjusted, stressed or dissatisfied with the assignment, leaving the assignment would be an effective means of eliminating the source of these negative affective responses. Moreover, the spouse would not want to repeat an experience perceived as dissatisfying or stressful.

Based on the above, the current paper hypothesizes that:

**H4**  
*Spousal adjustment and satisfaction will be:*

(a) positively related to spousal intention to stay; and,

(b) positively related to spousal willingness to return overseas,

while *spousal anxiety will be:*

(c) negatively related to spousal intention to stay; and,

(d) negatively related to spousal willingness to return overseas.

**H5**  
*Spousal cross-cultural training and social support will be:*

(a) positively related to spousal adjustment and satisfaction; and,

(b) negatively related to spousal anxiety,

while *spousal culture novelty will be:*

(c) negatively related to spousal adjustment and satisfaction; and,

(d) positively related to spousal anxiety.
H6 Spousal cross-cultural training and social support will be:

(a) positively related to spousal intention to stay; and,

(b) positively related to spousal willingness to return overseas,

while spousal culture novelty will be:

(c) negatively related to spousal intention to stay; and,

(d) negatively related to spousal willingness to return overseas.

Tung (1982) stated that the inability of the spouses to adjust to the new physical and cultural environment was the number one reason for expatriate failure overseas. Much of her work, however, relied on the opinions of executives or anecdotal evidence rather than on strong empirical research. Indeed, little empirical research has been conducted to examine the relationship between spouse’s adjustment and expatriate’s adjustment. According to Black and Stephens (1989), the spouse adjustment or lack of adjustment can be critical in the candidate’s success or failure in the foreign culture. Black and Stephens (1989) found a significant positive relationship between spouse’s general adjustment and expatriate’s adjustment (all three facets), and a significant relationship between spouse’s and expatriate’s interaction adjustment.

The relationship between spouse and expatriate satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas has not been researched to date. However, the significant relationships found between spouse and expatriate adjustment lead us to believe that the other outcomes might also be related.
Based on the above, the current paper hypothesises that:

$H_7$  *Spousal adjustment will be positively related to expatriate adjustment.*

$H_8$  *Spousal satisfaction will be positively related to expatriate satisfaction.*

$H_9$  *Spousal anxiety will be positively related to expatriate stress.*

$H_{10}$  *Spousal intention to stay will be positively related to expatriate intention to stay.*

$H_{11}$  *Spousal willingness to return overseas will be positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.*

These hypothesized relationships can be demonstrated graphically as shown in Figure 1. The methodology for the current research is presented in the next chapter, followed by results, discussion, summary and conclusion.
FIGURE 1

Hypothesized relationships

- Expatriate intention to stay
- Spouse intention to stay

- Expatriate willingness to return
- Spouse willingness to return

- Expatriate adjustment
- Spouse adjustment

- Culture novelty for expatriate
- Culture novelty for spouse

- Social support for expatriate
- Social support for spouse

- Cross-cultural training for expatriate
- Cross-cultural training for spouse
CHAPTER 2: METHOD

The current research consists of two studies: an exploratory study with firms from the province of Quebec appointing employees overseas and a survey with expatriates and their spouses currently on overseas assignments. In this chapter, the method for each study is presented.

2.1 Study one: Survey with the companies

One hundred and fifty-five firms from the province of Quebec who are sending employees overseas were contacted to participate in this study. Firms in Quebec were selected because: (1) 41% of the private firms with international activities reported in the Canadian Guide to Working and Living Overseas (1995) have their head office in the province; and, (2) while some research has been conducted on Canadian expatriates, none focussed exclusively on Quebec expatriates.

2.1.1 Procedure

Fifty-six organizations from the province of Quebec who are reported to have employees overseas are registered in The Canadian Guide to Working and Living Overseas (1995). A first mailing was made to the Director of Human Resources in each of these organizations to solicit their participation. This mailing included a letter to the organization (Appendix 1)
explaining the objectives of the research and outlining what was expected of them should they agree to participate. The questionnaire to the organization (Appendix 2), and a copy of the questionnaires that would later be distributed to expatriates and spouses (Appendices 4 and 5) were also included. To increase the participation rate, company representative who agreed to participate were promised a summary report of the findings. Follow-up calls were made to the companies two weeks later and 20 company representatives agreed to participate.

In order to increase the sample, the Bottin international du Québec (1995) and the Roaster of Members and Their Firms of the Association of Consulting Engineers of Quebec (1994) were used to identify additional companies. Ninety-nine companies were solicited by telephone, and the same package that was sent though the first mailing was forwarded to the 12 company representatives who agreed to participate.

In summary, from the 155 firms contacted, 90 firms indicated that they currently had no expatriates overseas. Thirty-two companies had expatriates who met the criteria and agreed to participate in both studies.

2.1.2 Participants

Twenty-two firms completed and returned their questionnaire, for a response rate of 69%. Eight of these firms were in the engineering sector, seven in services, two in transportation and one of each in manufacturing, telecommunications, metals, electricity and mines. Nine
firms had fewer than ten employees overseas, eight firms had between 10 and 50 expatriates
and four firms had more than 50 employees overseas (one firm did not provide this
information). Six firms had been sending employees overseas for less than 10 years, five firms
for 10 to 20 years and eight firms for more than 20 years (three firms did not provide this
information). Less than 20% of global earnings came from foreign operations for five firms,
between 50% and 75% for five firms and more than 75% for eight firms (four firms did not
provide this information). Countries to which employees are sent by these firms are presented
in Appendix 6.

2.1.3 Questionnaire

The survey to organizations was conducted using both open-ended and closed questions. The
questionnaire was developed in English, with the contribution of human resource
professionals and other researchers. It was then translated into French by the researcher, and
back translated into English by an independent bilingual consultant. A third party reviewed
both English and French copies to ensure that both questionnaires were identical in content.

The questionnaire to the organizations asked for background information including the
number of expatriates sent overseas, percentage of global earnings coming from foreign
operations, and percentage and causes of failure overseas. Firms were also asked for detailed
information on their cross-cultural training practices: (1) does the firm offer cross-cultural
training to expatriates and spouses? (2) what are the most important components to be
included in cross-cultural training? (3) does the firm offer pre-departure, on-site or a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training? (4) does the firm offer cross-cultural training to every expatriate and spouse regardless of the expatriate’s position? regardless of the country of assignment? and, (5) does the firm use the same method for expatriates and spouses regardless of the expatriate’s position? regardless of the country of assignment?

2.1.4 Coding and validation of the data

A double independent entry method (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989) was used to code raw data. Two steps were taken to validate the data. The first step consisted in a comparison of frequencies in both files for all variables. Whenever a discrepancy was noted, a visual inspection and correction of the data were made. The second step consisted in a parallel visual inspection of all variables in both files (Davis & Cosenza, 1993).

The results from the companies are presented in Chapter 3. In the next section, the method for the study with expatriates and spouses is presented.

2.2 Study two: Questionnaires to expatriates and spouses

Canadian residents working for Quebec firms solicited in the course of the exploratory study were contacted to participate in this study. These employees were selected by the organizations. Two restrictions were imposed for the choice of expatriates and spouses: they
had to be currently posted overseas and on-site for less than two years. Expatriates and spouses who had been on assignment for more than two years were excluded based on the literature (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982) which suggests that time since arrival plays an important role in the adjustment process. Single expatriates who met the two criteria were also accepted.

2.2.1 Procedure

To preserve the anonymity of the expatriates and their spouses, the mailing was carried out by the organizations. Each participating firm indicated the number of expatriates currently posted overseas who would be solicited to participate in the research and the firm’s contact person received the required number of questionnaires to be distributed to expatriates and their spouses posted overseas in different countries.

A covering letter to the expatriates and spouses (Appendix 3) explaining the objectives of the research and asking for their participation was also included. Firms mailed surveys to expatriates and spouses overseas. Expatriates were provided with a pre-addressed envelope to return surveys directly to the researcher. Expatriates and spouses were instructed to complete their respective questionnaire independently.
2.2.2 Participants

Two hundred and thirty-five questionnaires were provided to Quebec firms to be sent out to employees currently posted overseas. The exact number of questionnaires actually sent out to expatriates is not ascertained. One hundred and fourteen questionnaires were returned by expatriates, for a response rate of 48.5%. Nine questionnaires from expatriates were rejected: five because the expatriate was not born in Canada and had lived in Canada for less time than in his/her country of origin, and four because the expatriate had been on-site for more than two years (4, 5, 6 and 8 years respectively). A tenth questionnaire was also rejected because it contained missing data for 22 variables. The total number of “usable” questionnaires was therefore 104 for expatriates.

Ninety-two expatriates were male and married or living with a partner. Eighty-two were accompanied by their spouse overseas. Seventy-two expatriates had a university education. Sixteen expatriates were top executives, eight were division heads, 21 were middle managers, 42 were technical specialists and 18 held another position. The average age for this sample was 43 years. The average tenure in the organization was six years and the average tenure in the position was three years. Expatriates were assigned in 51 different countries, spread across the five continents (see Appendix 7).

More than 50% of the expatriates had either lived in or visited the host country before the assignment. Twenty-three expatriates had lived in the host country (for a mean duration of
36 months), 30 expatriates had previous experience living in a country with a culture similar to the host country (for a mean duration of 32 months), and 46 expatriates had previous experience living in countries that differed from the host country (for a mean duration of 35 months). Thirty-seven percent of the expatriates had no previous experience living in another country.

As indicated previously, 82 expatriates were accompanied by their spouse overseas. All questionnaires to the spouse were completed and returned. Eight questionnaires from spouses were rejected: six because the spouse was not born in Canada and had lived in Canada for less time than in his/her country of origin, and two because the spouse had been on-site for more than two years (3 and 4 years respectively). The total number of “usable” questionnaires were therefore 74 for spouses.

Sixty-nine spouses were female and 36 had a university education. Nineteen spouses worked during the assignment overseas, but only one worked for the sample employer as the expatriate. Fourteen participants were spouses of top executives, eight were spouses of division heads, 15 were spouses of middle managers, 31 were spouses of technical specialists and six were spouses of expatriates who held another position. The average age of the sample was 42 years. The average tenure in the organization of their spouse was seven years and the average tenure in the position was two years. Spouses accompanied expatriates in over 41 countries, spread across the five continents (see Appendix 8).
Contrary to the expatriates, less than 50% of the spouses had either lived in or visited the host country before the assignment. Twelve spouses had lived in the host country (for a mean duration of 31 months), 17 spouses had previous experience living in a country with a culture similar to the host country (for a mean duration of 34 months), and 20 spouses had previous experience living in countries that differed from the host country (for a mean duration of 53 months). Forty-three percent of the spouses had previous experience living in another country, compared to 63% for the expatriates.

Almost all top executives, all division heads and most middle managers and technical specialists who participated in the study were accompanied overseas, while only one-third of expatriates who held another position were accompanied.

2.2.3 Questionnaires

This study was conducted using two questionnaires: one for the expatriate and another for the spouse. Questionnaires were developed in English, translated into French by the researcher, and back translated into English by an independent bilingual consultant. A third party reviewed both English and French copies to ensure that both questionnaires were identical in content.

Questionnaires were pre-tested on a group of six expatriates/researchers. Human resource professionals were also asked to comment on the content and questionnaires were revised
accordingly. The translation/back translation process was repeated for the corrections and the final questionnaires were reviewed by an independent bilingual consultant.

The questionnaire to the expatriate asked for information regarding cross-cultural training received or undertaken, culture novelty, social support, adjustment, satisfaction and stress overseas, as well as willingness to accept another assignment overseas, and intention of their spouse to remain in the assignment for its expected duration. Time since arrival, country of assignment, position and tenure in the organization and in the position, previous international experience, length of the assignment and demographic variables were also examined. The questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete.

The questions on cross-cultural training were borrowed from Rehany (1994); the questions on culture novelty, adjustment and intention to stay were borrowed from Black and Stephens (1989); the questions on social support were borrowed from Black and Gregersen (1991a); the questions on satisfaction were borrowed from Quinn and Staines (1979); and, the questions on stress were borrowed from Parker and DeCotiis (1983). Questions were measured either on linear numeric scales or by self-reported factual measures. The questions are described in more details in the following section.

The questionnaire to the spouse asked for information regarding cross-cultural training received or undertaken, culture novelty, social support, adjustment, satisfaction and anxiety overseas, as well as willingness to accept to accompany the expatriate on another overseas
assignment, and the expatriate's intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration. Time since arrival, continent of assignment, previous international experience position and tenure of the expatriate in the organization and in their position, length of the assignment and demographic variables were also examined. Additionally, the spouses were asked whether they worked or not during the assignment, and in the case of an affirmative response, whether they worked or not for the same employer as the expatriate. The questionnaire took approximately 20 minutes to complete. The questions for the spouse were borrowed from the same sources as those for the expatriate, and measured in a similar fashion. These questions are described in more detail in the following section.

2.2.4 Measures

Measures of demographic variables, measures of antecedent variables hypothesized to affect outcomes overseas, and measures of outcomes overseas are described below.

2.2.4.1 Measures of demographics

Country of assignment was measured through a self-reported factual measure of the name of the country. Given the large number of different countries, a variable labelled Continent of assignment was created and the country of assignment was recategorized into one of the five continents: Africa, America, Asia, Europe and Oceania.
Time since arrival was measured through a self-reported factual measure of time (in years and months) spent in the assignment. Duration of the assignment was measured through a self-reported factual measure of duration (in years and months) of the assignment.

Position of the expatriate was measured by ticking off one of four items (*top executive, division head, middle manager, and technical specialists*), with a possibility of selecting and defining other positions.

Tenure in the position was measured through a self-reported factual measure of time (in years and months) spent working in the position. Because this variable showed severe departure from normality, rescaling was used in order to monotonically modify the shape of its distribution. Data for *tenure in position* was recategorized into six different categories (1=less than 1 year, 2=12-24 months, 3=25-36 months, 4=37-48 months, 5=49-60 months and 6=more than 5 years). Tenure in the organization was measured through a self-reported factual measure of time (in years and months) spent working in the organization.

Previous international experience was evaluated by self-reported factual measures of length (in months) of previous experience in the host country, of length (in months) and location of previous experience in a country with a similar culture, and of length (in months) and location of other previous international experience.
Spouse working overseas while accompanying the expatriate was measured by checking either *yes* or *no*. Spouses were also asked if they worked for the same company as the expatriate.

Demographic variables also included: (1) age (self-reported factual measure in years); (2) gender (*male* or *female*); (3) education (*secondary, college, undergraduate or graduate*); (4) country of origin (name); and, (5) year of immigration to Canada (self-reported factual measure of year). In addition, expatriates were asked to indicate: (6) their marital status (*married/living with a partner* or *single/divorced/widowed*); and, (7) whether or not they were accompanied by their spouse overseas.

2.2.4.2 Intention to stay overseas

Intention to stay for the expected duration of the assignment was measured independently through spouse rating for expatriates and through expatriate rating for spouses, using a two-item scale adapted from Black and Stephens (1989). On a seven-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 7=strongly agree), participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed with two statements regarding their spouse "*discussing the possibility of returning to Quebec sooner than planned*", and "*doing just about anything to keep this assignment for its expected duration*".
These two answers were pooled and averaged (scale developers' reported $\alpha = .67$) (current study's $\alpha = .57$ for expatriates and .65 for spouses).

2.2.4.3 Willingness to return overseas

Willingness to return overseas was measured through a self-report question on a seven-point linear numeric scale (1=very unlikely, 7=very likely): "After the current assignment, how likely would you accept (to accompany your spouse on) another assignment overseas?".

2.2.4.4 Expatriate adjustment

Expatriate adjustment was measured through self-report measures, using Black and Stephens' (1989) adjustment scale (adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment). Adjustment to work consists of three items: specific job responsibilities, performance standards and expectations, and supervisory responsibilities. Adjustment to interactions with host country nationals consists of four items: socializing with host nationals, interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis, interacting with host nationals outside of work and speaking with host nationals. General adjustment consists of seven items: living conditions, housing conditions, food, shopping, cost of living, entertainment/recreation facilities, and health care facilities. These items were measured on a seven-point linear numeric scale (1= not adjusted, 7 = adjusted).
Composite scores for adjustment were obtained for each expatriate by pooling answers according to Black and Stephens' (1989) sub-scales: (1) a composite score for adjustment to work was created by pooling and averaging answers to adjustment to the specific job responsibilities, the performance standards and expectations and the supervisory responsibilities; (2) a composite score for adjustment to interacting with host country nationals was created by pooling and averaging responses to socializing, interacting outside of work, speaking and interacting on a day-to-day basis with host nationals; and, (3) a composite score for general adjustment was obtained by pooling and averaging answers to adjustment to living conditions, housing conditions, food, shopping, cost of living entertainment/recreation facilities and health care facilities on the adjustment scale (scale developers' reported $\alpha = .91, .89$ and .82 respectively for adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment for expatriates) (current study's $\alpha = .92, .89$ and .81 respectively for adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment).

2.2.4.5 Spouse adjustment

Spouse adjustment was measured through self-report measures using Black and Stephens' (1989) spouse adjustment scale (adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general adjustment). Adjustment to interactions with host country nationals consists of two items that were included in the interaction adjustment scale for the expatriate: socializing with host nationals and interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis. General adjustment
consists of the same seven items as the expatriate general adjustment scale, measured on a
seven-point linear numeric scale (1 = not adjusted, 7 = adjusted).

Composite scores for adjustment were obtained for each spouse by pooling answers
according to Black and Stephens' (1989) sub-scales: (1) a composite score for spouse's
adjustment to interacting with host country nationals was obtained by pooling and averaging
responses to adjustment to socializing and adjustment to interacting with host nationals on
a day-to-day basis on the spouse's adjustment scale; and, (2) a composite score for general
adjustment was obtained by pooling and averaging answers to adjustment to living
conditions, housing conditions, food, shopping, cost of living entertainment/recreation
facilities and health care facilities on the adjustment scale (scale developers' reported $\alpha = .95$ and .86 respectively for adjustment to interacting with host country nationals and general
adjustment) (current study's $\alpha = .90$ and .81 respectively for adjustment to interacting with
host country nationals and general adjustment).

2.2.4.6 Satisfaction

Satisfaction was measured through self-report measures, using a scale adapted from Quinn
and Staines (1979). Satisfaction consists of four items measured on a three or four responses
alternatives. Because of the complexity of this scale, the full scale is reported here:

All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with this assignment?
1 Very satisfied.
2 Somewhat satisfied.
3 Not too satisfied.
4 Not at all satisfied.
Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the assignment you now have, what would you decide?

1. Decide without hesitation to take the same assignment.
2. Have some second thoughts.
3. Decide definitely not to take the same assignment.

In general, how well would you say that your assignment measures up to the sort of assignment you wanted when you took it?

1. Very much like the assignment you wanted.
2. Somewhat like the assignment you wanted.
3. Not very much like the assignment you wanted.

If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in an assignment like yours, what would you tell him or her?

1. Would strongly recommend it.
2. Would have doubts about recommending it.
3. Would advise the friend against it.

According to Quinn and Staines' (1989) scoring pattern: for the first item, answering 1, 2, 3 or 4 received a score of 5, 3, 1, and 1 respectively. For the remaining three items, answering 1, 2 or 3 received a score of 5, 3, and 1 respectively. This resulted in a 10-point linear numeric scale (4=not at all satisfied, 20=very satisfied) which was pooled into one composite score (scale developers’ reported Spearman-Brown reliability coefficient = .80) (current study’s $\alpha = .88$ for expatriates and $\alpha = .82$ for the spouses).

2.2.4.7 Stress for expatriates

Stress for expatriates was measured through self-report measures using a 13-item scale from Parker and DeCotiis' (1983) stress scale (time stress and anxiety). Time stress consists of eight items: time with the family, being able to distinguish forest from the trees, time for
other activities, feeling of being married to the company, too much work and too little time
to do it, dread job-related phone calls at home, never have a day off and burned out by job
demands. Anxiety consists of five items: feel nervous, assignment gets to me, assignment
drives me up the wall, tight feeling in the chest and feel guilty when taking time off. These
items were measured on a four-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=strongly agree).

Composite scores for stress were obtained for each expatriate by pooling answers according
to Parker and DeCotiis (1983) sub-scales: (1) a composite score for time stress was obtained
for each expatriate by pooling and averaging responses to “Working here makes it hard to
spend enough time with my family”, “I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for
the trees”, “Working here leaves little time for other activities”, “I frequently get the feeling
I am married to the company”, “I have too much work and too little time to do it in”, “I
sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related”, “I
feel I never have a day off” and “Too many people on such assignments get burned out by
job demands”; and, (2) a composite score for anxiety was obtained by pooling and averaging
responses to “I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of this assignment”, “This assignment
gets to me more than it should”, “There are lots of times when this assignment drives me
right up the wall”, “Sometimes when I think about this assignment I get a tight feeling in my
chest” and “I feel guilty when I take time off from my job” (scale developers’ reported $\alpha =
.86$ and $.74$ respectively for time stress and anxiety) (current study’s $\alpha = .82$ and $.73
respectively for time stress and anxiety).
2.2.4.8 Anxiety for spouses

Anxiety for spouses was measured through self-report measures using a scale adapted from Parker and DeCotiis (1983). Anxiety consists of five items: *feel nervous, assignment gets to me, assignment drives me up the wall, tight feeling in the chest and feel guilty when spouse takes time off*. These items were measured on a four-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree, 4=strongly agree).

A composite scores for anxiety was obtained for each spouse by pooling and averaging these answers (current study’s $\alpha = .82$).

2.2.4.9 Cross-cultural training

A list of 13 cross-cultural training methods ranked in rigour according to Black and Mendenhall’s (1989) framework was provided to participants, with a possibility of selecting and defining other methods. Participants were asked to indicate the total number of days of training received (offered by the organization or self-initiated), using a six-point linear numeric scale (0=none, 1=less than 1 day, 2=1 day; 3=2 days; 4=3-7 days; and 5=more than 7 days).

Composite scores for each expatriate and each spouse were obtained for low, medium and high rigour of cross-cultural training, according to Rehany’s (1994) typology: (1) an average
composite score was obtained for low rigour CCT (informative methods) by pooling responses for information, audiovisual and basic language cross-cultural training methods and dividing the total score obtained by the number of informative methods used for the cross-cultural training of the expatriate or the spouse; (2) an average composite score was obtained for medium rigour CCT (cognitive methods) by pooling responses for role modelling, case studies, and culture assimilator cross-cultural training methods, and dividing the total score obtained by the number of cognitive methods used for the cross-cultural training of the expatriate and the spouse; and, (3) an average composite score was obtained for high rigour CCT (participative methods) by pooling responses for role plays, culture awareness, self-awareness, behaviour modification, intensive language training, encounters and area simulations cross-cultural training methods and dividing the total score obtained by the number of participative methods used for the cross-cultural training of the expatriate and the spouse.

It should be noted that these composite scores resulted for some levels in the loss of correspondence between the scores and the labels. For example, someone who had received one day of information training (score=2), less than one day of audiovisual training (score=1) and two days of basic language training (score=3) would get an average composite score of two, but that would not mean that the person had received one day of training. However, the rank of the scores is still meaningful.
2.2.4.10 Culture novelty

Culture novelty was measured using a scale from Black and Stephens (1989), which consists of eight items (*everyday customs, general living conditions, health care facilities, transportation systems, cost of living, quality and type of food and housing conditions*), measured on a five-point linear numeric scale (1=very different, 5= very similar).

A composite score for culture novelty for each expatriate and spouse was obtained by pooling and averaging answers. Because a high score on the scale meant that the culture was very similar to Quebec’s, the score was reversed (scale developer’s reported $\alpha = .64$) (current study’s $\alpha = .78$ for expatriates and $\alpha = .80$ for spouses).

2.2.4.11 Social support

Social support was measured using self-report measures from Black and Gregersen (1991a). Social support consists of interactions measured by the frequency of *association outside of work with friends native to the host country* and, *with other Canadians*, on a seven-point linear numeric scale (1=never, 7=frequently). The questions were worded as follows: “Please indicate the extent to which you interact outside of work with friends native to the host country since you began this assignment” and, “Please indicate the extent to which you interact outside of work with other Canadians since you began this assignment”.
Coding, validation and cleansing of the data are explained in the following sections.

2.2.5 Coding and validation of the data

A double independent entry method was used to code raw data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989). A discrete number was assigned for anomalous data, and this anomalous data code was specified in computer control language to ensure that anomalous value indicators were not read as real data (Davis & Cosenza, 1993). This first step served as the basis for validation of the data.

Two steps were taken to validate the data. The first step consisted in a comparison of frequencies in both files for all variables for expatriates and spouses. Whenever a discrepancy was noted, a visual inspection and correction of the data were made. The second step consisted in a parallel visual inspection of the following variables for expatriates and spouses in both files: country of assignment, lived in host country prior to the assignment, previous experience in a country with a similar culture, previous experience in other countries, and total quality of experience. In addition, a 100% proof validation of all other variables was made for the expatriates and the spouses (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989): variables in one of the two files were renamed, files were merged and corresponding variables were subtracted from one another, to ensure that there was no discrepancy between the two instances of the same variable. All non-zero values were investigated and resolved.
2.2.6 Data cleansing

Issues related to data cleansing are reported in this section. First, anomalies and remedial measures are discussed, then a report on missing data is made.

2.2.6.1 Anomalies and remedial measures

Some anomalies were present in the data, in the form of double entries or inadmissible responses to an item. All cases with anomalous data were revised to identify and correct anomalies.

For double entries, the average of the double answer was imputed, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989).

Inadmissible responses included previous experience in Canada, quality of the experience in the current country of assignment, and number of months spent living in the host country indicated in the item related to pre-visit of the host country. These answers were problematic since the intention of the researcher was to analyse the effects on outcomes of previous international experience, quality of previous experience and short-term pre-visit. Consequently, inadmissible responses were discarded. In addition, some expatriates and spouses had provided annotations such as “n/a”, “-”, or “do not have” instead of a scaled reply. In fact, some questions contained in the scales could not apply to all expatriates and
spouses. To compensate for non-applicable items, whenever an annotation appeared on the questionnaire, a composite score representing the mean value of the participant's other answers on that particular scale (or sub-scale) was imputed, as suggested by Tabachnick and Fidell (1989).

After measures undertook to correct double entries and inadmissible responses were completed, all non-response items were considered as missing data.

2.2.6.2 Missing data

For expatriates and spouses, a verification of the data after corrections for anomalies indicated a total percentage of less than one percent. According to Roth (1994), for small amounts of missing data (between 5% to 10%), the pattern of missing data is not critical and most methods of replacement will entail similar results, whether the data is missing at random or not. Given the small amounts of missing data the decision was made to use all of the 104 cases for expatriates and the 74 cases for spouses for analysis, using the available cases method (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1989).

Results and discussion for the study with the firms are presented in the next chapter, followed by results and discussion for the study with expatriates and spouses.
3.1 Analyses

Given the exploratory nature of the study, qualitative analyses were performed on data received from companies. In addition, descriptive statistics are reported.

3.2 Descriptive results

3.2.1 Percentage and causes of failures

Defining failure overseas as premature returns or unproductive expatriates, four firms indicated that they had no failures, seven firms indicated that they had a failure rate of 1%, seven firms indicated that they had a failure rate of between 2% and 5%, and four firms indicated that they had a failure rate of between 10% and 20%.

The major causes of failures identified by these firms are (the number in parentheses indicates the number of firms who provided this response): (1) “failure of the expatriate to adapt to the conditions of the foreign assignment” (seven firms); (2) “failure of the organization to select and screen the appropriate candidate” (four firms); (3) “medical/family problems” (four firms); (4) “non satisfaction of the client - expatriate not meeting their needs” (two
firms); (5) "incompetence" (two firms); (6) "failure of the spouse to adapt to the conditions of the foreign assignment" (two firms); (7) "failure of the spouse to find work" (one firm); and, (8) "lack of motivation/commitment" (one firm).

As can be seen from this list, the expatriate and the spouse's inability to adjust overseas stands out as the perceived most important single source of failure overseas. This would further support the significance of research on factors affecting adjustment overseas for both the expatriates and the spouses.

3.2.2 Cross-cultural training practices in terms of timing

When asked whether or not they offer cross-cultural training to expatriates and spouses, 45% of the companies (10) indicated that they do. Six firms offer pre-departure cross-cultural training for expatriates (PDCCT - expats); eight firms offer pre-departure cross-cultural training for spouses (PDCCT - spouses); only one firm offers on-site cross-cultural training for expatriates (OSCCT - expats); no firm offers on-site cross-cultural training for spouses (OSCCT - spouses); three firms offer a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training for expatriates (MIX - expats); and, two firms offer a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training for spouses (MIX - spouses) (see Table 3.1).
Sixty percent of Quebec firms offer cross-cultural training to expatriates before they leave Quebec for their assignment, and eighty percent offer cross-cultural training to spouses before they leave Quebec for the assignment.

3.2.3 Reasons provided by firms that do not offer cross-cultural training

The reasons provided by companies that do not offer cross-cultural training are listed below. The number of companies who provided this response is indicated in parentheses (one firm did not provide this information).

1) "Pre-departure or on-site CCT is not needed or is not a priority" (three firms for expatriates and four firms for spouses).

2) "Expatriates or spouses already have the necessary knowledge" (four firms for expatriates and two firms for spouses).

3) "There is no budget for cross-cultural training for expatriates" (three firms).

4) "Delays are too short before departure" (one firm for expatriates and two firms for spouses).

5) "Expatriates and spouses live on town sites with other expatriates and spouses or get
help settling in from other expatriates” (one firm for expatriates and two firms for spouses).

6) “Expatriates are responsible for their own training” (two firms).

7) “There are too few transfers or most expatriates who go abroad are not married” (one firm).

8) “Programs are not readily available” (one firm for expatriates).

9) “The low failure rate does not warrant such an expense” (one firm for expatriates).

10) “Expatriates go from project to project” (one firm for expatriates).

Most firms that do not offer cross-cultural training do not see a need for it.

3.2.4 Most important components of training programs identified by the firms

The significant components of cross-cultural training programs identified by the firms are listed below. The number of companies who provided this response is indicated in parentheses (two firms did not provide this information for spouses).

1) “Information on host country/receiving office” (nine firms for expatriates and ten firms for spouses).

2) “Cultural differences and cultural ‘dos and don’ts’” (six firms for expatriates).

3) “Language training” (three firms for expatriates and two firms for spouses).

4) “Flexibility, adaptability and understanding” (two firms for expatriates).

5) “Information on health issues” (one firm for expatriates).
Firms prefer training that provides either basic information, or addresses "affective" issues.

3.2.5 Preferences of the firms in terms of timing

The preferences of the firms concerning the timing of cross-cultural training are presented in Table 3.2 (one firm did not provide this information for expatriates and two firms did not provide this information for spouses).

Five firms indicated that they prefer pre-departure cross-cultural training for expatriates (PDCCT - expats); eight firms indicated that they prefer pre-departure cross-cultural training for spouses (PDCCT - spouses); only one firm indicated that they prefer on-site cross-cultural training for expatriates (OSCCT - expats); no firm indicated that they prefer on-site cross-cultural training for spouses (OSCCT - spouses); three firms indicated that they prefer a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training for expatriates (MIX - expats); and, no firm indicated that they prefer a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training for spouses (MIX - spouses).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>PDCCT expats</th>
<th>PDCCT spouses</th>
<th>OSCCT expats</th>
<th>OSCCT spouses</th>
<th>Mix expats</th>
<th>Mix spouses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Number of firms</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When comparing preferences (Table 3.1) to actual practices (Table 3.2), it can be noted that Quebec firms show congruence between what they preach and what they do.

3.2.6 Reasons provided by the firms for their preferences in terms of timing

The reasons given by companies for their preferences in terms of timing of cross-cultural training are listed below, starting with the choice of pre-departure cross-cultural training. The three firms that selected a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training did not provide any reason for that choice. Additionally, two firms did not provide reasons for their choice for expatriates and seven firms did not provide this information for spouses (the number in parentheses indicates the number of companies who provided this response).

Pre-departure cross-cultural training is preferred because:

1) "It helps the expatriate or the spouse to develop realistic expectations and reassess their decision, or because it helps in the assessment of the expatriate's or spouse's adaptability" (two firms for expatriates and three firms for spouses).

2) "There is no budget for on-site CCT" (one firm for expatriates).

3) "The company believes that complete training should be offered before departure" (one firm for expatriates).

4) "It is offered by the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA) before departure" (one firm for expatriates).
On-site cross-cultural training is preferred because:

5) "It is difficult for the expatriate to have a complete understanding unless he/she is in the host country" (one firm for expatriates).

6) "It secures the expatriate after the first cultural shock" (two firms for expatriates).

7) "It can then be offered by embassies or colleagues" (one firm for expatriates).

In summary, according to the firms, pre-departure cross-cultural training would help the expatriates and the spouses to develop realistic expectations and possibly to reassess their decision to accept an assignment overseas. On-site cross-cultural training would support the adjustment of the individuals once they are in the host country.

3.2.7 Cross-cultural training practices with respect to the position of the expatriate

Cross-cultural training practices of the companies with respect to the position of the expatriate and the country of assignment are reviewed next. Of the ten firms which offer CCT to expatriates and spouses, seven firms indicated that they offer training to every expatriate or spouse, while one firm indicated that they offer training only to Middle Managers and Technical Specialists (or spouses of Middle Managers and Technical Specialists). Two firms did not provide this information for either the expatriate or the spouse.

Seven firms use the same methods for all expatriates (two firms did not provide this information). One firm used methods that varied depending on the position of the expatriate.
For example, formal pre-departure training was offered to Engineers, while they offer only information provided by colleagues to Topographers.

Five firms use the same methods for every spouse (four firms did not provide this information). One firm used methods that varied depending on the position of the expatriate. For example, CIDA training is offered to spouses of Inspectors and Engineers when it is available and when CIDA is involved in the project, whereas they offer only informal information through peers in all other cases.

In summary, 70% of the firms offer cross-cultural training to all expatriates and spouses. Seventy percent of the firms use the same methods for all expatriates, while 50% of the firms use the same methods for all spouses.

3.2.8 Cross-cultural training practices depending on the country of assignment

Six firms offer training for expatriates whatever the country of assignment, while training differs depending on the country for three firms (one firm did not provide this information). One firm indicated that the training depends on the availability of information for the destination. Another firm indicated that they offer training only for projects that take place in very difficult countries (without defining "difficult"). The third firm did not provide details.

For spouses, seven firms offer the same training whatever the country of assignment, while for one firm training differs depending on the availability of information for the destination
Finally, training methods for expatriates vary by country for four firms, while only one firm uses the same methods, and four firms always use CIDA for training (one firm did not provide this information). One of the four firms that provide various training methods depending on the country, uses CIDA for some projects, and encounters with colleagues for countries that many employees have lived in. The second firm uses information, written or audiovisual, when it is available; meetings with expatriates who have experienced working in the country if there are major differences in the lifestyle/culture; and, language training when necessary. The other two firms did not provide any details. For spouses, the training methods will vary by country for three firms, while three firms always use CIDA for training (four firms did not provide this information). The details provided for spouses are the same as those provided for the expatriates for the first two firms. The third firm did not provide any details.

In summary, training is offered whatever the country of assignment in 60% of the cases for expatriates and 70% of the cases for spouses. Methods used may differ depending on the country in 40% of the cases for expatriates and 30% of the cases for spouses.

The results reported above are discussed in the next section.
3.3 Discussion

3.3.1 Percentage and causes of failure

Although the failure rate overseas for Quebec firms (below 20%) seems to compare favourably to that of Japanese or European firms, and most advantageously to the failure rate reported in previous studies for US firms (Black, 1988, Tung, 1982), a direct comparison is unwise. Indeed, in order to compare rates between countries, one would have to ensure that the same criteria have been used to measure success, or failure.

The low failure rate reported by Quebec firms could be explained in part by the possibility that expatriates and spouses reassess their decision to accept an assignment overseas once they have received pre-departure cross-cultural training. Firms would thus ensure that only expatriates and spouses who are highly motivated by the overseas assignment and willing to make an effort to adjust are sent abroad.

It is also possible that the employees assigned overseas are not as successful as firms believe they are. In a recent study on the selection process of Canadian expatriates, Leclair (1996) reported that some expatriates “were having problems overseas and the issues they were dealing with were not always known at headquarters because of the protective culture of the company which encourages managers overseas to protect expatriates and remain silent about some of the problems encountered by expatriates” (1996, p. 145). This would indicate that
some firms measure success by not hearing about any particular problem, instead of through concrete evidence of good performance. Research on the specific measures used by firms to measure success overseas would be needed.

3.3.2 Cross-cultural training practices of the companies

Results indicate that less than half of the firms surveyed offer cross-cultural training to expatriates and spouses. These findings are in line with those reported by Tung (1982), who indicated that only 32% of U.S. firms have a formalized training programs to prepare their candidates for overseas assignments.

Firms that offer cross-cultural training tend to select pre-departure information on the host country, as well as training covering the cultural differences between the host country and the home country. When looking at training in terms of rigour, this type of training is classified in the low or medium continuum of rigour or, to use Rehany's (1994) typology, in the informative and cognitive categories. Similarly, Rehany (1994) reported that Canadian organizations tend to offer training that is low in rigour, in terms of method as well as in terms of duration.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) had suggested that the rigour of cross-cultural training should be a function of the position of the expatriate and the cultural toughness of the host country. Results indicate that the training offered by most Quebec firms does not differ depending on
the position of the expatriate or the country of assignment. When different methods are used, the choice of method seems most of the time to rest more on the immediate availability of the information than on a perceived need for more training.

In summary, Quebec expatriates and their spouses do not seem to receive more in-depth company provided cross-cultural training than do American expatriates and spouses. The study with expatriates and spouses will assess the effect of the training received on their adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas.
CHAPTER 4: RESULTS AND DISCUSSION OF THE SURVEY WITH EXPATRIATES AND SPOUSES

4.1 Analyses

The analysis of data included: descriptive statistics consisting in frequencies, range, mean and standard deviation; correlations; and, multiple regressions. The tests for normality, linearity, homoscedasticity and independence were conducted using scatterplots of the residual against the independent variables, histograms of the residuals and Durbin-Watson tests.

4.2 Descriptive results for the expatriates

Numbers, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum value and intercorrelations of the variables of interest for expatriates are presented in Appendix 9.

4.2.1 Outcomes overseas

The results for adjustment indicate that expatriates were generally well adjusted (mean = 5.3 on a scale from 1 to 7), well adjusted to work (mean = 5.8), and well adjusted to interacting with host country nationals (mean = 5). Because all three facets of adjustment were highly related, a single index was formed for adjustment (mean = 5.3).
Time stress and anxiety were at a moderate level (mean of 1.9 each on a scale from 1 to 4). Because the two facets of stress were highly related, a single index was formed for stress (mean = 1.9). Satisfaction with the assignment, intention to stay and willingness to return were quite high (mean for satisfaction = 16 out of a possible maximum score of 20; mean for intention to stay = 5.5 on a scale from 1 to 7; mean for willingness to return = 6 on a scale from 1 to 7).

4.2.2 Cross-cultural training

Twenty percent of the expatriates had received pre-departure cross-cultural training, 8% had received on-site cross-cultural training, and 6% had received a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training. Sixty-six percent of the expatriates had received no cross-cultural training. Descriptive results for the expatriates who had received either pre-departure or on-site cross-cultural training are presented in Table 4.3. Because more than one method of training was often used, expatriates can be counted more than once. Participative methods (e.g., role plays, culture awareness, self-awareness, behaviour modification, intensive language training, encounters and area simulations) were used in 48% of the cases. Informative methods (e.g., information, audiovisual and basic language training) were used in 31% of the cases. Cognitive methods (e.g., role modelling, case studies and culture assimilator) were used in 21% of the cases.

The cross-cultural training methods most often used for training that lasted less than one day
(e.g., a score of 1 on the scale from 0 to 5) were audiovisual methods, role modelling, case studies, role plays and culture awareness. For training that lasted one day (e.g., a score of 2 on the scale from 0 to 5), only two methods were used, self-awareness and encounters with host country nationals or former expatriates, the latter being the most popular method. Only four training methods were used that lasted more than one day (e.g., a score of 3, 4 or 5 on the scale from 0 to 5). From these four methods, only information methods were used widely, for a mean duration approximating two days for those who had received it.

**TABLE 4.3**

Descriptive results for expatriates who received cross-cultural training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rigour</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean (scale = 0 to 5)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informative (low)</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Audiovisuals</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1.25</td>
<td>.58</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Basic language training</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive (medium)</td>
<td>Role modelling, demonstrations</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Case studies, critical incidents</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture assimilator</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.29</td>
<td>.49</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative (high)</td>
<td>Role plays</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.17</td>
<td>.39</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture awareness</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.62</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behaviour modification</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intensive language training</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.75</td>
<td>.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encounters</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area simulations, field experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The low number of expatriates who had received training and the lack of variation in length of training received made it impossible to analyse the impact of cross-cultural training on outcomes overseas using the measures reported in section 2.2.4.9. Accordingly, cross-cultural training was dummy-coded into no training (=0) and training (=1) using informative, cognitive or participative methods.

4.2.3 Culture novelty

The descriptive results for *culture novelty* suggest that in general, expatriates found the culture of the host country to be somewhat different from Quebec's culture (mean = 3.3 on a scale from 1 to 5).

4.2.4 Social support

The results for *social support* indicate that expatriates seek contacts with other Canadians slightly more than with host country nationals during their stay in the host country (mean of 5 - on a scale from 1 to 7 - for interactions with other Canadians compared to a mean of 4 for interactions with host country nationals).

4.3 Descriptive results for the spouses

Numbers, mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum value and intercorrelations of
the variables of interest for spouses are presented in Appendix 10.

4.3.1 Outcomes overseas

The results for *adjustment* indicate that spouses were generally well adjusted (mean = 5.4 on a scale from 1 to 7), and well adjusted to interacting with host country nationals (mean = 5). Because the two facets of adjustment were highly related, a single index was formed for adjustment (mean = 5.3). *Anxiety* was not very high (mean = 1.5 on a scale from 1 to 4). *Satisfaction with the assignment, intention to stay and willingness to return* were quite high (mean for *satisfaction* = 16 out of a possible maximum score of 20; mean for *intention to stay* = 5.4 on a scale from 1 to 7; mean for *willingness to return* = 6 on a scale from 1 to 7).

4.3.2 Cross-cultural training

Nineteen percent of the spouses had received pre-departure cross-cultural training, 4% had received on-site cross-cultural training and 7% had received a mix of pre-departure and on-site cross-cultural training. Seventy percent of the spouses had received no cross-cultural training. Descriptive results for the spouses who had received either pre-departure or on-site cross-cultural training are presented in Table 4.4. Because more than one method of training was often used, spouses can be counted more than once. Similarly to expatriates, participative methods (e.g., *role plays, culture awareness, self-awareness, behaviour modification, intensive language training and encounters*) were used in 47% of the cases.
Informative methods (e.g., information, audiovisuals and basic language training) were used in 31% of the cases. Cognitive methods (e.g., role modelling, case studies and culture assimilator) were used in 22% of the cases.

### TABLE 4.4
Descriptive results for spouses who received cross-cultural training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rigour</th>
<th>Method</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean (scale = 0 to 5)</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informative (low)</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Audiovisuals</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.23</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Basic language training</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive (medium)</td>
<td>Role modelling, demonstrations</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>.74</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Case studies, critical incidents</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.50</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture assimilator</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>1.86</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Participative (high)</td>
<td>Role plays</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture awareness</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>1.92</td>
<td>1.12</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Self-awareness</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Behaviour modification</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Intensive language training</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Encounters</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>1.72</td>
<td>1.07</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Area simulations, field experience</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly to expatriates, the low number of spouses who had received training and the lack of variation in length of training received made it impossible to analyse the impact of cross-cultural training on outcomes overseas using the measures reported in section 2.2.4.9. Accordingly, cross-cultural training was dummy-coded into no training (=0) and training (=1) using informative, cognitive or participative methods.
4.3.3 Culture novelty

The descriptive results for *culture novelty* suggest that in general, spouses found the culture of the host country to be somewhat different from Quebec’s culture (mean = 3.4 on a scale from 1 to 5).

4.3.4 Social support

The results for *social support* indicate that spouses seek contacts with other Canadians more than with host country nationals during their stay in the host country (mean of 5 - on a scale from 1 to 7- for interactions with other Canadians compared to a mean of 4 for interactions with host country nationals).

4.4 Results for the tests of the hypotheses

Results for the multiple regressions are presented in Appendix 11 for expatriates and in Appendix 12 for spouses.

4.4.1 Hypothesis #1

Hypothesis #1 suggested that *expatriate adjustment and satisfaction will be (a) positively related to expatriate intention to stay; and, (b) positively related to expatriate willingness*
to return overseas, while expatriate stress will be (c) negatively related to expatriate intention to stay and (d) negatively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.

The results for the multiple regressions for expatriate adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are presented in Table 4.5.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate intention to stay</td>
<td>Expatriate adjustment</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>.43</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate stress</td>
<td></td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate willingness to return overseas</td>
<td>Expatriate adjustment</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate satisfaction</td>
<td></td>
<td>.32</td>
<td>2.99</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate stress</td>
<td></td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.93</td>
<td>.35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Expatriate intention to stay was significantly and positively related to expatriate adjustment ($T=2.58$, $p=.01$) and to expatriate satisfaction ($T=3.99$, $p<.001$) (see Table 4.5). Hypothesis #1(a) was supported.

(b) Expatriate willingness to return overseas was significantly and positively related to expatriate satisfaction ($T=2.99$, $p<.001$), but not to expatriate adjustment (see Table 4.5). Hypothesis #1(b) was partially supported.
(c) No significant relationship was found between expatriate stress and expatriate intention to stay. Hypothesis #1(c) was not supported.

(d) No significant relationship was found between expatriate stress and expatriate willingness to return overseas. Hypothesis #1(d) was not supported.

In summary, three of the six relationships were significant. Expatriate satisfaction was significantly and positively related to both expatriate intention to stay and expatriate willingness to return overseas. Expatriate adjustment was significantly and positively related only to expatriate intention to stay. Expatriate stress was related neither to intention to stay nor to willingness to return overseas. Therefore, hypothesis #1 was partially supported.

4.4.2 Hypothesis #2

Hypothesis #2 suggested that expatriate cross-cultural training and social support will be (a) positively related to expatriate adjustment and satisfaction; and, (b) negatively related to expatriate stress, while expatriate culture novelty will be (c) negatively related to expatriate adjustment and satisfaction; and, (d) positively related to expatriate stress.

The results for the multiple regressions for expatriate cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty, adjustment, satisfaction, and stress are presented in Table 4.6.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate adjustment</td>
<td>Expatriate informative CCT</td>
<td>-.78</td>
<td>-2.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expatriate cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-2.6</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expatriate participative CCT</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 102 F = 11.06 p &lt; .001</td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>5.38</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate satisfaction</td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>2.56</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 102 F = 2.96 p = .01</td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-.16</td>
<td>-1.92</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate stress</td>
<td>Expatriate informative CCT</td>
<td>-.90</td>
<td>-1.94</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 102 F = .378 p = .89</td>
<td>Expatriate cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.40</td>
<td>-3.17</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No significant relationship</td>
<td>Expatriate participative CCT</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-1.11</td>
<td>.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>-3.39</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Expatriate *adjustment* was significantly and positively related to *support from host country nationals* (T=5.38, p<.001) and *support from home country nationals* (T=2.56, p=.01) (see Table 4.6). However, a significant negative relationship was found between expatriate *adjustment* and expatriate *cross-cultural training* using *informative* methods (T=2.01, p=.05) (see Table 4.6) and no significant relationship was found between expatriate *adjustment* and
expatriate cross-cultural training using either cognitive or participative methods. Expatriate satisfaction was significantly and positively related to expatriate cross-cultural training using participative methods (T = 2.23, p = .03) (see Table 4.6). However, a significant negative relationship was found between expatriate satisfaction and expatriate cross-cultural training using either informative (T = 1.94, p = .06) or cognitive methods (T = 3.17, p < .001) (see Table 4.6). No significant relationship was found between expatriate satisfaction and social support. Hypothesis #2(a) was partially supported.

(b) No significant relationships were found between cross-cultural training, social support, and stress. Hypothesis #2(b) was not supported.

(c) A significant negative relationship was found between expatriate adjustment and culture novelty (T = 1.92, p = .06) (see Table 4.6). However, no significant relationship was found between expatriate satisfaction and culture novelty. Hypothesis #2(c) was partially supported.

(d) No significant relationship was found between culture novelty and stress. Hypothesis #2(d) was not supported.

In summary, only four of the eighteen relationships were significant and in the predicted direction. Cross-cultural training using participative methods was positively related to expatriate satisfaction, but not related to expatriate adjustment. Cross-cultural training
using informative or cognitive methods was either negatively related or not related to expatriate adjustment and satisfaction. Social support was significantly and positively related to expatriate adjustment, but not to expatriate satisfaction. Culture novelty was significantly and negatively related to expatriate adjustment but not to expatriate satisfaction. None of these antecedents were significantly related to expatriate stress. Therefore, hypothesis #2 was partially supported.

4.4.3 Hypothesis #3

Hypothesis #3 suggested that expatriate cross-cultural training and social support will be (a) positively related to expatriate intention to stay; and, (b) positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas, while expatriate culture novelty will be (c) negatively related to expatriate intention to stay; and, (d) negatively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.

The results for the multiple regressions for expatriate cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are presented in Table 4.7.
TABLE 4.7
Regression results for expatriate cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty intention to stay and willingness to return overseas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate intention to stay</td>
<td>Expatriate informative CCT</td>
<td>-.66</td>
<td>-1.25</td>
<td>.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 79 F = 2.70 p = .02</td>
<td>Expatriate cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.08</td>
<td>-.53</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expatriate participative CCT</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>1.44</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-1.38</td>
<td>.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expatriate willingness to return overseas</td>
<td>Expatriate informative CCT</td>
<td>.29</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 101 F = 1.84 p = .10</td>
<td>Expatriate cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.18</td>
<td>-1.41</td>
<td>.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Expatriate participative CCT</td>
<td>-.26</td>
<td>-.53</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>1.22</td>
<td>.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.96</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) A significant portion of the variance in expatriate intention to stay was explained by support from home country nationals (T=3.24, p<.001) (see Table 4.7). No other significant relationship was found. Hypothesis #3(a) was partially supported.

(b) The total effect of the antecedent variables on willingness to return overseas was very weak (F=1.84, p=.10). This notwithstanding, a small portion of the variance in expatriate willingness to return overseas was explained by support from home country nationals (T=1.96, p=.05) (see Table 4.7). No other significant relationship was found. Hypothesis #3(b) was partially supported.
(c) No significant relationship was found between expatriate intention to stay and culture novelty. Hypothesis #3(c) was not supported.

(d) A significant relationship was found between expatriate willingness to return and culture novelty ($T=1.90$, $p=.06$) (see Table 4.7), but the relationship was not in the predicted direction. Hypothesis #3(d) was not supported.

In summary, only two of the twelve relationships were significant and in the predicted direction. Support from home country nationals was significantly and positively related to both expatriate intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. No relationship was found between cross-cultural training or support from host country nationals and expatriate intention to stay or willingness to return overseas. Culture novelty was related to expatriate willingness to return overseas, but not to expatriate intention to stay. Moreover, the relationship was positive, not negative as predicted. Therefore, hypothesis #3 was partially supported.

4.4.4 Hypothesis #4

Hypothesis #4 suggested that spousal adjustment and satisfaction will be (a) positively related to spousal intention to stay; and, (b) positively related to spousal willingness to return overseas, while spousal anxiety will be (c) negatively related to spousal intention to stay and (d) negatively related to spousal willingness to return overseas.
The results for the multiple regressions for spousal adjustment, satisfaction, anxiety, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are presented in Table 4.8.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spousal intention to stay</td>
<td>Spousal adjustment</td>
<td>.33</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal satisfaction</td>
<td>.38</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal anxiety</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.77</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 71 F = 9.94 p &lt; .001</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spousal willingness to return overseas</td>
<td>Spousal adjustment</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal satisfaction</td>
<td>.28</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal anxiety</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.84</td>
<td>.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 73 F = 4.05 p = .01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Spousal intention to stay was significantly and positively related to spousal adjustment (T=2.91, p<.001) and to spousal satisfaction (T=2.75, p=.01) (see Table 4.8). Hypothesis #4(a) was supported.

(b) Spousal willingness to return overseas was significantly and positively related to spousal satisfaction (T=1.87, p=.06), but not to spousal adjustment (see Table 4.8). Hypothesis #4(b) was partially supported.

(c) No significant relationship was found between spousal anxiety and spousal intention to stay. Hypothesis #4(c) was not supported.
(d) No significant relationship was found between spousal anxiety and spousal willingness to return overseas. Hypothesis #4(d) was not supported.

In summary, three of the six relationships were significant. Spousal satisfaction was significantly and positively related to both spousal intention to stay and spousal willingness to return overseas. Spousal adjustment was significantly and positively related only to spousal intention to stay. Spousal anxiety was related neither to intention to stay nor to willingness to return overseas. Therefore, hypothesis #4 was partially supported.

4.4.5 Hypothesis #5

Hypothesis #5 suggested that spousal cross-cultural training and social support will be (a) positively related to spousal adjustment and satisfaction; and, (b) negatively related to spousal anxiety, while spousal culture novelty will be (c) negatively related to spousal adjustment and satisfaction; and, (d) positively related to spousal anxiety.

The results for the multiple regressions for spousal cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty, adjustment, satisfaction, and anxiety are presented in Table 4.9.
### TABLE 4.9
Regression results for spousal cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty, adjustment, satisfaction, and anxiety overseas

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spousal adjustment</td>
<td>Spousal informative CCT</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.74</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal cognitive CCT</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>1.20</td>
<td>.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal participative CCT</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.48</td>
<td>.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>.44</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.21</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-.37</td>
<td>-3.78</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spousal satisfaction</td>
<td>Spousal informative CCT</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.54</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal participative CCT</td>
<td>.04</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.27</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-.36</td>
<td>-3.11</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spousal anxiety</td>
<td>Spousal informative CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal participative CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) Spousal adjustment was significantly and positively related to support from host country nationals (T=4.70, p<.001) and support from home country nationals (T=2.30, p=.02) (see Table 4.9). No significant relationship was found between spousal adjustment and cross-cultural training. Spousal satisfaction was significantly and positively related to support from home country nationals (T=2.46, p=.02) (see Table 4.9), but not to support from host...
country nationals. No significant relationship was found between spousal satisfaction and cross-cultural training. Hypothesis #5(a) was partially supported.

(b) No significant relationships were found between cross-cultural training, social support, and anxiety. Hypothesis #5(b) was not supported.

(c) A significant negative relationship was found between culture novelty, spousal adjustment (T=3.78, p<.001) and spousal satisfaction (T=3.11, p<.001) (see Table 4.9). Hypothesis #5(c) was supported.

(d) No significant relationship was found between culture novelty and anxiety. Hypothesis #5(d) was not supported.

In summary, only five of the eighteen relationships were significant. Cross-cultural training was not related to any outcome. Social support was significantly and positively related to spousal adjustment, but only support from home country nationals was significantly related to spousal satisfaction. Culture novelty was significantly and negatively related to spousal adjustment and satisfaction. None of these antecedent variables were significantly related to spousal anxiety. Therefore, hypothesis #5 was partially supported.
4.4.6 Hypothesis #6

Hypothesis #6 suggested that spousal cross-cultural training and social support will be (a) positively related to spousal intention to stay; and, (b) positively related to spousal willingness to return overseas, while spousal culture novelty will be (c) negatively related to spousal intention to stay; and, (d) negatively related to spousal willingness to return overseas.

The results for the multiple regressions for spousal cross-cultural training, social support, culture novelty, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are presented in Table 4.10.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OUTCOME</th>
<th>ANTECEDENT</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Spousal intention to stay</td>
<td>Spousal informative CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 72 F = .61 p = .72</td>
<td>Spousal cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No significant relationship</td>
<td>Spousal participative CCT</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spousal willingness to return overseas</td>
<td>Spousal informative CCT</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>N = 74 F = 2.85 p = .02</td>
<td>Spousal cognitive CCT</td>
<td>-.14</td>
<td>-.78</td>
<td>.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Spousal participative CCT</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>.57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from host nationals</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.44</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Support from home nationals</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Culture novelty</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(a) No significant relationships were found between cross-cultural training, social support, and spousal intention to stay. Hypothesis #6(a) was not supported.

(b) A significant portion of the variance in spousal willingness to return overseas was explained by support from home country nationals ($T=3.62$, $p<.001$) (see Table 4.10). No other significant relationship was found. Hypothesis #6(b) was partially supported.

(c) No significant relationship was found between culture novelty and spousal intention to stay. Hypothesis #6(c) was not supported.

(d) No significant relationship was found between spousal willingness to return and culture novelty. Hypothesis #6(d) was not supported.

In summary, only one of the twelve relationships was significant. Support from home country nationals was significantly and positively related to spousal willingness to return overseas. No significant relationships were found between cross-cultural training, support from host country nationals or culture novelty and spousal willingness to return overseas. Moreover, none of the antecedent variables were found to affect spousal intention to stay. Therefore, hypothesis #6 was mostly not supported.
4.4.7 Hypothesis #7

Hypothesis #7 suggested that spousal adjustment will be positively related to expatriate adjustment.

The results for the correlations among spouse and expatriate adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas are presented in Table 4.11.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VARIABLE</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>9</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Spouse adjustment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Exp. adjustment</td>
<td>.488***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Spouse satisfaction</td>
<td>.404***</td>
<td>.203*</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Exp. satisfaction</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.250**</td>
<td>.541***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Spouse anxiety</td>
<td>-.310***</td>
<td>-.062</td>
<td>-.615***</td>
<td>-.455***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Expatriate stress</td>
<td>-.093</td>
<td>-.250**</td>
<td>-.312***</td>
<td>-.402***</td>
<td>.225*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Sp. intent. to stay</td>
<td>.422***</td>
<td>.341***</td>
<td>.351***</td>
<td>.195</td>
<td>-.229*</td>
<td>-.357***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Exp. intent. to stay</td>
<td>.353***</td>
<td>.440***</td>
<td>.610***</td>
<td>.415***</td>
<td>-.303**</td>
<td>-.232**</td>
<td>.419***</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Sp. will. to return</td>
<td>.303***</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.284**</td>
<td>.103</td>
<td>-.277**</td>
<td>-.056</td>
<td>.324***</td>
<td>.344***</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Exp. will. to ret.</td>
<td>.059</td>
<td>.283***</td>
<td>.181</td>
<td>.285***</td>
<td>-.192</td>
<td>-.093</td>
<td>.257**</td>
<td>.177</td>
<td>.436***</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*p<.10  **p<.05  ***p<.01

Spousal adjustment was significantly and positively related to expatriate adjustment (.488, p<.01) (see Table 4.11). Hypothesis #7 was supported.
4.4.8 Hypothesis #8

Hypothesis #8 suggested that *spousal satisfaction* will be positively related to expatriate *satisfaction*.

Spousal *satisfaction* was significantly and positively related to expatriate *satisfaction* (.541, p<.01) (see Table 4.11). Hypothesis #8 was supported.

4.4.9 Hypothesis #9

Hypothesis #9 suggested that *spousal anxiety* will be positively related to expatriate *stress*.

Spousal *anxiety* was significantly and positively related to expatriate *stress* (.225, p<.10) (see Table 4.11). Hypothesis #9 was supported.

4.4.10 Hypothesis #10

Hypothesis #10 suggested that *spousal intention to stay* will be positively related to expatriate *intention to stay*.

Spousal *intention to stay* was significantly and positively related to expatriate *intention to stay* (.419, p<.01) (see Table 4.11). Hypothesis #10 was supported.
4.4.11 Hypothesis #11

Hypothesis #11 suggested that spousal willingness to return overseas will be positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas.

Spousal willingness to return overseas was significantly and positively related to expatriate willingness to return overseas (.436, p<.01) (see Table 4.11). Hypothesis #11 was supported.

4.5 Discussion

4.5.1 Factors affecting intention to stay overseas

First, it should be noted that the results concerning intention to stay overseas are tentative, given the low reliability of the scale. As expected, expatriate intention to stay was significantly related to expatriate adjustment and to expatriate satisfaction and spouse intention to stay was significantly related to spouse adjustment and to spouse satisfaction. These results are similar to those reported by Black and Gregersen (1990). The results indicate that the more adjusted and satisfied the expatriates and the spouses are overseas, the more they intend to remain in the assignment for its expected duration.
Stress overseas was not found to affect the expatriates’ or the spouses’ intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration. However, the levels of stress for both the expatriates and the spouses were very low, so it is possible that the lack of significant relationship is more attributable to a lack of variability than to a lack of impact. Indeed, stress overseas was also not found to affect the expatriates’ and the spouses’ willingness to return overseas. Moreover, the regressions of antecedent variables on stress and anxiety were not significant, indicating that none of these antecedents were related to stress or anxiety.

For expatriates, support from home country nationals was also found to have a significant positive impact on intention to stay overseas. The results indicate that frequent contacts with other Canadians increase the expatriates’ intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration. This significant direct relationship was not observed for spouses, as the regression of antecedent variables on spousal intention to stay was not significant, indicating that none of the antecedents directly affected spousal intention to stay.

Cross-cultural training, support from host country nationals and culture novelty were not found to have a direct impact on expatriates’ intention to stay overseas. However, a chain of effects was observed. Indeed, significant relationships were observed between cross-cultural training, social support and culture novelty and expatriate adjustment, while significant relationships were observed between cross-cultural training and expatriate satisfaction overseas. A similar chain of effects was also observed for spouses. Significant relationships were observed between social support, culture novelty and spouse adjustment.
and satisfaction. Given that expatriates’ and spouse’s adjustment and satisfaction were found to affect their intention to stay, the above significant relationships would therefore be of equal importance to outcomes overseas.

First, cross-cultural training using informative methods was found to have a slight negative impact on expatriate adjustment and satisfaction. The results indicate that the more training expatriates receive using informative methods, the less adjusted or satisfied they are overseas.

A similar negative significant relationship was observed between cross-cultural training using cognitive methods and expatriate satisfaction. The results indicate that the more training the expatriates receive using cognitive methods, the less satisfied they are overseas.

These findings are surprising, given that the preponderant literature on the issue suggests that cross-cultural training has a positive impact on outcomes overseas (see Black & Mendenhall, 1990 for a review). However, similar significant negative relationships had been reported by Rehany (1994) and Black and Gregersen (1991b), who suggested that “a little knowledge is a dangerous thing” (1991b, p.474). The results suggest that relaying information without involvement, or with minimal involvement of the participants through the thought process not only is not sufficient to insure that participants will develop realistic expectations towards their overseas assignment, or that they will be better prepared to adjust once overseas, but that it might hinder their adjustment and their satisfaction. Opponents of less rigorous training methods suggest that little gains can be made when the training offered does not add
up to a meaningful whole or when the training offered is not congruent with the individual’s living experience abroad (Grove and Torbiorn, 1985). The results in this study would support this view.

However, a significant positive relationship was found between cross-cultural training using participative methods and expatriate satisfaction. The results indicate that cross-cultural training can help the participants to develop realistic expectations towards the upcoming assignment when it entails active involvement on their part.

Based on these results, companies need to pay close attention to the cross-cultural training programs presently offered to expatriates. The results of this study suggest that programs using informative or cognitive methods yield negative outcomes while programs using participative methods produce positive effects.

Significant positive relationships were observed between social support and expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment overseas. Similar findings were reported by Black and Gregersen (1991a). The results indicate that frequent contacts with both host country nationals and other Canadians increase the expatriates’ and the spouses’ ability to adjust to the host country during their assignment. A significant positive relationship was also found between support from home country nationals and spouses’ satisfaction. The results indicate that the more contact the spouses have with other Canadians during the assignment, the more satisfied they are with the assignment.
The findings concerning social support are important for organizations. While contacts with host country nationals were positively related to expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment, contacts with other Canadians were positively related to expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment and to spouses’ satisfaction. A number of companies pair newly arrived expatriates and spouses with expatriates and/or spouses who have already been on-site for some time. Other companies encourage the expatriates and spouses to live on town sites with other expatriates. However, it should be noted that this last practice might confound the expected positive outcomes, since the frequency of contacts with host country nationals was also found to be positively related to adjustment for the expatriates and the spouses. So, companies who encourage their expatriates and spouses to live on town sites must ensure that other means of contacts with host country nationals are stimulated.

When combining the results reported for social support to the results reported for cross-cultural training, it is possible to get a broader perspective on the effect of cross-cultural training on outcomes overseas. As a matter of fact, social support can be considered as a form of rigorous on-site cross-cultural training. Indeed, encounters with host country nationals and/or experienced expatriates is one of the methods used in the “interaction” cross-cultural training approach and has been described as an effective way of preparing trainees to live and work abroad (Brislin et al., 1983). Interactions with members of the host country and other expatriates can help the expatriates and the spouses to feel more comfortable with the host country nationals, and to better understand details about life in the host country.
In summary, because most of the training offered to expatriates and spouses was offered before they left Quebec for their overseas assignment, the findings suggest that rigorous pre-departure cross-cultural training helps the expatriates to develop realistic expectations about the assignment, while rigorous on-site cross-cultural training helps the expatriates and the spouses to adjust to the host country and helps the spouses to realign their expectations regarding the assignment. Combined, these results suggest an interesting plan of action to companies in terms of cross-cultural training: offer pre-departure cross-cultural training using participative methods, followed by on-site cross-cultural training using “pairing” systems with both other home country nationals and host country nationals.

Finally, negative significant relationships were observed between culture novelty and spouses’ and expatriates’ adjustment. Similar findings were reported by Black and Gregersen (1991a and 1991b). The results of the current study indicate that the more different the culture of the host country is from Quebec’s culture, the more difficult it is for them to adjust to the host country. These findings suggest that expatriates and spouses who are sent to countries that are very different from Quebec in terms of culture need additional support to adjust during their assignment.

Moreover, a negative significant relationship was also observed between culture novelty and spouses’ satisfaction. The results indicate that the more different the culture of the host country is from Quebec’s culture, the less satisfied the spouses are during the assignment. However, no significant relationship was found between culture novelty and satisfaction for
expatriates. It can be argued that the aspects of the culture that are more dissimilar have a stronger impact on spouses than on expatriates. Indeed, according to Adler (1991), spouses often encounter more negative experiences overseas since they are confronted with having to fill basic needs for the family (e.g., food, cleanliness), which can often prove to be a very frustrating experience. On one hand, expatriates' contacts with host country nationals often involve work contacts with people who share some knowledge of the expatriates' language or work practices even though the culture of the host country might be very different from Quebec's culture. Spouses, on the other hand, must deal with servants and merchants who in majority, speak the slang language of the host country and have minimal knowledge of North-American's practices in terms of food, cleanliness, or hygiene. Accordingly, when the family assignment is in a country very different from Quebec, spouses need additional support such as basic language training, information on food and health issues in the host country, and accompaniment, at least during the first months of the assignment.

4.5.2 Factors affecting willingness to return overseas

As expected, expatriate and spouse satisfaction was significantly related to expatriate and spouse willingness to return overseas. Similar results had been reported by Moore and Punnett (1994). The results indicate that expatriates and spouses who have developed realistic expectations regarding the current assignment are more willing to repeat the experience. Because of the chain of effects described in the previous section, the antecedents which had been found to affect satisfaction (i.e., cross-cultural training for expatriates and
culture novelty and support from home country nationals for spouses) also indirectly affect willingness to return overseas.

As reported previously, stress overseas was not found to influence the expatriates’ and the spouses’ willingness to return overseas. It is suggested that this lack of significant relationship is attributable to a lack of variability in the data.

Adjustment overseas was also not found to significantly affect the expatriates’ and the spouses’ willingness to return overseas. This finding would suggest that although the current experience overseas might be discomfiting, it would still not deter the expatriates’ or the spouses’ willingness to repeat the experience. This finding is particularly interesting when combined with the finding that contrary to what was expected, culture novelty had a small but positive impact on expatriates’ willingness to return overseas, suggesting that the more novel the culture, the more the expatriate is willing to repeat the experience. These findings could lead to interesting research on the reasons that motivate expatriates to accept overseas assignments. Do expatriates agree to work abroad because of the appeal of exotic surroundings? Are salaries, benefits or living conditions better in countries very different from Quebec? Is the cost of living lower in these countries? Any of these reasons could justify why expatriates assigned in countries very different from Quebec are more willing to repeat the experience of working abroad.
Finally, a significant positive relationship was found between support from home country nationals and expatriates' and spouses' willingness to return overseas. The results indicate that frequent contacts with other Canadians during the assignment increase the expatriates' and the spouses' willingness to repeat their overseas experience. Such interactions possibly provide them an "oasis" where they do not need to worry whether or not their behaviour is appropriate, as well as an opportunity to discuss and possibly brainstorm potential solutions to day-to-day problems encountered during the assignment. Secure in the knowledge that such a "net" is available overseas, expatriates and spouses would then be more willing to repeat the experience.

4.5.3 The contribution of the spouse to outcomes overseas for the expatriate

As anticipated, spouse adjustment was found to be related to expatriate adjustment. A similar finding was reported by Black (1988). The results indicate that the more adjusted the spouses are overseas, the more adjusted the expatriates are (and vice-versa). Moreover, all expected relationships between spouse and expatriate satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas were supported by the findings. Spouse satisfaction was significantly related to expatriate satisfaction. The results indicate that the more satisfied the spouses are during the current assignment, the more satisfied the expatriates are with their assignment overseas (and vice-versa). Spouse anxiety was positively related to expatriate stress. The results indicate that the more anxious the spouses are during the current assignment, the more stressed and anxious the expatriates are (and vice-versa). Spouse
intention to stay was positively related to expatriate’s intention to stay. The results indicate that the more the spouse intends to stay overseas, the more the expatriate intends to remain in the assignment for its expected duration (and vice-versa). Spouse willingness to return overseas was significantly related to expatriate's willingness to return overseas. The results indicate that the more the spouse is willing to return overseas, the more the expatriate is willing to repeat the experience (and vice-versa).

These results confirm that the spouse plays an important role in outcomes for expatriates, as suggested in the literature (Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Stephens, 1989). The findings that the spouse plays a critical role in the expatriate’s adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return seem to be well understood by organizations. Indeed, companies who offer cross-cultural training for overseas assignments report offering similar training for spouses. However, although it was not an issue addressed in this research, many completed questionnaires came back with annotations about the lack of satisfying arrangements for children (e.g., school or after school activities). As is the case in other studies on spouse adjustment, most spouses in this study were females (93.2%). In general, women are particularly sensitive to living and schooling conditions for their children. If spouses overseas are not happy with the conditions provided for the family, we now know that this will negatively affect the expatriate’s satisfaction as well, and that expatriate and spouse satisfaction directly influences their intention to stay overseas for the expected duration of the assignment and willingness to accept another assignment abroad.
CHAPTER 5: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

In conducting the current project, four goals were pursued: (1) to explore the cross-cultural training practices of Quebec firms who send employees overseas; (2) to assess the impact of adjustment, satisfaction and stress on intention to stay and willingness to return overseas for the expatriates and the spouses; (3) to assess the effects of cross-cultural training, culture novelty and social support on adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas for the expatriates and the spouses; and, (4) to assess the role of the spouse on outcomes overseas for the expatriate. This research has made many significant contributions to the body of knowledge on overseas assignments.

5.1 Contributions of this research

First, this study has made a significant contribution to knowledge on factors that affect the expatriates and their spouses overseas. By going beyond previous studies, this study provided more insights into the adjustment process, and led to a more generalizable theory of cross-cultural adjustment:

1. Most previous studies conducted for overseas assignments surveyed American expatriates, in the most parts assigned in Asian countries. It was suggested by Black and Gregersen (1991a) that their findings may be limited to American expatriates assigned in the Pacific Rim. By surveying Quebec expatriates assigned to 51 different countries and spouses accompanying expatriates in 41 different countries spread
across the five continents, the current study assessed the impact of many antecedents on outcomes overseas for expatriates and spouses assigned to countries that vary in similarity or dissimilarity from their home country.

Previous studies have often used, as a source for identifying samples, directories from the host countries in which the names of the expatriates are listed. This practice might have led to samples which were either over representatives of "stayers" or of higher-level executives. Indeed, according to Black (1988), because of the logistics of updating large registries, these tend to show only the names of individuals who have been in the country for more than six to eight months. Thus, the first six months of adjustment would not be directly measured. In addition, those who had trouble making the transition could have returned to their home country in the first months, rendering the sample over-representative of "stayers". Additionally, still according to Black (1988), even though most directories offer multiple names for a given company, the names listed are not exhaustive and tend to reflect high level executives. Thus, the sample would become overly representative of high level executives and might not be generalizable to lower level expatriates such as Technical Specialists. The sampling procedure adopted for the current research avoided both of these limitations. The sample included a range of expatriates and spouses who had been in the assignment for only one month, to expatriates and spouses who had been in the assignment for two years. The range of positions also varied proportionally between the different levels in organizations.
Second, this study contributed to an advanced understanding of the factors directly affecting expatriates’ and spouses’ intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration and willingness to return overseas. Findings indicate that adjustment and satisfaction play an important role in Quebec expatriates’ and spouses’ decision to remain overseas; satisfaction and interactions with other Canadians play an important role in their decision to return overseas. For both the expatriates and the spouses, stress does not directly affect their intention to stay or willingness to return overseas.

For expatriates, cross-cultural training was not found to directly affect their intention to stay or willingness to return overseas. However, rigorous cross-cultural training was part of a chain of positive effects on expatriate intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Indeed, cross-cultural training using participative methods was found to positively affect expatriate satisfaction, which in turn was found to positively influence expatriate intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. For spouses, cross-cultural training was not found to directly affect their intention to stay or their willingness to return overseas.

Third, this study contributed to an advanced understanding of the role of the spouse in outcomes overseas for the expatriate. Findings indicate that all outcomes overseas for the expatriates are closely related to outcomes overseas for the spouses.
In summary, this research provided a more in-depth investigation of some of the factors suggested to affect adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. It thus allowed the identification of new directions for future research.

Finally, this project is also significant for the Quebec business community. As mentioned previously, the failure of an overseas assignment carries a high cost (Copeland & Griggs, 1985, Harvey 1985). Kealey (1988) found that Canadian technical advisors may not perform successfully overseas. Therefore, Quebec firms performing at the international level will benefit from findings on the factors that increase success overseas.

Although this research has made many significant contributions to the body of knowledge on overseas assignments, like most research projects, the study has its limitations.

5.2 Limitations

The first limitation is common method variance. It can result due to the respondents' need to provide consistent information. Because they have the opportunity to provide information on both the dependent and independent variables of interest, individuals can generate responses with systematic correlations. Although this limitation could bias the results, steps were taken to reduce it:

1. Self-reports were obtained from spouses and expatriates and each was instructed to complete the questionnaire independently;
independent and objective measures of the antecedents were obtained whenever possible; and,

finally, potentially related items were placed in different sections of the questionnaires.

Another limitation which is often inherent in such studies is the sample size. Because anonymity was preserved in the study, in order to increase the reliance on the validity of the answers, it was impossible to send reminders to expatriates and spouses who did not return their questionnaires.

The low number of respondents who had received cross-cultural training and the restriction of range for those who had received cross-cultural training produced an abnormal distribution of the questionnaire responses. This was problematic since it did not permit analysis of the data as anticipated. In addition, the measure used for this antecedent possibly magnified the problem, forcing the researcher to compare training to no training instead of actual training received. A measure of hours of training instead of days of training might have produced a somewhat more normal distribution for those expatriates and spouses who had received cross-cultural training. In addition, experimental research comparing training using informative, cognitive and participative methods with a control group having received no training would probably be more appropriate to study the impact of training on outcomes overseas.
Another limitation is the fact that only Quebec respondents participated in the surveys. Accordingly, results cannot automatically be generalized to Canadians or North-Americans. Many Directors of Human Resources who participated in this research mentioned that Quebec companies are generally doing very well overseas because of the adaptability of the expatriates. In a recent research conducted with nine Canadian companies with overseas operations, Leclair (1996) mentioned that “according to the participants in this study, Canadians are more adaptable than Americans” (1996, p. 155). Future research comparing the adaptability of Quebec, Canadian and American expatriates would be needed to assess whether or not results of studies with one group can be generalized to the other two groups.

Finally, some of the conclusions of this study are necessarily limited to issues related to expatriates’ and spouses’ intentions (e.g., intention to stay or willingness to return overseas) as opposed to actual internal turnover or actual acceptance of another overseas assignment. This is an important limitation because it could be argued that individuals do not necessarily execute what they say they will accomplish. Nonetheless, it is worth noting that intention to leave has consistently been the most robust predictor of actual turnover, with an average correlation of .50 (Lee & Mowday, 1987; Wanous, 1980).

5.3 Implications

Within the limitations mentioned, several practical implications can be drawn from this study’s tentative results.
In view of the literature on the effect of cross-cultural training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992) and the findings of the current study, Quebec firms need to pay close attention to the cross-cultural training offered to the expatriates and the spouses. The findings of the present research show that the training currently offered using either informative or cognitive methods not only does not yield the anticipated positive results, but at times bears detrimental repercussions for expatriates. However, cross-cultural training using participative (more rigorous) methods was found to positively affect expatriates’ satisfaction. Moreover, frequent social contacts, especially contacts with other Canadians, play a significant role in the expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. These contacts can be considered as a form of on-site cross-cultural training in that they provide to expatriates and spouses an avenue to get cues regarding appropriate or inappropriate behaviours in the host culture.

The findings regarding the positive contribution of social support on adjustment overseas for both the expatriates and the spouses are particularly important since time since arrival was not found to be significantly related to adjustment overseas. This suggests that contrary to what is suggested in the literature (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982), time since arrival does not play an important role in the adjustment process of Quebec expatriates and spouses. In other words, adjustment overseas does not happen automatically over time for Quebec expatriates and their spouses. Therefore, companies must ensure that measures are taken to facilitate their adjustment overseas. Results of this study indicate that frequent contacts with both home and host country nationals can secure this outcome.
The results of this study suggest an interesting plan to companies who want to ensure that expatriates send abroad will be willing to remain in the assignment for its expected duration and willing to repeat the experience. Before they send expatriates and spouses on overseas assignment, companies should offer them pre-departure cross-cultural training using participative methods to help them to develop realistic expectations regarding the assignment. Once the expatriates and the spouses are sent abroad, companies should instigate contacts with home and host country nationals by offering guided learning programs such as "buddy systems" or mentoring.

Moreover, in view of the findings concerning culture novelty, it is clear that expatriates and spouses who are sent to countries whose culture differs significantly from Quebec’s culture need additional support to adjust overseas.

The role of the spouse on outcomes overseas for expatriates has clearly been demonstrated in the current study. The message is thus very clear for companies. Although they have to remain competitive overseas, they have to ensure that the financial packages and living conditions offered to the family are acceptable. They also have to ensure that the whole family receives support during the current assignment. Companies who continue to ignore the needs of the spouse or the family when assigning an employee overseas might discover at their own expense that false savings on costs of expatriation might result in real expenses on direct and indirect costs of hasty repatriation.
5.4 Future research

In view of the findings concerning cross-cultural training in this research, it is clear that there is a need to examine the quality, sufficiency and appropriateness of the cross-cultural training received or undertaken to better understand the relationships between cross-cultural training and different outcomes overseas. Given our findings that most expatriates and spouses had received little or no training, there is a need to revise the measures used for the training received.

In addition, we now know that expatriate and spouse adjustment and satisfaction are directly related to their intention to remain in the assignment for its expected duration and that satisfaction is directly related to their willingness to accept another assignment overseas. A number of factors affecting adjustment and satisfaction have also been identified. However, no significant relationship was found between the antecedents under study in this research and stress overseas. It is possible that other factors such as perceived adequacy of the living conditions offered to the family or factors surrounding the working conditions significantly influence the expatriates’ and spouses’ level of stress overseas. Additional research is needed in this area.

Finally, some significant correlations were observed between demographic variables and outcomes overseas for both the expatriates and the spouses, suggesting that demographic variables might play a significant role in outcomes overseas. Although these relationships
were not an issue of interest in the current study, future research on the impact of
demographic variables on outcomes overseas might shed some light on additional factors
affecting the success or failure of overseas assignments.

5.5 Conclusion

The study has sought to extend the limited empirical knowledge on Quebec’s expatriates and
spouses’ adjustment, satisfaction, stress, intention to stay and willingness to return overseas.
It demonstrated that:

a) cross-cultural training using either informative or cognitive methods does not have a
significant positive effect on expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment, satisfaction,
intention to stay and willingness to return overseas. Even more alarming is the finding
that it can hinder the expatriates’ adjustment and satisfaction overseas;

b) cross-cultural training using participative methods has a significant and positive effect
on expatriates’ satisfaction overseas, but no effect on other outcomes for expatriates
and no effect on any outcomes for spouses;

c) culture novelty is negatively related to adjustment for expatriates and spouses, and
negatively related to satisfaction for spouse. However, a significant positive impact,
although very weak, was found between culture novelty and expatriates’ willingness
to accept other assignments overseas;

d) social support is positively related to adjustment overseas for expatriates and spouses, and to satisfaction for spouses. To a certain extent, it also positively influences the expatriates’ and the spouses’ intention to stay and willingness to return overseas;

e) cross-cultural training, social support and culture novelty have no impact on the expatriates’ and spouses’ stress overseas. In turn, their level of stress has no impact on their intention to stay or willingness to return overseas;

f) expatriates’ and spouses’ adjustment and satisfaction are related to their intention to stay; satisfaction is also related to their willingness to return overseas;

g) spouse adjustment is related to expatriate adjustment; spouse satisfaction is related to expatriate satisfaction; spouse anxiety is related to expatriate stress; spouse intention to stay is related to expatriate intention to stay; and, spouse willingness to return overseas is related to the expatriate’s willingness to return overseas.

This study has contributed significantly to the advanced understanding of the exact role and power of various antecedents on outcomes overseas for Quebec expatriates and their spouses, and has opened new avenues for empirical investigation.
REFERENCES


APPENDIX 1  
Letter to the organization

Dear Madam/Sir:

Every year, hundreds of Canadians are assigned to conduct business overseas. The cost of an expatriate overseas is considered to be two to three times the individual’s basic salary. A hasty return or an unproductive expatriate is very costly for companies.

As a Masters student in the Masters of Science in Administration program at Concordia University, Montreal, I am conducting my thesis research on cross-cultural training received by expatriates and their spouses. I am seeking the participation of international companies from the province of Quebec. This research is very important as it will shed some light on the effect of cross-cultural training on adjustment overseas, and on the relationship between spouse and expatriate adjustment. In these days of global competition, international companies can certainly benefit from such information. Your participation in this study is greatly appreciated.

My research will involve your participation at two levels. First, you will find enclosed a Questionnaire to the Organization that I would ask you to complete, should you accept to participate in my study. The second level involves expatriates and their spouses. I will ask you to distribute questionnaires, that should take approximately 20 minutes to complete, to expatriates and their spouses who are currently posted overseas and have been in the host country for less than two years. The expatriates and their spouses will be assured of complete anonymity, as their respective questionnaires do not ask for their names. A return envelope addressed to Dr. Terri Lituchy, my thesis supervisor, will be provided with each questionnaire. You will find enclosed a sample of the Questionnaire to the Expatriate and the Questionnaire to the Spouse for your perusal.

The information provided by your company, your employees and their spouses will be confidential. No individual or company names will be mentioned in my study. Companies who agree to participate in my research will receive a summary report on my findings.

I will contact you shortly to verify if you agree to participate in my research. Meanwhile, should you need additional information on my project, please do not hesitate to contact me.

I thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Carolle Turcotte, MSc candidate
APPENDIX 2
Questionnaire to the organization
(Français de l'autre côté)

1. What is your industrial sector? ________________________________

2. How many expatriates are currently posted overseas for your firm? __________

3. In what year did your firm start sending expatriates on overseas assignments?

4. To which countries does your firm send expatriates? __________

5. What percentage of your firm's global earnings comes from your foreign operations? __________% 

6. Assuming that failure overseas is represented by hasty returns or unproductive expatriates, what percentage of total assignments overseas would your firm consider as failures? __________% 

7. What would you say were the major causes of these failures? ________________________________

8. Does your firm offer cross-cultural training (designed to prepare people to live and work in a culture other than their own) to expatriates before their departure on overseas assignment?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

9. Does your firm offer any cross-cultural training to expatriates once they are settled abroad?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

If you answered “no” to questions 8 and 9, please indicate below why your firm chooses not to offer cross-cultural training to expatriates, then proceed to question 16.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________

10. In your opinion, what are the most important components to be included in a cross-cultural training program for expatriates?

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
11. In terms of timing of the cross-cultural training for expatriates, does your firm offer:
   a) ☐ cross-cultural training before the expatriates leave for their overseas assignment.
   b) ☐ cross-cultural training once the expatriates have settled abroad.
   c) ☐ a mix of a) and b).
   Please explain why:

12. Does your firm offer cross-cultural training to every expatriate, regardless of his/her position?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, cross-cultural training offered to expatriates varies according to the position:
     ☐ Top executives (responsible for the overall management of the foreign operation) receive training.
     ☐ Division Heads (responsible for establishing functional departments in a foreign affiliate) receive training.
     ☐ Middle Managers (responsible for overseeing day-to-day operations overseas) receive training.
     ☐ Technical Specialists (responsible for analysing and solving specific operational problems overseas) receive training.

13. Does your firm use the same cross-cultural training methods for every expatriate?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, the type of training differs according to the position held. Please elaborate:
     Position: ____________________________  Method of training: ____________________________
     ____________________________  ____________________________

14. Does your firm offer cross-cultural training to expatriates for every country of assignment?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, cross-cultural training is provided only when expatriates are posted in the following countries:
     ______________  ______________  ______________
     ______________  ______________  ______________

15. Does your firm use the same cross-cultural training methods for expatriates for every country of assignment?
   ☐ Yes, the same methods are used for every country. Please elaborate:
     Method: ____________________________  Reason: ____________________________
     ____________________________  ____________________________
   ☐ No, training methods differ depending on the country of assignment. Please elaborate:
     Country: ________  Method: ________  Reason: ____________________________
     ________  ________  ____________________________
16. Does your firm offer any cross-cultural training to spouses accompanying expatriates before their departure on overseas assignment?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No.

17. Does your firm offer any cross-cultural training to spouses accompanying expatriates once they are settled abroad?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No.

If you answered "no" to questions 16 and 17, please indicate below why your firm chooses not to offer cross-cultural training to spouses, and ignore questions 18 to 23.

18. In your opinion, what are the most important components to be included in a cross-cultural training program for spouses accompanying expatriates overseas?

19. In terms of timing of the cross-cultural training for spouses, does your firm offer:
   a) ☐ cross-cultural training before the spouses leave for the overseas assignment.
   b) ☐ cross-cultural training once the spouses have settled abroad.
   c) ☐ a mix of a) and b).
   Please explain why:

20. Does your firm offer cross-cultural training to every spouse, regardless of the expatriate's position?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, cross-cultural training offered to spouses varies according to the position of the expatriate:
      ☐ Spouses of Top executives receive training.
      ☐ Spouses of Division Heads receive training.
      ☐ Spouses of Middle Managers receive training.
      ☐ Spouses of Technical Specialists receive training.
21. Does your firm use the same cross-cultural training methods for every spouse?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, the type of training offered to spouses differs according to the position of the expatriate. Please elaborate:
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position:</th>
<th>Method of training:</th>
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22. Does your firm offer cross-cultural training to spouses for every country of assignment?
   ☐ Yes.
   ☐ No, cross-cultural training is provided only when spouses accompany expatriates in the following countries:
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country:</th>
<th>Method:</th>
<th>Reason:</th>
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23. Does your firm use the same cross-cultural training methods for spouses for every country of assignment?
   ☐ Yes, the same methods are used for every country. Please elaborate:
   
<table>
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<th>Method:</th>
<th>Reason:</th>
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</table>

   ☐ No, training methods differ depending on the country of assignment. Please elaborate:
   
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country:</th>
<th>Method:</th>
<th>Reason:</th>
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</tbody>
</table>

Please return your completed survey in the self-addressed envelope to:

Carolle Turcotte  
c/o Dr. Terri Lituchy  
Director of International Programs  
Department of Management  
Concordia University  
GM 503-13  
1455 de Maisonneuve West  
Montreal, P.Q., Canada  
H3G 1M8

Thank you for your participation
Dear Madam/Sir:

Every year, hundreds of Canadians are assigned overseas on business, a move that can be at times both exciting and stressful. To date, there has been very little research done on factors, either positive or negative, affecting the adjustment of people living and working abroad.

I am currently doing my Masters of Science in Administration at Concordia University in Montreal. The topic of my thesis is the adjustment of expatriates and their spouses to their foreign environment. To research this, I have contacted several international companies based in Quebec. Your company has agreed to participate.

You will find enclosed herewith two questionnaires: one for yourself and one for your spouse. Neither should take more than 20 minutes to complete. It would be greatly appreciated if you could return these in the enclosed envelope no later than March 15, 1996.

To assure you of complete anonymity, you will note that both your questionnaire and your spouse's questionnaire do not ask for your name, or the name of your employer. No individual or company names will be mentioned in my study. Each participating company will receive a summary report.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Carolle Turcotte, MSc candidate
Concordia University
APPENDIX 4
Questionnaire to the expatriate
(Français de l’autre côté)

Please answer this questionnaire without referring to your spouse’s answers.

1. Have you ever lived in the host country before this assignment?
   □ Yes. For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

2. Have you ever lived in a country with a similar culture before this assignment?
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

3. Have you had any other previous international experience (other than the country(ies) mentioned above)?
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _______________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

4. If you answered “yes” to any of the above questions, how would you rate the experience(s)?

   Country: _______________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.
   Country: _______________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.
   Country: _______________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.

5. Had you ever visited this particular host country before this assignment?
   □ Yes. For how long? _______ weeks.
   □ Yes. Nature of the visit: □ vacation.
   □ Yes. □ business.
   □ Yes. □ other. Please specify: __________________________
   □ No.

6. After the current assignment, how likely would you accept another assignment overseas?

   Very unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very likely.

7. Have you received any cross-cultural training (designed to prepare you to live and work in a culture other than your own) for this assignment before you left Quebec (either through your organization or by your own initiative)?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

8. Have you received any cross-cultural training for this assignment since you arrived in the host country (either through your organization or by your own initiative)?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

If you answered “no” to both questions 7 and 8, please go to question 10.
9. For each cross-cultural training method or approach listed below, please indicate the amount of time you were involved in cross-cultural training (either through your organization or by your own initiative). Refer to the following scale when making your selection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training Methods/Approaches</th>
<th>Time (circle, referring to above scale)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information: Trainees attend lectures or conferences, or read books and handouts on such topics as the economy, climate, life-style or values of the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audiovisuals: Trainees watch documentaries, movies or videos on the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Basic language training: Trainees attend an introductory language course. Conversation is not included.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role modelling, demonstrations: Trainees observe individuals acting out scenarios typical to the host country and how these situations should be handled (trainees DO NOT participate).</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<td>Case studies, critical incidents: Trainees are given an elaborate scenario typical to the host country and are asked to analyse and discuss potential critical incidents.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture assimilator: Trainees are presented with a series of conflictual interactions typical to the host country and are asked to choose the interpretation that best fits each specific episode.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Culture awareness: Trainees study behaviours and values that are common in their own country in order to better understand the concept of &quot;culture&quot;.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness: Trainees participate in one-on-one interactions in a group in order to better understand their own behaviours and how these behaviours affect others.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Behaviour modification: Trainees are asked to identify &quot;reinforcers&quot; and &quot;punishers&quot; in their own country and to determine how rewards can be obtained and punishments avoided in the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Role plays: Trainees play out roles assigned and learn how some behaviours might be problematic in the host country.</td>
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<td>Intensive language training: Trainees are actively involved in reading, writing and speaking the language of the host country.</td>
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<td>Encounters: Trainees meet and spend some time discussing with host nationals or former expatriates.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Area simulations, field experience: Trainees are sent to the host country, or to a similar setting, so that they may experience the cultural differences first hand.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Other: (please describe):</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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</table>
10. Please indicate how similar or different from Quebec the following statements about your current host country are. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Very different</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>Very similar.</th>
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<tr>
<td>Everyday customs that must be followed.</td>
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<td>General living conditions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Using health care facilities.</td>
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<td>Transportation system used in the country.</td>
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<td>General living costs.</td>
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<td>Available quality and types of food.</td>
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<tr>
<td>General housing conditions.</td>
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11. Please indicate how adjusted or unadjusted you are to the following. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement. Please note that the scale is now from 1 to 7.

Unadjusted | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Adjusted.

How adjusted are you to:

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<tr>
<td>the living conditions in general in the host country?</td>
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<td>the housing conditions in the host country?</td>
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<td>the food in the host country?</td>
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<td>shopping in the host country?</td>
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<td>the cost of living in the host country?</td>
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<td>the entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities in the host country?</td>
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<td>the health care facilities in the host country?</td>
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<td>socializing with host nationals?</td>
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<td>interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?</td>
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<td>interacting with host nationals outside of work?</td>
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<td>speaking with host nationals?</td>
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<td>your specific job responsibilities?</td>
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<td>your performance standards and expectations?</td>
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<td>your supervisory responsibilities?</td>
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12. Please indicate the extent to which you interact outside of work with friends native to the host country since you began this assignment.

Never | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Frequently.

13. Please indicate the extent to which you interact outside of work with other Canadians since you began this assignment.

Never | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Frequently.

The following two questions are about your spouse. If your spouse is not accompanying you on this assignment, please go to question 16.
14. My spouse rarely discusses the possibility of returning to Quebec sooner than planned.  

Strongly disagree  1   2   3   4   5   6   7  Strongly agree.

15. My spouse would do just about anything to keep this assignment for its expected duration.  

Strongly disagree  1   2   3   4   5   6   7  Strongly agree.

16. Below are a number of statements concerning your feelings about this assignment. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement. Please note the scale is now from 1 to 4.  

Strongly disagree  1   2   3   4  Strongly agree.  

____ I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my assignment.  
____ Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family.  
____ My assignment gets to me more than it should.  
____ I spend so much time at work, I can’t see the forest for the trees.  
____ There are lots of times when my assignment drives me right up the wall.  
____ Working here leaves little time for other activities.  
____ Sometimes when I think about my assignment I get a tight feeling in my chest.  
____ I frequently get the feeling I am married to the company.  
____ I have too much work and too little time to do it in.  
____ I feel guilty when I take time off from my job.  
____ I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related.  
____ I feel I never have a day off.  
____ Too many people on such assignments get burned out by job demands.

17. All in all, how satisfied would you say your are with this assignment? Please circle.  

1  Very satisfied.  
2  Somewhat satisfied.  
3  Not too satisfied.  
4  Not at all satisfied.

18. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to take the assignment you now have, what would you decide? Please circle.  

1  Decide without hesitation to take the same assignment.  
2  Have some second thoughts.  
3  Decide definitely not to take the same assignment.

19. In general, how well would you say that your assignment measures up to the sort of assignment you wanted when you took it? Please circle.  

1  Very much like the assignment you wanted.  
2  Somewhat like the assignment you wanted.  
3  Not very much like the assignment you wanted.

20. If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in an assignment like yours, what would you tell him or her? Please circle.  

1  Would strongly recommend it.  
2  Would have doubts about recommending it.  
3  Would advise the friend against it.
The following questions are strictly for comparison and statistical purposes. Since you are not asked to give your name and the name of your employer, your responses will remain anonymous.

21. What is your country of assignment? ________________________________

22. What is your position in the organization?
   □ Top executive (responsible for overseeing and directing the entire foreign operation).
   □ Division Head (responsible for establishing functional departments in a foreign affiliate).
   □ Middle Manager (responsible for overseeing day-to-day operations).
   □ Technical specialist (responsible for analysing and solving specific operational problems).
   □ Other (specify): ________________________________

23. How long have you been working in this position? _____ year(s) _____ months.

24. How long have you been working for this organization? _____ year(s) _____ months.

25. How long have you been on this overseas assignment? _____ year(s) _____ months.

26. What will be the total duration of the assignment? _____ year(s) _____ months.

27. What is your:
   a) Age: _____ years.
   b) Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female.
   c) Education level: ☐ Secondary ☐ College ☐ Undergraduate ☐ Graduate.
   d) Nationality: ________________________________
   e) Country of origin: ___________________________ Year of immigration to Canada: __________
   f) Marital status: ☐ Married/Living with a partner ☐ Single/Divorced/Widowed.

28. If you have a spouse, is he or she accompanying you on this assignment?
   ☐ No.
   ☐ Yes. Please ask your spouse to complete the Questionnaire to the Spouse and return both completed questionnaires in the enclosed self-addressed envelope to:

   Carolle Turcotte
   c/o Dr. Terri Lituchy
   Director of International Programs
   Concordia University
   GM 503-13
   1455 de Maisonneuve West
   Montreal, P.Q., Canada
   H3G 1M8

   Thank you for your participation
APPENDIX 5
Questionnaire to the spouse
(Français de l’autre côté)

Please answer this questionnaire without referring to your spouse’s answers.

1. Have you ever lived in the host country before this assignment?
   □ Yes. For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

2. Have you ever lived in a country with a similar culture before this assignment?
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

3. Have you had any other previous international experience (other than the country(ies) mentioned above)?
   □ Yes. Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   Name of the country: _____________ For how long? _____ months.
   □ No.

4. If you answered “yes” to any of the above questions, how would you rate the experience(s)?

   Country: _____________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.
   Country: _____________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.
   Country: _____________ Very negative 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very positive.

5. Had you ever visited this particular host country before this assignment?
   □ Yes. For how long? _________ weeks.
   Nature of the visit: □ vacation.
   □ business.
   □ other. Please specify: ________________________
   □ No.

6. After the current assignment, how likely would you accept to accompany your spouse on another assignment overseas?

   Very unlikely 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very likely.

7. Have you received any cross-cultural training (designed to prepare you to live and work in a culture other than your own) for this assignment before you left Quebec (either through your spouse’s organization or by your own initiative)?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

8. Have you received any cross-cultural training for this assignment since you arrived in the host country (either through your spouse’s organization or by your own initiative)?
   □ Yes. □ No.

If you answered “no” to both questions 7 and 8, please go to question 10.
9. For each cross-cultural training method or approach listed below, please indicate the amount of time you were involved in cross-cultural training (either through your spouse’s organization or by your own initiative). Refer to the following scale when making your selection.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time (circle, referring to above scale)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 day</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TRAINING METHODS/APPROACHES</th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Information: Trainees attend lectures or conferences, or read books and handouts on such topics as the economy, climate, life-style or values of the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audiovisuals: Trainees watch documentaries, movies or videos on the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
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<tr>
<td>Basic language training: Trainees attend an introductory language course. Conversation is not included.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role modelling, demonstrations: Trainees observe individuals acting out scenarios typical to the host country and how these situations should be handled (trainees DO NOT participate).</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Case studies, critical incidents: Trainees are given an elaborate scenario typical to the host country and are asked to analyse and discuss potential critical incidents.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture assimilator: Trainees are presented with a series of conflictual interactions typical to the host country and are asked to choose the interpretation that best fits each specific episode.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Culture awareness: Trainees study behaviours and values that are common in their own country in order to better understand the concept of “culture”.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-awareness: Trainees participate in one-on-one interactions in a group in order to better understand their own behaviours and how these behaviours affect others.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behaviour modification: Trainees are asked to identify “reinforcers” and “punishers” in their own country and to determine how rewards can be obtained and punishments avoided in the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role plays: Trainees play out roles assigned and learn how some behaviours might be problematic in the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive language training: Trainees are actively involved in reading, writing and speaking the language of the host country.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encounters: Trainees meet and spend some time discussing with host nationals or former expatriates.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area simulations, field experience: Trainees are sent to the host country, or to a similar setting, so that they may experience the cultural differences first hand.</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other: (please describe):</td>
<td>0 1 2 3 4 5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
10. Please indicate how similar or different from Quebec the following statements about your current host country are. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement.

Very different 1 2 3 4 5 Very similar.

— Everyday customs that must be followed.
— General living conditions.
— Using health care facilities.
— Transportation system used in the country.
— General living costs.
— Available quality and types of food.
— General housing conditions.

11. Please indicate how adjusted or unadjusted you are to the following. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement. Please note that the scale is now from 1 to 7.

Unadjusted 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Adjusted.

How adjusted are you to:

— the living conditions in general in the host country?
— the housing conditions in the host country?
— the food in the host country?
— shopping in the host country?
— the cost of living in the host country?
— the entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities in the host country?
— the health care facilities in the host country?
— socializing with host nationals?
— interacting with host nationals on a day-to-day basis?

12. Please indicate the extent to which you interact with friends native to the host country since you and your spouse began this assignment.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Frequently.

13. Please indicate the extent to which you interact with other Canadians since you and your spouse began this assignment.

Never 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Frequently.

The following two questions are about your spouse.

14. My spouse rarely discusses the possibility of returning to Quebec sooner than planned.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree.

15. My spouse would do just about anything to keep this assignment for its expected duration.

Strongly disagree 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Strongly agree.
16. Below are a number of statements concerning your feelings about this assignment. Refer to the following scale when writing your selection beside each statement. Please note the scale is now from 1 to 4.

Strongly disagree 1  2  3  4  Strongly agree.

- I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of this assignment.
- This assignment gets to me more than it should.
- There are lots of times when this assignment drives me right up the wall.
- Sometimes when I think about this assignment I get a tight feeling in my chest.
- I feel guilty when my spouse takes time off from his/her job.

17. All in all, how satisfied would you say you are with this assignment? Please circle.

1  Very satisfied.  3  Not too satisfied.
2  Somewhat satisfied.  4  Not at all satisfied.

18. Knowing what you know now, if you had to decide all over again whether to accept the assignment your spouse now has, what would you decide? Please circle.

1  Decide without hesitation to take the same assignment.
2  Have some second thoughts.
3  Decide definitely not to take the same assignment.

19. In general, how well would you say that this assignment measures up to the sort of assignment you wanted when your spouse took it? Please circle.

1  Very much like the assignment you wanted.
2  Somewhat like the assignment you wanted.
3  Not very much like the assignment you wanted.

20. If a good friend of yours told you he or she was interested in working in an assignment like that of your spouse, what would you tell him or her? Please circle.

1  Would strongly recommend it.
2  Would have doubts about recommending it.
3  Would advise the friend against it.

The following questions are strictly for comparison and statistical purposes. Since you are not asked to give your name, the name of your spouse or the name of the firm employing your spouse, your responses will remain anonymous.

21. What is your spouse’s country of assignment?

22. What is your spouse’s position in the organization?
   - Top executive (responsible for overseeing and directing the entire foreign operation).
   - Division Head (responsible for establishing functional departments in a foreign affiliate).
   - Middle Manager (responsible for overseeing day-to-day operations).
   - Technical specialist (responsible for analysing and solving specific operational problems).
   - Other (specify): ____________________________

23. How long has your spouse been working in this position? _____ year(s) _____ months.
24. How long has your spouse been working for this organization? _____ year(s) _____ months.

25. How long have you been with your spouse on this assignment? _____ year(s) _____ months.

26. Are you working in the host country while accompanying your spouse on this assignment?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

27. If you answered yes to question 26, are you and your spouse working for the same employer?
   □ Yes.
   □ No.

28. What will be the total duration of your spouse's assignment? _____ year(s) _____ months.

29. What is your:
   a) Age: _____ years.
   b) Gender: □ Male □ Female.
   c) Education level: □ Secondary □ College □ Undergraduate □ Graduate.
   d) Nationality: ____________________________
   e) Country of origin: ________________________ Year of immigration to Canada: ________

Please return your completed questionnaire with your spouse’s completed Questionnaire to the Expatriate in the enclosed self-addressed envelope to:

Carolle Turcotte  
c/o Dr. Terri Lituchy  
Director of International Programs  
Concordia University  
GM 503-13  
1455 de Maisonneuve West  
Montreal, P.Q., Canada  
H3G 1M8

Thank you for your participation
APPENDIX 6
Countries to which Quebec firms send employees

The number in parentheses represents the number of firms sending expatriates in these countries. Since all firms indicated more than 1 country, they have been counted several times for each continent. The percentage for each continent represents the percentage of expatriates assigned in the continent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continent</th>
<th>Countries or areas</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>America (29%)</td>
<td>Argentina (3); Bahamas (1); Barbados (2); Bermuda (2); Brazil (3); Caribbean (2); Cayman (1); Central America (1); Chile (2); Columbia (2); Costa Rica (1); Curacao (1); Commonwealth of Dominica (1); Dominican Republic (1); El Salvador (1); Guyana (2); Haiti (2); Jamaica (4); Mexico (4); Panama (2); Peru (2); Sao Tome (1); South America (2); Trinidad (2); Turks Islands (1); Uruguay (1); USA (7); Venezuela (2); and, Virgin Islands (1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia (27%)</td>
<td>Bahrain (2); Bangladesh (2); China (6); Far and Middle East (1); Hong Kong (3); India (3); Indonesia (1); Iran (1); Israel (1); Japan (1); Jordan (2); Korea (1); Malaysia (5); Pakistan (3); Phillipines (4); Russia (6); Saudi Arabia (1); Singapore (2); South Korea (1); Taiwan (1); Thailand (2); Turkey (2); Vietnam (1); and, Yemen (1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa (26%)</td>
<td>Algeria (2); Benin (3); Botswana (1); Burkina Faso (1); Burundi (1); Cameroon (2); Central Africa (1); Congo (1); Egypt (1); Ethiopia (1); Ghana (1); Guinea (4); Ivory Coast (3); Kenya (2); Madagascar (2); Mali (3); Mauritania (1); Morocco (1); Niger (1); Rwanda (2); Senegal (4); Sierra Leone (1); South Africa (2); Tanzania (1); Togo (2); Tunisia (3); Zaire (2); Zambia (1); and, Zimbabwe (2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Europe (15%)</td>
<td>Belgium (3); Czechoslovakia (1); Eastern Europe (1); England (2); France (3); Germany (3); Greece (1); Hungary (1); Ireland (2); Italy (1); Lithuania (1); Luxembourg (2); Montserrat (1); Portugal (2); Romania (2); Spain (1); Switzerland (1); United Kingdom (1); and, Western Europe (1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oceania (3%)</td>
<td>Australia (4); and, New Zealand (1).</td>
</tr>
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</table>
The number in parentheses represents the number of expatriates in these countries. The percentage for each continent represents the percentage of expatriates assigned in the continent.

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<td>Asia (30%)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa (26%)</td>
<td>Angola (1); Benin (2); Cameroon (3); Central Africa Republic (2); Guinea (3); Ivory Coast (2); Kenya (2); Libya (1); Mali (1); Morocco (1); Nigeria (2); Senegal (5); Tanzania (1); and, Togo (1).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>America (20%)</td>
<td>Argentina (1); Bahamas (2); Commonwealth of Dominica (2); Dominican Republic (1); Haiti (1); Jamaica (1); Mexico (1); St-Vincent (1); Trinidad (1); USA (9); and, Venezuela (1).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Europe (18%)</td>
<td>Belgium (1); Czechoslovakia (1); England (3); France (4); Germany (1); Ireland (1); Lithuania (1); Netherlands (2); Poland (1); Romania (2); Switzerland (1); and, United Kingdom (1).</td>
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<tr>
<td>Oceania (6%)</td>
<td>Australia (4); and, New Zealand (2).</td>
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APPENDIX 8

Study two: Countries to which spouses accompanied the expatriates

The number in parentheses represents the number of spouses in these countries. The percentage for each continent represents the percentage of spouses accompanying expatriates in the continent.

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<td>Asia (28%)</td>
<td>Bangladesh (2); China (1); Hong Kong (1); India (3); Indonesia (1); Korea (6); Malaysia (3); Saudi Arabia (1); South Korea (1); Thailand (1); and, Vietnam (1).</td>
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<td>America (22%)</td>
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<td>Oceania (4%)</td>
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### APPENDIX 9

Descriptive results and intercorrelations of the variables of interest for expatriates

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## APPENDIX 10
Descriptive results and intercorrelations of the variables of interest for spouses

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* P<.10  ** P<.05  *** P<.01
## APPENDIX 11
Regression results for expatriates

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## APPENDIX 12
Regression results for spouses

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