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CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING AND EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT:

A SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY PERSPECTIVE

Guila Sandra Rehany

A Thesis

in

The Faculty

of

Commerce and Administration

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

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Abstract

Cross-Cultural Training and Expatriate Adjustment: A Social Cognitive Theory Perspective

Guila Sandra Rehany

Cross-cultural training is progressively becoming an integral part of predeparture training programs for managers embarking on overseas assignments. The Japanese have been successful in training and maintaining their overseas managers. Americans, however, have exhibited high failure rates for their international endeavors. Many researchers believe that the success of the Japanese is due to their highly rigorous training programs. In general, Americans rarely implement rigorous training programs. Highly rigorous training programs serve to improve an expatriate's success rate through proper adjustment to the foreign culture. Other factors such as performance, intentions to stay, and organizational commitment assist in elevating the success rate. Employing Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory as a base for this study, self-efficacy and outcome expectancy were examined as mediators in the hypothesized relationships between training and various outcomes.

This study sampled Canadian expatriates on foreign assignments in Japan. Statistical analyses were performed to measure the relationships between (1) training and outcomes; (2) training and mediators; and (3) mediators and outcomes. Finally, tests for mediation were also performed for self-efficacy and outcome expectancy.

The results of this study indicated that expatriates do not receive very much training in general, and most of the training that they do receive was on their own initiative. The more rigorous training techniques were seen as being most effective by the expatriates and were correlated with adjustment. Finally, self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between

training and interaction adjustment.

For my darling Charlie

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My dream of completing this endeavor successfully was emotionally supported by my family and friends. I want to thank a few special people who helped me complete this thesis even when the going got tough.

Mom and Dad, thank you for your patience and understanding. Thank you Devra!! You were always there to listen to my daily ups and downs. A warm hug of appreciation to Charlie, my love. I will never forget the time you read my thesis to me as a bed time story!! Mordi and Allen, I just want to say I love you. Ola, Ezra, Enav, Hadar, Nitzan, Todd, Andrew, and Jacquie were always there when I needed extra support.

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CHAPTER 1:

INTRODUCTION

Numerous multinational corporations, in their efforts to operate overseas, appoint employees to temporary assignments in foreign countries. Rather than selecting individuals from the overseas market, these firms prefer to send employees who have been with the organization for several years, have a proven track record, and are familiar with the operation of the company This familiarity aids for any contact that must be made between the host and the home organization in terms of relating events or problems that arise. Otherwise, by hiring an individual from the foreign country, the firm takes the risk of miscommunication due to cultural differences or language barriers. This, added to the off-site location of the individual may hinder success. Thus, organizations tend to select a current employee to alleviate this problem. However, in this situation another problem arises which also hinders success of the assignment. The problem has to do with the cross-cultural differences that the expatriate encounters, and his/her ability to handle these differences. A successful manager in North America may not necessarily be a successful manager in Asia.

The way in which a person behaves in the home country may not be acceptable behavior in the host country. The individual can possibly be faced with embarrassing situations not knowing what really *is* the appropriate behavior. The foreign organization may consequently refuse to deal with this individual or more drastically, with the organization. This problem could intensify through the resulting stigma attached to the organization. Other foreign companies may learn about this dismal incident and subsequently refuse any dealings with the organization as well.

This problem could be avoided or at least diminished by educating expatriates prior to their overseas endeavor. Once they learn of the cultural differences and other crucial issues, they can be better prepared to handle themselves overseas and adjust to the foreign country. With proper adjustment, the individual will perform better and the assignment will be successful.

Therefore, training is a major factor for the success of foreign assignments.

Depending on the length of the assignment and the novelty of the culture, the length and depth of the training will differ. In a culturally dissimilar country such as Japan, many North American organizations may employ various training approaches for preparing their candidates which are different from those programs to prepare candidates for a culturally similar country such as England. This study will survey Canadian expatriates currently on an assignment in Japan for the training they received, their adjustment and other outcomes of training. The mechanisms involved in the relationship between training and the outcomes will also be examined. Statistical tests will be used to verify the effectiveness of the various training approaches with regards to performance and success overseas.

CHAPTER 2:

GLOBAL COMPETITION

With increased global competition in recent years, organizations must remain competitive by emulating their business counterparts in foreign markets. This translates to competing internationally in the global market. In the realm of human resources, there is a need for cross-cultural management. Cross-cultural management involves selecting, training and maintaining personnel overseas. Individuals with the relevant knowledge, skills, and abilities are required to fill the positions abroad. These individuals should be properly trained prior to the commencement of their overseas assignment in various matters relating to the foreign country.

Notwithstanding these requirements, American firms have generally not been successful in cross-cultural management. There has been a relatively high turnover or failure rate amongst North American expatriates. For example, Copeland and Griggs (1985) found that 20-50% of international relocations end with premature returns. For those American expatriates who remain on their international assignments, between 50-80% are considered ineffective (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Tung (1982) found that only 24% of U.S. multinationals surveyed had a recall rate below 10% for their expatriates. This can be compared to 76% of Japanese companies indicating a recall rate of less than 5%. Therefore, the Japanese have been more successful in maintaining their expatriate managers in a foreign country.

Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) described the nature of the cross-cultural training that U.S. expatriates receive. They stated that the programs were not comprehensive in nature and emphasized environmental briefings, basic culture orientations and some language training. Furthermore, the duration of the training programs have been relatively short considering the amount of knowledge and skills needed to be taught. They declared that 57% of firms provided training in one week or less, 29% sponsored the training in a 2-3 week time period, and 14% take one month to complete. Tung (1987) stated that the Japanese typically spend between 3 months to 1 year on language training alone.

Tung (1982), in her survey of U.S. multinationals, requested that respondents indicate the type of training sponsored by their organizations. The type of training was segregated by assignment responsibilities: the chief executive officer, who has the responsibility to direct and oversee the entire foreign operation; the functional head, who has the responsibility to manage functional departments in the foreign operation; the trouble-shooter, who has the role for analyzing and solving specific operational problems; and the operative, who holds any other position in the foreign company. The results indicated that rigorous training programs were offered more often to CEOs and functional heads than to trouble shooters and operatives in American firms. In contrast, a larger percentage of Japanese firms offered rigorous training in each of the four categories. Tung concluded that the Japanese have been more successful in their overseas endeavors due to their more rigorous cross-cultural training programs Baker and Ivancevich (1971) found that two thirds of American firms don't even offer cross-cultural training even though the perception among managers is that it is necessary to learn about the foreign culture prior to departure.

The costs for maintaining international managers average about $250,000 per year (Black, 1988; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979), and the costs associated with premature returns range from $50,000 to $200,000 per return (Misa & Fabricatore, 1979; Copeland & Griggs, 1985) Because of the high costs for ineffective international assignments in addition to the intangible costs such as the deteriorated company reputation and lost business opportunities, organizations should be interested in implementing cross-cultural training programs which increase the expatriate's adjustment to the greatest extent possible.

Black and Mendenhall (1990) found strong empirical evidence for a positive relationship between cross-cultural training and cross-cultural adjustment, however, it is not known to what extent varying levels of training duration and rigor affect adjustment. They also proposed a

model for cross-cultural training based on Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory. The purpose of this paper is to examine the relationship between cross-cultural training methods and expatriate adjustment in the context of social cognitive theory.

CHAPTER 3:

PROBLEMS ASSOCIATED WITH INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENTS

3.1 Adjustment

Adjustment is defined as the degree of psychological comfort with various aspects of a new setting (Black, 1988). Oberg (1960) argued that when people enter a new country, they find that many of the behaviors that are acceptable in their home country are not acceptable in their host country. Uncertainty emanates since they do not know the appropriate behaviors. This leads to anxiety and frustration, and what is widely known as "culture shock". Oberg argued that until an individual has achieved a satisfactory level of adjustment, he/she will be unable to function properly in his/her job and as a member of the community. Oberg went on to say that there is some value in knowing something about the nature of the culture and its relationship to the individual. Moreover, Copeland and Griggs (1985) claim that failure to understand how cultures differ can hinder success abroad.

Researchers agree that proper adjustment of the expatriate enhances the probability of beneficial performance overseas (Black & Stephens, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1990). Tung (1981) found that one reason for expatriate failure is the inability of expatriates to adjust to a different cultural or physical environment. Therefore, adjustment plays a pivotal role in performance overseas.

3.2 Training

According to Hogan and Goodson (1990), predeparture cross-cultural training should develop communication, leadership, conflict management and other skills that fit the culture. Caudron (1991) also recommended providing cross-cultural training to expatriates prior to being sent overseas to help prevent costly failures. Issues which she felt organizations should be

concerned about include: negotiation styles, on-the-job communication, social relations, and lifestyle adjustment. Tung (1982) found that although a criteria for selection on overseas assignments is relational abilities, only 5% of U.S. firms administer tests to determine these abilities. None of the Japanese companies surveyed administer these tests either, although 57% of the firms actually have specialized training programs to prepare candidates for overseas work. This could be compared to only 32% of U.S. firms with cross-cultural training programs. The next section is an in-depth discussion of cross-cultural training rigor and the various models associated with this term.

Rigor

Rigor as it applies to cross-cultural training can be defined as the level of involvement, participation, or immersion on the part of the trainees in the training program. Tung (1987) found that for successful overseas performance, the use of more rigorous training programs was necessary to prepare candidates for overseas assignments. Her survey consisted of 19 multinational firms from Western Europe and 35 from Japan. She also conducted in-depth interviews on a sample of 17 European and Japanese multinationals to understand their lower rate of expatriate failure compared to U.S. multinationals. She concluded that one reason why Japanese have a lower rate of expatriate failure is the rigor of their cross-cultural training programs. She found that 70% of the 267 largest companies in Japan offer some preparatory courses for their expatriates. In contrast, Tung (1982) found that 32% of the sample of 80 of the largest U.S. multinational corporations have a formalized training program to prepare their overseas candidates.

Tung (1987) reviewed the typical predeparture training program components that Japanese multinationals consistently use. She did not state the varying degrees of rigor between each component, rather the composite of these items form her definition of training rigor. The

components are as follows.

- ***Language training:*** Almost all the Japanese companies she interviewed sponsored intensive language training. The length of the program ranges between three months to one year. One aspect they enforce is inviting Caucasians to share the same dormitories to provide opportunities for their trainees to practice their language skills.

- ***Field experience:*** A common element to their training programs involves sending trainees abroad simply to observe closely and learn about the foreign operation for one year, thus reducing the pressure of job performance.

- ***Graduate programs abroad:*** Many of the Japanese multinationals surveyed send between 10 and 20 staff members overseas each year to attend graduate programs in business, law and engineering. All expenses are paid in addition to the employee's regular salary. The purpose behind this is to expose the employee to foreign principles of management, which will help prepare the candidate for an eventual overseas assignment.

- ***In-house training programs:*** These courses encompass international finance and international economics. Environmental briefings about the assigned country are also given.

- ***Outside agencies:*** There are a number of institutes that the Japanese use to facilitate the transition that their expatriates go through on foreign assignments. The duration ranges from three months to one year. Some of the institutes use visiting professors from foreign countries and an exchange program. Foreign students can share dormitories with the Japanese trainees. This enables the trainees to practice their foreign language skills and learn about foreign ways of life.

Landis and Brislin (1983) developed a typology of methods for cross-cultural training. They labelled and discussed six methods:

1. Information or Fact-Oriented Training: Trainees are presented with various facts about the

country in which they are about to live via lectures, videos and reading materials.

2. Attributions Training: This approach focuses on explanations of behavior from the point of view of the native. The goal is to learn the cognitive processes of the native's way of evaluating a certain behavior, and to understand why they act the way they do in certain situations. The trainees learn to adapt their behaviors to match that of the expected behaviors of the natives.

3. Cultural Awareness Training: The goal of this approach is to study the values, attitudes, and behaviors that are common in one's own culture, so that the trainees better understand how culture impacts their behavior and in general how culture affects human behavior in other countries.

4. Cognitive-Behavior Modification: The aim here is to assist trainees to understand what they deem to be rewarding or punishing in their own subcultures of work, family, religion, etc. and examine the differences and similarities with the host culture in order to help them obtain rewards and avoid punishment in the foreign country.

5. Experiential Learning: The focus here is to involve the trainees as active participants, to introduce the nature of life in another culture by actively experiencing that culture via field trips, complex role plays and cultural simulations.

6. Interaction Training: Here participants interact with natives or returned expatriates in order to become more comfortable with host nationals and to learn from the first hand experience of the returned expatriates. Methods here include role plays, casual and informal conversations.

Although this classification was helpful in displaying the available methods for cross-cultural training, it was not useful in defining training rigor. However, it did become the foreground in helping researchers achieve a suitable definition.

Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) made recommendations for improving cross-cultural training programs, which revolved around placing more emphasis on rigorous training

programs. One of the recommendations was to cover three skill dimensions of overseas productivity and acculturation, originally discussed by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985): self-oriented skills, relationship-oriented skills, and perceptual skills.

1. The Self-Oriented Dimension

According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), this dimension serves to strengthen the expatriate's self-esteem, self-confidence, and mental state. They included items such as reinforcement substitution, stress reduction, and technical competence in this dimension. Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) expanded this dimension by including items such as physical mobility, dealing with alienation and isolation, and realistic expectations prior to departure.

2. The Relationship-Oriented Dimension

This dimension helps one deal with relationships with other individuals. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) labelled this the "Others-Oriented Dimension" and declared that it encompasses activities and attributes that enhance a manager's ability to interact effectively with host nationals. This would include relationship development and willingness to communicate. Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) included non-verbal communication, respect for others, and empathy for others. Training could involve being exposed to people of the foreign culture by traveling to a similar culture in a nearby community, or actually visiting the country prior to the assignment.

3. The Perceptual Dimension

According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), expatriates must understand why foreigners behave the way they do in order to adjust to a culturally unfamiliar environment. This will enable an individual to properly predict how the host nationals will behave in certain situations. In this sense, the manager may not experience as high a culture shock and will know how to

behave in those same situations while on assignment. Training programs could include gaining tolerance for ambiguity, and learning to be non-judgmental and open-minded (Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou, 1987).

Black and Mendenhall (1990) reviewed the literature on cross-cultural training and found consistent positive results for its effect on skill development, performance and adjustment. They segregated previous studies according to their dependent variables (performance, adjustment and skills). These studies show that much of the cross-cultural training is aimed at developing the three skill dimensions described above: self-oriented, relationship oriented, and perceptual.

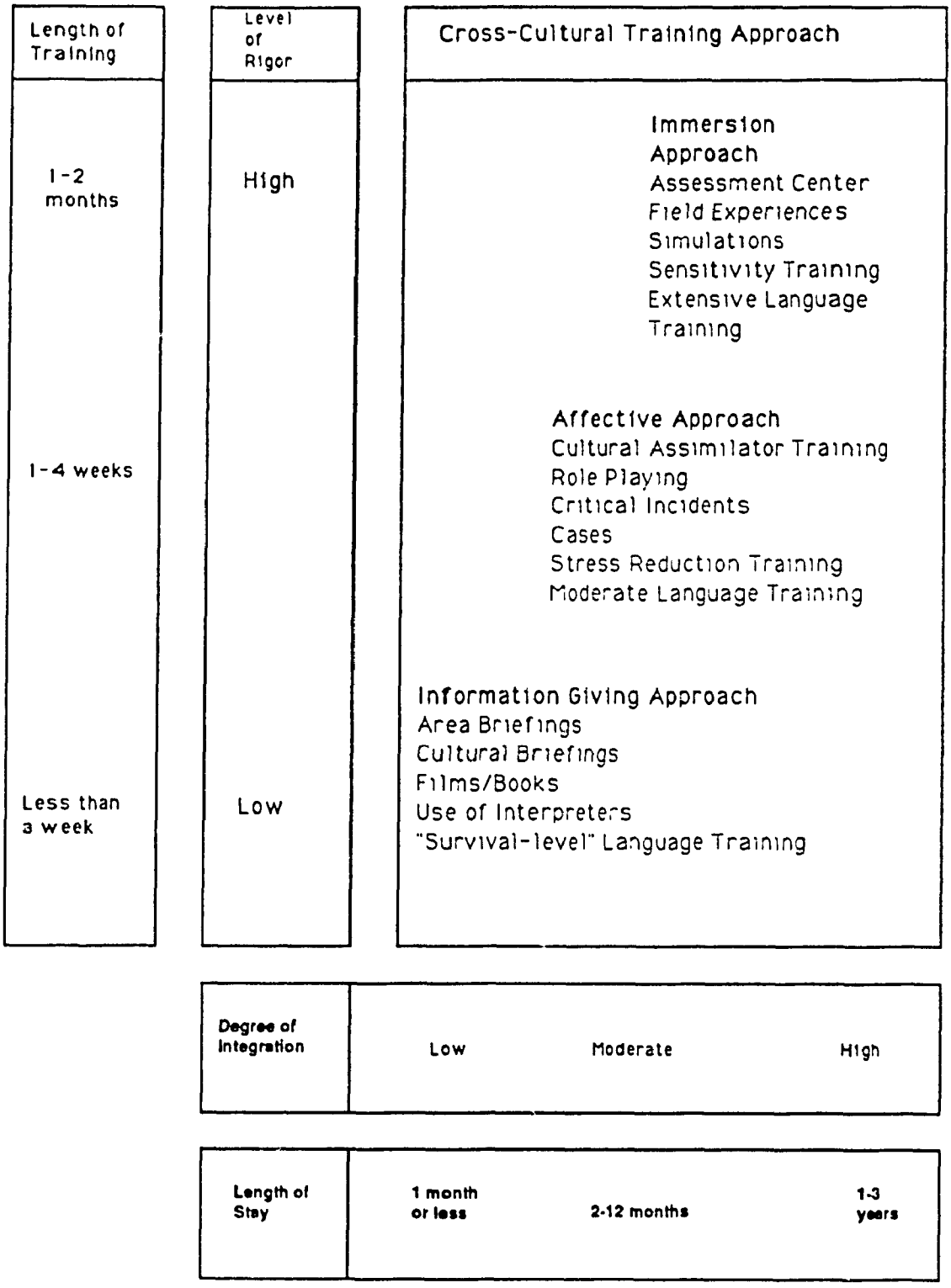
Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou (1987) recommended varying training rigor based on the length of time the expatriate would be stationed overseas as well as the degree of integration within the host culture required as part of the completion of the assignment. They defined integration as the level of cultural fluency needed to be successful. For instance, even a short term assignment might require a high level of cultural fluency because of the region (e.g. Japan) Other regions with the same short duration might not require as rigorous a program (e g. England). England may require a moderately rigorous training program for a lengthier stay Thus, the more integration needed, or the longer the duration of the assignment, the more rigorous the training program.

Mendenhall et al (1987) constructed a model based on this description, to help in selecting the necessary rigor and consequent training program for overseas candidates. Essentially, they developed a typology based on three levels of rigor: low, moderate and high. Each level has a corresponding set of training techniques. Figure 1 outlines their model.

The first group of methods, termed information-giving approaches, is similar to Landis and Brislin's (1983) typologies of factual briefing, attribution training, and culture awareness The second group of methods, termed affective approaches, is similar to Landis and Brislin's

Figure 1 Model of Cross-Cultural Training Methods

based on degree of integration and length of stay (Mendenhall et al,1987)



cognitive-behavioral modification category. The third group of methods, termed immersion approaches, is similar to Landis and Brislin's experiential and interaction training categories.

Black and Mendenhall (1989) developed a practical framework for selecting cross-cultural training methods. In conjunction with social cognitive theory, they derived a schema to follow for their definition of training rigor. Accordingly, they used symbolic modeling to define training low in rigor and participative training as training high in rigor.

Symbolic modeling implies observing modeled behaviors through listening and visualizing. In cross-cultural training, examples of this include verbal factual briefings, lectures, books, films, role playing, demonstrations, and nonparticipative language training.

Participative modeling implies that in addition to observing the modeled behavior, the trainee also participates in the modeled behavior. The participation can take on two forms: verbal and physical. Some examples of verbal participation in cross-cultural training methods include case studies and culture assimilators. Physical participation includes role plays, interactive language training, field trips and interactive simulations (See Figure 2 for a summary).

Black and Mendenhall (1989) suggested that the type of training offered usually depends on other factors such as: length of stay in host country, job novelty, culture novelty and degree of interaction with host nationals. They also proposed that as these factors increase, the training rigor should increase as well.

Cross-Cultural Training Methods Typology

Based on the previous in-depth discussion of cross-cultural training and rigor, a new typology has been developed for the purpose of this study. Figure 3 provides an outline of this typology. It shows how the training methods increase or decrease in rigor depending on its location on the continuum.

Figure 2 Social Cognitive Theory applied to Cross-Cultural Training Methods (based on Black & Mendenhall, 1989)

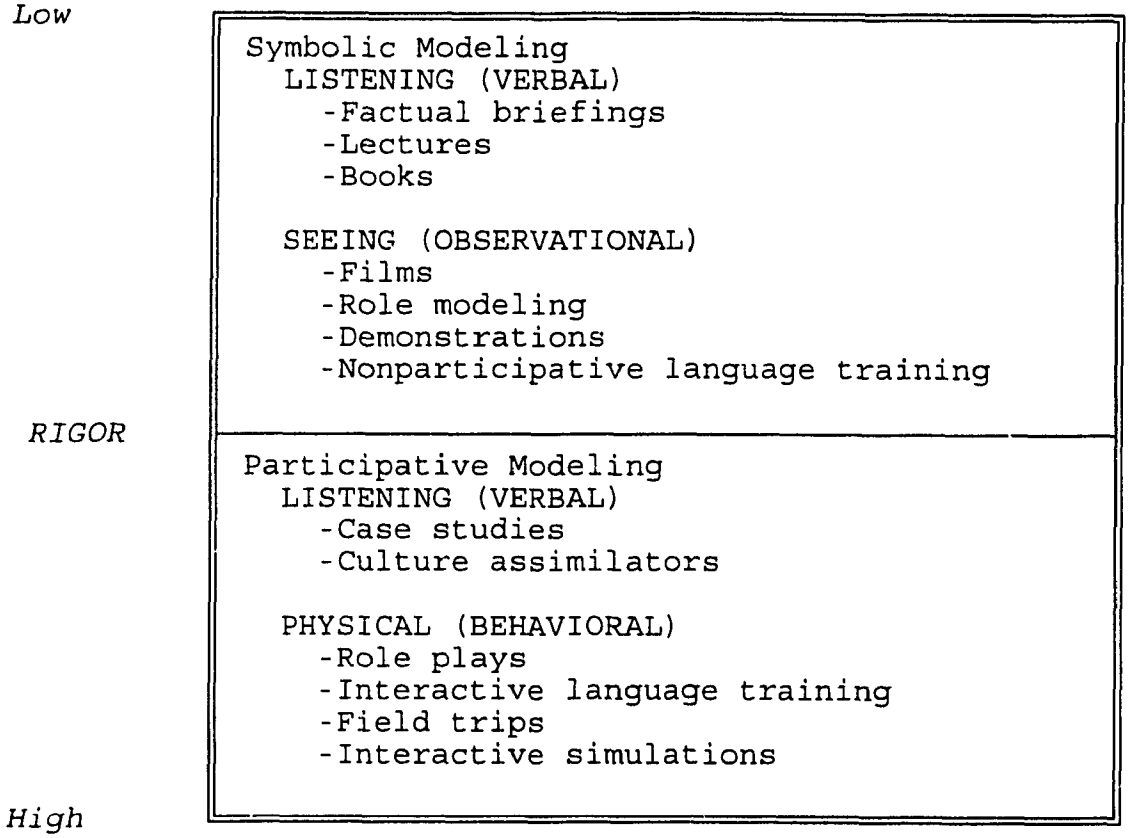
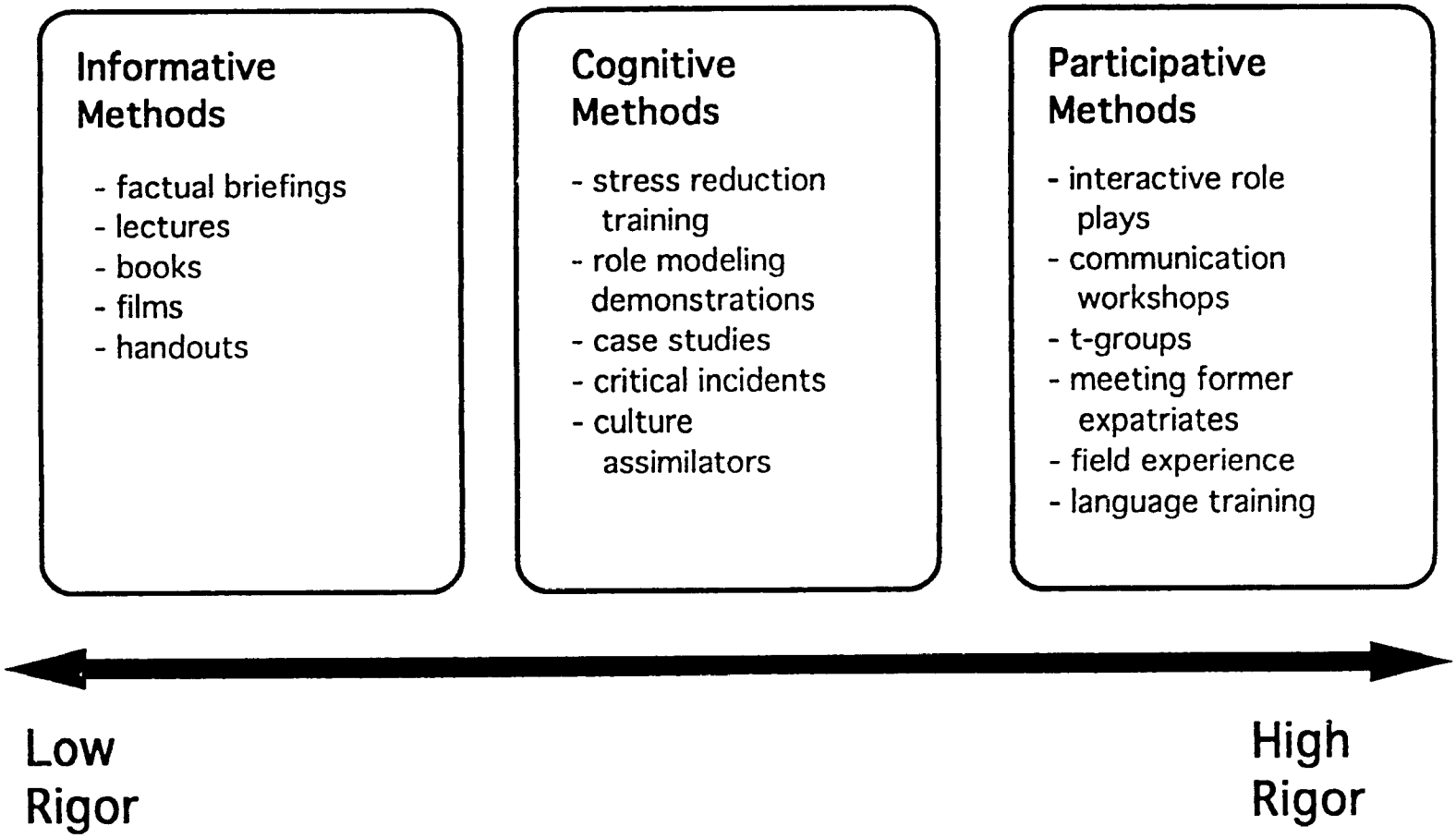


Figure 3 Cross-Cultural Training Methods Typology



There are three categories to this typology. The first category is entitled *Informative Methods* since the methods deal strictly with relaying information and involves the participants to a minimal degree. The cross-cultural training available under this heading includes: factual briefings, lectures, books, films, and handouts.

The second category is labelled *Cognitive Methods* and allows for more trainee cognitive involvement. The participants do not actively participate but the involvement is through the thought processes in which they must engage. The cross-cultural training methods under this rubric include: stress reduction, role modeling demonstrations, case studies, critical incidents, and culture assimilators.

The final category is termed *Participative Methods* due to the active involvement of the trainees The cross-cultural training methods include: interactive role plays, communication workshops, t-groups, meeting former expatriates, field experiences, and language training.

This typology is *primarily* based on the definition of rigor in Black and Mendenhall (1989) and Mendenhall et al (1987). The reason for this is twofold. First, Black and Mendenhall (1989) focused on Bandura's social cognitive theory which is the theoretical basis of the present study. Second, Mendenhall et al (1987) considered the degree of trainee participation. Their typology consisted of the information giving approach, the affective approach, and the immersion approach, all taking into account the amount of participant involvement (see Figure 1), which is an important aspect of social cognitive theory.

Black and Mendenhall (1989) suggested that cross-cultural training based on Bandura's social cognitive theory, in which there is more cognitive involvement on the part of the participant, will improve reproduction proficiency (i.e. performance).

Earley (1987) argued that an experiential approach is preferable to a documentary approach in training managers for international assignments. He compared these two forms of

cross-cultural training to examine the effect of trainee involvement, which follows the premise of Bandura's social cognitive theory. He found that both methods were comparably effective at improving cultural awareness. The reasons cited were: (1) both methods had a common element of comparative information on critical incidents; (2) interpersonal style may be stable and not be easily influenced through experiential exercises; (3) the self-awareness part of the training may not be crucial to perceived need to adjust; and (4) some individuals in the study did not need training in interactive skills. Therefore, the design of this study may be too weak to show a superiority of interpersonal training. Earley (1987) is one of the only studies which compared two training methods based on the social cognitive theory as it applies to the cross-cultural training context. It is also one of the only studies to use a sample of managers.

The Present Study

This study proposes to sample expatriates directly, and to compare and contrast different cross-cultural training methods. Previous research has not focused on comparing various methods for superiority for adjustment in a foreign country. Based on Figure 3, the major premise of this study is that training methods on the high end of the rigor continuum will be superior in preparing managers for overseas assignments in comparison to training methods on the lower end of the rigor continuum.

This premise operates through Bandura's social cognitive theory. The two major mechanisms of his theory are self-efficacy and outcome expectancy. Self-efficacy can be described as one's belief of being capable of successfully accomplishing a specific task. Outcome expectancy is the outcomes, both positive and negative, that one believes will result from executing certain behaviors. In the cross-cultural training scenario, this theory operates through two sequences. First, rigorous cross-cultural training will influence self-efficacy and outcome expectancy. Second, self-efficacy and outcome expectancy will influence adjustment,

performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to stay, stress, attitudes, and behaviors.

The objective of this study is to examine current trends in duration and rigor will be explored. The most effective techniques for adjustment in the foreign country will be determined. The study proposes to support social cognitive theory as a mechanism for understanding the hypothesized relationships between training and various outcomes. Further, support will be given for the use of self-efficacy and outcome expectancy as mediators. Finally, recommendations will be made as to the appropriate training techniques that should be implemented as part of the predeparture process for expatriates embarking on international assignments.

Throughout this paper cross-cultural training is divided into training sponsored by an organization or organization sponsored training and training undertaken by the expatriate's own initiative or self-initiated training. Tung (1981) found that only 30% of firms offer cross-cultural training. Expatriates may therefore seek training on their own. Further, expatriate studies ensured to refer to the training that was provided by the organization as well as training that the expatriates sought out themselves when analyzing the amount of training received (Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Gregersen, 1991b). Therefore, it is useful to examine self-initiated training as well as organization sponsored training. The distinction can then be made between what may have been suitable for adjustment based on what the organizations provided and what was suitable based on what individuals sought.

The following sections discuss several outcomes of cross-cultural training. These variables include: adjustment, job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to stay, stress, attitudes, and behaviors.

Adjustment

Kealey (1989) studied 277 Canadian technical advisors posted to developing countries to work on international development projects sponsored by the Canadian International Development Agency. He found that cross-cultural understanding was associated with positive predeparture expectations and that unconfident predeparture expectations predicted difficulty in adjusting to the new foreign culture. Thus, cross-cultural understanding may lead to adjustment

In the Black and Mendenhall (1990) review of cross-cultural training effectiveness, several studies sought out a relationship between cross-cultural training and adjustment. All 9 found a positive relationship between the two variables. Additionally, 7 of the 9 used control groups, 3 were longitudinal, and 2 used independent measures of adjustment. This strengthens the causal inference that cross-cultural training has a positive impact on cross-cultural adjustment.

Black and Gregersen (1991a) found a negative correlation between company-provided training and interaction adjustment. They suggested that the reason for this could be that the trainees received inaccurate expectations from an insufficient quantity and low quality of cross-cultural training. Consequently, this could result in difficulty to adjust to interactions with host nationals. Therefore, as the duration and rigor of cross-cultural training increase, the level of adjustment of the expatriate may increase as well.

H1(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to all three facets of adjustment.

H1(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to all three facets of adjustment.

Job Performance

Lanier (1979) characterized those who continue to stay on their international assignments but with decreased productivity as "brownouts". She stated that these individuals can cost the company a great deal in money and reputation. She continued by saying that of all personnel sent

overseas, one third returned early. Nearly all of these failures were caused by maladjustment. Despite this, at least 25% of the companies surveyed, reported that they offer no training relating to the new location or the character of its people. In her statements, Lanier connects performance to cross-cultural training Black and Mendenhall (1990) supported this notion as they found that 11 of 15 studies had a significant relationship between cross-cultural training and performance. They also point out that none had a significant negative relationship. They further state that 4 of the studies used independent measures of performance thus strengthening confidence in the results. Therefore,

H2(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to performance overseas.

H2(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to performance overseas.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is an important determinant of successful international assignments as well. Presuming that individuals are culturally and technically trained for their assignments, they should be satisfied with their foreign assignment. Tannenbaum, Mathieu, Salas and Cannon-Bowers (1991) found that training fulfillment led to job satisfaction. Their definition of training fulfillment was developed based on 3 elements: expectations, desires and perceptions of training. In a survey on implementing high technology through training personnel, O'Brien and Kroggel (1989) found that most companies experienced an increase in job satisfaction. Moreover, no firm reported significant decreases in job satisfaction. Kealey (1989) found that those with the highest understanding of nationals were more satisfied with life overseas. Therefore,

H3(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related with job satisfaction on the overseas assignment.

H3(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related with job satisfaction on the overseas assignment.

Organizational Commitment

The presence or absence of cross-cultural training can affect an expatriate's organizational commitment. By providing cross-cultural training, the manager will receive accurate expectations regarding the culture and the assignment. Accurate or met expectations in turn affects job satisfaction (Wanous, 1980). To this extent, the expatriate would be satisfied with the company's actions and subsequently more committed to it. Gregersen and Black (1992) stated that the extent to which expatriates see an organization as dependable and supportive is proportionate to their commitment. They asserted that given the importance of cross-cultural training to successful international assignments, the more training provided by an organization prior to departure, the greater the managers' commitment to the company since they will see it as being supportive and dependable. Gregersen and Black (1992) found that predeparture cross-cultural training had a significant, positive relationship with commitment to a parent firm, even though it did not facilitate cross-cultural adjustment. The rationalization for this was that too little training, a false sense of security, or inaccurate information derived from the training prevented adjustment. Cross-cultural training should serve as a realistic job preview such that sufficiently rigorous training adequately prepares the overseas candidates. Thus, the more rigorous the training received, the more committed the expatriates.

H4(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to organizational commitment.

H4(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to organizational commitment.

Intentions to Stay

The more committed the expatriates are to the organization, the more likely the manager will have intentions to stay on the assignment. Black and Stephens (1989) found that adjustment to interacting with host nationals and adjustment to the general culture were both positively

related with intentions to stay. Therefore:

H5(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to the expatriate's intentions to stay on the assignment.

H5(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to the expatriate's intentions to stay on the assignment.

Stress

Kealey (1989) found that those expatriates with the highest understanding of nationals tended to be more relaxed while overseas. Those with the highest understanding are presumably those who receive the most cross-cultural training, both in rigor and duration. One would expect that cross-culturally trained individuals experience less stress than those who have not received any training. The more training expatriates receive, the more they are apt to know what to expect and how to cope with foreign situations. The expatriates will be familiar with these situations due to previous exposure to them. Therefore, these managers will experience less anxiety and stress in comparison to managers who receive little or less rigorous cross-cultural training.

H6(a): Cross-cultural training will be negatively related to stress.

H6(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more negatively related to stress.

Attitudes and Behaviors

Two interesting outcomes that may arise through training is a change in one's attitudes and a change in one's behaviors. "Attitudes" refers to those feelings that the expatriates currently hold with respect to the foreign country, culture, and people. "Behaviors" refers to specific actions that the expatriates would exhibit based on the attitudes they hold. These behaviors refer to specific actions displayed in the foreign country, toward the foreign culture, and toward the people of the foreign country. This attitude and behavior change will presumably be positive in that the expatriates will understand more about the foreign country due to the training. Once they

learn more about the unknown, things will become more familiar and their attitudes and behaviors may become more positive. Therefore,

H7(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to attitudes.

H7(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to attitudes.

H8(a): Cross-cultural training will be positively related to behaviors.

H8(b): The more rigorous training techniques will be more positively related to behaviors.

Duration and Effectiveness of Training

Qualitative measures were taken to measure the duration of the training that the expatriates received. Further, expatriates were asked to rate the effectiveness of the training that was received. It was expected that the more rigorous training techniques would be rated as more effective for an expatriate's adjustment to living in Japan.

H9: The more rigorous training techniques will be rated as more effective for adjustment by expatriates.

CHAPTER 4:

PSYCHOLOGICAL PROCESSES INVOLVED IN CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING

From the above discussion, one can assert that cross-cultural training will be associated with expatriate adjustment, in the foreign country. Of equal importance is an understanding of the mechanisms and psychological processes involved in the cross-cultural training and adjustment relationship. Social cognitive theory is a framework which facilitates this understanding Therefore, it was selected as a model for this study.

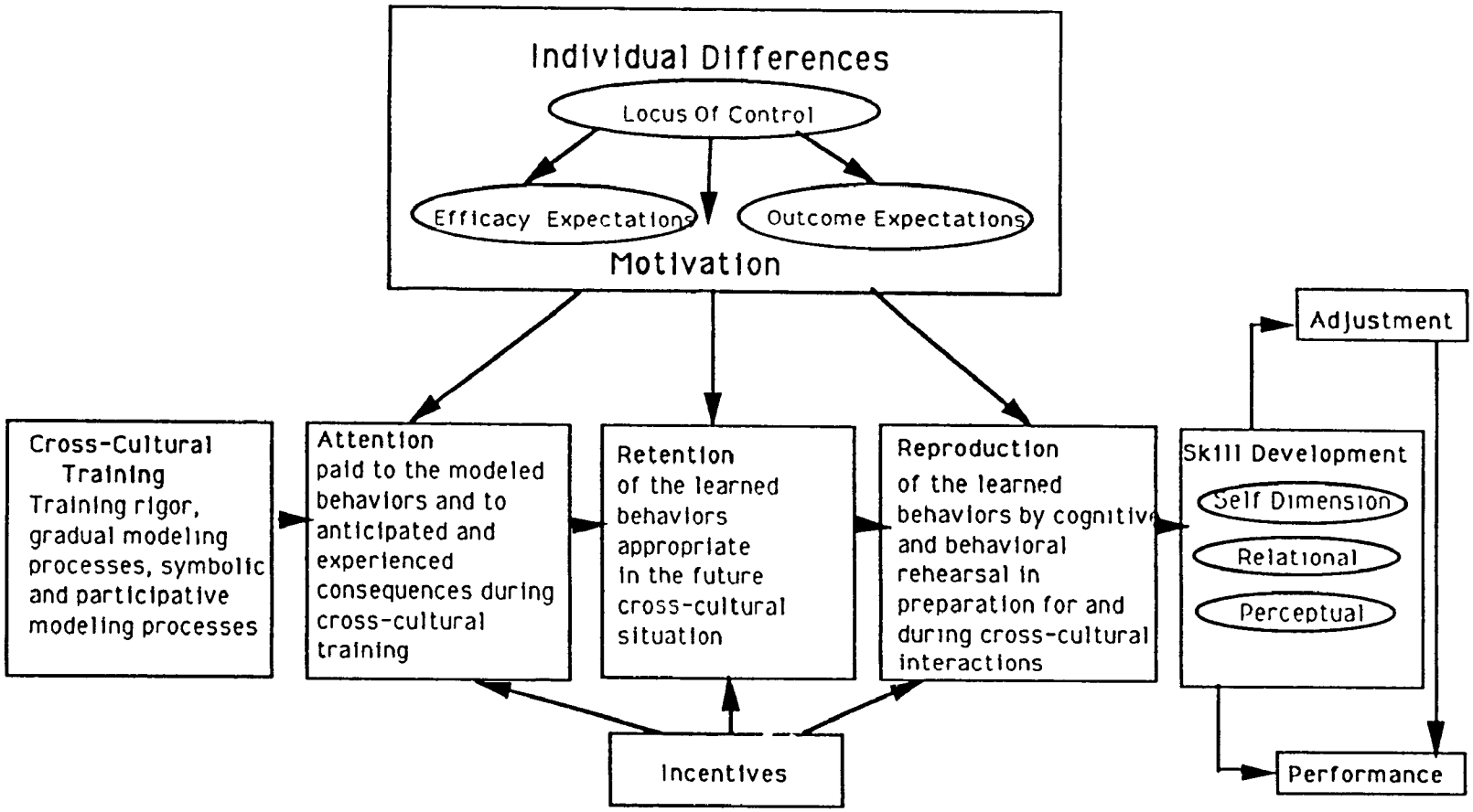
4.1 Social Cognitive Theory

Figure 4 depicts Black and Mendenhall's (1990) model of cross-cultural training based on Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory. They developed this model based on the effectiveness of cross-cultural training for adjustment. They included the mechanisms for this relationship. This figure shows how cross-cultural training, through the use of the four components of Bandura's social cognitive theory (attention, retention, reproduction and motivation), can impart certain skills on the participants The skills to be learned are self oriented, relational, and perceptual. Through the acquisition of these skills, the expatriates' adjustment and performance will be enhanced. According to Bandura,

> Both outcome expectations and personal aspirations depend on perceived self-efficacy People are disinclined to strive for rewards requiring performances they judge themselves incapable of attaining...Enhanced perceived self-efficacy predicts increased persistence in seeking solutions, higher level of cognitive achievement, and more intrinsic interest in activities formerly disliked. (Pages 430-431)

Finally, embodied in the motivational process in Figure 4 are two key mechanisms from social cognitive theory: self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancies Locus of control is the third element in the motivational process which is shown to be influenced by training, although not an element of social cognitive theory and therefore not included in the present study.

Figure 4 Model of cross-cultural training and social cognitive theory (Black & Mendenhall, 1990)



Self-Efficacy

Social cognitive theory (Bandura, 1986) includes self-efficacy expectations and outcome expectations. Self-efficacy is defined as one's perceived capability of successfully performing a specific task. Accordingly, individuals with a high level of self-efficacy will persist in accomplishing the tasks whereas the opposite is true for those with low levels of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986). Other consequences of self-efficacy include: choice of behavior, effort expenditure, emotional arousal, and thought patterns.

Training and Self-Efficacy

Several studies have found a positive relationship between training and self-efficacy. For example, Tannenbaum et al (1991) found that training fulfillment was positively related to physical self-efficacy and academic self-efficacy. Frayne and Latham (1987) found that training in self-management was effective in teaching employees how to manage personal and social obstacles to job attendance. In trying to understand the reason for its effectiveness, they found that perceived self-efficacy of having control over one's behavior increased after the training. They argued that because of this increase in perceived self-efficacy, employees felt they had the ability to overcome the personal obstacles of coming to work. In a follow-up of this study, Latham and Frayne (1989) administered the same training by a different trainer to the control group of the previous study. They found that training in self-management skills strengthened self-efficacy for employees in the control group. Further, they found that the effectiveness of this training did not extinguish over a 12 month period and even increased significantly for tests taken at the 3, 6 and 9 month intervals. The importance of this study is that it shows how training influences self-efficacy and how self-efficacy consequently influences self-management of attendance.

Gist (1989) examined the influence of two training methods on self-efficacy and

performance during training for innovative problem solving. A training method composed of cognitive modeling with practice and reinforcement generated significantly higher self-efficacy than a method involving lecture and practice alone. Thus, in this study the superior training method yielded a higher level of self-efficacy and subsequent performance.

Gist, Schwoerer and Rosen (1989) found that a behavior modeling approach yielded a higher level of self-efficacy in the mastery of a popular computer software package than a tutorial approach. Behavior modeling appeared to be the more effective method because it operates through self-efficacy to influence performance.

Gist, Stevens and Bavetta (1991) administered basic negotiation and skill maintenance training to 79 first and second year MBA students. The purpose was to examine the effects of self-efficacy and the effectiveness of self-management versus goal setting training. The results indicated that self-efficacy contributed positively to both initial and delayed performance. They also found that goal setting accentuated performance differences between high and low self-efficacy trainees.

In terms of cross-cultural training, if an individual possesses a high level of self-efficacy, this person will believe that he/she can adjust to a foreign culture, and this will lead to greater persistence in attempting to adjust (Bandura, 1986). Thus, individuals with strong self-efficacy will adjust better to the foreign environment.

Gist (1987) reviewed self-efficacy and its implications for organizational behavior and human resource management. She discussed the self-efficacy/performance relationship and argued that there is a significant correlation between self-efficacy and subsequent task performance. Self-efficacy has been found to be associated with faculty research productivity (Taylor, Locke, Lee & Gist 1984), insurance sales (Barling & Beattie, 1983), coping with difficult career-related tasks (Stumpf, Brief & Hartman, 1987), learning and achievement

(Campbell & Hackett, 1986; Wood & Locke, 1987), and adaptability to new technology (Hill, Smith & Mann, 1977). Geringer and Frayne (1993) found that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy were related to performance of international joint venture managers. This study in particular has relevance since the sample consisted of international managers Therefore, based on the results of these studies we can expect self-efficacy to be related to expatriate performance overseas. In particular, cross-cultural training should strengthen self-efficacy for accomplishing the foreign assignment which will result in greater adjustment.

Gist and Mitchell (1992) provided three strategies for changing self-efficacy and all three could be applied through cross-cultural training programs to help increase an expatriate's self-efficacy. The first is to provide information to give a thorough understanding of the task attributes, complexity, and environment, and the way in which these could be best controlled. They suggested the use of mastery and modeling experiences. This could be easily applied to cross-cultural training programs through role play exercises and discussions. The second is to provide training that improves the ability to successfully perform the task, through mastery, modeling and persuasion experiences. This could involve training expatriates for interacting with foreigners, since this could hinder successful performance of the task. The third is to provide information that improves the behavioral, analytical or psychological performance strategies or effort required for task performance. Here the focus would be on the candidates' ability to perform job duties and responsibilities abroad. All three lead to the conclusion that cross-cultural training could influence self-efficacy.

The above discussion shows how various training methods enhance trainee self-efficacy which leads to subsequent improvements in skill mastery and behavior. Therefore, the increase in self-efficacy from training, can lead us to postulate that cross-cultural training will also increase self-efficacy which will finally influence adjustment overseas. Thus, self-efficacy is a

mediator for the training and adjustment relationship. In other words, training leads to self-efficacy which in turn leads to adjustment.

H10: Self-efficacy mediates the relationship between cross-cultural training and training outcomes of adjustment, performance, job satisfaction, intentions to stay, organizational commitment, stress, attitudes, and behaviors.

Outcome Expectancy

According to Bandura (1977), outcome expectancies are also an important mechanism in social cognitive theory. Outcome expectancies refer to one's beliefs that the execution of certain behaviors will lead to various positive or negative outcomes. Outcome expectations are important in that individuals will act on their self-perceptions of efficacy if they believe that it will lead to desired outcomes (Bandura, 1977).

This construct has some relevance to international assignments as well. The expected outcomes of an overseas assignment could influence adjustment. If outcome expectations are positive, then the individual will be more inclined to apply the knowledge from the training program and consequently adjust at a more rapid pace. This person may, for instance, look at the bright side of the cultural differences and start enjoying the different foods or climate.

If one believes that the outcomes will generally be positive in nature, then performance should be high. With high positive outcome expectations a person may persist in their attempts to perform. Shell, Murphy and Bruning (1989) studied self-efficacy and outcome expectations for reading, writing, and component skills. They found that self-efficacy and outcome expectancy accounted for substantial variance in performance for mature skilled readers. In another study by Maddux, Norton and Stoltenberg (1986), outcome expectancies were found to affect behavioral intentions. According to the authors, two arguments which justify the assumption that intentions lead to performance are: (1) research on intention/behavior relationships; and (2) research on goal-setting/task performance relationships, where goal-setting is said to regulate

behavior through "specific intentions to take a certain action" (Page 788).

Barling and Beattie (1983) sampled 200 insurance sales representatives to test whether self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectancy predicts subsequent sales performance. While they found evidence that self-efficacy predicts performance, outcome expectancies did not. They claimed that it is important to measure outcome expectancies for two reasons. (1) perceived consequences may have some impact on behavior; and (2) where efficacy and outcome expectations vary, both should be considered in predicting behavior.

Frayne and Latham (1987) and Latham and Frayne (1989) argued that two social cognitive theory constructs underlie the effectiveness of training in self-management: self-efficacy and outcome expectancies. They claimed that these variables affect the extent of training effectiveness. Although the hypothesis for outcome expectancies mediating the training/outcome relationship was not supported in Frayne and Latham (1987), it can possibly mediate the cross-cultural training relationships hypothesized here. Frayne and Latham (1987) speculated that the outcome expectancies were uniformly high prior to conducting the study.

In the cross-cultural training context, cross-cultural training may increase outcome expectancies, and outcome expectancies may impart a higher level of outcomes Geringer and Frayne (1993) found that outcome expectancy was significantly related to performance of international joint venture managers. This is an important study since the sample involved international managers which is similar to the sample of this study, being Canadian managers in a culturally dissimilar country.

H11: Outcome expectancies mediate the relationship between cross-cultural training and training outcomes of adjustment, performance, job satisfaction, intentions to stay, organizational commitment, stress, attitudes, and behaviors.

In order to understand the reason for using self-efficacy and outcome expectancy as *mediators* in this study, it is important to comprehend the difference between mediators and

moderators. This is because both mediators and moderators influence a given relationship, however both operate in distinct ways.

According to James and Brett (1984), a mediator is described as the explanation of how an antecedent is related to a consequence. Further, they stated that when the relationship between two variables is a function of a third variable, that third variable is considered a moderator. Baron and Kenny (1986) also set out to clearly define the difference between mediators and moderators. They explained that a variable can be said to be a mediator to the extent that it accounts for the relationship between the predictor and criterion. They defined a moderator as affecting the direction and/or strength of the relationship between an independent variable (or predictor) and a dependent variable (or criterion). They stated that moderators specify *when* certain effects will hold while mediators speak of *how* or *why* such effects actually occur.

These definitions of mediators in addition to the literature strengthen the argument of self-efficacy and outcome expectancy as mediators. The literature suggests that training influences self-efficacy (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Gist, 1989; Gist, Schwoerer & Rosen, 1989; Gist, Stevens & Bavetta, 1991) or by path diagram: training → self-efficacy. It also suggests that self-efficacy serves to increase several outcomes, such as performance (Gist, 1987; Taylor, Locke, Lee & Gist, 1984; Barling & Beattie, 1983, Stumpf, Brief & Hartman, 1987; Campbell & Hackett, 1986; Wood & Locke, 1987; Hill, Smith & Mann, 1977; Geringer & Frayne, 1993), leading to this diagram: self-efficacy → outcomes. Placing the two diagrams together, one can see how self-efficacy could be considered a mediator, since training is related to self-efficacy which in turn is related to various outcomes: training → self-efficacy → outcomes. This is the precise form that James & Brett (1984) employ in their discussion of mediation. They stated that m (the mediator) is a function of x (the antecedent) and y (the consequence) is a function of m (the mediator) or in shorthand: $x \rightarrow m \rightarrow y$. The same logic can be followed for outcome expectancy. Even though

no studies were located supporting the effect of training on outcome expectancy. Frayne and Latham (1987) suggested that outcome expectancy should be considered a mediator.

Summary

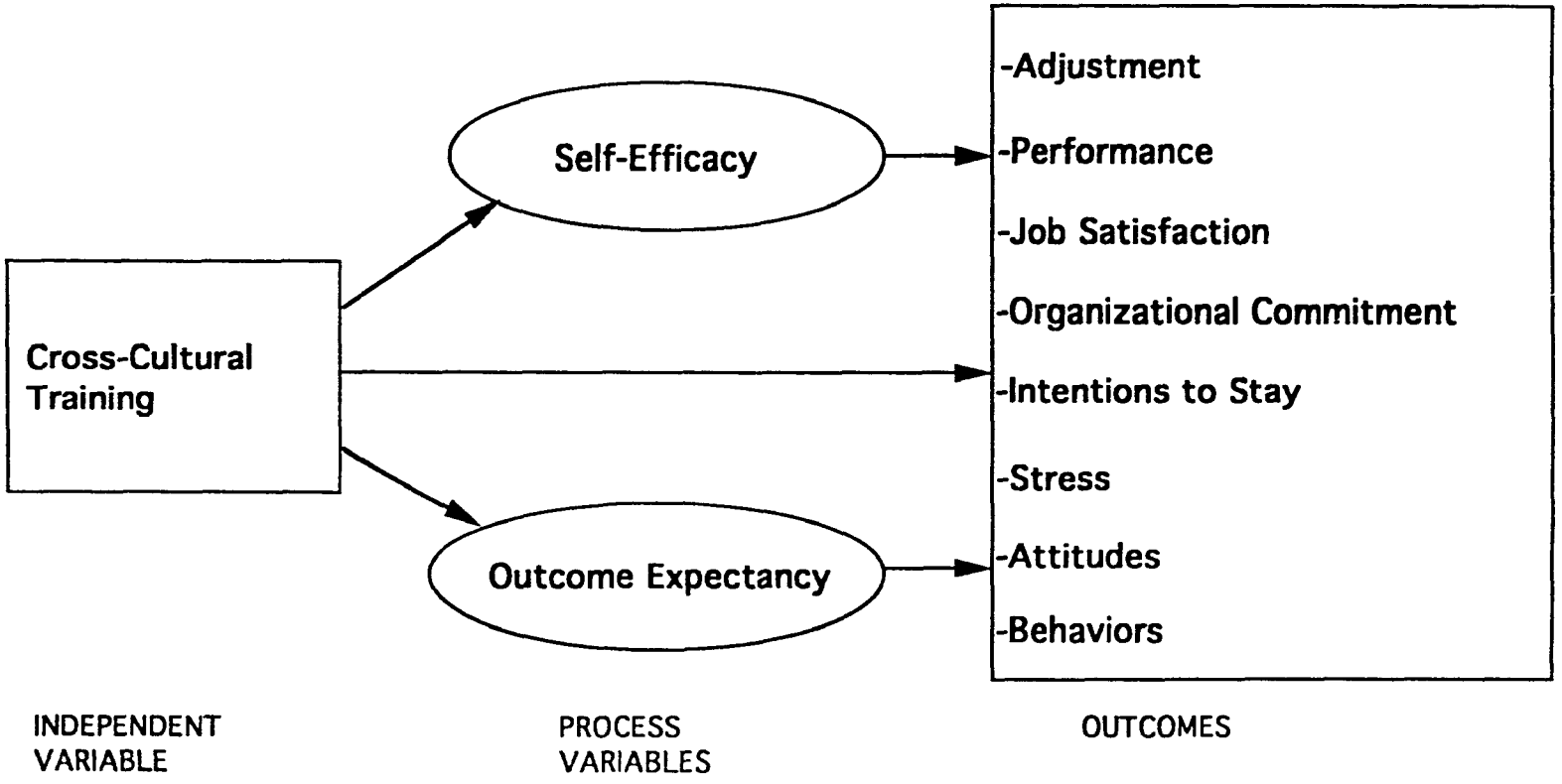
Figure 5 is a general model of the study hypotheses. It shows how highly rigorous cross-cultural training directly influences work outcomes, namely: adjustment, performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, intentions to stay, stress, attitudes, and behaviors. These relationships exist through two process or mediator variables: self-efficacy and outcome expectancies.

To test the relationships, a culturally foreign country had to be used. Japan was selected as the foreign country to study Canadian expatriates since the culture novelty is very high for Canadians on international assignments in that country Hofstede (1980) defined cultural novelty for various countries. Canada is significantly different from and nearly opposite of Japanese culture on several dimensions. Furthermore, in many international studies on adjustment, various countries in the far east, including Japan, were selected (Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Stephens, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1992). The reason was that these countries are significantly different from the United States. It was also stated that there is an increase in international business activity in this region and that the chance that future American managers will be transferred there is high. This is an additional argument for using Japan as the foreign country in this study.

Several demographic variables were identified as relevant in the international expatriate literature. Therefore, these variables were deemed important and consequently correlated with the study variables for significance. Previous experience in the Orient, years since arrival, position, age, language comprehension, and tenure were all selected as demographic variables

because of their use in previous international studies (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Gregersen, 1991c; Gregersen, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1992; and Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992).

Figure 5 Model of Cross-Cultural Training and Social Cognitive Theory



CHAPTER 5:

METHOD

5.1 Sample

The sample consisted of 123 Canadian expatriates working on temporary assignments in Japan. The overall response rate was 44.4%. The average age of the sample was 41.3 years A total of 85 or 69% were married and nearly all were male (91 9%). The average time since arrival to Japan was 6.1 years. The sample consisted of the following: 30.1% top executives, 25.2% division heads, 21.1% middle managers, 9.8% technical specialists, and 13.8% in some other category. The expatriates had been with their respective firms for an average of 10.3 years. They were working in 38 different industries; 13% were in financial institutions and 15.4% were in the government. A total of 71 individuals, or 57.7%, had been to the Orient in the past and the average time spent there was 2.4 years. The purpose of their stays was as follows: 45.5% were there for business, 13% for school, 21.1% for travel, and 1% were born in the Orient. Almost all expatriates (87%) had been to other countries (including the Orient) for an average of 5.7 years. The purpose of their stays was as follows: 69 9% were there for business, 27.6% for school, 36.6% for travel, and 3.3% were born abroad. The average number of countries visited was 5. Expatriates were asked about their knowledge of the Japanese language with respect to the extent that they can speak, write, read and understand it. About half (52%) had some knowledge or less. The remainder had an above average comprehension of the language.

5.2 Procedure

All the expatriates were requested to respond to a questionnaire (See Appendix A). The respondents were initially contacted through a letter which introduced the nature and purpose of

the project (See Appendix B). The letter told expatriates that they will be receiving a questionnaire and that their reply would be appreciated. The questionnaires were mailed one week later with a cover letter (See Appendix C). The expatriates were asked to reply to the questionnaire at their earliest convenience and as a token of appreciation, a pin of the Canadian flag was enclosed. A follow-up letter was mailed one week later to remind the expatriates of the importance of their participation in the study and request that they complete and return the questionnaire as soon as possible (See Appendix D).

The study involved two mailings. The first mailing consisted of 323 expatriates registered with the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Japan. Although the directory is a publication of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Japan, it was obtained from the Quebec Government's Minister of International Affairs. Black and Stephens (1989) assert that nearly all American firms operating in Japan are registered with the American Chamber of Commerce. If this is true, then it is very likely that Canadian firms are registered with the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Japan as Canadians are known to emulate their American counterparts.

The second mailing consisted of 25 members of the Nagoya Canada Club. This is a social group for Canadians who live and work in Nagoya, Japan. Other members include Japanese who have some affiliation with Canada, by either having worked there or being employed by a Canadian organization in Japan. All the questionnaires for this sample were mailed to the organizer of the club (See Appendix E), who was requested to distribute them to Canadian expatriates who had not received the questionnaire from the first mailing. These individuals are therefore not included on the Canadian Chamber of Commerce list. The number that were actually distributed is not known. The members of this club meet once a month and the questionnaires were to be distributed at one of these meetings.

Of the 323 sent out from the first questionnaire mailing, 116 questionnaires were

returned. In addition, 10 questionnaires were returned unanswered because either the person was unknown or had returned to Canada. Twenty-eight individuals returned their questionnaires indicating that they are Japanese citizens and thus not eligible to participate. Thirty-three mailed a **letter** indicating various explanations, mostly because of their citizenship, preventing them from participating in the study. Therefore the total number of actual Canadian expatriates was 252, and the response rate was 46% which is very good considering the typical response rate of 20% (Black & Stephens, 1989; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Porter, 1991; Jobber & Saunders, 1988; Dawson & Dickinson, 1988).

In addition, 7 of the 25 questionnaires from the second questionnaire mailing were returned. It is impossible to know the response rate here since the number of questionnaires distributed is not known. However, the lowest it could possibly be is 28% if all the questionnaires were distributed.

5.3 Measures

Cross-Cultural Training. Training was measured by the duration of each type of training. Two measures of training were used The first was training provided by the organization and the second was training undertaken independently by the expatriate. As stated earlier, only 30% of expatriates receive cross-cultural training from their respective firms (Tung, 1981) Therefore, it is possible that the international managers prepare on their own. Two separate questions were posed in order to identify the length of time of the training that the firm provided, and the length of time of the training that was self-initiated. Respondents were given precisely the type of training possibilities, namely: factual briefings, role modeling demonstrations, case studies and critical incidents, culture assimilators, role plays, communication workshops and t-groups,

language training, meeting former expatriates, field experiences, and stress reduction. A list was generated based on Figure 3, with a final selection labelled "other". A column beside the list enabled respondents to disclose the number of hours, days, weeks or months per type of training received The anchors ranged from *(0) none, to (11) 3+ months* (See Section 5 of Questionnaire in Appendix A for anchors and actual layout).

Adjustment. The 14-item scale was originally developed by Black (1988) and taken directly from Black and Stephens (1989). Recent research in the international adjustment literature has shown that adjustment can be categorized by three facets (Black & Stephens, 1989; Black, 1988). The first facet is adjustment to work. This involves the expatriates' adjustment to the new work setting in the foreign country. The second facet consists of adjustment to interactions with host nationals Basically, this entails the attempt to interact with host nationals at work as well as outside of work. The third facet is general adjustment. This covers adjustment to living in the foreign country in general; the climate, the food, the entertainment/recreation facilities, etc. Black (1990) found support for the 3-faceted conceptualization of adjustment, and other researchers have employed this categorization (Gregersen & Black, 1990, Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Gregersen, 1991c, Gregersen & Black, 1992). Throughout this study the 3-faceted definition of adjustment is employed, as it has been the categorization most often used in much of the international adjustment literature. Although other authors such as Earley (1987) and Blake and Hogan (1992) employed other measures for adjustment, the 3-faceted definition is used here because of its use in studies of similar structure. Black and Stephens' (1989) empirical research supported this notion from the results of a factor analysis. All 14 items loaded onto three factors. They found coefficient alphas of 0.82, 0.89, and 0.91 respectively for general, interaction, and work adjustment Black (1990) used these same items for measuring adjustment and found

Cronbach's alphas of 0.90, 0.84, and 0.91 respectively for general, interaction, and work adjustment. Gregersen and Black (1992) measured general adjustment to a foreign nonjob environment with items from Black's (1988) study of expatriate general adjustment. They found a coefficient alpha of 0.90 for this factor. Black (1988) found reliability coefficients of 0.80, 0.83, and 0.30 for general, interaction and work adjustment respectively. Due to the last factor's low reliability and the high correlation between the first two factors (0.47, $p<0.01$), the eight items from the first two factors were combined to form a single scale of general adjustment with a reliability of 0.83. In the present study, the reliabilities for general, interaction and work adjustment were 0.79, 0.91, and 0.87 respectively. The reliability alpha for all three scales combined was 0.87. The question corresponding to the three scales was worded as follows. "What is your extent of adjustment to the following?" Sample items included. "Living conditions in general"; "Speaking with the Japanese"; and "Job responsibilities" The anchors ranged from *(1) not adjusted at all, to (7) completely adjusted.*

Stress. The 13-item scale was adapted from Parker and Decotiis (1983). Through a principal components analysis, they found two dimensions to stress: time stress and anxiety. The corresponding Cronbach's alphas were: 0.86 and 0.74. This study found a reliability of 0.86 for time stress and 0.76 for anxiety. The anchors ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (4) strongly agree.* A sample item was: "I have too much work and too little time to do it in" for time stress and "I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my assignment" for anxiety. The items are shown in Section 9 of the Questionnaire (See Appendix A).

Performance. A 3-item self-report scale was developed specifically for this study to measure managerial performance (job responsibilities, standards and expectations, and management responsibilities) in the foreign country. The anchors ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* A sample item was: "I feel that I am adequately performing my

job responsibilities on this assignment." The reliability for this scale was 0.79.

Organizational Commitment. An 8-item scale was taken directly from Gregersen and Black (1992) and Gregersen and Black (1990). Both studies found this measure to have two components from their factor analysis: commitment to the parent company, and commitment to the local company. The Cronbach's alphas in both studies were 0.84 and 0.72 respectively. The scale was composed from items in Gregersen's (1989) analysis of multiple commitments, using modified OCQ items from Mowday, Porter and Steers (1982) in addition to O'Reilly and Chatman's (1983) study. The anchors ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (5) strongly agree.* A sample item for organizational commitment to the parent company was: "The reason I prefer this parent company to others is because of its values, of what it stands for." A sample item for organizational commitment to the local company was: "I really care about the fate of my local firm." In this study, commitment to the parent company had a reliability of 0.86, and commitment to the local company had a reliability of 0.88 (See Section 2 of Questionnaire in Appendix A for list of items and anchors).

Job Satisfaction. A 3-item scale which measured job satisfaction was adapted from Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins and Klesh (1983). They found a reliability of 0.77. The scale describes the expatriate's satisfaction with the job assignment in Japan. The anchors ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* A sample item was: "All in all, I am satisfied with my assignment." The reliability estimate for this study was 0.79.

Intentions to Stay. A 2-item scale measuring an expatriate's intention to stay on a foreign assignment was adapted from Black and Stephens (1989). They found a reliability of 0.67. The expatriates were asked if they intended on keeping the assignment for its expected duration, or returning to Canada early. The scale ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* A sample item was: "I seldom consider the possibility of returning early to Canada." The

reliability in this study was 0.44.

Attitudes. This scale was constructed specifically for this study. It consisted of three items which relate to the expatriates' predeparture training and the extent to which it had a positive influence on their attitudes or feelings toward Japan, the Japanese culture, and the Japanese people. A sample item was: "The predeparture training I received had a positive influence on my **attitudes** or "feelings" toward Japan." The scale ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* The reliability for this scale was 0.95 (See Section 7 of Questionnaire in Appendix A for layout and anchors).

Behavior. A 3-item scale was designed specifically for this study to measure the extent to which the cross-cultural training had a positive influence on the expatriates' behavior or specific actions in Japan, toward the Japanese culture, and toward the Japanese people. A sample item was: "The predeparture training I received had a positive influence on my **behavior** or "specific actions" toward the Japanese culture." The scale ranged from *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* The reliability alpha for this scale was 0 97 (See Section 7 of Questionnaire in Appendix A for layout and anchors).

Training Effectiveness. Expatriates were asked to rate each training technique on its effectiveness for adjustment for each technique they experienced. The scale ranged from *(1) very ineffective, to (5) very effective* (See Section 6 of Questionnaire in Appendix A).

Mediator Variables

Self-Efficacy. Two scales were used to measure self-efficacy. First, *general self-efficacy* was measured by Jones' (1986) 8-item scale for work self-efficacy. The anchors for this scale ranged from *(1) strongly disagree to (7) strongly agree.* The reliability for this scale was found to be 0.54. Sample items included: "My new assignment is well within the scope of my abilities"; "I have all the technical knowledge I need to deal with my current assignment"; and

"I could have handled a more challenging assignment than the one I am doing." The second scale, *specific self-efficacy*, consisted of 6 items which were developed from Black and Stephens' (1989) definition of adjustment. The items were modified to refer to one's confidence in coping with living in Japan. To adapt this scale, 3 items were developed in the area of self-efficacy for general living, 2 items for self-efficacy for interacting and socializing with host nationals, and 1 item for self-efficacy for performing job responsibilities. The question was worded as follows: "How confident are you that you can successfully cope with the following?" Sample items included: "Living in Japan"; "Interacting and socializing with the Japanese at work"; and "Performing job duties and responsibilities". This scale had anchors from *(1) no confidence, to (10) complete confidence.* The reliability for all six items was 0.86. See Section 1 of Questionnaire in Appendix A for layout and anchors. Two scales were used since (a) Jones' self-efficacy scale has been used in the past and had a sufficiently high reliability (0.71) and (b) Jones' self-efficacy measure only referred to work related items and therefore it was thought that other items referring to adjustment with respect to living in Japan would provide useful.

Outcome Expectancy This 7-item scale was developed specifically for this study based on the description provided by Bandura (1977) and Frayne and Latham (1987). The items included both positive and negative outcomes of being on a foreign assignment. Sample items included: "When I get back from my expatriate assignment I expect to receive a promotion"; "I expect that I will gain more status in the organization as a result of this assignment"; and "I expect to receive a considerable amount of recognition upon completion of this assignment". The anchors were *(1) strongly disagree, to (7) strongly agree.* The reliability for this scale was 0.87.

Demographic Variables

The respondents were requested to respond to various demographic questions. They were assured that this part of the questionnaire was strictly for statistical purposes. The demographics

included the following.

Basic Demographics. Respondents were asked to indicate their age, sex, marital status, tenure, position in the organization, and industry of the organization.

Previous International Experiences. Respondents were asked to indicate the duration and purpose of any previous experience in a foreign country, including Japan, prior to this assignment.

Number of years and/or months since arrival. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of years and/or months that have elapsed since they first arrived in the country.

Language Skills. Although this item can be thought to be related to training received, it is possible that the respondent received training many years ago and already possesses some language skills. Therefore, this item required respondents to identify the extent to which they read, write, speak, and understand the foreign language.

5.4 Analysis

The analyses included (1) descriptive data; (2) correlations; and (3) multiple regressions. The multiple regressions may not be fully relied upon since assumptions for normality and homoscedasticity of the independent variables were not satisfied. This is probably due to the small amount of training received by the expatriates. The tests for normality were conducted through Durbin-Watson tests and histograms of residuals. Homoscedasticity was tested using scatterplots of the error terms against the independent variable and X^2 (chi square) tests.

The descriptive data consisted of the duration and effectiveness of training received. Correlations were examined initially for the demographic variables with outcomes and then for the demographic variables with the mediators. General correlations were examined for (1) training and outcomes; (2) training and mediators; and (3) mediators and outcomes. Testing for the training rigor hypotheses was performed based on the three levels of rigor in Figure 3 using

multiple regressions. Tests for mediation were conducted through multiple regressions as well. All analyses were conducted separately for organization sponsored training and self-initiated training.

CHAPTER 6:

RESULTS

6.1 Duration and Effectiveness of Training

Table 1 presents descriptive results for the duration and effectiveness of cross-cultural training received by the expatriates. First, it presents the average amount of training the expatriates received through the organization and through their own initiative. Second, it presents the expatriates' average rating for the effectiveness of each technique for their adjustment.

Duration of Cross-Cultural Training

For cross-cultural training received from the organization, the means from Table 1 indicate that the expatriates' organizations provided relatively little training prior to their foreign assignment. In fact, these results indicate that on average, expatriates received less than 2 hours of training in most techniques. The exceptions to this were for factual briefings, language training, and field experiences. Expatriates reported receiving on average of two to five hours of factual briefings; close to one day of language training; and three to five hours of field experiences. The highest amount of training offered consisted of language training (2.69 or close to one day) and the lowest amount of training offered consisted of stress reduction training (0.17 or less than two hours of training).

Further, the amount of self-initiated training was higher for every type of training. Subjects reported spending the most amount of time in self-initiated factual briefings (close to one week); followed by language training (also close to one week); meeting former expatriates (one day); culture assimilators (close to one day); field experiences (close to one day); and cases and critical incidents (several hours). For the remaining training techniques, subjects reported receiving less than two hours of training.

Effectiveness of Training for Adjustment

The mean ratings for effectiveness indicate that most of the training techniques were rated

Table 1 Duration of Cross-Cultural Training and Effectiveness for Adjustment

Training Technique	Duration of Organization Sponsored Training[a]	Duration of Self-Initiated Training[a]	Effectiveness for Adjustment[b]
Factual Briefings	1.73	5.58	3.64
Role Modeling Demonstrations	0.50	0.77	3.40
Cases, Critical Incidents	0.80	1.62	3.60
Culture Assimilators	0.90	2.90	3.64
Role Plays	0.55	0.74	3.11
Communication Workshops/T-Groups	0.36	0.97	3.47
Language Training	2.69	5.39	3.94
Meeting Former Expatriates	0.86	3.04	3.83
Field Experience	2.10	2.45	4.34
Stress Reduction	0.17	0.87	3.61

[a] *Scale ranges from 0 (None) to 11 (over 3 months).*
[b] *Scale ranges from 1 for training received to 5 (1=Very Ineffective, 5=Very Effective).*

by expatriates as somewhat effective. However, the three training techniques that were rated as most effective were, as expected, the more rigorous training techniques. In particular, field experiences, language training, and meeting former expatriates were rated as the most effective training techniques for adjustment. These cross-cultural training techniques are considered high in rigor as their categorization is in participative methods of training (See Figure 3). This suggests that more rigorous training techniques are considered by expatriates as more effective for their adjustment on international assignments. Therefore, Hypothesis 9 was accepted.

Summary

In sum, expatriates generally receive most of their training through their own initiative. Organizations sponsor a considerably small amount of the total training. Expatriates spent most of the total training time in factual briefings and language training. They spent the least amount of their time in stress reduction training.

As for training effectiveness, role modeling demonstrations, which is a technique in the moderate level of rigor (cognitive methods), was rated as being the least effective training technique for an expatriate's adjustment to the foreign country. Field experiences, language training, and meeting former expatriates, which are categorized in the highest level of training rigor (participative methods), were rated as being the most effective for an expatriate's adjustment.

6.2 Demographic Variables

This section reviews the results for the correlations for the demographic variables. First they were correlated with outcomes, then they were correlated with the mediators.

Demographics with Outcomes

Table 2 presents the correlations of the demographic variables with all the study's variables. Years since arrival in Japan was positively correlated with general adjustment (.19, $p < .05$). This indicates that the longer the expatriates have been in Japan, the greater their adjustment to general living conditions in Japan.

Previous experience in the Orient was also correlated with interaction adjustment (.21, $p < .05$). This suggests that the more experience an expatriate possesses, the greater the interaction adjustment. Language comprehension was positively correlated with interaction adjustment (.53, $p < .01$). This indicates that the more the expatriates comprehend Japanese, the greater their adjustment to interaction with host nationals.

Position was negatively correlated with work adjustment (-.26, $p < .01$). This negative correlation may be misleading at first glance. However, the reason for its negative direction is because position was reversed scored, whereby: *1=top executive, 2=division head, 3=middle manager, and 4=technical specialist.* Thus, the higher the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher their adjustment to working in Japan. Conversely, age was positively correlated to work adjustment (.16, $p < .05$). Therefore, the older the expatriates, the more adjusted they are to working in Japan.

Position was negatively correlated with performance (-.30, $p < .01$). Thus, the higher the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher their performance on the overseas assignment. Age and tenure were both positively correlated to performance with correlations of .26 ($p < .01$) and .31 ($p < .01$), respectively. Therefore, the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the higher their performance on their overseas assignments.

Position was negatively correlated with job satisfaction (-.28, $p < .01$). Thus, the higher

Table 2 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Background Variables with Outcomes

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Previous Experience in Orient	2 35	5 17	1 00																
2. Years Since Arrival	6 11	7 94	03	1 00															
3. Position	2 12	1 02	- 15	- 12	1 00														
4. Age	41 27	10 55	24**	42**	- 33**	1 00													
5. Language Comprehension	2.99	1 21	16*	17*	09	- 02	1 00												
6. Tenure	10 28	8 91	26**	23*	- 27**	56**	- 05	1 00											
7. Adjustment (General)	5 44	96	05	19*	- 02	07	13	09	1 00										
8. Adjustment (Interaction)	5 30	1 27	21*	10	06	- 05	53**	- 03	46**	1 00									
9. Adjustment (Work)	6 18	85	14	05	- 26**	16*	- 01	15	49**	28**	1 00								
10. Performance	5 51	69	15	- 01	- 30**	26**	- 07	31**	.41**	29**	63**	1 00							
11. Job Satisfaction	5 99	96	12	10	- 28**	20*	- 16*	18*	33**	20*	.48**	72**	1 00						
12. Organizational Commitment (Parent)	3 94	.73	08	15	- 32**	48**	- 03	26**	11	- 05	33**	43**	53**	1 00					
13. Organizational Commitment (Local)	4 02	77	09	16	- 24**	37**	- 05	20*	11	.03	25**	32**	49**	71**	1 00				
14. Intentions to Stay	5 03	1 35	00	01	- 11	21*	- 11	.18*	28**	14	.32**	65**	40**	39**	24**	1 00			
15. Time Stress	2 39	62	02	- 08	- 04	- 16*	04	- 19*	- 31**	- 25**	- 34**	- 36**	- 40**	- 21*	- 22**	- 29**	1 00		
16. Anxiety	2 17	59	- 10	03	- 03	- 07	08	- 16*	- 41**	- 32**	- 43**	-.49**	-.54**	- 13	- 17*	-.35**	74**	1 00	
17. Attitudes	5 16	1 04	15	.15	- 01	16	23*	.14	42**	34**	11	38**	19	.17	14	39**	- 05	- 10	1 00
18. Behavior	5 04	1 18	- 11	15	04	07	31**	15	22*	41**	00	.22	.13	14	13	29*	- 06	- 05	.78**
19. Specific Self-Efficacy	8 25	1 36	26**	17*	-.05	- 01	35**	- 03	40**	.71**	27**	34**	23**	- 06	03	.20*	-.26**	-.32**	36**
20. General Self-Efficacy	4.94	66	12	- 11	-.20*	.10	.06	23**	15	31**	.35**	67**	23**	- 03	- 04	16*	- 09	-.18*	.30*
21. Outcome Expectancy	4 32	1 30	- 13	- 06	- 06	- 15	.16	- 05	.10	04	01	.07	06	08	08	.10	- 04	-.05	- 02

*p<0 05 **p<0 01

Table 2 continued

Variable	18	19	20	21
1. Previous Experience in Orient				
2. Years Since Arrival				
3. Position				
4. Age				
5. Language Comprehension				
6. Tenure				
7. Adjustment (General)				
8. Adjustment (Interaction)				
9. Adjustment (Work)				
10. Performance				
11. Job Satisfaction				
12. Organizational Commitment (Parent)				
13. Organizational Commitment (Local)				
14. Intentions to Stay				
15. Time Stress				
16. Anxiety				
17. Attitudes				
18. Behavior	1 00			
19. Specific Self-Efficacy	26*	1 00		
20. General Self-Efficacy	18	30**	1 00	
21. Outcome Expectancy	05	06	- 06	1 00

*p < 0 05 **p < 0 01

the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher the job satisfaction. Language comprehension was also negatively correlated with job satisfaction (-.16, $p < .05$). Therefore, the more the expatriates comprehend the language, the lower their satisfaction with the job assignment Conversely, age and tenure were both positively correlated with job satisfaction with correlations of .20 ($p < .05$) and .18 ($p < .05$), respectively. Therefore, the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the more they are satisfied with their job assignments.

Position was negatively correlated with organizational commitment to the parent organization (-.32, $p < .01$). Thus, the higher the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher their commitment to the parent company. Age and tenure were both positively correlated to organizational commitment with correlations of .48 ($p < .01$) and .26 ($p < .01$), respectively. Therefore, the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the higher their commitment to the parent company.

Position was negatively correlated with organizational commitment to the local organization (-.24, $p < .01$). Thus, the higher the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher their commitment to the local company. Age and tenure were both positively correlated to organizational commitment with correlations of .37 ($p < .01$) and .20 ($p < .05$), respectively. This indicates that the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the higher their commitment to the local company.

Age and tenure were both positively correlated to intentions to stay with correlations of .21 ($p < .05$) and .18 ($p < .05$), respectively. This indicates that the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the higher their intentions to stay on the overseas assignment

Age and tenure were both negatively correlated with time stress with correlations of -.16

($p < .05$) and -.19 ($p < .05$), respectively. This suggests that the older the expatriates or the longer they have been with their respective organizations, the less time pressure they experience overseas. Tenure was negatively correlated with anxiety (-.16, $p < .05$). Therefore, the longer the expatriates have been with their respective organizations, the less anxiety they experience.

Language comprehension was positively correlated with attitudes (.23, $p < .05$). This indicates that the more the expatriates comprehend Japanese, the more positive their attitudes or feelings toward Japan, its culture, and its people.

Language comprehension was positively correlated with behaviors (.31, $p < .01$). This indicates that the more the expatriates comprehend Japanese, the greater their positive behaviors in Japan, toward the Japanese culture, and toward the Japanese people

Summary

In sum, all of the demographic variables were correlated with the outcomes. Position was correlated with 5 of 12 outcomes. Perhaps those in the higher level of the hierarchy feel little pressure in terms of performance because of their confidence in their abilities This could explain the significant correlation between position and work adjustment, performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment to the parent company, and organizational commitment to the local company. Age and tenure often had positive correlations with the outcomes and negative correlations with stress and anxiety. Both age and tenure were correlated with 7 of 12 outcome variables.

This could indicate that age, tenure, and position are indicators of adjustment. Highly tenured or older expatriates may experience less stress and anxiety possibly because of their experience in their respective companies and/or low concerns with job demands

The correlation between language comprehension and job satisfaction was the only counter-intuitive one. Language comprehension was negatively correlated with job satisfaction

A plausible explanation for this is that these individuals had reservations about being satisfied with the assignment prior to departure and consequently ensured that they had a sufficient knowledge of the language through training. Subsequently, their uneasiness may have prevented their satisfaction.

Demographics with Mediators

Table 2 presents the correlations between the demographic variables and the mediators. Previous experience in the Orient, years since arrival, position, language comprehension, and tenure were all significantly correlated with the mediators. In particular, previous experience in the Orient, years since arrival, and language comprehension were all positively correlated to specific self-efficacy with correlations of .26 ($p < .01$), .17 ($p < .05$), and .35 ($p < .01$), respectively. Thus, the more experience the expatriates have in the Orient, the longer they have been on the assignment, or the greater their language comprehension, the greater the specific self-efficacy. Position was negatively correlated with general self-efficacy (-.20, $p < .05$). Thus, the higher the expatriates are in the hierarchy of the organization, the higher their general self-efficacy. Tenure was positively correlated with general self-efficacy (.23, $p < .01$). Therefore, the longer the expatriates have been with their respective firms, the greater their general self-efficacy. None of the demographic variables were correlated with outcome expectancy.

Summary

In sum, all the demographics except for age, were correlated with general self-efficacy and specific self-efficacy. Specific self-efficacy was correlated with 3 of 6 demographic variables while general self-efficacy was correlated with 2 of 6 demographic variables. Expatriates with previous experience in the Orient have higher specific self-efficacy. Those on the higher end of the hierarchy of the organization may feel confident enough with their abilities and therefore have a higher general self-efficacy. Outcome expectancy was not correlated to any of the

demographics. This could be because demographics are not a determinant of expatriate beliefs on the outcomes from their assignment.

6.3 General Correlation Results of Study Variables

The correlations for the study variables were investigated by looking at the correlations between (1) training and the outcomes; (2) training and the mediators; and (3) the mediators and the outcomes. This was done for organization sponsored training and self-initiated training separately.

Therefore, two tables present these correlations. Table 3 presents the means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for organization sponsored training. Table 4 presents the intercorrelations for self-initiated training.

Training and Outcomes

a) Organization Sponsored Training

Table 3 shows the correlations between organization sponsored training and the outcomes. Hypothesis 1(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to adjustment (general, interaction, and work). None of the training techniques were correlated with general adjustment nor were they correlated with work adjustment. However, meeting former expatriates was negatively correlated with interaction adjustment (-.21, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 2(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to performance. Hypothesis 3(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to job satisfaction. However, none of the training techniques were correlated with performance nor were they correlated with job satisfaction. Thus, there is no support for Hypotheses 2(a) and

Table 3 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables with Organization Sponsored Training Techniques

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Factual Briefings	1 73	3 07	1 00																
2. Role Modeling Demonstrations	50	1 68	19*	1 00															
3. Cases, Critical Incidents	80	2 47	58**	32**	1 00														
4. Culture Assimilators	90	2 39	56**	42**	51**	1 00													
5. Role Plays	55	1 78	41**	51**	72**	65**	1 00												
6 Communication Workshops/T-Groups	36	1 64	25**	52**	59**	60**	71**	1 00											
7. Language Training	2 69	4 38	46**	08	24**	29**	20*	04	1 00										
8. Meeting Former Expatriates	86	2 06	15	39**	- 06	12	14	- 03	16*	1 00									
9. Field Experience	2 10	3 65	30**	35**	07	2?**	21*	22**	48**	19*	1 00								
10. Stress Reduction	17	88	33**	36**	41**	48**	45**	64**	03	08	15	1 00							
11. Total Organization Training	10 63	15 00	74**	57**	65**	73**	72**	59**	65**	33**	61**	49**	1 00						
12. Adjustment (General)	5 44	96	02	- 01	03	- 06	00	- 06	01	12	- 03	04	01	1 00					
13. Adjustment (Interaction)	5 30	1 27	- 12	- 10	03	- 10	- 02	04	07	- 21*	13	01	- 02	46**	1 00				
14. Adjustment (Work)	6 18	85	- 08	- 05	01	- 01	04	05	02	00	- 06	09	- 02	.49**	28**	1 00			
15. Performance	5 51	69	01	00	- 03	- 04	- 10	- 15	15	.10	01	- 06	02	41**	29**	63**	1 00		
16. Job Satisfaction	5 99	96	01	00	- 02	02	- 01	- 05	15	.12	12	02	09	.33**	20*	48**	72**	1 00	
17. Organizational Commitment (Parent)	3 94	73	16	.22*	06	18*	07	09	04	20*	14	13	.19*	.11	- 05	.33**	43**	53**	1 00
18. Organizational Commitment (Local)	4 02	77	16*	- 01	07	13	00	02	15	11	18*	15	17*	11	03	25**	.32**	.49**	.71**
19. Intentions to Stay	5 03	1 35	03	- 01	00	- 03	- 09	- 16*	- 01	09	-.10	- 06	- 04	28**	14	32**	65**	40**	39**
20. Time Stress	2 39	62	00	19*	- 13	00	00	03	01	.11	.14	.17*	07	-.31**	- 25**	- 34**	- 36**	- 40**	- 21**
21. Anxiety	2 17	59	15	19**	02	05	01	09	- 09	04	09	11	09	- 41**	- 32**	- 43**	- 49**	-.54**	- 13
22. Attitudes	5 16	1 04	25*	.10	15	- 03	12	- 14	25*	22*	09	23*	23*	42**	34**	11	38**	19	.17
23. Behavior	5 04	1 18	10	15	25*	06	29*	05	22	13	07	20	25*	22*	41**	00	22	.13	14
24. Specific Self-Efficacy	8 25	1 36	- 16*	- 14	- 05	- 12	- 03	- 06	03	- 06	07	- 13	- 08	40**	.71**	27**	34**	23**	- 06
25. General Self-Efficacy	4 94	66	01	- 01	02	- 04	- 11	-.08	12	- 03	- 03	- 04	00	15	.31**	35**	.67**	23**	- 03
26. Outcome Expectancy	4 32	1 30	02	.13	08	08	09	12	- 21*	- 09	-.05	.11	- 02	10	04	01	07	06	08

*p < 0 05 **p < 0 01

Table 3 continued

Variable	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. Factual Briefings									
2. Role Modeling Demonstrations									
3. Cases, Critical Incidents									
4. Culture Assimilators									
5. Role Plays									
6. Communication Wrkshps/T-Grps									
7. Language Training									
8. Meeting Former Expatriates									
9. Field Experience									
10. Stress Reduction									
11. Total Organization Training									
12. Adjustment (General)									
13. Adjustment (Interaction)									
14. Adjustment (Work)									
15. Performance									
16. Job Satisfaction									
17. Organizational Commitment (Parent)									
18. Organizational Commitment (Local)	1 00								
19. Intentions to Stay	24**	1 00							
20. Time Stress	- 22**	- 29**	1 00						
21. Anxiety	- 17*	- 35**	74**	1 00					
22. Attitudes	14	39**	- 05	- 10	1 00				
23. Behavior	13	29*	- 06	- 05	78**	1 00			
24. Specific Self-Efficacy	03	20*	- 26**	- 32**	36**	26*	1 00		
25. General Self-Efficacy	- 04	16*	- 09	- 18*	30*	18	30**	1 00	
26. Outcome Expectancy	08	10	- 04	- 05	- 02	05	06	- 06	1 00

*p < 0 05 **p < 0 01

3(a).

Hypothesis 4(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively correlated to organizational commitment. Role modeling demonstrations, culture assimilators, meeting former expatriates, and total organization sponsored training were all positively correlated to organizational commitment to the parent company with correlations of .22 ($p < .05$), .18 ($p < .05$), .20 ($p < .05$), and .19 ($p < .05$), respectively. The more these types of training techniques were received, the greater the expatriate's commitment to the parent company. Factual briefings, field experiences, and total organization sponsored training were all positively correlated to organizational commitment to the local company with correlations of .16 ($p < .05$), .18 ($p < .05$), and 17 ($p < .05$), respectively. All these positive correlations, both to the parent and local companies, partially support Hypothesis 4(a). The more these training techniques are offered, the greater the commitment.

Hypothesis 5(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to intentions to stay. Communication workshops/T-groups was negatively correlated with intentions to stay (-.16, $p < .05$). This suggests that the more communication workshops or T-group training received, the lower expatriates' intentions to stay on the assignment. Therefore, Hypothesis 5(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 6(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be negatively related to stress. Role modeling demonstrations and stress reduction training were both positively correlated with time stress experienced abroad. The correlation coefficients corresponded to .19 ($p < .05$) for role modeling demonstrations and .17 ($p < .05$) for stress reduction training. Role modeling demonstrations was also positively correlated to anxiety (.19, $p < .01$). These correlations suggest that the more these training techniques are received, the more time stress and anxiety the expatriates exhibit. Thus, Hypothesis 6(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 7(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to expatriate attitudes toward Japan, the Japanese culture, and the Japanese people. The following organization sponsored training techniques were all positively correlated to expatriate attitudes: factual briefings (.25, $p < .05$), language training (.25, $p < .05$), meeting former expatriates (.22, $p < .05$), stress reduction (.23, $p < .05$) and total organization sponsored training (.23, $p < .05$) It can be suggested that the more factual briefings, language training, meeting former expatriates, stress reduction, and total organization sponsored training received, the more positive the expatriates' attitudes or feelings towards Japan, its culture, and its people. Therefore, Hypothesis 7(a) was partially supported in that these training techniques produced positive correlations with attitudes.

Hypothesis 8(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to expatriate behaviors in Japan, toward the Japanese culture, and toward the Japanese people. Cases and critical incidents, role plays, and total organization sponsored training were all positively correlated with behaviors with correlations of .25 ($p < .05$), .29 ($p < .05$), and 25 ($p < .05$). Thus, Hypothesis 8(a) was partially supported in that these training techniques produced positive correlations with behaviors.

Summary

In sum, all of the organization sponsored training variables were correlated with one or more of the outcomes. However, partial support was found for Hypotheses 4(a), 7(a), and 8(a) which correspond to the relationships between organization sponsored cross-cultural training and organizational commitment, attitudes, and behaviors respectively. Hypotheses 1(a), 2(a), 3(a), 5(a), and 6(a) were not supported.

Meeting former expatriates was negatively correlated with interaction adjustment which is in the opposite direction of the hypothesized relationship. Through meeting former expatriates,

the current recruits may hear stories which frighten them and lead to poor interactions with host nationals because of nervousness or anticipation.

Because of the negative correlation between communication workshops/T-group training and intentions to stay, it is possible that those individuals that are given communication workshops or T-group training feel that the organization did not provide sufficient rigorous training and thus feel they cannot handle the assignment. Not being able to handle the assignment, they have the intentions to return early.

The positive correlations between time stress and anxiety with training were counter-intuitive to the Hypotheses. Perhaps individuals who are prone to stress are given these training techniques and the training they received is not sufficient in reducing their stress and anxiety abroad, and is in fact detrimental since they are anticipating stress.

b) Self-Initiated Training

Table 4 presents the correlations between self-initiated training and the outcomes. Hypothesis 1(a) predicted that will be positively related to adjustment (general, interaction, and work). Role modeling demonstrations and role plays were both negatively correlated with general adjustment with correlations of -.18 ($p < .05$) and -.16 ($p < .05$), respectively. This suggests that the more role modeling received under the expatriate's own initiative, the lower the general adjustment. Factual briefings, case studies and critical incidents, language training, field experiences, and total self-initiated training were all positively correlated with interaction adjustment. The corresponding correlations were .16 ($p < .05$), .22 ($p < .05$), .33 ($p < .01$), .20 ($p < .05$), and .23 ($p < .01$), respectively. The more factual briefings, case studies and critical incidents, language training, field experiences and total self-initiated training the expatriates undertake, the higher their adjustment to interaction with host nationals.

Stress reduction was negatively correlated with work adjustment (-.16, $p < .05$).

Table 4 Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables with Self-Initiated Training Techniques

Variable	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Factual Briefings	5 58	4 18	1 00																
2. Role Modeling Demonstrations	77	2 13	.23**	1 00															
3. Cases, Critical Incidents	1 62	3 40	.46**	.37**	1 00														
4. Culture Assimilators	2 90	4 10	46**	31**	61**	1 00													
5. Role Plays	74	2 27	.16*	53**	48**	38**	1 00												
6. Communication Workshops/T-Groups	97	2 78	28**	.57**	41**	41**	68**	1 00											
7. Language Training	5 39	5 10	38**	10	25**	.36**	13	24**	1 00										
8. Meeting Former Expatriates	3 04	3 52	45**	.17*	29**	50**	27**	.33**	.40**	1 00									
9. Field Experience	2 45	4 30	27**	33**	37**	32**	32**	43**	3**	.35**	1 00								
10. Stress Reduction	87	2 53	14	35**	37**	.27**	47**	27**	13	23**	21*	1 00							
11. Total Self-Initiated Training	24 32	22 00	65**	54**	71**	75**	60**	67**	62**	66**	65**	47**	1 00						
12. Adjustment (General)	5 44	96	08	- 18*	01	- 03	- 16*	- 12	03	- 03	- 09	- 14	- 07	1 00					
13. Adjustment (Interaction)	5 30	1 27	16*	01	22*	09	07	10	33**	00	20*	12	23**	46**	1 00				
14. Adjustment (Work)	6 18	85	- 01	- 10	04	- 02	- 08	- 02	- 04	01	01	- 16*	- 04	49**	28**	1 00			
15. Performance	5 51	69	02	- 04	02	02	- 07	- 01	08	07	01	- 10	02	.41**	29**	63**	1 00		
16. Job Satisfaction	5 99	96	07	- 09	02	05	- 02	02	14	07	08	-.17*	03	33**	20*	.48**	.72**	1.00	
17. Organizational Commitment (Parent)	3 94	73	- 05	15	03	03	10	05	- 05	- 13	00	03	01	.11	- 05	33**	43**	.53**	1 00
18. Organizational Commitment (Local)	4 02	77	10	10	06	10	04	02	03	- 02	07	- 06	07	11	03	25**	32**	49**	71**
19. Intentions to Stay	5 03	1 35	00	- 05	00	00	- 03	01	02	07	- 01	- 05	00	28**	.14	32**	65**	40**	39**
20. Time Stress	2 39	.62	- 03	27**	- 03	- 02	09	09	- 13	00	09	28**	05	- 31**	-.25**	- 34**	36**	- 40**	- 21*
21. Anxiety	2 17	59	- 10	23**	- 07	- 11	08	05	- 16*	- 12	01	16*	- 05	- 41**	- 32**	- 43**	- 49**	- 54**	- 13
22. Attitudes	5 16	1 04	17	05	03	05	- 21	07	07	02	- 13	07	02 -	42**	34**	11	38**	19	17
23. Behavior	5 04	1 18	17	11	17	23*	06	17	15	- 01	- 10	03	16	22*	41**	00	22	13	14
24. Specific Self-Efficacy	8 25	1 36	05	06	14	- 05	00	03	29**	02	22**	05	15	40**	71**	27**	34**	23**	- 06
25. General Self-Efficacy	4 94	66	08	07	11	08	01	05	09	07	05	10	12	15	.31**	35**	67**	23**	- 03
26. Outcome Expectancy	4 32	1 30	- 03	18*	- 03	01	18*	27**	02	13	07	02	10	10	04	01	07	06	08

*p < 0 05 **p < 0 01

Table 4 continued

Variable	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
1. Factual Briefings									
2. Role Modeling Demonstrations									
3. Cases, Critical Incidents									
4. Culture Assimilators									
5. Role Plays									
6. Communication Wrkshps/T-Grps									
7. Language Training									
8. Meeting Former Expatriates									
9. Field Experience									
10. Stress Reduction									
11. Total Self-Initiated Training									
12. Adjustment (General)									
13. Adjustment (Interaction)									
14. Adjustment (Work)									
15. Performance									
16. Job Satisfaction									
17. Organizational Commitment (Parent)									
18. Organizational Commitment (Local)	1 00								
19. Intentions to Stay	.24**	1 00							
20. Time Stress	- 22**	- 29**	1 00						
21. Anxiety	- 17*	- 35**	74**	1 00					
22. Attitudes	14	39**	- 05	10	1 00				
23. Behavior	13	29*	- 06	- 05	78**	1 00			
24. Specific Self-Efficacy	03	20*	- 26**	- 32**	36**	76*	1 00		
25. General Self-Efficacy	- 04	16*	- 09	- 18*	30*	18	30**	1 00	
26. Outcome Expectancy	08	10	- 01	- 05	- 02	05	06	- 06	1 00

*p<0 05 **p<0 01

Therefore, the more stress reduction training the expatriates receive under their own initiative, the lower the work adjustment. Therefore, Hypothesis 1(a) was partially supported in that factual briefings, cases and critical incidents, language training, field experiences, and total self-initiated training were correlated with interaction adjustment.

Hypothesis 2(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to performance. However, none of the self-initiated cross-cultural training techniques were correlated to performance. Therefore, Hypothesis 2(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 3(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to job satisfaction. Stress reduction training was negatively correlated to job satisfaction (-.17, $p < .05$). The more the expatriates undertake stress reduction training, the lower the job satisfaction. Thus, Hypothesis 3(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 4(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to organizational commitment. However, none of the self-initiated training techniques were related to organizational commitment to the parent company and organizational commitment to the local company. Therefore, Hypothesis 4(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 5(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to intentions to stay. However, none of the self-initiated training techniques were related to intentions to stay. Thus, Hypothesis 5(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 6(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be negatively related to stress Role modeling demonstrations and stress reduction training were both positively related to time stress with correlations of .27 ($p < .01$) and .28 ($p < .01$), respectively. This suggests that the more the expatriates undertake these training techniques, the greater the time pressure stress

Role modeling demonstrations and stress reduction training were also positively correlated to anxiety with correlations of .23 ($p < .01$) and .16 ($p < .05$), respectively Expatriates who have

undertaken these training techniques report more anxiety abroad. However, language training was negatively correlated to anxiety (-.16, $p<.05$). Thus, the more language training undertaken, the less anxiety reported by the expatriates. Therefore, Hypothesis 6(a) was partially supported in that language training was negatively related to anxiety.

Hypothesis 7(a) stated that cross-cultural training will be positively related to expatriate attitudes toward Japan, the Japanese culture, and the Japanese people. However, none of the cross-cultural training techniques were related to attitudes. Thus, Hypothesis 7(a) was not supported.

Hypothesis 8(a) predicted that cross-cultural training will be positively related to behaviors in Japan, toward the Japanese culture, and toward the Japanese people. Only culture assimilators had a positive correlation with behaviors (.23, $p<.05$) Expatriates who have undertaken culture assimilators reported more positive behaviors or specific actions. Therefore, Hypothesis 8(a) was partially supported in that cultural assimilators was positively correlated with behaviors.

Summary

In sum, several of the self-initiated training methods were correlated to one or more of the outcomes. Hypotheses 1(a), 6(a), and 8(a) were partially supported. Factual briefings, cases and critical incidents, language training, field experiences, and total self-initiated training were correlated with interaction adjustment. Language training was negatively correlated with anxiety. Cultural assimilators was positively correlated with behaviors. Hypotheses 2(a), 3(a), 4(a), 5(a) and 7(a) were not supported.

Role modeling and stress reduction training were often counter-intuitively associated with several outcomes; 3 of 12 outcomes for role modeling demonstrations and 4 of 12 outcomes for stress reduction. Through these training techniques in particular, expatriates may envision the

actual interactions (from role modeling) and stress (through stress reduction exercises) they will be experiencing. They may then realize how difficult it will be for them to adjust. They may also be anticipating stress and anxiety after their training experiences. This could be why they experience more stress, a lack of adjustment, and less job satisfaction.

Training and Mediators

a) Organization Sponsored Training

Table 3 presents the intercorrelations for organization sponsored training techniques and the mediators. Factual briefings was negatively correlated with specific self-efficacy (-.16, $p < .05$). Therefore, the more factual briefings received, the lower the specific self-efficacy None of the cross-cultural training techniques were correlated with general self-efficacy.

Only language training was negatively correlated to outcome expectancy (- 21, $p < .05$). Therefore, the more language training provided by the organizations, the lower the outcome expectancy.

Summary

In sum, organization sponsored training was negatively correlated with specific self-efficacy and outcome expectancy. Factual briefings and specific self-efficacy were negatively correlated possibly because factual briefings is too low in rigor and the participants do not feel prepared as a result of this technique of training and in fact are worse off receiving a small amount than none at all. Language training and outcome expectancy were also negatively correlated. The reasoning for this could be that the amount of language training was not sufficient given the cultural differences between Canadians and Japanese Therefore, the small amount of training could hinder their expectancies. General self-efficacy was not related to any of the organization sponsored training techniques. It is possible that organization sponsored training is not related to general self-efficacy at all.

b) Self-Initiated Training

Table 4 presents the intercorrelations between self-initiated training techniques and the mediators. Language training and field experiences were positively correlated with specific self-efficacy with correlations of .29 ($p < .01$) and .22 ($p < .01$) respectively. Therefore, the more language training and field experiences the expatriates undertake on their own initiative, the higher their specific self-efficacy. None of the cross-cultural training techniques were correlated with general self-efficacy

Role modeling demonstrations, role plays, and communication workshops/T-groups were all positively correlated with outcome expectancies. The correlations were .18 ($p < .05$), .18 ($p < .05$), and .27 ($p < .01$) respectively. Therefore, the more these training techniques are undertaken by the expatriates' own initiative, the higher their outcome expectancies.

Summary

In sum, there was a significant relationship between self-initiated training and specific self-efficacy. Through language training and field experiences, the expatriates may feel greater confidence about their ability to cope with life in Japan (or specific self-efficacy). Self-initiated training was not related to general self-efficacy and may not have any influence over it. Self-initiated training was also related to outcome expectancy. Perhaps expatriates feel that by enroling in training programs with role modeling demonstrations, role plays, and communication workshops/T-group training they will encounter better outcomes from their assignments.

Mediators and Outcomes

Table 3 presents the intercorrelations between the mediators and outcomes. Specific self-efficacy was positively correlated with general adjustment (.40, $p < .01$), interaction adjustment (.71, $p < .01$), work adjustment (.27, $p < .01$), performance (.34, $p < .01$), job satisfaction (.23, $p < .01$), intentions to stay (20, $p < .05$), attitudes (.36, $p < .01$), and behaviors (.26, $p < .05$).

This suggests that the higher the specific self-efficacy, the greater the level of each of these outcomes. Moreover, specific self-efficacy was also negatively correlated with time stress (-.26, $p < .01$) and anxiety (-.32, $p < .01$). Thus, the higher the specific self-efficacy, the less time pressure and anxiety reported. This could be because those who feel they possess a high specific self-efficacy also feel they can handle time stress and anxiety and consequently report lower stress scores.

General self-efficacy was positively correlated with interaction adjustment (.31, $p < .01$), work adjustment (.35, $p < .01$), performance (.67, $p < .01$), job satisfaction (.23, $p < .01$), intentions to stay (.16, $p < .01$), and attitudes (.30, $p < .05$). Thus, the greater the general self-efficacy, the more these outcomes were reported. Furthermore, general self-efficacy was negatively correlated with anxiety (-.18, $p < .05$). Thus, the higher the general self-efficacy, the lower the anxiety reported. None of the outcomes were correlated with outcome expectancy.

Summary

In sum, specific self-efficacy and general self-efficacy were correlated with many outcomes while outcome expectancy was not related to any of the outcomes. Specific self-efficacy was correlated to 10 of 12 outcomes and general self-efficacy was correlated to 8 of 12 outcomes. Therefore, self-efficacy may produce high levels of adjustment while limiting stress and anxiety.

6.4 Training Rigor Regression Results

This section reviews the results for the regressions performed for training rigor. The regressions were conducted separately for each of the outcomes and mediators on the training variables based on their rigor grouping from Figure 3. Although multiple regressions were

performed, they cannot be completely relied upon since the assumptions of normality and homoscedasticity were not met

Although regressions were performed by entering all training techniques into each equation, the results were not presented because almost all were not significant. Only one of twelve outcomes was related to organization sponsored cross-cultural training. One of twelve outcomes was also related to self-initiated training. The R^2 was normally high for these equations but the regressions themselves were not significant probably due to the large number (10) of training variables entered at once and the small sample size. However, regressions were performed for each level of training rigor, thus reducing the number of variables entered.

Regressions were performed by grouping the training variables into their respective level of training rigor (i.e. informative methods, cognitive methods, and participative methods). Each level was entered into a separate regression to ascertain each level's respective significance for explaining the variance. Tables 5 and 6 present these results for organization sponsored training and self-initiated training respectively

Organization Sponsored Training

Based on the results in Table 5, none of the outcomes were related to training when training was entered into the regressions by groups of rigor. Therefore, it is impossible to express the effectiveness of each level of rigor for organization sponsored training. This could be due to the lack of training provided by the organizations.

Self-Initiated Training

Based on the results in Table 6, interaction adjustment was related to participative methods of training ($R^2 = .06$, $p = .01$). Thus, the more this type of training was undertaken by the expatriates' own initiative, the higher the interaction adjustment.

Table 6 also indicates that specific self-efficacy was related to participative methods of

training ($R^2 = .04$, $p = .03$). Therefore, the more this type of training was undertaken by the expatriates' own initiative, the higher the specific self-efficacy.

Summary

In sum, participative methods of training were related to interaction adjustment and specific self-efficacy. It is possible therefore, that this method of training yields better results in terms of adjustment and self-efficacy. Thus, the more rigorous training methods are more effective for expatriates in terms of their adjustment to interactions with host nationals, and their level of specific self-efficacy.

Mediation

Testing for mediation is more involved than the multiple regressions above. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), three regression equations should be estimated. First, the mediator must be regressed on the independent variable, in this case training (regression 1). Second, the dependent variable, or the outcomes, must be regressed on the independent variable (regression 2). Third, the dependent variable must be regressed on both the independent variable and the mediator (regression 3).

To establish mediation, three conditions are necessary. First, the independent variable must affect the mediator (regression 1). Second, the independent variable must affect the dependent variable (regression 2). Third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in regression 3. Further, the effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable must be less in the third equation than in the second.

The first step for mediation was to regress the mediators on the independent variables. This was satisfied for specific self-efficacy and the participative methods of training ($R^2 = .04$, $p < .05$ in Table 6) General self-efficacy and outcome expectancy were not significant with self-initiated training. Organization sponsored training was not related with any of the mediators and

therefore tests for mediation cannot continue for such training.

The second step for mediation was to regress the dependent variable on the independent variable. Here, the outcomes must be regressed on participative training. The only significant regression was for interaction adjustment ($R^2 = .06$, $p < .05$ in Table 6).

The third step was to regress the dependent variable on both the independent variable and the mediator. Here, interaction adjustment must be regressed on specific self-efficacy ($R^2 = .51$, $p < .01$ in Table 7), followed by entering participative training into the regression (R^2 change $= .01$, $p < .01$). Training explained less incremental variance when entered after self-efficacy (R^2 change $= .01$), than when it was entered alone ($R^2 = .06$). Therefore, specific self-efficacy partially mediates the relationship between interaction adjustment and participative methods of training.

Summary

Based on the regression results above, specific self-efficacy was found to partially mediate the relationship between self-initiated participative methods of training and interaction adjustment. This suggests that training is related to interaction adjustment through self-efficacy. However, the support for self-efficacy as a mediator is very limited since it was not related to many training techniques, both organization sponsored and self-initiated.

Table 5 Regression Results for Outcomes on Organization Sponsored Training by Rigor

Outcome	Mediator	N	Beta	T	R^2	p
General Adjustment	Informative Methods	112	02	19	00	85
	Cognitive Methods	113	01	- 07	00	95
	Participative Methods	113	01	12	00	91
Interaction Adjustment	Informative Methods	112	- 12	1 23	01	22
	Cognitive Methods	113	- 05	58	00	57
	Participative Methods	113	04	45	00	66
Work Adjustment	Informative Methods	113	08	82	01	42
	Cognitive Methods	113	00	02	00	99
	Participative Methods	113	- 00	04	00	97
Performance	Informative Methods	109	01	09	00	93
	Cognitive Methods	110	04	- 40	00	69
	Participative Methods	110	05	56	00	58
Job Satisfaction	Informative Methods	109	00	05	00	96
	Cognitive Methods	110	00	00	00	1 00
	Participative Methods	110	14	1 52	02	13
Organizational Commitment (Parent)	Informative Methods	102	15	1 57	02	12
	Cognitive Methods	102	18	1 87	03	06
	Participative Methods	102	15	1 58	02	12
Organizational Commitment (Local)	Informative Methods	103	16	1 67	03	10
	Cognitive Methods	104	10	1 01	01	31
	Participative Methods	104	18	1 82	03	07
Intentions to Stay	Informative Methods	109	03	31	00	76
	Cognitive Methods	110	- 02	- 26	00	79
	Participative Methods	110	07	73	00	47
Time Stress	Informative Methods	111	00	03	00	97
	Cognitive Methods	112	02	25	00	81
	Participative Methods	112	09	1 00	01	32
Anxiety	Informative Methods	111	15	1 62	02	11
	Cognitive Methods	112	10	1 08	01	28
	Participative Methods	112	03	31	00	76
Attitudes	Informative Methods	59	25	1 94	06	06
	Cognitive Methods	59	12	94	02	35
	Participative Methods	59	22	1 71	05	09
Behavior	Informative Methods	56	10	76	01	45
	Cognitive Methods	56	22	1 70	05	09
	Participative Methods	56	25	1 89	06	06
Specific Self-Efficacy	Informative Methods	112	- 16	1 76	03	08
	Cognitive Methods	113	14	1 47	02	15
	Participative Methods	113	01	13	00	90
General Self-Efficacy	Informative Methods	109	01	12	00	91
	Cognitive Methods	110	02	- 18	00	86
	Participative Methods	110	01	10	00	92
Outcome Expectancy	Informative Methods	105	02	18	00	86
	Cognitive Methods	105	12	1 28	02	20
	Participative Methods	105	11	1 15	01	25

*p< 05 **p< 01

Table 6 Regression Results for Outcomes on Self-Initiated Training by Rigor

Outcome	Mediator	N	Beta	T	R^2	p
General Adjustment	Informative Methods	113	07	80	.01	43
	Cognitive Methods	113	- 09	- 99	01	33
	Participative Methods	113	- 08	- 85	01	40
Interaction Adjustment	Informative Methods	113	16	1 69	02	09
	Cognitive Methods	113	16	1 67	02	10
	Participative Methods	113	24	2 58	06	01*
Work Adjustment	Informative Methods	113	- 01	- 06	00	95
	Cognitive Methods	113	- 06	- 69	00	49
	Participative Methods	113	- 03	- 30	00	76
Performance	Informative Methods	110	02	22	00	83
	Cognitive Methods	110	- 02	- 23	00	82
	Participative Methods	110	04	43	00	67
Job Satisfaction	Informative Methods	110	- 07	- 78	01	44
	Cognitive Methods	110	- 04	- 40	00	69
	Participative Methods	110	10	1 09	01	28
Organizational Commitment (Parent)	Informative Methods	102	- 05	- 47	00	64
	Cognitive Methods	102	07	73	01	47
	Participative Methods	102	- 03	- 26	00	80
Organizational Commitment (Local)	Informative Methods	104	10	1 00	01	32
	Cognitive Methods	104	07	75	01	46
	Participative Methods	104	04	41	.00	68
Intentions to Stay	Informative Methods	110	- 00	- 04	.00	97
	Cognitive Methods	110	- 02	- 23	00	.82
	Participative Methods	110	02	19	00	85
Time Stress	Informative Methods	112	- 02	- 26	00	79
	Cognitive Methods	112	12	1 28	01	20
	Participative Methods	112	01	15	00	88
Anxiety	Informative Methods	112	- 10	-1 10	01	28
	Cognitive Methods	112	02	23	00	82
	Participative Methods	112	- 07	- 72	00	47
Attitudes	Informative Methods	59	17	1 33	03	19
	Cognitive Methods	59	07	.52	00	61
	Participative Methods	59	- 07	- 50	00	62
Behavior	Informative Methods	56	17	1 31	03	20
	Cognitive Methods	56	21	1 58	04	12
	Participative Methods	56	07	.55	01	58
Specific Self Efficacy	Informative Methods	113	05	.57	00	57
	Cognitive Methods	113	06	65	00	52
	Participative Methods	113	21	2 22	04	.03*
General Self Efficacy	Informative Methods	110	08	79	01	43
	Cognitive Methods	110	12	1 28	01	20
	Participative Methods	110	09	.93	01	36
Outcome Expectancy	Informative Methods	105	-.03	- 29	00	77
	Cognitive Methods	105	04	.43	00	67
	Participative Methods	105	16	1 62	02	11

*p < .05 **p < .01

Table 7 Regression Results for Outcomes on Mediators

Outcome	Mediator	N	Beta	T	R^2	p
General Adjustment	Specific Self-Efficacy	120	.40	4.78	.16	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.15	1.63	.02	.11
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.10	1.08	.01	.28
Interaction Adjustment	Specific Self-Efficacy	120	.71	11.04	.51	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.31	3.52	.10	.00**
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.04	.45	.00	.65
Work Adjustment	Specific Self-Efficacy	120	.27	3.03	.07	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.35	3.99	.12	.00**
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.00	.05	.00	.96
Performance	Specific Self-Efficacy	116	.34	3.90	.12	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.67	9.74	.45	.00**
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.07	.75	.01	.45
Job Satisfaction	Specific Self-Efficacy	116	.23	2.52	.05	.01*
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.23	2.55	.05	.01*
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.06	.66	.00	.51
Organizational Commitment (Parent)	Specific Self-Efficacy	110	-.06	-.62	.00	.54
	General Self-Efficacy	108	-.03	-.33	.00	.74
	Outcome Expectancy	105	.07	.76	.01	.45
Organizational Commitment (Local)	Specific Self-Efficacy	112	.03	.28	.00	.78
	General Self-Efficacy	109	-.04	-.42	.00	.67
	Outcome Expectancy	104	.08	.84	.01	.41
Intentions to Stay	Specific Self-Efficacy	116	.20	2.21	.04	.03*
	General Self-Efficacy	117	.16	1.79	.03	.08
	Outcome Expectancy	112	.10	1.04	.01	.30
Time Stress	Specific Self-Efficacy	119	-.26	-2.87	.07	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	115	-.09	-1.00	.01	.32
	Outcome Expectancy	110	-.04	-.45	.00	.65
Anxiety	Specific Self-Efficacy	119	-.32	-3.71	.10	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	115	-.18	-1.97	.03	.05*
	Outcome Expectancy	110	-.05	-.54	.00	.59
Attitudes	Specific Self-Efficacy	58	.36	2.93	.13	.00**
	General Self-Efficacy	56	.30	2.34	.09	.02*
	Outcome Expectancy	55	-.02	-.15	.00	.88
Behavior	Specific Self-Efficacy	55	.26	1.99	.07	.05*
	General Self-Efficacy	54	.18	1.33	.03	.19
	Outcome Expectancy	53	.05	.39	.00	.70

*p < .05 **p < .01

CHAPTER 7:

DISCUSSION

7.1 Cross-Cultural Training at Present: Expatriate Evaluations

The results indicated that the relationships varied for training provided by the organization (organization sponsored training), and training undertaken by the expatriate's own initiative (self-initiated training). Overall, the results were stronger for self-initiated training, indicating that expatriates know what kind of training is more effective and as well as the most adequate duration (See Table 1). In fact, for 7 out of the 10 training techniques, the duration of training was significantly greater for self-initiated than organization sponsored. Thus, it appears that the expatriates are aware of the importance of cross-cultural training, and because they are not getting it from their organizations, they seek it on their own.

In terms of the effectiveness of the different training techniques for the adjustment of expatriates, all of the training techniques were rated moderately effective (See Table 1). However, the three most effective training techniques were among the most rigorous forms of cross-cultural training, that is language training (mean=3.94), meeting former expatriates (mean=3.83) and field experiences (mean=4.34). This is an important finding since the training provided by North American organizations has usually involved factual briefings which are low in rigor (See Figure 3). It also suggests that participative methods of training are seen as most effective for adjustment.

7.2 The Importance of Rigor

The results of this study indicated that rigorous training is an important element for predeparture preparations of Canadian expatriates. First, expatriates presently feel that language training, meeting former expatriates, and field experiences are the most effective methods of

training for adjustment (See Table 1). Second, participative methods of training were effective in explaining 6% of the variance interaction adjustment and 4% of the variance in specific self-efficacy (See Table 6), and since self-efficacy was related to many outcomes (See Table 7), it is important to focus on participative methods of training when preparing managers for overseas assignments. Training techniques lower in rigor (i.e. informative and cognitive methods) were not related to any outcomes nor mediators based on the regressions.

The regressions showed that participative methods was related only to one outcome: interaction adjustment. It is possible that participative methods of training would have been related to other outcomes if the data was not limited in terms of the amount of training received. But since it was related to interaction adjustment, partial support was found for the hypothesis that rigorous training is positively related to adjustment.

7.3 Age, Tenure, and Position: Predictors?

Position, age, and tenure were most often correlated with the outcomes, whereby; position was related to 5 of 12 outcomes while age and tenure were related to 7 of 12 outcomes. This could indicate that position, age, and tenure are related to adjustment in Japan. General self-efficacy was related to 2 demographic variables namely, position and tenure. This could indicate that position and tenure play a role in increasing one's self-efficacy.

7.4 Role Modeling Demonstrations and Stress Reduction Training: Negative Effects?

Time stress and anxiety were positively correlated to organization sponsored training. Time stress was associated with role modeling demonstrations and stress reduction while anxiety

was associated with role modeling demonstrations.

Self-initiated role modeling demonstrations was negatively correlated with 3 of 12 outcomes and self-initiated stress reduction training was negatively correlated to 4 of 12 outcomes. These relationships are counter-intuitive to the hypothesized relationships. Role modeling and stress reduction training may demonstrate difficult situations the expatriates may encounter. These demonstrations may be so visual that the expatriates anticipate stress. This uneasiness ensues and the expatriates consequently experience problems in adjusting. An alternative explanation may be that those who are most anxious are those that seek the training and these individuals experience stress and anxiety abroad.

7.5 Other Counter-Intuitive Correlations

There were a several counter-intuitive correlations. Language comprehension was negatively correlated with job satisfaction (See Table 2). Some individuals may have been concerned about being satisfied with their assignments, prior to departure This may have influenced them to pursue language training. Their uneasiness, however, prevailed and prevented their job satisfaction.

Several counter-intuitive correlations were discovered for organization sponsored training Meeting former expatriates was negatively correlated with interaction adjustment. Perhaps listening to stories from former expatriates frighten the current expatriates and actually prevent interaction adjustment.

There was also a negative correlation between communication workshops/T-group training and intentions to stay. This particular form of training, being in the moderate level of training rigor (cognitive methods), may not be sufficient The expatriates may not feel that they can

handle the assignment and consequently possess intentions to return early.

Organization sponsored factual briefings was negatively correlated with specific self-efficacy. This may be because factual briefings are too low in rigor and by just shedding a small amount of information, the expatriates may be worse off than receiving none at all. Organization sponsored language training and outcome expectancy were also negatively correlated. This could be because Canadians embarking on Japanese assignments need a considerable amount of training given the vast cultural difference. Here, however, it is possible that the organization sponsored language training provided was not sufficient and actually had a negative effect on the outcomes that expatriates expect as a result of the assignment. Since self-initiated language training was positively associated with specific self-efficacy and according to Table 1 was longer in duration than organization sponsored language training, it is very possible that more organization sponsored training was needed before it can actually be positively related to outcome expectancy.

Summary

In sum, organization sponsored training was related to organizational commitment, attitudes, and behaviors. Self-initiated training was related to interaction adjustment, anxiety, and behaviors Through the appropriate training techniques, the level of each of these outcomes can be increased (decreased for anxiety).

Participative methods of training were more effective for expatriate adjustment and self-efficacy than the two less rigorous methods of training. When preparing cross-cultural training for expatriates embarking on international assignments, participative methods of training should be considered more seriously.

One important finding was that specific self-efficacy was related to many (10 of 12)

outcomes (See Table 7). General self-efficacy was also related to several (6 of 12) outcomes (See Table 7). This is an important finding because by pinpointing ways to increase one's level of self-efficacy, the level of the desired outcomes can be increased.

Role modeling demonstrations and stress reduction training (both organization sponsored and self-initiated), which are both cognitive methods of training, appear to have negative effects on adjustment to a foreign country. Therefore, organizations should be cautioned when considering these two training techniques. Future research should examine the reason for these negative associations.

7.6 Contributions

This study has been useful for contributing to the international expatriate literature. As the current literature is limited, this one was successful in making a contribution. This study made its contribution in studying the effectiveness of cross-cultural training by comparing and contrasting various techniques. Further, social cognitive theory was examined as a tool in relationships between training and adjustment.

The research which has been covered is mainly American. Kealey (1989) was the only study located which was conducted using Canadian expatriates. However, Kealey does not focus on cross-cultural training and analyzing the methods which would be most effective for international assignments. Earley (1987) compared and contrasted two cross-cultural training techniques based on the social cognitive theory. Besides these two studies, no studies were located which examined cross-cultural training programs of Canadian expatriates. Therefore, it is important that now there is a study focusing on the predeparture training of Canadian expatriates.

Based on the results, very limited support was found for self-efficacy as a mediator. This does not lend very much support to the studies which found self-efficacy to be a mediator (Frayne & Latham, 1987; Latham & Frayne, 1989). Participative training was related to self-efficacy and self-efficacy was related to many outcomes. Specific self-efficacy partially mediated the relationship between self-initiated participative methods of training and interaction adjustment. This suggests that training is related to adjustment through the expatriate's self-efficacy. However, social cognitive theory was not really a helpful tool in examining the relationship between cross-cultural training and adjustment since self-efficacy was not related to very many training techniques. As for outcome expectancy, it was not found to be a mediator in this study as was the case in Frayne and Latham (1987). It is possible that since it supported the results of Frayne and Latham (1987), outcome expectancy is not a mediator. Barling and Beattie (1983) also found that outcome expectancy did not predict performance. However, Geringer and Frayne (1993) found that outcome expectancy was related to performance for international joint venture managers. Therefore, the results for outcome expectancy are mixed and more studies on outcome expectancy are necessary before a conclusive statement can be made.

In terms of the expatriate literature, support was found for the relationship between training and several outcomes. Organization sponsored training was related to 4 of 12 outcomes and self-initiated training was related to 2 of 12 outcomes. Further, rigorous training was found to be the more effective method of training as it was related to interaction adjustment. Since not much training was received, it is possible that with a larger sample the results would be even stronger and show support for more outcomes.

Canadian organizations can learn from this study in deciding upon the training techniques to employ in their predeparture training programs for expatriates. Although the results were not strong, support was nevertheless found for the importance of rigorous training. Furthermore,

that is what the expatriates believe is most effective for their adjustment.

7.7 Limitations

As in all studies, this study also has a number of limitations which may limit the study findings. First, the list published by the Canadian Chamber of Commerce appeared to include Japanese natives. This was apparent from the names of the individuals as well as letters mailed back from part of the sample. It is quite possible then, that (1) the sample size could have been significantly larger if a different list was used for the mailing and (2) that some Japanese natives replied to the questionnaire not understanding that it was meant for Canadian expatriates.

Second, only 115 individuals actually underwent training prior to their departure. What makes the results even weaker is the fact that a significantly smaller number of expatriates were included when the analysis was performed for each *method* of training separately. The sample size gets even smaller when analyzing organization sponsored and self-initiated training separately. For example, only 38 of 123 individuals met former expatriates as a training technique offered by their organizations. Further, since the sample sizes appear very small, the strength of a multiple regression analysis becomes smaller. In many cases the R^2 were high even though the regressions were not significant due to the small sample size. In this case, it might be more appropriate to perform statistical tests for small sample sizes. Due to lack of time, this was not a feasible analysis.

Third, since the sample used only Canadian expatriates working in Japan, the findings of this study are only generalizable to this sample. The results may be similar for expatriates in other nations but more research must be conducted in order to support this assumption.

Fourth, due to the method used in obtaining the results (i.e. the questionnaire), common

method variance could exist. Replying to the independent variables as well as the dependent variables by the same person in the same questionnaire (i.e. same-source data) could bias the results. Due to the nature of this study however, this problem was unavoidable.

Due to self-report measures, the responses are retrospective in nature. This could result in problems with the responses. With self-report measures, reliance is placed on the respondent to remember details and answer correctly. The subjects may have inadvertently answered incorrectly in attempting to recall specifics about training programs, for example. They may have participated in these training programs months and sometimes years prior. The chances that they recall all the details about the predeparture training programs may be slim. Moreover, training programs may have changed since these individuals began their expatriate assignment, especially for the older and more tenured individuals.

Finally, the multiple regressions cannot be fully relied upon. This is because the assumptions for normality and homoscedasticity were not satisfied. Therefore, when interpreting the results, one must use caution. When examining correlational data, one cannot assume causality.

Overall, these limitations should be considered when regarding the significance of the results in this study. Other studies should be examined together with this one in order to strengthen its conclusions.

7.8 Implications

An important implication of this study is that Canadian organizations must begin to provide cross-cultural training to their expatriates in order to compete and survive in the global marketplace. This is evident from the amount of training presently provided by organizations in

this study, along with the success of the Japanese who provide much rigorous training (Tung, 1987; Tung, 1982). With the inception of the North American Free Trade Agreement, and the globalization of businesses in general, Canadian organizations will continue to find themselves involved in foreign business ventures. Thus, they must begin to provide the training that their staff will need to manage in a foreign environment.

In terms of the nature of the cross-cultural training, the results of this study suggest that Canadian organizations must go beyond basic factual briefings. The correlation results, ratings of training effectiveness for adjustment, and rigor regressions suggest that expatriates are more likely to adjust if they have received more rigorous forms of cross-cultural training (or participative methods of training) such as field experiences, language training, and meeting former expatriates. Moreover, stress reduction training and role modeling demonstrations negatively correlated with some of the outcomes. Therefore, when suggesting the appropriate training programs for international assignments, corporations should be cautioned when considering these training techniques.

Duration should be another consideration since at present most training programs offered by organizations are considerably short, and most training is undertaken by the expatriates' own initiative. When being sent to a country that is particularly foreign to Canadians, such as Japan, it is even more important to implement a lengthier training program.

Self-efficacy was related to many outcomes (See Table 7). Organizations may want to focus on training which most influences self-efficacy, for instance language training and field experiences (See Table 4), or other training techniques and combinations thereof, which can increase the level of self-efficacy. Once the level of self-efficacy is increased, the level of the desired outcomes may increase as well.

7.9 Future Research

This being one of the only studies analyzing Canadian expatriates, a great need exists for future research in the arena of expatriates, adjustment, and proper fulfillment of overseas assignments. A significantly larger sample size is needed in order to improve upon this study. As well, this study can be replicated using an experimental design. Perhaps, an experimental group of expatriates can be given participative methods of training while another group can receive informative and cognitive methods of training.

Another issue is the common method variance problem. The outcomes such as adjustment and stress may be measured through a different source. Perhaps if the spouse would respond to some of the questions, the common method variance problem can be eliminated.

Also, since the list published by the Canadian Chamber of Commerce consisted of many Japanese natives, it may be more reliable to find another source for the sample. There may be other directories or international organizations which compile the required information

This study analyzed each training technique by its rigor grouping. Aside from a study on each training technique separately, more studies are needed that research training in general and its importance on various outcomes. Perhaps Japanese expatriates differ from Canadian expatriates. The training that the Japanese receive may be related more strongly to more outcomes. This should be researched further.

Both specific and general self-efficacy were related to many of the outcomes. Therefore, in order to increase the level of the outcomes, the focus should be on self-efficacy and how it could be increased. Since training did not influence self-efficacy to a great extent in this study (only 1 of 10 techniques were related to specific self-efficacy and 2 of 10 were related to general self-efficacy in Table 4), it is possible that there are other training techniques or different

combinations of training which increase the level of these mediators and this should be researched further. Alternatively, a study with an increased sample size may have stronger results and thus more training techniques may be related to self-efficacy.

Outcome expectancy was not related to any outcomes in this study. More research is needed on this variable to determine if it has any relationship with training or other outcomes. As it was related to 3 of 10 training techniques in Table 4, there is the possibility that some kind of relationships do exist.

Another issue is the negative correlations between role modeling demonstrations, stress reduction modeling and the outcomes. Future research should examine the reason for these consistent negative correlations.

Qualitative data, such as suggestions and beliefs of the expatriates themselves, is a recommendation for future research. This is due to the most significant results being the qualitative results. Once on the assignment, they can assess which training programs were the most helpful for them. It would also be particularly interesting to sample expatriates that did not fulfill their obligations abroad.

In sum, there is an enormous need for research on Canadians embarking on international assignments. Training is a vital part for the success of overseas assignments, and the type of training necessary is something that should be studied in greater depth.

7.10 Conclusion

In conclusion, the results of this study suggest that Canadian organizations provide their expatriate personnel with very little cross-cultural training. What is perhaps most surprising about these findings is that the expatriates in this study were working in a culture that is

extremely different from Canadian culture and therefore are especially in need of cross-cultural training. Being aware of the need for further cross-cultural training is the first step which can lead to the success of future international assignments. Canadian organizations should begin the process of training and preparing their staff for foreign assignments. The training methods that are most effective for expatriate adjustment have been well documented in this study. If Canadian enterprises are going to compete and survive in the global marketplace, they must begin by providing their expatriate personnel with rigorous cross-cultural training programs.

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APPENDIX A

CROSS-CULTURAL TRAINING QUESTIONNAIRE

Section 1

In this section, a number of situations are given below. Please indicate how confident you are in your ability to successfully cope with each situation in Japan. Please note that the scale ranges from 1 to 10 and to use the full range of the scale.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
No Confidence									Complete Confidence

How confident are you that you can successfully cope with the following?

___ 1. Living in Japan

___ 2. Japanese culture

___ 3. Utilizing various services in Japan (barber/hairdresser, restaurants, travel agents, banking, shopping .)

___ 4. Interacting and socializing with the Japanese at work

___ 5. Interacting and socializing with the Japanese outside of work

___ 6. Performing job duties and responsibilities

Section 2

In this section, the questions ask about your feelings toward your parent and local organization. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements. There are no right or wrong answers. Please note the scale range is now from 1 to 5.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

___ 1. The reason I prefer this parent company to others is because of its values, of what it stands for.

___ 2. I really care about the fate of this parent company.

___ 3. I talk up this parent company to my friends as a great place to work

___ 4. What this parent company stands for is important to me.

___ 5. What my local firm stands for is important to me.

___ 6. I really care about the fate of my local firm.

___ 7. I talk up my local firm to my friends as a great group to work with.

___ 8. The reason I prefer this local company to others is because of its values, of what it stands for

Section 3

In this section, there is a list of situations to which a person must adjust when sent on an overseas assignment. Please indicate how adjusted or unadjusted you feel for each item. Please note the scale range is now from 1 to 7.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

Not Adjusted at All 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Completely Adjusted

What is your extent of adjustment to the following?

___ 1. Living conditions in general

___ 2. Housing conditions

___ 3. Food

___ 4. Shopping

___ 5. Cost of living

___ 6. Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities

___ 7. Health care facilities

___ 8. Socializing with the Japanese

___ 9. Interacting with the Japanese on a day-to-day basis

___ 10. Interacting with the Japanese outside of work

___ 11. Speaking with the Japanese

___ 12. Job responsibilities

___ 13. Performance standards and expectations

___ 14. Supervisory responsibilities

Section 4

In this section, a number of statements are given concerning possible feelings that individuals might have about their work, as well as possible consequences of an overseas assignment. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with them.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

___ 1. I feel that while being here on assignment I am missing out on job opportunities back home.

___ 2. When I get back from my expatriate assignment I expect to receive a promotion.

___ 3. When I return from my assignment I expect to receive an increase in pay.

___ 4. Upon repatriation, I am expecting to receive added benefits such as a company car

___ 5. I expect that I will gain more status in the organization as a result of this assignment.

___ 6. I expect to be a likely candidate for attractive future assignments due to my experience on this assignment.

___ 7. I expect to receive a considerable amount of recognition upon completion of this assignment.

___ 8. Upon completion of this assignment, I do <u>not</u> expect to receive very much respect for my accomplishments

___ 9. I feel that I am adequately performing my job responsibilities on this assignment.

___10. My new assignment is well within the scope of my abilities.

___11. I seldom consider the possibility of returning early to Canada.

___12. I do <u>not</u> anticipate any problems in adjusting to work in Japan, while I'm on this assignment.

___13. All in all, I am satisfied with my assignment.

___14. I feel I am overqualified for the job I am doing.

___15. I feel that I am meeting my performance standards and expectations.

___16. I have all the technical knowledge I need to deal with my current assignment.

___17. I would do anything to keep this assignment for its expected duration.

___18. I feel confident that my skills and abilities equal or exceed those of my colleagues.

___19. In general, I don't like my assignment.

___20. My past experiences and accomplishments increase my confidence that I will be able to perform successfully on this assignment.

___21. I am adequately performing my management responsibilities.

___22. I could have handled a more challenging assignment than the one I am doing.

___23. In general, I like working on my foreign assignment.

___24. Professionally speaking, this assignment exactly satisfies my expectations of myself.

Section 5

In this section, a list of various training techniques is given. For each item, please indicate the amount of time you spent in each training session prior to departure on your assignment and note that each technique has a separate line for: a)training provided by the organization and b)self-initiated training. Self-initiated training is training that the organization did not provide but that you undertook under your own initiative. The item labelled "Other", should be answered only if the list does not include a specific technique in which you participated. Please briefly describe each other training technique used. Please note the scale range is now from 0 to 11.

How much time was spent in the training program prior to departure?

0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
None	2 Hours or less	3-5 Hours	1 Day	2 Days	3-4 Days	1 Week	2 Weeks	3 Weeks	1 Month	2 Months	3+ Months

DESCRIPTION	Organization/ Self-initiated	Time (use scale above)
Factual briefings: lectures, books, handouts, films, movies and videos about geography, climate, housing, schools, religion and culture of the host country	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Role modeling demonstrations: trainees observe other individuals acting out different scenarios which could occur on an overseas assignment and how these situations should be handled (trainees do NOT participate)	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Case studies, critical incidents: these are written exercises which entail analyzing cases or critical incidents which could occur in the new setting	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Culture assimilators: trainees complete programmed learning material on culture, that is, brief episodes describing life in the Japanese culture	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Role plays: trainees are assigned to different roles and they "play out" the roles so as to maintain consistent characters. Trainees learn about typical problems in encounters with the other culture	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Communication workshops, T-groups: trainees learn about their own culture in order to understand why they act the way they do in certain situations	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Language training: participants are actively involved in learning the language through speaking, reading and/or writing	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Meeting former expatriates: candidates meet former expatriates to discuss their personal experiences abroad	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Field experience: trainees are sent to the actual country or a similar setting where they are exposed to the people, the culture and situations which may be encountered	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Stress reduction: this is an exercise or series of exercises which is aimed at helping participants cope or deal with stress in the host country	Organization	
	Self-initiated	
Other: (please list)	Organization	
	Self-initiated	

Section 6

In this section, the same list of training techniques from the previous section is given. For each type of training, please indicate the overall **EFFECTIVENESS** of the training session for your **ADJUSTMENT** in Japan Once again, the item labelled "Other", should be answered only if the list does not include a specific technique in which you participated. Please refer to the previous section for explanations of the training programs, if necessary. Please note the scale range is now from 1 to 5.

Write a number beside each item, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Very Ineffective	Somewhat Ineffective	Neither Effective nor Ineffective	Somewhat Effective	Very Effective

Respond only to those training techniques you have experienced. How effective was the training session for your adjustment in Japan?

___ 1. Factual briefings
___ 2. Role modeling demonstrations
___ 3. Case studies, critical incidents
___ 4. Culture assimilators
___ 5. Role plays
___ 6. Communication workshops, T-groups
___ 7. Language training
___ 8. Meeting former expatriates
___ 9. Field experience
___10. Stress reduction
___11. Other (specify)

Section 7

The following statements relate to whether the training you received before you went on your assignment (i.e. predeparture training) had a positive influence on your attitudes (or feelings) and behavior (or specific actions). Please answer this section **only** if you received training. If you did not receive any training, move on to section 8.

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements and note that the scale range is from 1 to 7. Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

1. The predeparture training I received had a positive influence on my **attitudes** or "feelings" toward:
___ Japan
___ the Japanese culture
___ the Japanese people

2. The predeparture training I received had a positive influence on my **behavior** or "specific actions":
___ in Japan
___ toward the Japanese culture
___ toward the Japanese people

Section 8

In this section, the questions ask about your own personal beliefs. These questions refer to your general approach to life. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with these statements. There are no right or wrong answers. Please note the scale range is now from 1 to 6.

Write a number in the blank beside each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

___ 1. When I get what I want, it's usually because I'm lucky.

___ 2. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

___ 3. It's chiefly a matter of fate whether or not I have a few friends or many friends.

___ 4. It's not always wise for me to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune.

___ 5. Whether or not I get to be a leader depends on whether I'm lucky enough to be in the right place at the right time.

___ 6. Often there is no chance of protecting my personal interests from bad luck happenings.

___ 7. To a great extent my life is controlled by accidental happenings.

___ 8. If important people were to decide they didn't like me, I probably wouldn't make many friends.

Section 9

In this section a number of statements are given concerning feelings resulting from work. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with them. Please note the scale range is now from 1 to 4.

Write a number in the blank for each statement, based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree

___ 1. I have felt fidgety or nervous as a result of my assignment.

___ 2. Working here makes it hard to spend enough time with my family.

___ 3. My assignment gets to me more than it should.

___ 4. I spend so much time at work, I can't see the forest for the trees.

___ 5. There are lots of times when my assignment drives me right up the wall.

___ 6. Working here leaves little time for other activities.

___ 7. Sometimes when I think about my assignment I get a tight feeling in my chest.

___ 8. I frequently get the feeling I am married to the company.

___ 9. I have too much work and too little time to do it in.

___ 10. I feel guilty when I take time off from my job.

___ 11. I sometimes dread the telephone ringing at home because the call might be job-related.

___ 12. I feel like I never have a day off.

___ 13. Too many people on such assignments get burned out by job demands.

Section 10

Please answer the following questions as precisely as possible. These questions are strictly for comparison and statistical purposes. As mentioned earlier, your responses will be confidential and anonymous.

Please indicate the total number of years and/or months it has been since you arrived in Japan ____

Have you ever lived in or visited this or any other foreign country? If so, please list below with the corresponding length of time and purpose.

Country	Duration	Purpose
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____
_____	_____	_____

Answer the next three questions based on the following scale:

1	2	3	4	5
Not At All	Not Very Well	Somewhat	Very Well	Extremely Well

___ How well do you speak Japanese?

___ How well can you write Japanese?

___ How well can you read Japanese?

___ How well can you understand Japanese?

Age: _____

Gender: __ M __ F

Marital Status: __ Married __ Single __ Divorced __ Widowed __ Separated

Position in Organization: __ Top Executive __ Division Head __ Middle Manager __ Technical Specialist __ Other

Tenure in Organization: _____ years

Industry of Organization: _____

I would like a copy of the study's results (please enclose a self-addressed envelope) __ yes __ no

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION

APPENDIX B

June 9, 1993

Dear Expatraite,

I am writing to solicit your cooperation in a research project I am conducting as part of my Master's thesis in Management at Concordia University in Montreal. I am studying cross-cultural training and adjustment of Canadian expatriates in a foreign country. For this research, I am contacting Canadian expatriates working in Japan. Your name was selected from a list published by the Canadian Chambers of Commerce in Japan.

In approximately one week you will receive a questionnaire for this research. I would greatly appreciate it if you can spare a few minutes of your time to complete the survey. The results of this study will assist organizations in enhancing cross-cultural training for expatriates embarking on overseas assignments. Your participation in this project is critical for obtaining meaningful results.

Thank you in advance for your participation.

Sincerely,

Sandra G. Rehany
M. Sc. Student

Alan M. Saks, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
of Management
Thesis Supervisor

APPENDIX C

June 16, 1993

Dear Expatriate,

Last week I sent you a letter to inform you about my Master's thesis on cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment. As I indicated in my letter, I am contacting Canadian expatriates working in Japan to participate in this research and your name was selected from a list published by the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Japan. I would be very pleased if you would participate by completing a short questionnaire.

Please find attached the questionnaire. I would appreciate it if you would complete it at your earliest convenience. It should only take 10-15 minutes. As a token of my appreciation, I have attached a pin of the Canadian flag. Also, if you are interested I will send you a summary of the results.

Please be assured that your questionnaire responses will be anonymous and kept strictly confidential. I have enclosed a self-addressed envelope with which you can return the questionnaire directly to Professor Saks (Supervisor) at Concordia University.

Thank you very much for your participation. The assistance of managers such as yourself enables business schools to conduct relevant research in this area. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at (514) 937-5730.

Once again, thank you very much for your participation, it means a great deal to me.

Sincerely,

Sandra G. Rehany
M. Sc. Candidate

Alan M. Saks, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
of Management
Supervisor

APPENDIX D

June 23, 1993

Dear Expatriate,

I recently sent you a questionnaire to complete a study at Concordia University concerning cross-cultural training and expatriate adjustment. I would just like to mention to you how important it is for me that you complete the questionnaire and return it as soon as possible. I realize you may be very busy, but I would really appreciate it if you would complete the questionnaire if you have not yet had a chance to do so.

Your response will enable me to understand cross-cultural training programs for expatriates departing on overseas assignments. It will also assist organizations in developing effective predeparture training programs for their expatriates.

I am looking forward to receiving your questionnaire in the near future and sincerely appreciate your help.

Thank you for making this project a success and good luck on your assignment.

Sincerely,

Sandra G. Rehany
M. Sc. Candidate

Alan M. Saks, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
of Management
Supervisor

APPENDIX E

Tannis and Toshiaki Sato
6-4 Sumiike-cho
Nakagawa-ku
Nagoya 454
Japan

August 4, 1993

Dear Tannis and Toshiaki,

I am writing to solicit your cooperation in a research project I am conducting as part of my Master's thesis in Management at Concordia University in Montreal. I am studying cross-cultural training and adjustment of Canadian expatriates in a foreign country. I received your name from Terri Lituchy at Concordia University. She mentioned that you may be able to assist me.

A couple of weeks ago I sent a questionnaire to individuals working in Japan selected from a list published by the Canadian Chambers of Commerce in Japan. I was seeking to query Canadian expatriates. However, it appears that the list included several names of Japanese natives who are not suitable for the study. I would appreciate it if you could help me increase my response rate by distributing my questionnaire to people you may know through your organization who might be able to help and have not already received the questionnaire.

Please find enclosed 25 questionnaires. I would appreciate it if you would distribute them to Canadians who are working in Japan. I have also enclosed self-addressed envelopes with which the questionnaires can be returned directly to Professor Saks (Supervisor) at Concordia University.

Thank you very much for your assistance. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to contact me at (514) 937-5730.

Sincerely,

Sandra G. Rehany
M. Sc. Candidate

Alan M. Saks, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
of Management
Thesis Supervisor