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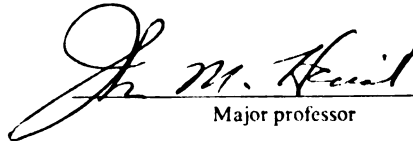
AMERICAN AND KOREAN WORKERS' ADAPTATIONS TO
EXPATRIATE WORK ENVIRONMENTS:
SOCIAL SERVICE NEEDS AND
OPPORTUNITIES FOR SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION

presented by

Soo-Chan Choi

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Social Work


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By

Soo-Chan Choi

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ABSTRACT

AMERICAN AND KOREAN WORKERS' ADAPTATIONS TO EXPATRIATE WORK ENVIRONMENTS: SOCIAL SERVICE NEEDS AND OPPORTUNITIES FOR SOCIAL WORK INTERVENTION

By

Soo-Chan Choi

“Globalization” has been frequently used to describe today’s world economy. The number of foreign subsidiaries which multinational corporations operate has tremendously increased and now the industrial workforce has many more opportunities to work with people whose roots lie in different national cultures. A review of the literature, however, indicates that numerous expatriate workers sent overseas returned home early because they were unable to adapt to different cultural settings.

By applying synergistic systems approaches, the present study examined cross-cultural determinants which were more likely to draw expatriate workers to successful adjustment in foreign assignments. A survey research using questionnaires and personal interviews was conducted to a sample of 229 expatriate workers: 101 Americans in South Korea and 128 Koreans in the United States. Results of the study have verified that the extent to which the expatriates adjust to overseas assignments is likely to

depend on four major factors, i.e., (1) national culture, (2) organization and community, (3) individual attributes, and (4) family members.

In addition to proposing the cross-cultural adjustment framework for expatriate workers, this study investigated social service needs of the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates, and conducted a comparative study of these two groups. Their needs were assessed by examining both serious problems encountered in the foreign country and services desired to alleviate the problems. Based on average frequencies with which the problems were cited by the comparison groups, issues such as language barriers, cross-cultural misunderstanding, concern about elderly parents back home, children's schooling, crime and safety, repatriation, adult health care, and legal problems were generally identified. Corresponding to these problems, expatriates desired services such as language programs, cross-cultural training, services for elderly parents in the home country, school counseling for children, crime prevention, repatriation programs, adult health care programs, and legal services.

The results of this study call for practical roles and interventions by industrial social workers in the global work setting. The findings strongly suggest that corporations can benefit from employing industrial social workers who can utilize their expertise in the processes of selection, training, building overseas support systems, and repatriation to maximize the effective and efficient foreign expatriation.

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To my parents,
Yungzung Choi & Kichung Won Choi

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his constructive advice based on unique sociological perspectives. I owe a special debt to Dr. Moore who rendered invaluable assistance by constantly guiding me to think about practical implications of the study at the current labor and industrial environment. I am grateful for the opportunity to work with him on this research. I am also indebted to Dr. Sung for providing me with consultations and advice on the “nuts and bolts” of the survey research for this study. I must add here that Dr. Flynn sparked my interest in this research and provided me with constructive criticism and invaluable advice. I do not have words to express my immense gratitude to her for flying to East Lansing to participate in every committee meeting for this dissertation.

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The world economy has become globalized. International business represents about \$10.5 trillion or over one third of the world economy (Fontaine, 1997). For the United States alone, merchandise exports have risen from \$22.4 billion in 1963 to \$464 billion in 1995 (United Nations, 1995). The number of foreign subsidiaries that U.S. corporations operate has increased along with expanding international business activities. Current estimates of the number of Americans living and working abroad range from 3 to 5 million (Bureau of Consular Affairs, 1997). The U.S. corporation, General Electric, estimates that 25% of its managers will need to take international assignments to keep pace with the requirements of global work (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992).

In terms of international alliances, most of the Fortune 500 firms in the United States and nearly 40% of U.S. industrial companies with more than 100 million dollars in sales are engaged in one or more international joint ventures (Gillespie, 1990). Direct foreign investment in the economy of the United States has also grown dramatically in recent years, and currently exceeds 400 billion dollars. About three million Americans, or three percent

of the American labor force, work for foreign-owned companies in the United States (Culter, 1989).

As a result of these trends toward greater international involvement by both the United States and foreign countries, more and more of the industrial workforce will work in other nations and experience different cultural settings. These changes are likely to cause conflicts and tensions associated with foreign work settings and cultural differences.

According to recent studies, 16% to 40% of U.S. citizens (hereafter called Americans) who went overseas returned home early because they could not adjust to the management styles of foreign supervisors or to the host country's culture (Wagner & Hollenback, 1995).¹ This means that approximately one to two of every five U.S. expatriates sent overseas will be unable to adapt. This problem is even more serious when we consider "brownouts"—employees who do not return prematurely, but who are nevertheless ineffective or less effective in the performance and execution of their responsibilities. Some observers have estimated that between 30% and 50% of all U.S. expatriates fall into the "brownout" category (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995).

Grove and Hallowell (1997) noted that a global company invests from \$300,000 to \$1,000,000 annually in each of its expatriate workers, depending

¹ The failure ratio of foreign assignments varies: Mendenhall & Oddou (1995) estimated approximately 20% of personnel sent abroad return prematurely from an overseas assignment; Caudron (1991) categorized early return rates by the country of assignment and found a 68% return rate for expatriate workers in Saudi Arabia, 36% in Japan, 27% in Europe, and 18% in Great Britain.

on the nature of the job, the international exchange rate, and location of assignment. Hiltrop and Janssens (1995) found that the average cost of relocating an expatriate employee and his or her family to range between \$55,000 and \$150,000. Furthermore, Dowling and Schuler (1990) estimated that approximately \$2.5 billion was lost because of poor performance in overseas assignments for American companies. Failures of operating overseas can eventually cause lost agreements, contracts, and sales; damaged reputations; unrealized profit expectations; failed mergers, joint ventures, and acquisitions; and attrition of good employees.

Besides financial losses due to unsuccessful employee assignments, individual expatriate workers experience “invisible” costs. When an expatriate migrates to an unpredictable environment, he or she is most likely to experience culture shock as the result of a sudden change. Cohon (1981) indicated that the expatriate’s migration is one of the most obvious instances of complete disorganization of an individual’s role system and that this induces significant stress, requiring the expatriate to build a new cognitive map.

In addition, expatriate workers inevitably face a variety of adjustment problems caused by different socio-economic systems, languages, and social customs. Family dissatisfaction with living in the foreign country is also one of the principal obstacles for the expatriates. Mendenhall and Oddou (1995) noted that the expatriate who fails to overcome these difficulties and returns

to a home country prematurely may suffer loss of self-esteem and self-confidence and a loss of prestige among one's peers

When the costs in both human suffering and material losses are considered, companies will find that promoting workers' adaptation to culturally different work environments must be a priority for sending employees on global assignments. However, few assignees and family members receive special training in encouraging cross-cultural adaptability in overseas assignments. In fact, 70% of U.S. expatriates and 90% of their families are sent overseas without any preparatory cross-cultural training (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Fontaine, 1997).

Social workers understand the potential of workplace problems that affect various aspects of individual functioning (Perlman, 1982). Nevertheless, social work researchers have conducted very little experimental studies that examine impacts on employees of expatriate work environments. Although a few studies have shown the importance of direct client services in the workplace, especially in the areas of mental health and substance abuse counseling, and some have begun to address job-related issues such as plant shut-downs, industrial reorganization, and a rapidly changing technology, these studies did not deal adequately with difficulties encountered by employees, their families, and work organizations. In particular, social work intervention aimed toward helping expatriate workers and/or their families who face different national cultures, a major concern of this study, has not been addressed.

To explore the nature of expatriation and the problems associated with culturally different work settings, expatriate workers in the automobile industry in the United States and South Korea were selected for the present study. Automobile companies in the two nations have actively increased international business cooperation, but few empirical studies report how specific cultural factors influence expatriate workers' adaptations to new work environments. In addition, the increasing importance of the Far East region in our globalized industry and trading heightens the chance that future American workers will be transferred to the Far East and will need to make adjustments in living and working in this geographical region.

This dissertation investigated the basic framework of international adjustment by the expatriate worker in order to understand difficulties he or she may encounter. The term international adjustment is used throughout this study as the conceptualized degree of an individual's psychological comfort with various aspects of a new overseas environment (Black, 1988; Oberg, 1960; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Takeuchi & Hannon, 1995). This study also examines how the field of social work, particularly industrial social work, has responded to various problems in the global work setting, and what specific concepts or theories have been used to justify social work intervention. Finally, this study covers several types of services that industrial social workers should provide for expatriate workers in order to facilitate successful expatriation.

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The results of this study are expected to contribute to an understanding of patterns of adjustment in international settings and to promote cross-cultural training needs and social work service interventions for both expatriate employees and their families for the overall improvement of the quality of work-life in multinational corporations.

Chapter II

THE REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Several studies focusing on the essence of expatriation found that completing an international assignment presents expatriate employees and their families with a variety of difficulties and challenges (Adler, 1986; Fontaine, 1997; Kobrin, 1988; Grove & Hallowell, 1997; Solomon, 1994; Zeira & Banai, 1985).

Studies of expatriation in the United States have reported that the failure rate of expatriate employees is high. Hiltrop and Janssens (1995), for instance, noted that 50% of U.S. expatriates do not complete their assignments in developed countries. The proportion rises to 70% in developing countries. Tung (1982) also found higher failure rates among U.S. multinational corporations than among European and Japanese firms. Although estimating precise failure ratios and costs is difficult, the assignment of managers and/or workers abroad is a difficult procedure and one that is not likely to be deemed successful.

Failed overseas assignments are costly to the company in terms of lost money and productivity, as well as individual expatriates who encounter career failure, personal maladjustment, and family disruption. The following

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describes the essence of problems that three major groups, i.e., organizations, individual expatriate workers, and their families tend to experience in foreign assignments.

Problems in Overseas Assignments

Organization/Company

The demand for expatriate workers has increased. Zeira and Banai (1985) found that the rapid growth of multinational companies and especially joint ventures in developing countries has produced a renewed demand for managers and/or workers capable of serving outside their countries.

However, the financial costs of employing expatriate workers are significant. Expatriate workers typically earn substantial allowances in the form of premiums for relocation, cost-of-living differentials, travel expenses, housing allowances, and education allowances. These may increase base salaries by 25% to 100% (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). In addition, most multinational companies supplement salaries to make up for the amount of money expatriates lose by paying higher taxes when working abroad.

Repatriation to the home country is also becoming recognized as problematic (Adler, 1986; Black et al., 1992; Essex, 1998; Grove & Associates, 1997; Harvey, 1983). A study revealed that 65% of United States expatriates were actually demoted after returning from an international assignment. Twenty-five percent of repatriated employees left their company within one year, and 40% within two years (Shepard, 1997). When the expatriate is not

integrated successfully upon return, companies may lose valuable human resources.

Individual expatriate workers

Individual expatriate workers frequently encounter an environment that is highly stressful. To begin with, separation from friends, leaving one's home country, and drastic changes in one's environment generally provoke an experience of stress or emotional disturbance (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). The host country is culturally, politically, economically, and legally different from that of one's home country. Attitudes toward work differ. As a result, many expatriates tend to develop symptoms of "transfer anxiety," culture shock, social dislocation, adaptation problems, "exile complex" (feeling abandoned by headquarters), frustration, and disappointment (Brooke & Remmers, 1977; Ronen, 1986).

Expatriate workers must deal with problems stemming from the relationship between their corporate headquarters and foreign subsidiaries (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). The headquarters' objectives and policies may conflict with needs and expectations of those who are in overseas assignments. For instance, a subsidiary may want to reinvest most of the profits it makes into its own operations. The parent company, however, may prefer to take the profits and use the revenue to invest in another subsidiary. According to Rahim (1983), such differences of expectation may create role conflicts for expatriate employees.

Another substantial factor influencing the effectiveness of expatriation involves the so-called “information gap” between expatriates and their colleagues at home (Essex, 1998; Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). Expatriate employees frequently feel alienated from a variety of occurrences at headquarters. Howard (1974) found that more than two thirds of expatriates in his study complained of suffering from an information gap phenomenon. These employees, believing that their colleagues treated them as if they were “out of sight, out of mind,” often felt professionally unproductive and personally dissatisfied.

Expatriate’s family

Although the issues of individual expatriate employees are important, previous studies indicate that the adaptability of an employee in a foreign subsidiary depends to a large extent upon how satisfied the employee’s spouse and children are with the foreign environment (Essex, 1998; Fontaine, 1997; Grove & Associates, 1997; Tung, 1982). Harvey and Lusch (1982) found that stress in the family affects an overseas manager’s ability to be creative, make decisions, and manage employees. Similarly, Hays (1971) argued that an adaptive and supportive family is important in avoiding failure in an overseas assignment.

The impact of the international transfer is often likely to be more severe on a spouse than on the expatriate worker. Several studies have described difficulties in adjustment faced by adult females accompanying

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their husbands overseas (Briody & Chrisman, 1991, Fontaine, 1997; Harvey, 1985; Rodgers, 1984; Takeuchi & Hannon, 1996). According to a recent study, 90% of expatriates were male, and 78% were married (Solomon, 1994). Among those married male expatriates, 46% of the accompanying spouses left a career in the United States. Eighty-eight percent of multinational corporations thus considered that the dual-career problem would become a critical issue in international assignments. While expatriate workers maintain their careers while abroad, most of their spouses leave relatives and friends in the home country, not to pursue their own careers, but rather to be with their husbands or wives in overseas assignments.

Separation from friends and family at home may cause spouses to feel loneliness or isolation, but expatriate workers may have less time for companionship. The expatriate often works long hours to deal with the unfamiliar working conditions of the new assignment and thus he or she may be unable to spend as much time as necessary to reduce family anxiety and dissatisfaction (Adler, 1986).

Spouses tend to experience the foreign culture on the most immediate and every day basis and thus they are more likely to encounter culture shock than expatriate workers. For example, a spouse may have to find out all the essential elements of running a household, arranging for servants, choosing the best places to go for groceries, and deciding whether to bargain or not (Harvey, 1985).

Children are another complicating element. Families in a foreign country are very concerned about how their children will manage in the new environment. Children may have special needs or may not adjust easily to a new school and neighborhood (Soloman, 1994). Difficulties that expatriate children face may put a strain on a marriage and eventually these issues can affect expatriates' productivity in overseas assignments.

Some expatriate families, particularly from Far Eastern countries, such as China, Japan, and South Korea, tend to be concerned about elderly parents and/or relatives whom they must leave behind in the home country. McCaffrey and Hafner (1985) illustrated Asians' perspectives toward parents through the following story:

On a sea voyage, you are traveling with your wife, your child, and your mother. The ship develops problems and starts to sink. Of your family, you are the only one who can swim and you can only save one other individual. Whom would you save? This question was posed to a group of men in Asia and the United States. In the United States, more than 60% of those responding said they would save the child, 40% would choose to save the wife, and none would have saved the mother. In the Asian countries, 100% said they would save the mother. Their rationale? You can always remarry and have more children but you cannot have another mother. (p. 26)

Although several studies have raised family-related issues in the expatriate work setting, most of them have rarely identified the extent to which expatriates' family members adjust in the foreign country and its effects on the expatriates' adaptability in the new work environment.

Framework of Acculturation

A clearer understanding of the key factors that constitute the expatriate's adjustment processes is essential to implementing (1) selection instruments that are predictive of expatriate acculturation, (2) cross-cultural training programs that would address the relevant factors of acculturation and train expatriates in the necessary skills relevant to those factors, and (3) professional intervention models, led by industrial social workers. However, Mendenhall and Oddou (1995) argued that the field of expatriation research currently suffers from an inadequate understanding of the relevant variables of expatriate acculturation and the use of inappropriate selection, training, and intervention methods for expatriates.

In terms of a framework of cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate workers, an acculturation model has been proposed by Black et al. (1991). The concepts of the acculturation model have been applied to various cross-cultural studies (Fontaine, 1997; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1995; Takeuchi & Hannon, 1996). According to Black et al. (1991), expatriates' adjustment to a foreign culture consists of three major related but separate dimensions, i.e., overseas job, interaction with natives of the host country, and general non-work environment.

The first dimension is adjustment to the job to which the employee is assigned. Black et al. (1991) noted that this type of adjustment is the easiest of the three dimensions for expatriate workers, primarily because job adjustment is facilitated by similarities in procedures, policies, and task

requirements between the foreign operation and those of the home-country. However, aspects of the corporate culture of the foreign operation, as well as the national culture where the foreign operation is, are often seriously different from those back home and exert an influence on expatriate workers' tasks and responsibilities.

The second dimension is adjustment to interacting with natives of the country to which the expatriate employee is assigned. Black et al. (1991) considered this to be the most difficult dimension of the three types of adjustment, mainly because interactions with host-country nationals are where differences in mental maps and rules show up.

The final dimension of cross-cultural adaptation is adjustment to the general non-work environment. This dimension includes such issues as food, shopping, transportation, entertainment, and health care. In terms of difficulty, this dimension would generally fall between job and interaction adjustment.

Factors Influencing Expatriates Acculturation

From the review of the literature, it seems that factors influencing adjustment to a foreign culture occur in time in two phases: factors involved before departure (the anticipatory adjustment phase) and factors involved after arrival (the in-country adjustment phase). First, the degree to which correct information about the values, norms, and behavioral rules of the host culture is available to expatriates before they leave for overseas assignments

supports anticipatory adjustment. Second, post-arrival, or in-country factors, also affect expatriates' adaptation to foreign assignments. Major variables that influence the expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment are country, organization, individual, and family. Finally, the extent to which the expatriates adjust to a foreign country can be assessed by their adaptability in three dimensions: work adjustment, interaction adjustment (communicating with the host nationals), and general adjustment (adjustment to facets of the society at large). Figure 1 illustrates the relationships of these variables which affect the expatriates' cross-cultural adaptation.

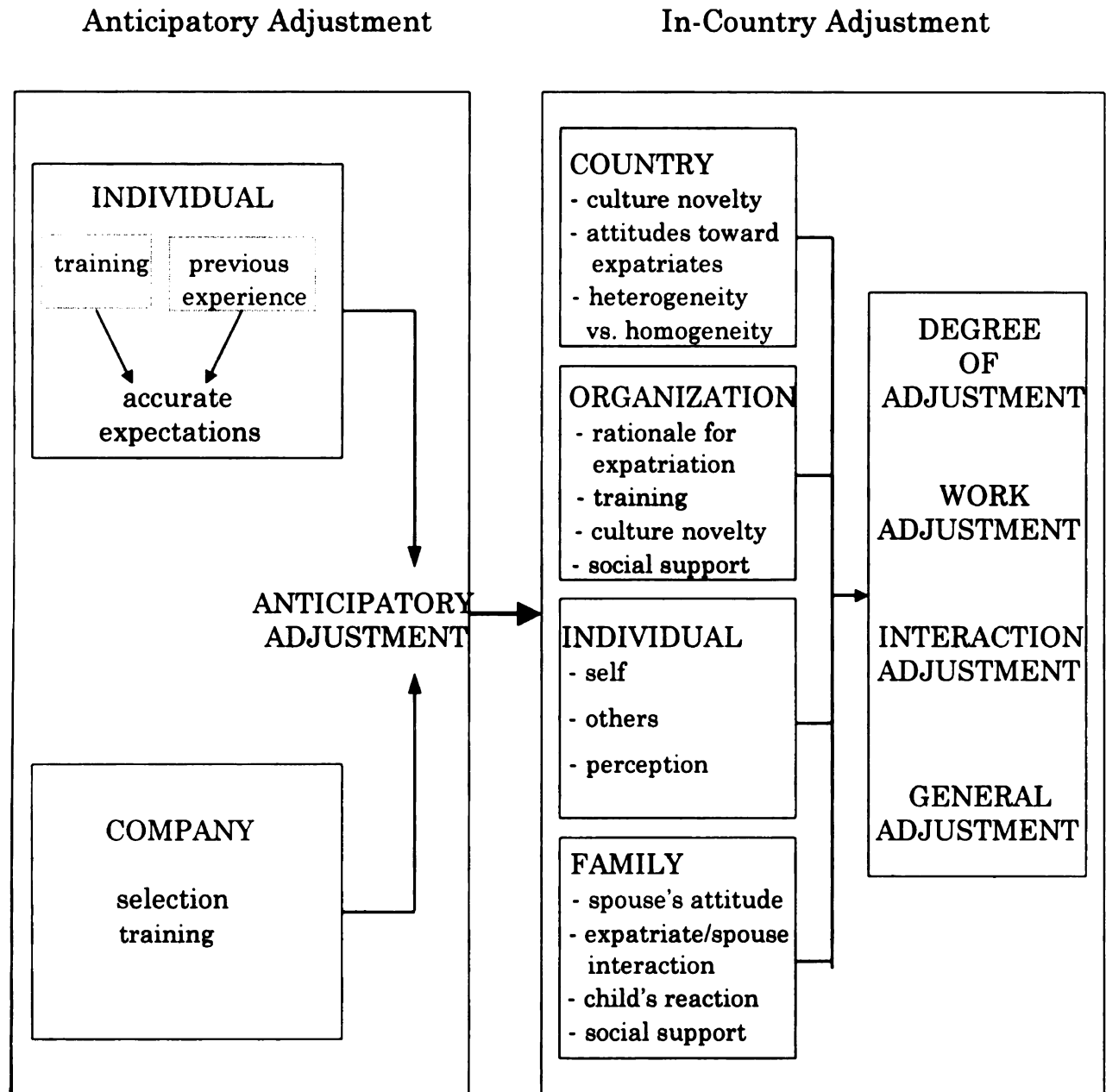


Figure 1. Framework of cross-cultural adjustment. Modified from the Black et al. (1991, p.303) model.

Anticipatory Adjustment

The extent to which expatriate workers adjust in foreign assignments depends on their experiences in advance of actually being transferred overseas. The nature of anticipatory adjustments primarily consists of two major levels: individual and organization (Black et al., 1991; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). The anticipatory adjustment at the individual level includes pre-departure cross-cultural training to provide expatriate workers with accurate information about the social, cultural, and lifestyle adjustments they will have to make to adapt overseas. It also involves previous overseas experience. Many researchers have speculated that simply living in a foreign country could positively impact the formation of accurate expectations (Black et al., 1991; Church, 1982; Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994).

At the organizational level, providing employees and family members with cross-cultural training can positively impact cultural adjustment skills and job performance and thus help prevent costly expatriate failures (Caudron, 1991). This training might be categorized as either an individual or an organizational factor because individuals can provide pre-departure training for themselves or can have it provided by their firms. Black et al. (1991) also suggested that some intensive cross-cultural training should be continued even after the individual has been in the host country for a month or so.

In addition to the cross-cultural training, if the organization maintains effective selection mechanisms in choosing candidates whose personalities and required skills “fit” the circumstance of the host country, more favorable adjustment to the foreign culture can be anticipated.

In-Country Adjustment

Country factors

Country factors are those aspects peculiar to the host country and/or home country which promotes or hinders expatriate adjustment. For instance, cultures of some host countries are more difficult to adapt to than others (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). Torbiorn (1982) found that American expatriates expressed high levels of dissatisfaction when assigned to countries such as India/Pakistan, Southeast Asia, the Middle-East, North Africa, East Africa, and Liberia in the areas of job satisfaction, levels of stress and pressure, health care, housing standards, entertainment, food, and skill of coworkers. Also, greater cultural barriers were reported for Southeast Asia, Japan, Africa, and the Middle East than for other world regions. Therefore, how well the expatriate adjusts to his or her overseas experience seems to be in part related to the country of assignment.

Host country factors also include attitudes toward expatriate workers, the degree of nationalism, and the role of indigenous workers. For example, some countries actively seek foreign investment, making it very attractive to foreign companies, while others are more hostile to foreign corporate

involvement because they see it as a threat to national sovereignty (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). In addition, some countries have legal requirements related to the number of expatriates allowed and the number of host national workers that must be hired in order to maintain the local labor force.

An expatriate's home country often influences his or her adjustment and performance as well. An expatriate's conception of organization is found to be deeply rooted in the home culture (Laurent, 1983). An expatriate worker originally from a heterogeneous culture, e.g., the United States, may have more difficulty in adjustment when he or she works in a homogeneous society, e.g., South Korea, than an expatriate from a homogeneous culture to a heterogeneous society because the homogeneous community may not readily accept someone who is from a different culture.

Organizational factors

Researchers have identified four major organizational factors that promote effective expatriation and repatriation, i.e., (1) rationale for expatriation, (2) training, (3) culture novelty, and (4) social support. These factors tend to have strong relationships with adjustment in a work setting. First, the rationale for expatriation is to determine who is selected and what he or she is expected to accomplish, e.g., whether for technology transfer, management development, or control of corporate culture (Schneider & Asakawa, 1995).

The second organizational factor is post-arrival cross-cultural training. Although training helps individuals understand the rules and customs of the host culture in the anticipatory adjustment phases, training is also useful to support them in developing the behaviors and skills necessary to operate effectively in the foreign culture. This training often involves spouses and children of expatriate workers. Because the extent to which the expatriate's family adjusts to the host country influences the employee's productivity in the foreign assignment, the family's needs should be addressed (Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1982; De Cieri, Dowling, & Taylor, 1991).

The third organizational factor that can affect work adjustment is the degree to which the organizational culture in the foreign operation is different from the organizational culture of the home office. This is called cultural novelty (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). The greater the difference, the more difficult the adjustment, and the longer the expatriate may ultimately take to adjust to the host setting (Black et al., 1991).

The fourth organizational aspect involves the extent to which members of the foreign operation provide social support to the newcomer. Supportive coworkers in the subsidiary can provide both useful information about the host culture and emotional support while the newcomers "learn the ropes."

Individual factors

The literature of expatriate adjustment includes numerous linkages between individual skills and cross-cultural adjustment. Researchers

identify three major categories of individual factors related to in-country adjustment, i.e., (1) self-orientation (2) others-orientation, and (3) perception-orientation (Black et al., 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1995). The degree of the individual expatriate's skills in each of these dimensions tends to affect his or her overseas adjustment.

The first category, self-orientation, is the ability to believe in oneself and have confidence in one's ability to deal effectively with foreign counterparts and new work environments.² While arrogance or an inflated self-image will not help cross-cultural adjustment, those who show successful overseas adaptation tend to persevere even in the face of mistakes, ask questions about mistakes they make, learn from their mistakes, and try not to make the same mistakes repeatedly (Black et al., 1992).

In addition, the expatriate who is able to find parallel substitutes for his or her interests and activities in the new culture is more likely to be successful in adjusting to that new culture. For example, learning to enjoy soccer instead of football, or to appreciate traditional folk music rather than western music, will be helpful to the American expatriate's acculturation (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1995).

The issue of stress reduction is another important aspect which consists of self-oriented dimension. Cross-cultural theorists have long

² Although Tung (1982) noted that an individual expatriate's technical competence affects his or her adjustment in a foreign assignment, others differently reported that no correlation exists between feelings of expertise in the expatriate's job and successful adjustment to the foreign culture (Mendelhall & Oddou, 1991).

believed that the entrance into an unfamiliar culture produces stress within the expatriate (Byrnes, 1966; Oberg, 1962). Relatively recent studies also indicate that the ability to deal with stress is very important to expatriate adjustment (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Bardo & Bardo, 1980; Graham, 1983; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Ratiu, 1983). Mendenhall and Oddou (1995) particularly found that well-adjusted expatriates were better able to cope with the stress of ambiguous interpersonal relations and were more impervious to depression and loneliness than were poorly adjusted expatriates. Similarly, Hawes and Kealey (1981) found that the ability to cope successfully with “day-to-day life overseas” emerged as an important variable in the acculturation process.

The second group of individual factors is often referred to as others-orientation or relational characteristics, which help individuals actively interact with new people from different cultural settings. In particular, the ability to develop long-lasting friendships with host-nationals is an important factor in successful overseas adjustment (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Hammer, Gudykunst, & Wiseman, 1978; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Ratiu, 1983). The host-nationals can provide practical information and support that facilitate the expatriates in understanding behaviors and attitudes in the new culture.

In addition, several studies report that the expatriate’s willingness to communicate with host-nationals is also important to cross-cultural adjustment and that the expatriate’s confidence in using the host culture's

language has a great influence on successful adjustments (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Hammer et al., 1978). Communication skills tend to show positive relationships with expatriates': (1) willingness to use the host-nationals' language; (2) confidence in interacting with people; (3) use of conversational currency; and (4) desire to understand and relate with host-nationals.

The third group of individual factors includes one often termed perceptual-orientation. This focuses on the individual's ability to grasp and understand the invisible cultural maps and rules. For example, some people are much better able to appreciate and understand the invisible and subtle determinants of people's behavior than others. Ruben and Kealey (1979) noted that well-adjusted expatriates tend to be nonjudgmental and non-evaluative when interpreting the behavior of host-nationals. This nonjudgmental approach in the cognitive evaluation of host-nationals leads to clearer information transmission and better interpersonal relationships between the expatriates and host-nationals.

Family/Non-work factors

Recent studies show a consistent and strong relationship between the adjustment of the expatriate worker and that of the spouse (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Black et al., 1992; Fontaine, 1997; Grove & Associates, 1997; Grove & Hallowell, 1997). The relationship is most likely reciprocal, and the adjustment of the employee and the spouse is mutually influential.

Researchers empirically demonstrated that adjustment of the spouse was positively related to the spouse's favorable attitude toward the foreign assignment and self-initiated pre-departure training (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Takeuchi & Hannon, 1996).

Another family factor that has an important relationship with cross-cultural adjustment is social support outside the workplace. A variety of resources that exists in the host country, such as day care centers, public transportation, religious services, and recreation programs, will enhance expatriates' and/or their families' adaptability to the host culture (Black et al., 1991). With necessary information regarding these social services, supports from host-nationals outside the foreign workplace may provide emotional relief to the newcomers.

Process of Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Research on cultural adaptation suggests that key stages occur in the overseas experience that reflect an individual's psychological and cultural adjustment to a new environment. Oberg (1960) employed the term "culture shock" to describe such feelings as anxiety, confusion, and strain when individuals come into contact with a new culture. According to Briody and Chrisman (1991), typically depicted as a "U" shaped curve, the most difficult period for the individual occurs after an initial period of enthusiasm. Over time, the individual gradually acquires sufficient information about the host country culture and develops an ability to cope in the new environment.

Although the “U” shaped curve pattern is not supported in all empirical studies, they noted that the stages of adaptation and the “U” shaped pattern are valuable in examining expatriates and students, among others, residing in a particular location on a non-permanent basis.

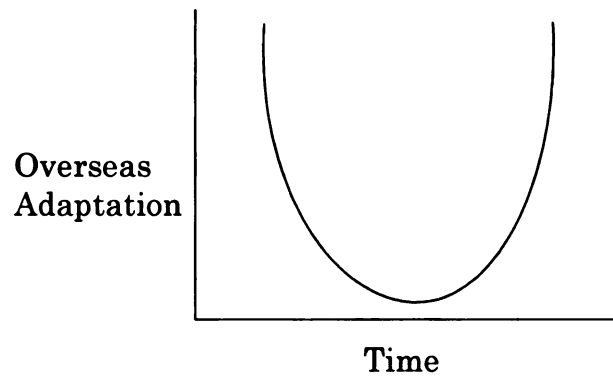


Figure 2. The “U” shaped curve depicting adjustment to a new culture. Adapted from Brody and Chrisman (1991, p. 266).

Social Work in the Global Workplace

During the past decade, one of the most significant developments in the field of social work has been industrial social work. Trade unions and employing organizations had been outside the social services arena and were not part of the formal human services tradition. However, with the efforts of industrial social workers, the workplace has become a target for social work intervention and the number of Employee Assistance Programs has enormously increased as well. In 1973, only 500 programs existed in the United States. By 1988, approximately 20,000 programs had been created

nationwide (Spitzer & Favorini, 1993). A recent study predicts that by the year 2000, more than half of all workplaces with 50 or more employees in the United States will probably have an employee assistance program (Tyler, 1996).

According to Kurzman (1993), industrial social work is characterized by policies, procedures, and counseling-oriented services to identify or respond to employees with personal, emotional, or behavioral problems, especially those that interfere with their performance at work. Googins and Godfrey (1987) also noted that industrial social work includes such diverse areas as counseling, referral, consultation, and input into corporate social responsibility and collective bargaining agreements. In the main, however, most industrial social workers spend the majority of their time providing direct client services, especially in the areas of mental health and substance abuse counseling (Googins, 1975).

Although provisions of mental health and substance abuse services are important, the new global economic context requires a reevaluation of the skills and responsibilities traditionally associated with industrial social work. In particular, as a result of vigorous global exchanges, the 21st century American workplace increasingly will be comprised of individuals who experience expatriation to a foreign country that not only will have unique styles of interaction and modes of communication, but also unique world views and frames of reference. Therefore, industrial social workers must

confront the emergence of a new client population, i.e., expatriate workers in overseas assignments.

To respond to increasing personnel needs in a global setting, social workers may need to turn their attention from identifying and treating the individual employee in a domestic company to addressing the “whole” person who encounters with numerous circumstances both inside and outside the workplace. Social work in this instance must be based on a system perspective that emphasizes the “person-in-environment (PIE)” approach. This PIE approach encompasses the reciprocal relationships and other influences among an individual, the relevant other or others, and the physical and social environment (Barker, 1991).

Intervention models

According to differences in educational preparation and perceptions of need by the major parties, i.e., management, labor, and health-care providers, who may have different interests in employee assistance services, industrial social workers have developed various types of intervention. However, historically the two prominent models of contemporary social work in the work setting are: (1) the core technology-focused model and (2) the comprehensive service model (Kurzman, 1993). First, the core technology-focused model is primarily concerned with getting documented alcoholics into detoxification, rehabilitation, and aftercare. Its main perspective toward substance abusers is “health versus pathology.” The major purpose of

intervention is to “control” employees in order to achieve managerial goals of cost-effectiveness, as well as to enhance employees’ productivity. The core technology model typically employs alcoholism counselors who provide counseling and referral to outside treatment programs, but offer few prevention services. In this model, personal, family, and environmental problems are frequently ignored. Some of these efforts involve untrained staffs with little professional expertise. The central function of industrial social worker emphasizes “assessment and referral,” rather than “treatment.” Roman and Blum (1985), who coined the phrase “core technology,” defined what constitutes the component roles and functions of industrial social workers:

- identification of employees’ behavioral problems on the basis of their job performance
- consultation with supervisors, managers, and shop stewards
- appropriate use of “constructive confrontation” as leverage when employees are referred
- micro- and macro-linkages with external counseling, treatment, and other community resources
- the centrality of employees’ alcohol problems as the focus of programs with the most significant promise for producing recovery and genuine cost savings for the work organization. (pp. 16-17)

The core technology model has a history of success in reaching out to and serving middle- and later-stage alcoholics who work under intensive

supervision in manufacturing settings, though it may not be well fitted to the variety and complexity of today's work environment (Kurzman, 1993).

The comprehensive family-service model focuses not on the medical model but instead on a social functioning perspective that underscores the need to identify and harness workers' strengths. The comprehensive service model is designed not as an alternative management tool, but as a benefit for workers. It focuses on personal problems, including alcoholism and drug abuse, that may affect the employee's ability to function productively and it emphasizes workplace social utility. Unlike the core technology model, which limits its scope primarily to assessment and referral, this model emphasizes prevention and short-term treatment. Assistance is likely to be for a personal problem (not for an illness or a disease) that is affecting the worker's ability to function. The comprehensive service model is oriented to an ecological perspective (person-in-environment) and it focuses not only on individual employees but also on their family members and persons who may negatively influence workers' performances. Therefore, in this model, the social worker might find affordable day care for a worker's young children, elder care for a worker's aging parents, or special education services for a worker's delinquent, adolescent son/daughter. Table 1 illustrates the different assumptions of the two industrial social work models.

Table 1. Two Intervention Models: Core Technology vs. Comprehensive Service

Variable	Core Technology	Comprehensive Service
Design	Management tool	A benefit for workers
Orientation	Alcohol and drug abuse	Personal problems that may affect workers' performance
Principle	A workplace disciplinary alternative	A workplace social utility
Function	Supervisory training and intervention with workers	Supervisory training, intervention with workers, workplace health, education, wellness, and prevention
Focus	Current job performance	Present and potential capacity to function
Objective	Enhancement of employees' productivity	Preservation of precious human and fiscal resources
Concept	New personnel prerogative for employers	New resource and entitlement for workers
Scope	Assessment and referral	Assessment, referral, and prevention
Intake	Primarily by supervisors' referrals	Referral by supervisors, self, and peers
Clients	Workers	Workers, families, and their communities
Prevention	Tertiary	Primary and secondary
Perspective	A health versus pathology; to discipline or to heal (cure)	An ecological-life perspective; to enhance social functioning
Commitment	Providing prescribed services	Providing prescribed services and promoting social change

Note. Revised from Kurzman, P.A. & Akabas, S.H. (Eds.). (1993). The work and well-being (p.34). Washington D.C.: NASW.

Although the two models are different, the most pertinent issue in the field of industrial social work is the systems perspective. The core technology model, with its focus on troubled workers and their supervisors, is easier to apply when the family and the workplace are conceptualized as separate domains (Roman, 1989). "The factory or office here comes to be seen as a complete, closed autonomous system," according to Kurzman (1993), "pursuing its own goals and developing its own values and norms of behavior regardless of the outside world" (p. 36). Such a closed systems model, however, seems to be inappropriate in today's global economy.

In contrast to a closed system, an open system, on which the comprehensive family service model is based, indicates a continuous exchange with other systems and with the environment. An active import and/or export of energy or resources occurs between environments. The open system theory helps social workers promote perception and understanding of the social environment which is composed of many varied social systems. This theory also encourages social workers to focus on interdependence rather than independence. Therefore, industrial social workers principal mission should be intervention that changes both the employee and the work environment, rather than simply focusing on one or the other problem.

As noted earlier, a variety of factors, such as the country setting, work organization, family, and social support systems, influence the expatriate's adaptation to a culturally different work environment, in addition to particular individual characteristics and/or abilities. On the basis of the

systems perspective, industrial social workers need to understand the nature of interactions among cross-cultural factors before they intervene to assist troubled expatriate employees. Figure 3 illustrates the comprehensive service role of industrial social workers in the field of expatriation.

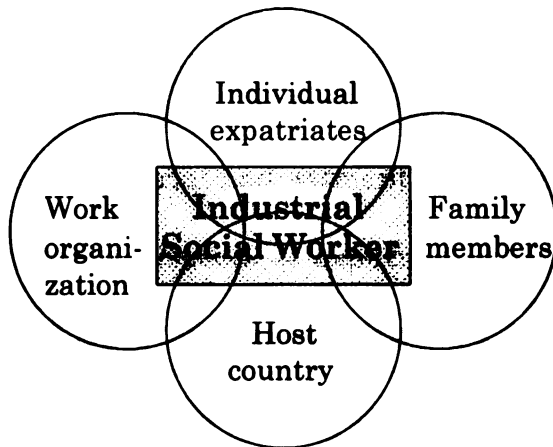


Figure 3. The role of social worker in the comprehensive service model

Chapter III

INSTRUMENT DEVELOPMENT STUDY

As demonstrated in Chapter II, previous cross-cultural studies have presented a framework of expatriate adjustment in overseas assignments and have found multidimensional aspects of expatriate adaptation, i.e., general adjustment, work adjustment, and interaction adjustment. However, few researchers investigated the combined effects of (1) national culture, (2) organization and community, (3) individual expatriate's attributes, and (4) family members. These four dimensions, generally based on systems theory perspective, are most likely to influence expatriate workers' adjustment in foreign assignments. Furthermore, little empirical research has focused on both the specific problems expatriate workers encounter and services or programs they would like to see developed in the host country.

This study was conducted in two separate stages. The first-stage study clarified interpersonal factors affecting workers' adjustment to different work environments through a survey of both American employees and Korean employees who expatriated respectively from the American work environment and the Korean work environment. Although expatriate workers are likely to encounter difficulties in relationships with foreign

counterparts and/or local employees in the host country, there exists no instrument to measure the effects of the relationships on the expatriates' adjustment. Thus, the first-stage study was designed to examine major interpersonal problems from which expatriates suffer in overseas assignments. The findings of the study were applied to the second-stage study as one of the acculturation variables to investigate its influence on workers' adaptation to the culturally different work environment.

The second-stage study overall assessed the impact of global operation on the sojourners' adaptation to the host country, based on both the results of the first-stage study and the relevant literature regarding cross-cultural adjustment. The second-stage study also employed a variety of indices identified in previous studies of global work assignments (Carver & Scheier, 1989; Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983; Cross, 1995; Hofstede, 1980). However, some new indices were expected to emerge from this study, which are relevant to understanding American and Korean workplaces where cultural differences may cause problems between American employees and Korean counterparts. Using these indices, a questionnaire was constructed for the second stage of the study. The questionnaire explores four major domains: (1) dimensions of the national culture of the United States and South Korea, (2) individual expatriate's attributes, e.g., perceived stress, coping ability, relationships with foreign counterparts, and expatriate experiences, (3) organization and community relations, and (4) life

satisfaction of family members in the host country. Research methodology for the second-stage study is described in detail in Chapter IV.

Sample

The purpose of the first-stage study was to develop a survey instrument for the second-stage study. The first-stage study was conducted in the automobile industrial settings in both the United States and South Korea from October 1996 to January 1997 to determine what difficulties exist among American employees and Korean employees in terms of mutual relationships. By conducting careful comparisons between the findings from this survey and existing materials on cross-cultural studies, the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate workers was assessed.

The original sample for the first-stage study was obtained from employees who have worked either for American automobile companies or for Korean companies and have been expatriated from America to South Korea or from South Korea to America. The sample also included local workers who frequently interacted with those expatriates from different cultures. To focus on the relationships between Americans and Koreans, the sample was restricted to two major American automobile companies (Ford Motor Company and General Motors), one Korean automobile maker (Kia Motors Corporation), and their subcontracting automotive components suppliers. These companies are closely interrelated through business association and

technical exchanges, and their employees have extensive experience in working with American or Korean counterparts. In fact, Ford Motor Company has maintained an equity partnership with Kia Motors holding approximately 10% of its shares in Kia since 1986, whereas Kia Motors has supplied more than 85,000 Festivas every year to Ford since 1987 (Festiva, recently renamed Aspire, is a small subcompact car mostly with a 1.3-liter engine). Although General Motors ended its joint-venture partnership with Daewoo Motor Company in South Korea in 1992, it still interacts with several Korean automotive components firms. In total, approximately 100 expatriate employees and local workers have actively worked with foreign counterparts in these companies.³

Method

Due to the small sample size, survey questionnaires were mailed to all these employees asking them to answer problems which tended to evoke their difficulties associated with cultural differences while they worked with foreign counterparts. In total, 74 questionnaires were returned (giving a response rate of approximately 74%): 33 American employees (20 from Ford, 7 from General Motors, and 6 from subcontracting American automotive components suppliers) and 41 Koreans (29 from Kia, 9 from GM-Korea, and 4 from subcontracting Korean automotive systems firms).

³The estimated number is based on personal interviews with executives in Ford, GM, and Kia.

They were also asked to rate, according to the degree of importance, each of the difficulty items they raised. The questions were translated into Korean for the Korean respondents and then translated back into English by bilingual assistants to ensure the equivalence of meaning (Brislin, 1986). All respondents were assured that their responses would be kept strictly confidential. The questionnaire required less than ten minutes to complete. For those who had not returned the questionnaire in a month, a follow-up request was made by telephone. In this follow-up process, some respondents verbally completed the questionnaire over the telephone. Telephone interviews were carried out using the same items in the questionnaire (Appendix A).

Findings

Difficulties common to both comparison groups

In general, the American employees as well as the Korean employees experienced various difficulties in relationships with foreign workers. Similar difficulties cited by the comparison groups were carefully assorted under the same category (Appendices B and C). Table 2 presents major types of difficulties in working with foreign counterparts.

Table 2. Frequency of Difficulties in Working with Foreign Counterparts Cited by American Employees (N = 33) and Korean Employees (N = 41)

Type of Difficulty	American Employees			Korean Employees		
	%	<u>n</u>	rank	%	<u>n</u>	rank
Communication barriers	60.6	20	1	61.0	25	2
Different business style	51.5	17	3	22.0	9	6
Misunderstanding of social customs	30.3	10	4	65.9	27	1
Logicality	15.2	5	8	19.5	8	7
Hierarchical management	54.5	18	2	—	—	—
Resistance to changes	21.2	7	6	—	—	—
Lack of open communication	21.2	7	6	—	—	—
Lack of strategic plans	15.1	5	8	—	—	—
Individualism	—	—	—	39.0	16	3
Discrimination	—	—	—	31.7	13	4
Reliability	—	—	—	29.3	12	5
Business manners	—	—	—	17.1	7	8

Note. % = the number of responses/the total number of respondents; n = the number of respondents; rank is based on the percentage size. 5th (n = 8) for Americans and 9th (n = 5) for Koreans belong to "others." Only items cited by more than 15% of all respondents were selected.

Among the difficulties, communication barriers emerged as the most conspicuous. The percentage sizes of both comparison groups were similarly large. In total, 20 out of 33 American employees (60.6%) and 25 out of 41 Korean employees (61%) ranked communication as the biggest or the second biggest obstacle. In addition to this common issue, three other difficulties, i.e., misunderstanding of social customs, different emphasis on logicity, and different business style, were prevalent to both American and Korean employees, although the degree of importance shown by rank varied. However, the five items, i.e., hierarchical management, resistance to change, lack of open communication, lack of strategic plans, and different management structure, were unique to American respondents, while the other five items, i.e., individualism, discrimination, reliability, business manners, and unclear responsibility, were unique to Korean respondents.

According to both groups, the issues of misunderstanding toward the different cultures evoked serious difficulties when sojourners work with local employees and vice versa. All respondents of both comparison groups gave high salience on this issue; it was the fourth-ranked difficulty for Americans and the first-ranked difficulty for Koreans. Both groups cited logicity as a major issue. Americans seemed obviously concerned about the thinking pattern of Koreans. For example, several of them indicated in the questionnaire that Koreans were too emotional to separate business process from personal feelings. Meanwhile, Koreans responded that Americans were

too logical and seemed to calculate losses and gains most of the time. Another item of difficulty, cited by both groups, was different business style. Seventeen out of 33 Americans and nine out of 41 Koreans cited this issue. Interestingly, this was the third biggest difficulty (51.5%) for Americans. They seemed to perceive that the problem was rooted in collectivism in Korean society. Americans mentioned that Koreans tended to delay decisions until all were in agreement or at least informed. Americans often had to wait for a long time for Korean companies to make final decisions. In the process of negotiation, some Americans remarked that they were embarrassed by different emphasis given to certain social aspects, such as “the importance of meeting outside of work” or “informal group meetings.” According to them, Koreans seemed unwilling to talk about business until they believed they could relate in a “warm and friendly” manner with foreign counterparts, and thus, Koreans often asked American workers to dine out with them after regular business hours to establish a personal relationship.

Difficulties cited only by American workers

The findings clearly suggest that both American employees and Korean employees had difficulties unique to their respective group situations, which were not shared with the other comparison group. For the American group, it seemed to be difficult to adjust to the hierarchical management system in South Korea. Eighteen out of 33 Americans (54.5%) pointed out

this difficulty, which emerged as the second important issue. They frequently responded that Korean companies were still dominated by “top down management,” contrasting to “horizontal” team meetings widely used in U.S. corporations. Americans seemed frustrated when they negotiated with Korean junior or middle managers who had little authority to make decisions on their own. In addition, American workers were often bewildered by Korean counterparts’ over-consciousness of the visitors’ rank or status in the company.

Americans were critical of Koreans’ strong resistance to change (21.2%). The Americans cited that Korean workers were unwilling to listen to their advice or recommendations for change and innovation. The following

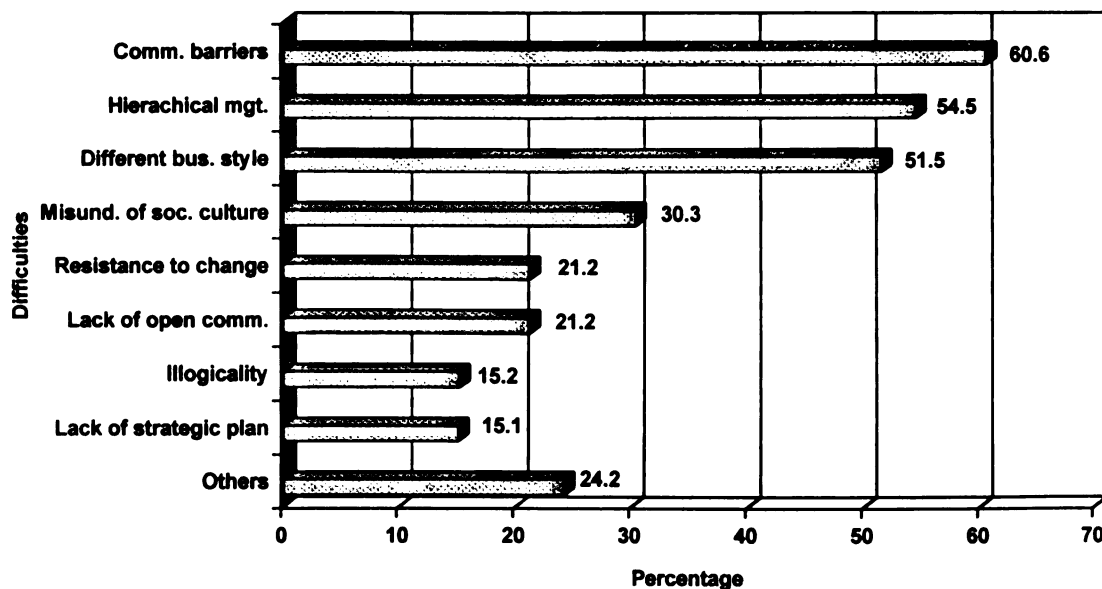


Figure 4. Frequency of difficulties in working with Korean counterparts cited by Americans

were frequent answers regarding this category: “Koreans are inflexible to open new ideas” and “Korean workers adhere to existing positions and/or procedures.” For the Americans, Korean workers seemed reluctant to share information and to express their own opinions. Figure 4 illustrates types of barriers that created difficulties for the Americans in adjusting to the Korean work setting.

Difficulties cited only by Korean workers

For Korean workers, one of the most frequently cited items was American workers' individualism (39%). They responded that Americans were so self-oriented that they were unwilling to commit to the team or company, and they would easily leave a company if a new job were more attractive. Moreover, Americans seemed to draw too sharp a line between public and private affairs and seldom shared their personal lives with Korean counterparts. Therefore, Korean respondents did not find it easy to see Americans as trustworthy and reliable partners. In fact, 12 out of 41 Koreans (29.3%) cited the issue of being unable to trust the American counterpart.

Another interesting issue only Koreans cited was their experience in feeling discriminated against in the workplace and the feeling that they were patronized in negotiations. Thirteen out of 41 Koreans (31.7%) agreed that this issue was their concern. Their feeling of being discriminated against

originated not only from their ordinary daily work, but also from the organizational structure of overseas assignments. Native Koreans complained that American multinational corporations in South Korea were reluctant to hire local employees and provided unequal opportunities in promotion and work evaluation. Respondents stated that the companies often pressured Korean workers to quickly adapt to American business styles, overlooking Korean business culture; this caused some resistance on the part of local workforce. In addition, seven out of 41 Korean respondents (17.1%) commented that they were uncomfortable with business etiquette or manners of Americans. Figure 5 illustrated that the difficulties Korean workers faced

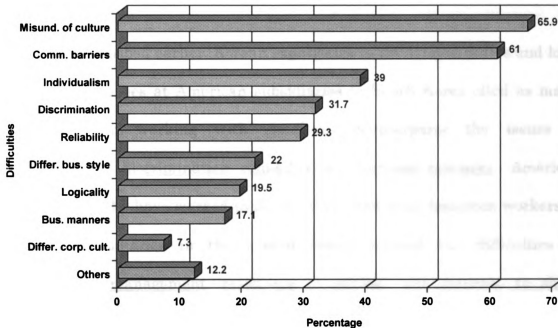


Figure 5. Frequency of difficulties in working with American counterparts cited by Koreans

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when dealing with American counterparts. In terms of the rating score, the majority of both American and Korean workers rated “4” (somewhat important) or “5” (very important) (Appendix D).

Discussion

The first-stage study examined cultural differences in working with foreign counterparts and attested the importance of the difficulties or barriers which kept discouraged expatriate workers from adjusting to the host country. Specifically, a set of 11 items of difficulties in foreign worker relations were identified and these items were applied to the second-stage study to examine whether they affect expatriate workers’ cross-cultural adaptation.

As described earlier, Korean expatriates in the United States and local Korean employees at American subsidiaries in South Korea cited as major difficulties in working with American counterparts the issues of individualism, discrimination, reliability, and business manners. American expatriates who have worked in South Korea and local American workers at Korean subsidiaries in the United States pointed out difficulties in hierarchical management, resistance to change, unwillingness to share information, and lack of strategic planning among Koreans. Difficulties common to both comparison groups were communication barriers, misunderstanding of social customs, logicality, and different business style.

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These findings replicate some of the results of existing cross-cultural studies. For example, Chang (1989) who compared management systems, particularly in decision-making procedures between the United States and South Korea, noted that foreigners may not find it easy to understand who decision makers are and how a decision is made in Korean companies. This corresponded to the different decision-making process of Korean workers, which emerged as one of the most difficult barriers to American expatriates in the first-stage study. The Americans were often critical about complicated decision-making procedures, e.g., the lack of authority of mid-level managers, the frequent number of meetings, and the length of time it took to reach a final decision in Korean companies. Chang (1989) thus presented the following to increase the understanding of decision-making processes in a Korean company. It also reflects the collective and hierarchical management style of Korean society:

A plan of project is prepared usually by a staff member in the lower hierarchy of organization, either through his or her own initiative or the suggestion of his or her superior. The prepared plan is then circulated among the line of chain of command. Whoever reviews the document expresses his or her own views and the original document is changed accordingly until a consensus is almost reached by the time it is discussed at the top management level. If everyone involved agrees with the plan, the president puts his or her seal of approval making it a legitimate document. (p. 233)

This hierarchical management system ultimately requires mid-managers to receive approval from the top, even if they have the power to

make decisions. Hence, at the negotiation table Koreans tend to be reluctant to make a commitment and they take a long time to make a final decision and to act upon it.

Nowadays some Korean companies have tried to speed up the decision-making process by reducing the number of decision makers, empowering their employees by delegating more decision-making power to lower-level employees, and using electronic mail to receive approval from even the president without the slow paperwork working up to the office of the president (Kim, 1996).

On the issue of social relationships, Triandis (1989) argued that in collectivistic cultures, individuals belong to a few stable in-groups and have intense relationships within those in-groups. Americans from an individualistic culture, by contrast, belong to many in-groups; in-group membership is viewed as voluntary, and responsibilities and attachments to most others within those groups are less intense than they are in collectivistic cultures. Therefore, developing friendships with Americans is likely to be difficult for many Korean employees and vice versa.

In addition, Moran and Stripp (1991) described that Asians, including Koreans, tend to form relationships with foreigners slowly, but once a relationship has developed, it would continue through years of business. However, a long-term relationship is not likely to be achieved without a high level of trust toward their counterparts. Thus, Koreans may consider

entertaining after work as a way to learn about the personality, character, and trustworthiness of individuals. On this point, responses from the two groups in the first-stage survey sharply contrasted each other. While American respondents were uncomfortable with “drinking or dining out” after work and talking about personal matters, Koreans felt disappointed that Americans did not make efforts to build a “real” friendship and trust. Indeed, the same issue can be interpreted in the opposite manner by people from different cultures.

Although individualism is never strongly recommended in Korean culture, it is a major characteristic of the American management system (Chang & Chang, 1994). American employees make clear distinctions between official and nonofficial business or personal matters. Although personal connection is a factor that may aid a successful career in the United States, an employee succeeds mainly based on his or her job performance.

In terms of logicity, American respondents in the first-stage survey pointed out that many Koreans were incapable of presenting explicit and logical data when they tried to persuade others or negotiate with Americans. However, Kim and Kim (1989) attributed this to the different social emphasis on “values” and “facts” in the two cultural settings. They found that Western managers tend to view everything more in terms of quantifiable “facts” than of non-quantifiable “values.” Thus, Western managers prefer “facts” to “values” for their decision-making inputs as well. The Western way of

thinking is dictated largely by a purely factual approach which eliminates most “value-based” judgements. However, Korean managers often make important business decisions because they value a certain way of action, in spite of the price they must pay. As a result, in Korean business operations, “value judgement” traditionally has priority over purely factual considerations.

Finally, Kim (1996) suggested that American workers should request specific information regarding the fact that Americans believe Koreans are unwilling to share necessary information with Americans. Difficulty of sharing information was cited as one of the major barriers by American respondents in this survey:

Many Westerners complain that they do not get detailed information from their Korean associates. They also complain that they cannot understand what their Korean counterparts want. Koreans are neither good at describing things in detail nor at being specific. Koreans often omit the information that they assume others already know. To bridge the communication gap, Americans should ask specific questions. (p.102)

Application of the Findings

The results of the first-stage study are largely supported by some of the existing cross-cultural studies described above. However, no empirical study demonstrates how these difficulties in working with foreign counterparts specifically affect the expatriate’s adaptation to the host country, particularly in the U.S. and South Korean settings. Therefore, the

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findings from the first-stage study were applied to the second-stage study to examine how each interpersonal difficulty influences the expatriates' adaptation to overseas assignments.

From the 19 items identified in the first-stage survey, the eight items excluded were either those which were rarely cited or those not related to cultural differences. The most frequent response in each category was selected and then modified to make it a closed-ended question.

Finally, the following 11 items (Table 3) were chosen to assess expatriate workers' adaptation to the new work environment in different cultural settings. Respondents were asked to rate themselves on the types of difficulty, listed in Table 3, using a five-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* . . . 5 = *strongly agree*). However, the statement of communication problem was answered by a different scale (1 = *very poor* . . . 5 = *very good*). A factor analysis was conducted in Chapter V for these 11 items.

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Table 3. Questions for the Cross-Cultural Adaptation for the Second-Stage Study

Type of Difficulty	Questions
Communication barriers	How good are you at understanding spoken English/Korean?
Misunderstanding of social customs	Are you familiar with the social customs in the host country?
Logicity	Do you tend to draw a clear line between official and personal affairs in the workplace?
Different business style	Do you prefer to make group decisions?
Hierarchical management	Is it natural that you follow the directions of supervisors?
Lack of open communication	Are you willing to share information with foreign counterparts?
Resistance to change	Are you very open to the advice or recommendation of foreign counterparts?
Individualism	If the company really needs you, are you willing to work overtime on weekends?
Discrimination/ racial prejudice	Have you received unequal treatment by foreign counterparts based on my culture?
Reliability	Do you trust foreign counterparts?
Business etiquette	Do you understand what would bother foreign counterparts when you dine with them?

Note. Only items cited by more than 15% of all respondents of each comparison were selected.

Chapter IV

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter describes research processes and methods for the second-stage study. The purpose of this study was to investigate relationships between expatriates' adjustment in overseas assignments and four major influential factors, i.e., national culture, organization and community, individual attributes, and family members. The research methodology of the second-stage study is mainly based on the former instrument development study (first-stage study) in Chapter III and previous cross-cultural relevant studies.

Sample

The second-stage study was conducted in both United States and South Korea from May 1997 to September 1997. The sample for the second-stage study was drawn from American expatriates in the automobile industry registered with the American Chamber of Commerce (ACC) in Korea, and from Korean expatriates listed in the Directory of Overseas Korean Corporations who have worked for automobile corporations or automotive components companies in the United States. Although neither the ACC

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directory nor overseas Korean directory lists all the expatriate workers, more than 70% of American expatriates in South Korea and nearly all of the Korean expatriates in the United States are believed to be registered in one of the directories.⁴

Questionnaires were mailed to all 381 expatriate employees listed in either directory: 183 Americans and 198 Koreans. Appendix E illustrates a list of the companies for the second-stage survey. This study recommended that the respondents take the questionnaires home and then mail them back to the researcher in pre-stamped and self-addressed envelopes. In this way, confidentiality of the responses was secured.

Of the total 381 copies of the questionnaire sent out, 229 were returned. The overall response rate was 60% (101 American expatriates and 128 Korean expatriates). This ratio is higher than the response rates reported by most previous international studies related to cross-cultural workplace (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Dawson & Dickinson, 1988; Jobber & Saunders, 1988; Tung, 1981). The response rates differed slightly by the two comparison groups (55% for American expatriates in South Korea; 65% for Korean expatriates in the United States).

The sample, representative of the populations of both comparison groups, consisted mostly of upper level managers who have been with their firms for an average of 15 years, including two year's expatriate experience in

⁴ The percentage is based on personal interviews with a membership coordinator from ACC in Korea and a publication manager from Korea Trade & Investment Administration.

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the United States or South Korea. The average age of the expatriates was 41 years. Nearly all of the expatriate employees were male (95.6%) and most were married (87%). Further description of the sample follows in Chapter V.

Independent Variables

National Culture

In the present study, the first independent variable is the national culture of Americans and Koreans. Of Hofstede's four cultural dimensions, three were applied to this study: (1) individualism (2) power distance, and (3) uncertainty avoidance. One dimension, i.e., masculinity, was excluded because Hofstede (1980) reported that the United States and South Korea showed little difference in this factor.

Hofstede had access to morale surveys conducted by a large American-owned multinational firm. Comparable samples of employees in all the countries where the company was represented were asked to complete the survey. His study has a great deal of empirical support since it was based upon a large sample of over 117,000 responses to a questionnaire across 53 countries. Therefore, the contribution of Hofstede's study to cross-cultural management is universally accepted and his framework has been utilized extensively in cross-cultural literature (Edelmann, Asendorpf, Contraello, Georagas, & Villaneuva, 1989; Hoecklin, 1995; Matsumoto, 1989; Wagner & Hollenbeck, 1995; Westwood & Everett, 1987).

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In addition, Hofstede's framework does not merely provide a simple comparison of cultures, but rather allows for an assessment as to the extent to which cultures differ from one another. His framework emphasizes on the effect of cultural differences, especially in terms of understanding people's conceptions of an organization, the mechanisms that are considered appropriate in controlling and coordinating the activities within it, and the roles and relations of its members (Hoecklin, 1995). In the following, Hofstede's cultural dimensions related to expatriate work environments in the United States and South Korea are summarized.

Power distance

Power distance is the degree to which inequality (a "pecking order" or hierarchy) is seen as an irreducible fact of life. It would affect the extent to which employees accept that their boss has more power than they have and that the boss's opinions and decisions are right simply because he or she is the boss. This degree of inequality is measured by the power distance scale, which runs from 0 (the smallest power distance) to 100 (the largest power distance). According to Hofstede's empirical research in 53 nations, the United States showed lower scores (rating = 40, rank = 38) than South Korea (rating = 60, rank = 27). Table 4 shows the characteristics of managers and workers affected by the degree of power distance in the two respective societies.

Table 4. Work-Related Values Affected by Power Distance

Low Power Distance (The United States)	High Power Distance (South Korea)
Less centralization	Greater centralization
Flatter organization pyramids	Steep organization pyramids
Managers seen as making decisions after consulting with subordinates	Managers seen as making decisions autocratically and paternalistically
Close supervision negatively evaluated by subordinates	Close supervision positively evaluated by subordinates
Managers like to see themselves as practical and systematic	Managers like to see themselves as benevolent decision-makers
Higher-educated employees hold fewer authoritarian values than lower-educated ones	Higher- and lower-educated employees hold similar values about authority

Note. Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Individualism

Individualism is a concern for oneself as an individual as opposed to collectivism which is oriented respectively toward the priorities and rules of the group to which one belongs. People in societies where the interests of the individual are dominant tend to classify themselves and others by individual characteristics rather than by group membership. The United States had the highest individualism score among 53 nations, but South Korea acquired one of the lowest scores in Hofstede's research. Table 5 illustrates the basic

values of managers and workers in a contrasting pair of societies, e.g., the United States and South Korea.

Table 5. Work-Related Values Affected by Individualism

High Individualism (The United States)	Low Individualism (South Korea)
Involvement of individuals with organizations primarily calculative	Involvement of individuals with organizations primarily moral
Organizations are not expected to look after employees from the cradle to the grave	Employees expect organizations to look after them like family
Organization has moderate influence on members' well-being	Organization has great influence on members' well-being
Employees are expected to defend their own interests	Employees expect organization to defend their interests
Promotion from inside and outside, and based on market value	Promotion from inside and based on seniority
Managers try to be up-to-date and endorse modern management ideas	Less concern with fashion in management ideas
Policies and practices apply to all	Policies and practices vary according to relations
Belief in individual decisions	Belief in group decisions
Emphasis on individual initiative and achievement; leadership ideal	Emphasis on belonging to organization; membership ideal
Everyone has a right to a private life and his/her opinion	Private life is invaded by organizations and clans

Note. Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Uncertainty avoidance

Uncertainty avoidance is the lack of tolerance for ambiguity and the need for formal rules. This dimension measures the extent to which people in a society feel threatened by and try to avoid ambiguous situations. They may do this by establishing more formal rules, rejecting deviant ideas and behaviors, and accepting the possibility of absolute truths and the attainment of unchangeable expertise (Hoecklin, 1995).

Lifetime employment is more common in high uncertainty avoidance countries such as Japan, Portugal, and Greece, whereas a high degree of job mobility is more common in low uncertainty avoidance countries such as Singapore, Denmark, and the United States (Adler, 1986). The United States ranked 43rd with 46 percentile, while South Korea ranked 16th with 85 percentile in Hofstede's study. Table 6 describes typical characteristics of the workplace in a low uncertainty avoidance society (United States) and a high uncertainty avoidance society (South Korea). Finally, Appendix F illustrates integrally where the United States and South Korea place in each of Hofstede's cultural dimensions.

Table 6. Work-Related Values Affected by Uncertainty Avoidance

Low Uncertainty Avoidance (The United States)	High Uncertainty Avoidance (South Korea)
Greater readiness to live by the day	More worry about the future
Less emotional resistance to change	More emotional resistance to change
Less hesitation to change employers	Tendency to stay with same employer
Loyalty to employer is not seen as a virtue	Loyalty to employer is seen as a virtue
Managers should be selected on criteria other than seniority	Managers should be selected on the basis of seniority
More risk-taking	Less risk-taking
Hope of success	Fear of failure
A manager need not be an expert in the field he or she manages	A manager must be an expert in the field he or she manages
Conflict in organization is natural	Conflict in organization is undesirable
Delegation to subordinates can be complete	Initiative of subordinates should be kept under control
Rules may be broken for pragmatic reasons	Rules should not be broken

Note. Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Individual Attributes

The second independent variable, individual attributes, consists of the following four indices, which was modified from Cross' research (1995): (1) individual coping strategies, (2) relationships with foreign counterparts (3) previous foreign experience, and (4) length of residence in the host country. In her pioneering study, Cross examined differences in the individualism and collectivism of American and East Asian students and the influence of these cultural factors on cross-cultural adaptation. Cross particularly suggested the several key elements, such as coping methods, satisfaction with relationships, and perceived stress, are measures of the degree of cross-cultural adjustment. Her implications are also comparable to those of earlier cross-cultural studies (Armes & Ward, 1989; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Kealey, 1989; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992).

First, individual coping methods were measured to examine their effects on expatriates' adjustment. An expatriate worker who applies a prevalent coping method in the host nation might show high adaptability. For example, in individualistic cultures, where personal uniqueness and self-expression are stressed, the individual's own efforts, e.g., taking direct action, confronting others, or speaking up on one's own behalf, might be recommended for overcoming a difficult situation. However, in collectivistic cultures, in which individual wishes and goals are expected to be subordinated to group goals, direct coping strategies would threaten this

implicit norm in relationships and direct actions may be viewed as immature or selfish; thus, indirect coping strategies are likely to be effective (Cross, 1995). Therefore, the expatriate worker's adaptation to the host country depends on what coping strategy the worker uses.

Cross (1995) considered only direct coping methods because the purpose of her study was constrained to aid Asian students' adaptation to the American culture in which direct coping is more common. However, this study examined various types coping strategies because no empirical study specifically demonstrates what coping methods are prevalent among American expatriates in South Korea and Korean expatriates in the United States.

Individual expatriates' coping methods were measured by using items from the Carver, Scheier, and Weintraub's (1989) COPE scales, which assess a wide variety of coping responses. Carver et al. (1989) reported that the COPE scales showed high test-retest reliability: Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for 13 out of 14 coping dimensions were over .6.

The expatriate workers in this study indicated how often they engage in each coping strategy using a four-point scale (1 = *I didn't do this at all . . .* 4 = *I did this a lot*). The items used in the coping measure are as follows:⁵

⁵ The items that showed the highest loading score in each COPE category were mainly applied to this study (Carver et al., 1989). In the category of seeking social support for instrumental reasons, seeking social support for emotional reasons, acceptance, turning to religion, and denial, however, second or third highest loading-scored items were selected. The highest loading-scored items in these four dimensions seemed to be inconsistent with Korean views or hard to attain appropriate translation into Korean.

- I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem (active coping).
- I try to come up with a strategy about what to do (planning).
- I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on this (suppression of competing activities).
- I force myself to wait for the right time to do something (restraint coping).
- I try to get advice from someone about what to do (seeking social support for instrumental reasons).
- I discuss my feelings with someone (seeking social support for emotional reasons).
- I look for something good in what is happening (positive reinterpretation).
- I accept that this has happened and that it can't be changed (acceptance).
- I try to find comfort in my religion (turning to religion).
- I get upset and let my emotions out (focus and venting of emotions).
- I pretend that it hasn't really happened (denial).
- I give up getting what I want (behavior disengagement).
- I turn to work or other substitute activities to take my mind off things (mental disengagement).
- I drink alcohol or take drugs, in order to think about it less (alcohol/drug disengagement).

Second, the influence of relationships with foreign counterparts on expatriates' adjustment was investigated. The assessment of 11 items in Table 3, based on the findings of the first-stage study in Chapter III, was

conducted as one of the independent variables which affect the expatriate's adaptation to the host culture. Respondents were asked to respond to each statement using a five-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree* . . . 5 = *strongly agree*). A different scale was employed for the item dealing with the communication barrier (1 = *very poor* . . . 5 = *very good*).

Third, previous foreign experience was assessed by the number of foreign countries in which an expatriate had worked in before he or she was assigned to the current nations, i.e., the United States or South Korea. Finally, the length of residence in the host country was obtained to examine the correlation between the duration of working in the foreign country and the degree of the expatriate's adjustment.

Community and Work Organization

In terms of community relations, Cross (1995) asked American and East Asian students the extent to which they were satisfied with social aspects of their graduate experience at the university. Two social factors—relationships with others from one's home country and friendships with host country nationals—were particularly considered to predict cross-cultural adjustment (Cross, 1995; Furnham, 1988).

Co-nationals are likely to provide expatriate workers friendship, a reference group, and support for the expatriates' identity and values (Adelman, 1988; Bochner, 1986; Boyer & Sedlacek, 1988). However, these

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enclaves of co-nationals sometimes restrict interactions with people from the host culture. Relationships with host nationals have predicted successful adjustment for newcomers in many studies (Church, 1982; Furnham, 1988; Kealey, 1989; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1993). As noted in Chapter II, friendships with host country nationals generally provide the expatriates with opportunities to learn more about the culture, gain practical information, and develop social skills. Therefore, this study examined the association between community relationships with people from the sojourner's home country as well as relationships with host country nationals. In addition to expatriates' community relations, this study also investigated the degree to which pre-departure training provided by work organization influenced expatriates' adaptation to overseas assignments.

Family Members

An important factor is how satisfied the expatriate's family members—his or her spouse and children—are with the host country (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Black et al., 1992; Fontaine, 1997; Grove & Hallowell, 1997; Takeuchi & Hannon; 1996). In particular, Black and Stephens (1989) argued that one of the most common reasons for the failure to complete international assignments is the problem of adjustment of one's spouse and family. Thus, this study asked American and Korean expatriates the following items with a 5-point scale (1 = *not at all satisfied* . . . 5 = *very satisfied*).

- How satisfied are you with your social relationships with people from your country?
- How satisfied are you with your work-related relationships with foreign counterparts?
- If you are living with your spouse in the United States (or South Korea), how satisfied would you say he/she is with living in this country?
- If you are living with children in the United States (or South Korea), how satisfied would you say they are with living in this country?

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study is “the degree of cross-cultural adaptation in overseas assignments.” As in Cross’ study (1995), the extent of expatriates’ adjustment was suggested to be measured by the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) (Cohen, Kamarck, & Mermelstein, 1983). This scale measures respondents’ appraisals of the stress from their current life situations in fairly global terms. Cohen and his colleagues have found that the PSS has high test-retest reliability (.85 over a two week period) and is a significant predictor of outcomes such as depression, social anxiety, and illness.

The PSS consists of the following items that ask respondents about their feelings and thoughts during the last month.

- How often have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?

- How often have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?
- How often have you felt nervous and “stressed”?
- How often have you dealt successfully with irritating life hassles?*
- How often have you felt that you were effectively coping with important changes that were occurring in your life? *
- How often have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems? *
- How often have you felt that things were going your way? *
- How often have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?
- How often have you been able to control irritations in your life? *
- How often have you felt that you were on top of things? *
- How often have you been angered because of things that happened that were outside of your control?
- How often have you found yourself thinking about things that you have to accomplish?
- How often have you been able to control the way you spend your time? *
- How often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?

Meanwhile, this study asked the expatriate workers to respond these

14 items with one of the following alternatives:

1. rarely or none of the time
2. some of the time

3. occasionally or a moderate amount of the time
4. fairly often
5. most or all of the time

PSS scores were obtained by reversing the scores on the seven positive items, e.g., 1 = 4, 2 = 3, 3 = 2, 4 = 1, 5 = 0, and then summing across 14 items. Items marked “*”, i.e., 4th, 5th, 6th, 7th, 9th, 10th, and 13th, are the positively stated items. Finally, the total PSS scores were divided by 14 to gain the mean stress levels of individual expatriates.

Socio-Economic Status (SES) Characteristics

At the end of the questionnaire, respondents were asked for socio-demographic information, such as age, sex, marital status, job status, educational level, and their length of employment. Existing studies have demonstrated that these factors often predict the level of success of the newcomer’s adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Searle & Ward, 1990; Takeuchi & Hannon, 1996; Ward & Kennedy, 1992).

To measure the general non-work adjustment, the expatriates were also asked to indicate social service needs in overseas assignments. In addition, background data questions included spouses’ language proficiency and job-related information in the host country. Finally, Table 7 summarizes the hypotheses of the present study.

Table 7. Research Hypotheses and Related Issues

Hypothesis	Dimension	Level of Issues
1. The expatriate workers' adaptation to the host country will be directly related to his or her cultural attributes, such as the degree of individualism, power distance, and uncertainty avoidance.	National culture	Country
2. (a) The American expatriate workers will represent low power distance, low uncertainty avoidance, and high individualism. (b) The Korean expatriate workers will represent high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, and low individualism.	National culture	Country
3. American employees working in South Korea (a homogeneous society) are more likely to experience stress than Korean employees in the United States (a heterogeneous society).	Stress	Individual
4. The expatriates' cross-cultural adaptation is likely to depend on the types of coping methods they apply in daily life.	Coping methods	Individual
5. Cultural adjustment by the expatriate worker will be directly related to his or her work attitudes toward foreign counterparts.	Relationship with foreign counterparts	Individual
6. The extent to which the expatriate worker adapts to the host culture tends to be positively related to the number of countries in which he or she has previous worked.	Previous foreign experience	Individual
7. The longer foreign employees live in the host country, the more likely they are to adjust to the host culture.	Length of residence	Individual

Table 7 (cont'd).

Hypothesis	Dimension	Level of Issues
8. The more cross-cultural training the expatriate worker has had before he or she is assigned, the more he or she adjusts to the host culture.	Cross-cultural training	Organization
9. The expatriate worker who becomes more involved in the host country community, is more likely to adjust to the host culture than one who interacts mainly with others from his or her home country.	Community interaction	Community
10. The degree of adjustment of the expatriate worker is likely to be positively related to whether his or her spouse has a favorable attitude toward the overseas assignment.	Family attitudes	Family
11. Expatriate workers whose families must stay behind in the home country are less likely to adjust to the host country than workers whose families accompany them.	Family back home	Family

Instrument

To reach the objectives of the current research, a survey questionnaire and personal interviews with both American and Korean expatriate workers were conducted. A self-administered questionnaire was used in the study as the method of measurement. The expatriates were often expected to express personal feelings about their supervisors, foreign counterparts, and even if they used alcohol and/or drugs to cope with stressful circumstances. This self-administered questionnaire is more appropriate than any other survey methods in asking such sensitive questions (Rossi, Wright, & Anderson, 1983). To increase the validity and reliability of the data, the back-translation skills were applied for Korean version; to be translated first into Korean and then to be translated back into English. Although face-to-face interviews were also conducted with some executives or managers in automobile makers, the interviews were limited to collect general information regarding the automobile industry in the United States and South Korea and overall situations of expatriate work settings. Finally, Table 8 summarizes the nature of questionnaire used for this study.

Table 8. General Categories on Questionnaire and Related Items

Category	Level of Issue	Description	Adjustment	Items
Individualism	Country	Challenge, training, physical condition, freedom, use of skills, personal time	N/A	1-6
Power distance	Country	Preferred mgr. type, perceived mgr. type, afraid of expression	N/A	7, 8, 20
Uncertainty avoidance	Country	Tension, rule orientation, intention to stay	N/A	19, 21, Part II: 15
Relationship with foreign counterparts	Work organization	Misunderstanding of social customs, lack of open communication, reliability, discrimination, etc.	Work & interaction	9-18
Perceived stress	Individual	Perceived Stress Scale	Work & general	22-35
Coping method	Individual	COPE Scale	General	36-49
Interaction	Community	Relationships with host-nationals/co-nationals	Work & interaction	50-51
Satisfaction	Individual & family	Family satisfaction	Interaction & general	52-53
Problems/Service needs	Individual	Expatriate's problems/needs in living in a foreign country	General	54-55

Table 8 (cont'd).

Category	Level of Issue	Description	Adjustment	Items
Demographics	Individual & family	Age, sex, race, education, marital status, nationality, no. of children, etc.	N/A	Part II: 1-10
Occupational background	Individual, family, & work organization	Employment, job status, length of time spent abroad, pre-departure training, spouse's job information, etc.	Work	Part II: 11-14, 16-24

Chapter V

FINDINGS

In the second stage of the dissertation research, useful data were gathered for testing 11 hypotheses. All of these hypotheses were presented in Chapter IV. With a series of tests on the relationships between independent and dependent variables based on the data from the questionnaire survey and interviews, demographic characteristics of the sample (N = 229) were analyzed: 101 American expatriate workers and 128 Korean expatriate workers.

The 11 hypotheses were grouped into four categories: those hypotheses regarding (1) national culture (two hypotheses), (2) individual expatriate workers (five hypotheses), (3) organization and community (two hypotheses), and (4) the expatriates' families (two hypotheses).

For the tests of the first two hypotheses regarding national culture, the present study examined the differences of cultural attributes between the American group and the Korean group respectively in three dimensions, namely, power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism, as classified by Hofstede (1980). The effects of these dimensions on the expatriates' cross-cultural adaptation were investigated.

Second, this study hypothesized and then carefully examined if the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriate workers was influenced by personal inclinations or backgrounds, i.e., coping methods, relationships with foreign counterparts, previous foreign experience, and length of residence in the host country. Stress levels of each comparison group were additionally assessed and compared with each other.

Third, the effects of both pre-departure training in the work organization and the expatriates' interactions with the community on the cross-cultural adjustment were analyzed. This study assumed that the expatriates were likely to be involved in three types of community interactions, i.e., expatriates-oriented, host nationals-oriented, and almost balanced with both expatriates and nationals.

Finally, the degree to which family members affect the expatriates' adjustment to overseas assignments was investigated. This study particularly focused on the influence of spouses' and/or children's attitudes toward the host country as well as the expatriates' concerns over family members back home to the expatriates' adaptation.

In order to carry out the above analyses, various statistical methodologies were applied, including frequency analysis, t-tests, correlation analysis, factor analysis, analysis of variance (ANOVA), multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA), linear, multiple, and logistic regression

analyses. To test each hypothesis, data on relevant variables were analyzed, using one or more of these statistical methods.

Analysis of Demographic Characteristics

Participants were asked for basic background information about themselves. Both American respondents (N = 101) and Korean respondents (N = 128) were predominantly male, married, middle-aged, middle-class, and well-educated. Table 9 summarizes socio-economic factors of both the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates. About 94% of American respondents and 97% of Korean respondents were male (95.6% for both groups). Approximately 87% of all respondents were married and 92% of these couples had married prior to being assigned to the current foreign country. Solomon's (1994) study revealed that 90% of the expatriates were male and 78% were married.

The age range was larger in the American group, with eight respondents 29 years or younger; 29 were between 30 and 39 years, 25 were between 40 and 49 years, 36 were between 50 and 59 years, and three were 60 years or older. In the Korean group, four were 29 years or younger, 77 were in the 30-39 age group, 45 were in the 40-49 age group, and two belonged to the 50-59 age category. No Korean respondents was 60 years or older. According to t-tests between the two comparison groups—the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates—on the average, American

expatriates working in South Korea were older than Korean expatriates in the United States ($t = 5.36$; $df = 146.25$; $p < .001$).

Among the Americans, about 70% were whites, 26% were Asian Americans or Pacific Islanders, 2% were blacks or African-Americans, and 3% were Hispanic Americans. A large portion of those surveyed were skewed to the ethnic composition of Asian Americans or Pacific Islanders, and this strongly suggests that American multinational corporations tend to consider the ethnicity of employees in assigning their expatriate workers. Korean expatriate workers, comprised only of ethnic Koreans, were not asked to identify their racial background.

About 95% of the Americans and about 99% of the Koreans had completed baccalaureate or post-baccalaureate education. However, the overall educational attainment of the Americans ($M = 2.56$, $SD = .71$) was higher than that of Koreans ($M = 2.19$, $SD = .45$), $t = 4.64$, $df = 159.83$, $p < .001$. Forty-six out of 101 Americans had master's degrees (45.5%) and eight had doctoral degrees (7.9%), while 21 out of 128 Koreans had master's degrees (16.4%) and two had doctoral degrees (1.6%).

Table 9. Socio-Demographic Characteristics of American Expatriates (N = 101)
and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	American Expatriates		Korean Expatriates	
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>
Sex				
Male	95.0	94.1	124.0	96.9
Female	6.0	5.9	4.0	3.1
Age				
29 or younger	8.0	7.9	4.0	3.1
30-39	29.0	28.7	77.0	60.2
40-49	25.0	24.8	45.0	35.2
50-59	36.0	35.6	2.0	1.6
60 or older	3.0	3.0	.0	.0
Race				
White/Caucasian	70.0	69.3	—	—
Black/Afro-American	2.0	2.0	—	—
Latino/Hispanic	3.0	3.0	—	—
Asian/Pacific Islander	26.0	25.7	—	—
Marital Status				
Never married	15.0	14.9	5.0	3.9
Married	76.0	75.2	123.0	96.1
Widowed	1.0	1.0	.0	.0
Divorced	6.0	5.9	.0	.0
Separated	3.0	3.0	.0	.0
Education				
High school or below	5.0	5.0	1.0	.8
Bachelor's degree	42.0	41.6	104.0	81.3
Master's degree	46.0	45.5	21.0	16.4
Doctoral degree	8.0	7.9	2.0	1.6
Religion				
Catholic	32.0	31.7	50.0	39.1
Protestant	43.0	42.6	8.0	6.3
Buddhist	6.0	5.9	23.0	18.0
No religion	14.0	13.9	45.0	35.2
Others	6.0	5.9	2.0	1.6

Table 9 (cont'd).

No. of children				
None	21.0	21.0	11.0	8.6
One	18.0	18.0	21.0	16.4
Two	38.0	38.0	91.0	71.1
Three	14.0	14.0	5.0	3.9
Four or more	9.0	9.0	.0	.0
No. of children in host country				
None	64.0	64.0	12.0	9.4
One	12.0	12.0	20.0	15.6
Two	17.0	17.0	91.0	71.1
Three	5.0	5.0	5.0	3.9
Four or more	2.0	2.0	.0	.0
Employment				
Full-time	99.0	99.0	127.0	100.0
Part-time	1.0	1.0	.0	.0
Job classification				
(Office-related)				
Executive	50.0	50.0	12.0	9.4
Manager	28.0	28.0	86.0	67.7
Supervisor	1.0	1.0	11.0	8.7
Recognized expert	2.0	2.0	4.0	3.1
Professional	12.0	12.0	3.0	2.4
Entry professional	3.0	3.0	8.0	6.3
(Plant-related)				
Plant manager	3.0	3.0	1.0	.8
Production mgr.	.0	.0	.0	.0
Superintendent	.0	.0	.0	.0
General supervisor	.0	.0	2.0	1.6
Supvr. /group leader	1.0	1.0	.0	.0
Skilled trades	.0	.0	.0	.0
Length of employment				
Less than 2 yrs.	11.0	11.0	3.0	2.4
2 yrs. – less than 5 yrs.	17.0	17.0	6.0	4.7
5 yrs. – less than 10 yrs.	10.0	10.0	29.0	22.8
10 yrs. – less than 20 yrs	29.0	29.0	83.0	65.4
20 or more years	33.0	33.0	6.0	4.7

Note. N = 229; % is based on valid percentage which excludes missing data.

Overall, Catholics comprised the largest number of church attendees (35.8%), followed by Protestants (22.3%). However, more Protestants (42.6%) than Catholics (31.7%) were among American expatriates, whereas Catholics (39.1%) were the largest religious group among Korean expatriates, followed by Buddhists (18%) and Protestants (6.3%). In the case of the Koreans, this distinction of church attendance by religion appears atypical, compared to a recent study of Korean religions which found that 49.3% of the Korean population were Buddhist, 34.8% were Protestant, and 10.5% were Catholic (Han, 1993).

Although there was no significant difference in the number of children between the two comparison groups, the number of children brought to the host country was statistically different ($t = -8.26$; $df = 163.11$; $p < .001$). Almost half of the American expatriates who had children did not bring them to South Korea, while almost all Korean expatriate workers brought their children to the United States.

Regardless of nationality, nearly all the expatriates were full-time employees and were assigned to management duties rather than production-related work. Regarding job status, several differences were worth noting between the two comparison groups. American corporations assigned a relatively large number of executives to South Korea (50 out of 101), compared to Korean companies (12 out of 128). The American expatriates working in professional fields also outnumbered the Korean expatriates.

However, the number of American managers assigned to Korean subsidiaries was approximately one-third of the Korean managers assigned to the United States. About 28% of the American expatriates and 7% of the Korean expatriates had worked for less than five years (including the time they spent in the host country), but this difference was not statistically significant ($t = -.61$; $df = 143.73$; $p = .54$). Table 10 shows data on socio-economic status of the two comparison groups.

Table 10. Means on Socio-Economic Status of American Expatriates (N = 101) and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	American Workers		Korean Workers		t-test	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Sex	1.06	.24	1.03	.17	178.01	1.00
Age	2.97	1.04	2.35	.57	146.15	5.36***
Race	1.85	1.32	—	—	—	—
Marital status	2.07	.82	1.96	.19	109.01	1.31
Education	2.56	.71	2.19	.45	159.83	4.64***
Religion	2.20	1.20	2.54	1.36	224.01	-2.02*
No. of children	2.72	1.21	2.70	.68	147.15	.13
No. of children in host country	1.68	1.05	2.70	.69	163.11	-8.26
Employment	1.01	1.00	1.00	.00	99.00	1.00
Job classification						
(Office-related)						
Executive	1.50	.50	1.91	.29	150.83	-7.16***
Manager	1.72	.45	1.32	.47	225.00	6.44***
Supervisor	1.99	.10	1.91	.28	164.04	2.84**
Recog. expert	1.88	.14	1.97	.18	225.00	.53
Professional	1.88	.33	1.98	.15	132.82	-2.73**
Entry prof.	1.97	.17	1.94	.24	222.33	1.20
(Plant-related)						
Plant mgr.	1.97	.17	1.99	8.87	140.27	-1.17
Prod. mgr.	2.00	.00	2.00	.00	—	—
Supt.	2.00	.00	2.00	.00	—	—
Genl. supvr.	2.00	.00	1.98	.12	126.00	1.42
Supvr./group leader	1.99	1.00	2.00	.00	99.00	-1.00

Table 10 (cont'd).

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	American Workers		Korean Workers		t-test	
	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	<u>df</u>	<u>t</u>
Job classification (Plant-related)						
Skilled trades	2.00	.00	2.00	.00	—	—
Length of employment	3.56	1.39	3.65	.75	143.73	-.61

Note. * $p < .05$., ** $p < .01$., *** $p < .001$.

Testing Hypotheses

National Culture

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis posits that American expatriate workers and Korean expatriate workers respectively are likely to represent unique cultural attributes in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism: Americans tend to show lower power distance, lower uncertainty avoidance, and higher individualism, while Koreans tend to represent higher power distance, higher uncertainty avoidance, and lower individualism. Because cultural difference is a relative concept, the differences between the comparison groups would probably be a matter of expressing a “more or less” tendency, or a matter of degree.

To measure national differences in power distance, the current study followed an equation of Power Distance Index (PDI) which was used in the Hofstede study (1980). PDI values were computed on the basis of the country’s mean scores for the following three questions⁵:

- (a) Non-managerial employees’ perception that employees are afraid to disagree with their managers (Question no. 20)
- (b) Subordinates’ perception that their boss tends to make decisions in an autocratic (1) or persuasive/paternalistic (2) way (Question no. 8)
- (c) Subordinates’ preference for anything but a consultative (3) style of decision-making by their boss (Question no. 7)

⁵ Actual questions used to attain the PDI are listed in Appendix G.

To compute the country's PDI, Hofstede employed mean percent values for items (b) and (c) as shown in the following equation. Mean scores for item (a) were applied as well; they were multiplied by 25 to make their range roughly equal to the extent in percentage values of items (b) and (c). In addition, the constant 135 was added to give the country's index values a range between zero (smallest power distance) and 100 (largest power distance). The actual formula used was:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{PDI} = & 135 - 25 (\text{mean score of "afraid to disagree (a)"} \\ & + (\text{percentage of "perceived mgr. (b)"} 1 + 2) \\ & - (\text{percentage of "preferred mgr. (c)"} 3) \end{aligned} \quad (1)$$

According to the result of the computation of the PDI values for the comparison groups, Korean expatriate workers represented considerably higher power distance (PDI = 73.8) than American expatriate workers (PDI = 41.9). PDI scores of the two groups obtained from this study were fairly similar to PDI scores of South Korea (60) and the United States (40) reported in Hofstede's study (1980). A difference of 13.8 between the two PDI scores of South Korea might not be considered a large one. The occurrence of larger PDI values among the Korean workers suggests that the Korean hierarchical system might be based on some pre-existing inequality; managers believe they are entitled to certain privileges, and subordinates tend to be initiated only by managers. Smaller power distance situations among the American workers suggest that the hierarchical system in the United States is likely to

be established for convenience, and that it may change depending on the circumstances. In this system, managers and subordinates tend to consider each other as more equal (Hoecklin, 1995).

The Uncertainty Avoidance Index (UAI) for each of the two groups was compiled on the basis of the mean scores for the following three questions (Hofstede, 1980)⁶:

- (a) Rule orientation: Agreement with the statement “Company rules should not be broken—even when the employee thinks it is in the company’s best interest” (Question no. 21)
- (b) Employment stability: Employees’ statement that they intend to continue with the company (1) for two years at most, or (2) from two to five years (Question no. 15—Part B)
- (c) Stress, as expressed in the mean answer to the question “How often do you feel nervous or tense at work?” (Question no. 19).

The actual computation of the UAI values used mean percent scores for item (b), and mean scores for items (a) and (c) as shown in the following equation. These mean scores were multiplied by 30 for item (a) and 40 for item (c) to make their range, and thus their contribution to the UAI was roughly equal to the range in percentage values of question (b). Additionally, the constant 300 was used to provide a range for the country’s index values between eight (lowest uncertainty avoidance) and 112 (highest uncertainty avoidance). The formula applied was:

⁶ Actual questions used to attain the UAI are listed in Appendix G.

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{UAI} = & 300 - 30 (\text{mean score of "rule orientation (a)"} \\
 & - (\text{percentage of "intending to stay less than 5 years (b)"} \\
 & \quad 1 + 2) \\
 & - 40 (\text{mean score of "stress (c)"} \quad (2)
 \end{aligned}$$

The result of an analysis using the above formula indicated that the UAI score (71.9) of the Korean expatriates was substantially higher than that of the American expatriates (17.1). Although the score on the Korean expatriates in the present study was close to Hofstede's score on South Korea (85) with only a small difference, the score on the American expatriates was considerably lower than his score (46). This result suggests that Korean workers are likely to feel threatened and try to avoid ambiguous situations more actively than American workers. Koreans may do this by establishing more formal rules, rejecting deviant ideas and behaviors, and by accepting the possibility of absolute truths and attempting to attain unchallengeable expertise (Hoecklin, 1995). Lifetime employment, one of the major phenomena in a society where high uncertainty avoidance applies, tended to be more common among the Korean workers than the American workers, but this difference was not statistically significant ($\underline{M}$ [Koreans] = 3.06, $\underline{SD}$ = .92; $\underline{M}$ [Americans] = 2.83, $\underline{SD}$ = 3.06; $\underline{t}$ = -1.65, $\underline{df}$ = 178.49, $\underline{p}$ < .09).

Hofstede's Individualism Index (INV) values are based on the result of a factor analysis of the 14 "work goals" items identified in his survey. For the present study, six out of the 14 items, which represented the highest loading scores, were carefully selected. In the Hofstede study, the loadings of the

items indicate the correlation coefficients across the 40 countries of which he investigated the linkage between the factor score and the country's mean score for each "work goal" question. He maintained that the Individual Index was strongly related to these six items among his 14 questions. For this study, the computation of the INV scores was not applicable due to the differences in the numbers of items that were used in the Hofstede study.

Although specific Individualism Index scores were not measured, it was found that the American expatriates represented somewhat higher individualism ($\underline{M} = 4.04$, $\underline{SD} = .43$) than the Korean expatriates ($\underline{M} = 3.98$, $\underline{SD} = .54$), but this difference was not statistically significant. However, when the scores of foreign-born Americans were controlled, the mean score of the American expatriate group increased up to 4.16 ($\underline{SD} = .36$) and this was significantly different from the mean score of the Korean expatriate group ($t = 2.27$, $df = .02$, $p < .05$). This result suggests that American workers are likely to identify themselves and their co-workers by individual characteristics, rather than group membership. They are also likely to pursue their own goals even when they conflict with the company's best interest. For Korean workers, however, the interests of the group usually take precedence over the interests of the individual.

In conclusion, the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates substantially differed in their dimensions of power distance and uncertainty avoidance; the Americans represented a considerably lower degree of power

distance and uncertainty avoidance than the Koreans. Only when scores on foreign-born Americans were controlled did the degree of individualism among the American workers turn out to be higher than the Korean workers.

Hypothesis 2

The present study hypothesized that cultural adaptation by expatriate workers might be directly related to their cultural attributes in the areas of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. The assessment of the extent to which the expatriates adjusted to the host country was based on their perceived stress levels.

The result of an analysis of variance suggested significant differences in the interaction between the expatriates' perceived stress level and their unique characteristics in the three cultural dimensions. As illustrated on Table 11, the combined effects of the three cultural attributes as well as respective cultural dimensions were all statistically significant.

Table 11. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) for Perceived Stress by Cultural Dimension

Variable	SS	MS	F	P
Power distance	3.704	1.235	6.91	.001
Uncertainty avoidance	1.998	.666	3.73	.012
Individualism	2.096	.699	3.91	.010
(All variables combined)	8.280	.920	5.15	.001

In the breakdown of the sample, the degree to which the American expatriates represented power distance was positively associated with stress they experienced in South Korea, while the degree of uncertainty avoidance of the Korean workers was most likely to affect a high level of stress in the United States. The result of the linear regression analysis of perceived stress in the comparison groups is presented in Table 12.

This suggests that expatriate workers from a low power distance society (the United States) tend to have more difficulties in adjusting to a high power distance society (South Korea), than expatriates who are assigned to a low power distance society from a high power distance society, as in the case of the Koreans. Likewise, expatriate workers who show high uncertainty avoidance are likely to face difficulties more often when they are

Table 12. Linear Regression of Perceived Stress by Power Distance (Americans) and Uncertainty Avoidance (Koreans)

Variable	American Expatriates			Korean Expatriates		
	<u>B</u>	β	<u>t</u>	<u>B</u>	β	<u>t</u>
Power distance	.137 (.058)	.234	2.337*	—	—	—
Uncertainty avoidance	—	—	—	.151 (.057)	.232	2.629**
(All variables combined)	1.337 (.138)	—	9.704***	1.637 (.180)	—	9.081***

Note. The standard error is shown in parenthesis following B. For American expatriates, Perceived Stress (Y) = 1.337 + .234 (Power Distance); for Korean expatriates, Perceived Stress (Y) = 1.637 + .232 (Uncertainty Avoidance). * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

assigned to a low uncertainty avoidance nation (the United States), than expatriates who show low uncertainty avoidance but work in a high uncertainty avoidance society (South Korea), as in the case of the Americans.

Individual Expatriate Workers

Hypothesis 3

This study hypothesized that American employees are likely to experience more stress when they work in South Korea (a homogeneous society) than Korean employees working in the United States (a heterogeneous society), but this hypothesis was not tenable. A close analysis of the data showed that the stress levels of the Korean workers were higher than those of the American workers, suggesting this difference was statistically significant ($\underline{M}$ [Koreans] = 2.09, $\underline{SD}$ = .40; $\underline{M}$ [Americans] = 1.63, $\underline{SD}$ = .41; $t = -8.54$, $df = 224$, $p < .001$).

This finding of the present study does not correspond to the Laurent assumption (1983), which specifies that expatriate workers originally from a heterogeneous culture are more likely to have difficulties in adjustment when they are assigned to a homogeneous society, than expatriate workers from a homogeneous culture to a heterogeneous society.

Hypothesis 4

The fourth hypothesis posits that the expatriates' cross-cultural adaptation is likely to depend on the types of coping methods they apply in daily life. The correlation between coping methods and stress, and mean score of stress are presented in Table 13 (for the American expatriates) and Table 14 (for the Korean expatriates). In general, strategic planning that the expatriates applied to difficult situations was suggested to be effective in reducing stress levels, but venting of emotions, denial, behavioral disengagement, and alcohol and/or drug disengagement were suggested to negatively affect the expatriates' stress levels

Direct coping strategies, which were indicated by a combination of active coping and planning by Cross (1995), were not suggested to be effective in reducing stress levels of the American expatriates. For the Korean expatriates, combined direct coping strategy effects of active coping and planning were not statistically significant, either: $F(5, 120) = 1.87, p < .11$. However, when direct coping methods were broken down into active coping and planning, and then compared, planning emerged as the strongest predictor for alleviating stress for the Korean expatriates in the United States ($B = -.108, p < .026$).

Table 13. Means and Correlation Matrix of Coping Methods and Perceived Stress:
American Expatriate Workers

Variable	M	SD	Stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
Stress	1.63	.41	—													
Coping Method																
1. Active coping	3.20	.65	.10	—												
2. Planning	3.35	.61	.05	.36**	—											
3. Suppression	2.70	.64	.13	.34**	.45**	—										
4. Restraining	2.43	.79	-.05	.09	.25*	.06	—									
5. Seeking social support (instr.)	2.65	.67	.20*	.14	.18	.13	-.30**	—								
6. Seeking social support (emotion)	.44	.75	.65	.19	.17	.11	.36**	.46**	—							
7. Reinterpretation	2.85	.82	-.04	.23*	.35*	.26*	.24*	.20*	.19	—						
8. Acceptance	2.24	.88	-.08	.02	.09	.07	.11	-.03	.05	.41**	—					
9. Religion	2.09	1.04	-.05	.20*	.17	.31*	.27*	.26**	.08	.30**	.19	—				
10. Venting emotion	1.93	.71	.21*	-.01	.29**	.11	.12	.16	.23*	.14	.09	.21*	—			
11. Denial	1.33	.66	-.07	.03	-.01	.11	.17	.21*	.17	.15	.16	.22*	.18	—		
12. Behav. disengage.	1.59	.61	.33**	-.04	.13	-.01	.23*	.21*	.23*	.10	.13	.11	.24*	.30**	—	
13. Mental disengage.	2.15	.75	.21*	.04	.13	.07	.06	.08	.03	.22*	.19	.21*	.28**	.26**	.35**	—
14. Alcohol/drug usage	1.32	.53	.15	.08	.12	-.04	-.04	.06	.10	.09	.03	-.11	.03	.02	.17	-.02

*p < .05., **p < .01.

Table 14. Means and Correlation Matrix of Coping Methods and Perceived Stress:
Korean Expatriate Workers

Variable	<u>M</u>	<u>SD</u>	Stress	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	1	12	13
Stress	2.09	.40	—													
Coping Method																
1. Active coping	2.85	.59	-.08	—												
2. Planning	2.85	.73	-.20*	.48**	—											
3. Suppression	2.54	.76	-.08	.25**	.15	—										
4. Restraining	2.45	.69	-.01	-.01	.04	.05	—									
5. Seeking social support (instr.)	2.66	.67	.10	.09	.15	.08	-.04	—								
6. Seeking social support (emotion)	2.49	.75	-.06	.10	.09	.08	-.10	.54**	—							
7. Reinterpretation	3.05	.71	-.08	.23*	.17	.08	.21*	.12	.18*	—						
8. Acceptance	2.13	.67	.19*	-.03	-.10	.13	.07	.10	-.05	.17	—					
9. Religion	1.91	1.07	-.13	.03	.17	-.01	.00	.00	.03	.21*	.15	—				
10. Venting emotion	2.12	.68	.01	.00	-.01	.03	.01	.19**	.22*	-.05	-.05	.06	—			
11. Denial	1.85	.64	.00	.15	-.02	.09	.03	-.05	.07	.06	.18*	.13	.18*	—		
12. Behav. disengage.	1.31	.48	.22*	-.10	-.06	.02	.12	.06	.05	-.07	.23**	.05	.11	.20*	—	
13. Mental disengage.	2.25	.81	-.12	.11	.14	.18*	.26**	.05	.16	.22*	-.03	.13	-.04	.15	.11	—
14. Alcohol/drug usage	1.44	.64	.26**	.09	-.06	-.10	-.08	.02	.19*	.02	.12	-.15	.12	.12	.14	-.02

*p < .05., **p < .01.

In various regression analyses, negative coping methods, which were not conducive to the reduction of stress, emerged from each comparison group. American expatriates showed higher stress levels when they applied the following coping methods: (1) seeking social support for instrumental reasons ($B = .123, p < .045$); (2) focusing on and venting of emotion ($B = .119, p < .039$); (3) behavioral disengagement ($B = .224, p < .001$); and (4) mental disengagement ($B = .113, p < .036$). In the case of Korean expatriates, the more they used acceptance ($B = .115, p < .033$), behavioral disengagement ($B = .178, p < .015$), and alcohol and/or drug disengagement ($B = .165, p < .003$) as coping strategies, the more they tended to experience stress. These incompatible coping styles that both American workers and Korean workers employed were suggested to have not necessarily helped them reduce stress levels, but they might rather have aggravated difficulties in adjusting to the new environment.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis posits that cultural adjustment by the expatriate worker tends to be directly related to his or her relationships with foreign counterparts. The items regarding relationships with foreign counterparts identified in the first-stage study were applied to test this hypothesis.

To identify clusters of relationship issues, the 11 items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Four eigenvalues greater than 1.0 were

extracted; they collectively accounted for 57.5% of the total variance. The measurement of Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) for these relationship issues was .62. This was regarded as a reasonable value, especially for the scores with few items in the present study. The loading scores of the relationship items on the four main factors are presented in Table 15. A component plot for each item in rotated space is illustrated in Figure 6.

Factor 1 was labeled explicitness of relationship. This factor consists of three items: (1) willingness to listen to advice from, (2) share information with indigenous workers and/or foreign counterparts, and (3) a tendency to draw a clear line between official and personal affairs in the workplace. As these items share a common meaning of “open-heart” or honesty, the factor was so named. Factor 2 was labeled social customs. This factor included two items: (1) the expatriates’ familiarity with social culture and (2) business etiquette in the host nation. Both reflect cultural traits and customs in this study. Factor 3 was labeled business style and was defined by the three areas of business issues: (1) different business style, (2) hierarchical management, and (3) the degree of loyalty to the company. Finally, Factor 4 was labeled reliance. It included two items: (1) trust issues toward foreign counterparts and (2) racial and/or ethnic discrimination. The result of the factor analysis suggests that interpersonal factors in cross-cultural adjustment mainly consist of the four dimensions, i.e., explicitness of relationship, social customs, business style, and reliance.

Table 15. Loading of Items of Relationships with Foreign Counterparts on Four Factors

Item	Factor I Explicitness	Factor II Social customs	Factor III Business style	Factor IV Reliance
Openness to advice (x06)	.831			
Willingness to share info. (x05)	.778			
Logical decision (x02)	.406			
Social customs (x01)		.841		
Etiquette (x10)		.761		
Language proficiency (x11)		.565		
Business style (x03)			.820	
Hierarchical mgt. (x04)			.744	
Racial discrimination (x08)				.799
Trust (x09)				-.623

Note. n = 229. Only loadings larger than .4 are shown. Derived from principal components analysis and Varimax rotation

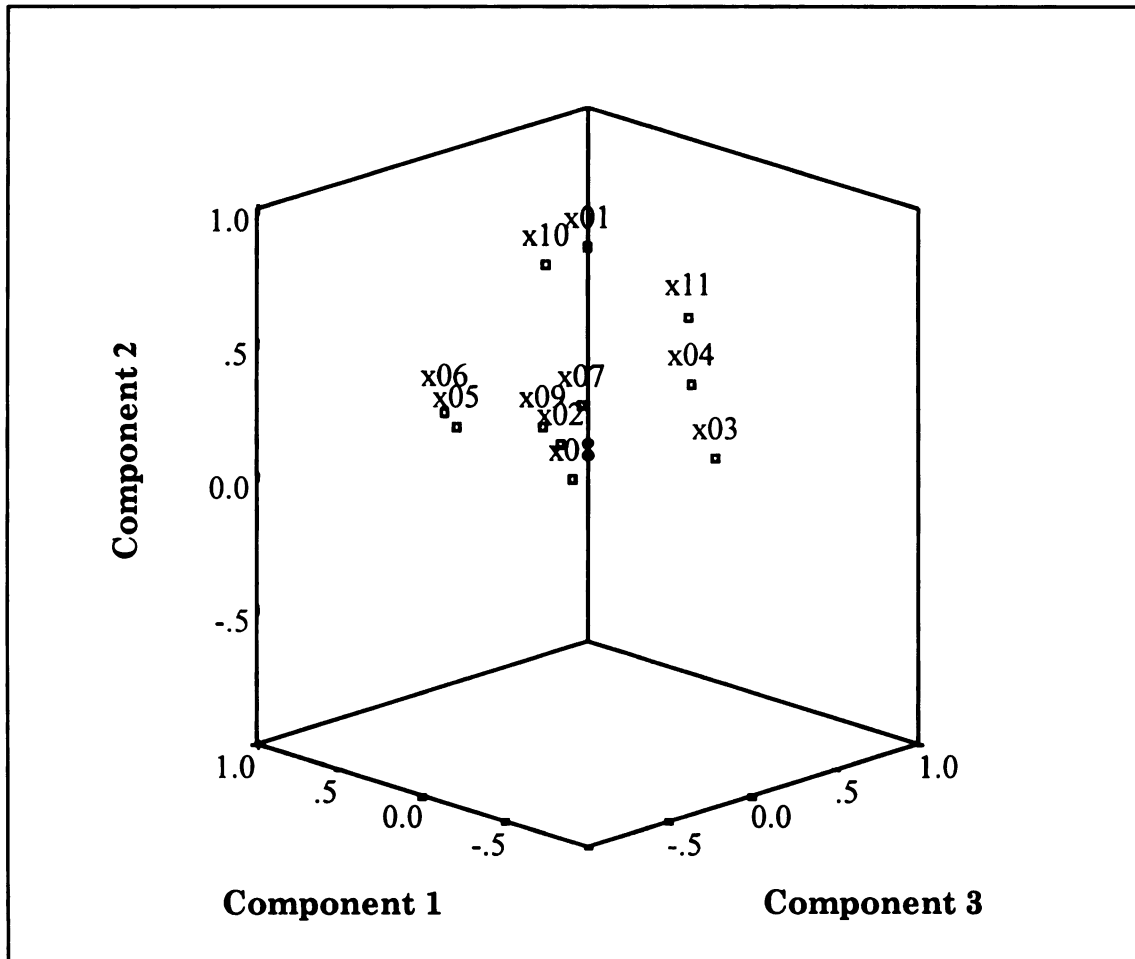


Figure 6. Component plot in rotated space: The expatriate workers' relationships with foreign counterparts

Overall, different business style in the two cultural contexts was suggested to be the most positively related bivariate correlate of stress ($r = .27$, $p < .01$), while the degree to which the expatriates understood business etiquette in the host country was the most negatively related to stress ($r = -.18$, $p < .01$). That is, the more the expatriate workers encountered a different business style in their foreign counterparts, the more they experienced stress. Expatriates who were familiar with common business etiquette in the host culture reported lower stress levels.

Each comparison group represented unique issues in adapting to the foreign work environment. Table 16 shows the results of regressing the perceived stress level on all relationship issues respectively of the American group and the Korean group. The data revealed several new findings. Among the American workers in South Korea, issues of familiarity with social customs, trusting foreign counterparts, and understanding hierarchical management accounted for most of the explained variance, although the familiarity with social customs was not statistically significant ($p < .077$). The more the American workers trusted the Korean counterparts, the less stress the Americans felt. American expatriates who were accustomed to hierarchical management systems showed less stress when they worked in South Korea. However, for Korean workers the degree of familiarity with the hierarchical management system did not affect their stress levels, suggesting that they had been culturally adapted or accustomed to this type of system.

Table 16. Regression of Perceived Stress by the Expatriates' Relationships with Foreign Counterparts

Item	American Expatriates				Korean Expatriates			
	B	β	t		B	β	t	
Openness to advice	-.025 (.078)	-.042	-.325		.181 (.094)	.238	1.929	
Willingness to share info.	.092 (.086)	.128	1.066		-.050 (.066)	-.088	-.747	
Logical decision	.047 (.046)	.099	1.022		-.050 (.070)	-.071	-.712	
Loyalty to company	-.027 (.050)	-.005	-.053		-.078 (.057)	-.129	-1.364	
Social customs	-.097 (.054)	-.211	-1.789		.033 (.060)	.058	.543	
Etiquette	-.014 (.059)	-.026	-.241		-.132 (.061)	-.225	-2.156*	
Language proficiency	.093 (.034)	.030	.272		-.002 (.054)	-.004	-.042	
Business style	.038 (.044)	.090	1.022		.105 (.047)	.217	2.220*	
Hierarchical mgt.	-.132 (.046)	-.306	-2.850**		.006 (.057)	.010	.098	
Racial discrimination	-.016 (.038)	-.043	-.419		.051 (.039)	.120	1.310	
Trust	-.128 (.053)	-.263	-2.409*		-.003 (.053)	-.005	-.050	
(All variables combined)	2.406 (.446)	—	5.402**		1.905 (.510)	—	3.739**	

Note. The standard error is shown in parenthesis following B. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Although coefficient correlations with stress were not statistically significant, relationship issues, such as openness to advice from the Korean counterparts, loyalty to company, and Korean language proficiency, were negatively related to perceived stress of the American workers. Data suggest that these relationship issues might help decrease their stress levels. However, logical decision, different business style, willingness to share information with foreign counterparts, and racial discrimination were related positively to the perceived stress, suggesting that these factors tended to cause difficulties for American expatriates' working with Korean counterparts.

The degree to which the Korean workers understood American business etiquette may be the strongest predictor of stress reduction. The Korean workers who preferred group decision-making, and thus experienced differences from the American business style, exhibited considerably higher stress levels (different business styles).

In addition, familiarity with American customs, logical decision-making, willingness to share information, loyalty to company, trusting American counterparts, and English proficiency were likely to alleviate Korean expatriates' stress, while preference for hierarchical management, listening to advice from American counterparts, and racial discrimination tended to evoke difficulties in working in the United States. However, all

these relationship issues were not statistically significant, suggesting they were not effective in reducing stress.

Hypothesis 6

The sixth hypothesis states that the degree to which expatriate workers adapt to the host culture is likely to depend on the number of foreign countries in which they have worked. The result of a regression analysis suggested that this hypothesis was tenable ($B = -.100$, $p < .001$). The more the expatriates had previous work experiences in foreign countries, the less they exhibited stress in the current host country (Figure 7). The regression equation which was associated with stress and the number of foreign countries that the expatriates had experienced was:

$$Y = 2.110 - .100 (X)$$

where Y is perceived stress and
X is the number of foreign countries
to which the expatriate was assigned (4)

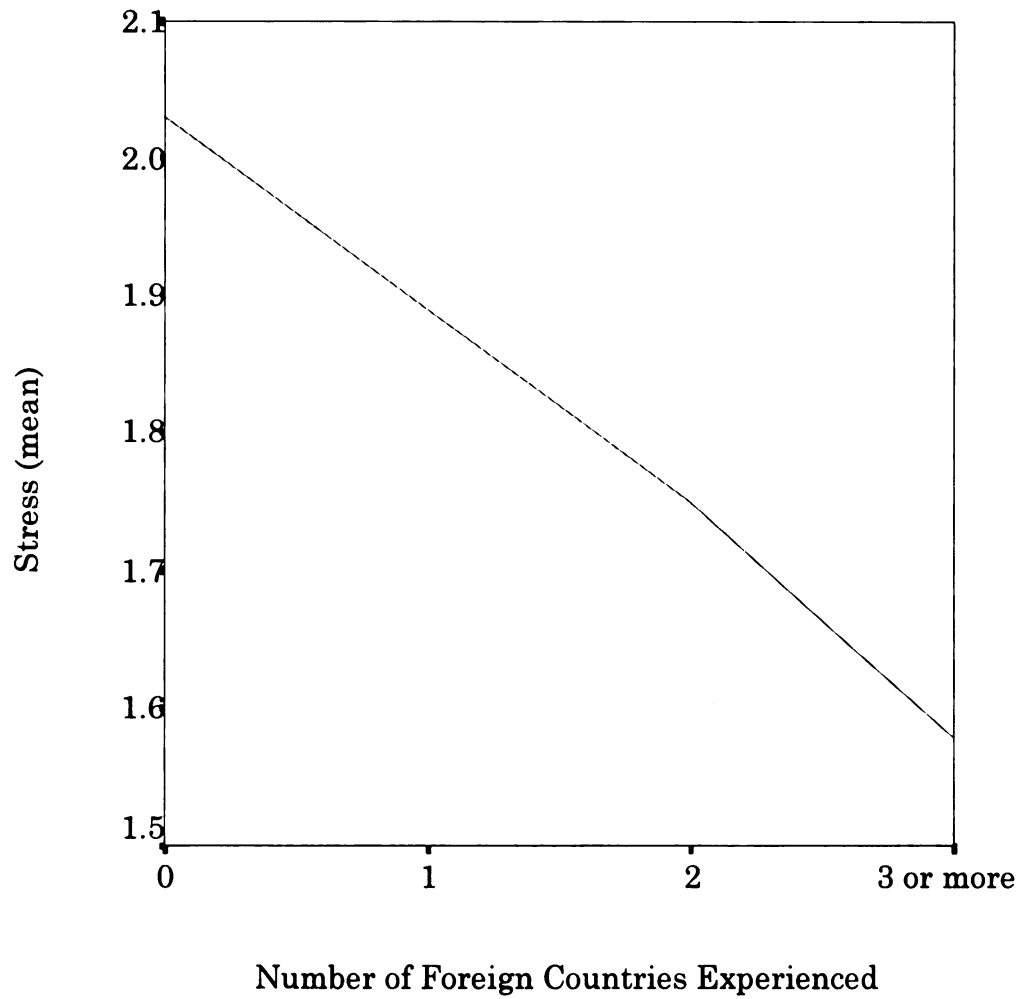


Figure 7. The expatriates' perceived stress by number of foreign countries in which the expatriates have previously worked

Hypothesis 7

The seventh hypothesis posits that the length of employment of the expatriate workers in the host country is likely to affect their cross-cultural adaptation. In a regression analysis, the length of employment in the host country emerged as a significant predictor of the expatriates' adjustment ($B = -.057, p < .033$). Figure 8 illustrates how the expatriates' stress levels change according to the length of time worked in the host country.

The expatriate workers in this study showed the highest level of stress in the first year of employment in the host country. The stress levels started to decrease considerably after the first year and continued to decline until the third year of employment. Thereafter, it increased slightly until the fifth year. These findings do not correspond to the previous "U" curve theory, introduced in Chapter II, related to the first five years of employment in the host country. The "U" curve theory assumes that expatriate workers adjust better at the initial period of assignment due to their enthusiasm for the new tasks and interests in the host culture. The expatriates tend to experience significant stress following the initial period of enthusiasm until they become very familiar with the host country and develop coping abilities in the new working environment. In this study, the stress level of the expatriates once again declined after the fifth year. This stress alleviation after the fifth year, to some degree, was closed to the "U" curve assumption.



Figure 8. The expatriates' perceived stress by length of employment in the host country

Hypothesis 8

The effect of cross-cultural training on the extent to which the expatriates adjust to the host culture was examined. The result of an analysis of variance suggested that cross-cultural training had a significant influence on the degree to which the expatriates felt stress: $F(1, 217) = 4.707$, $p < .031$. In the other words, expatriate workers who had cross-cultural training before they were assigned found it easier to adjust to living in a foreign country. Figure 9 illustrates relationships between the expatriates' perceived stress level in the host country and the number of hours of cross-cultural training that the expatriates had received in their home countries.

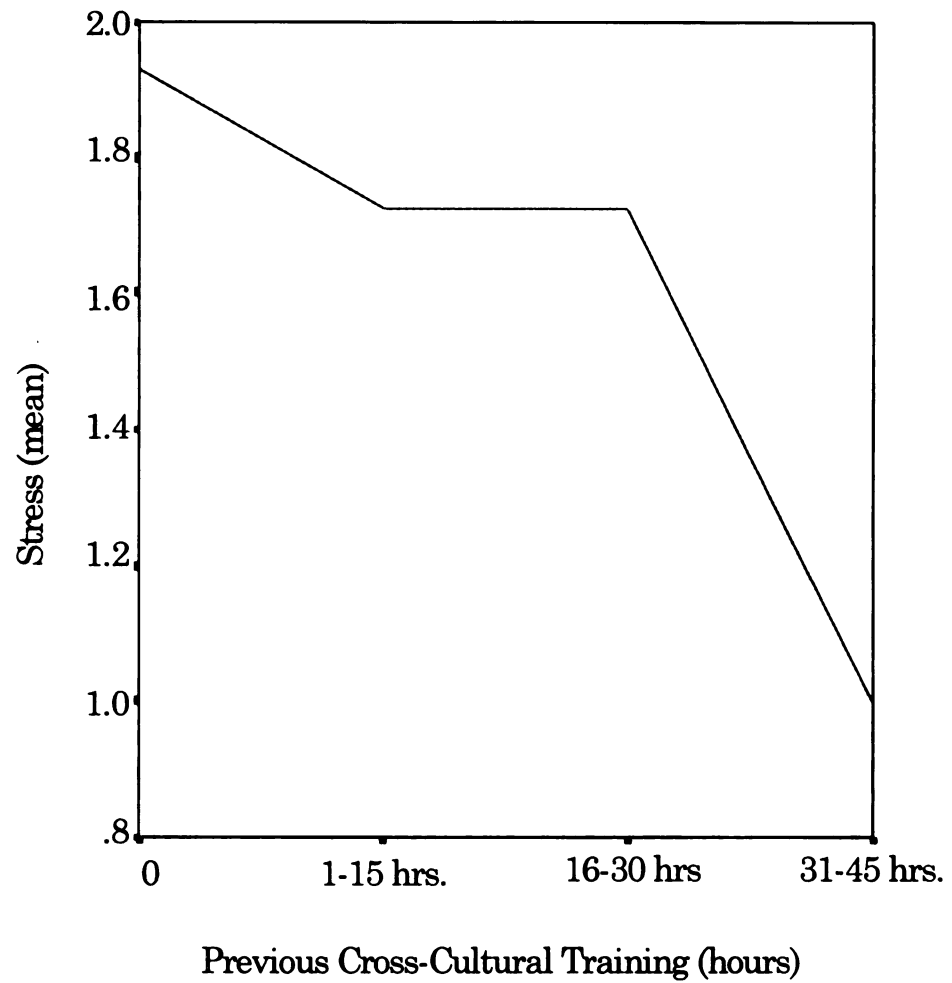


Figure 9. The expatriates' perceived level of stress by previous cross-cultural training

Hypothesis 9

The ninth hypothesis posits that the expatriate workers who interact often with host country nationals are more likely to adjust to the host culture successfully than those who interact mainly with those from their home country. To test this hypothesis, the effects of the expatriates interacting with the people of communities in the host country were examined by applying dummy variables⁷:

- (1) More interaction with expatriate community:
If Question 19 (Part II) = 1, assign dummy 1 = 0, dummy 2 = 0
- (2) More interaction with host national community:
If Question 19 (Part II) = 2, assign dummy 1 = 1, dummy 2 = 0
- (3) Almost equal interaction with both communities:
If Question 19 (Part II) = 3, assign dummy 1 = 0, dummy 2 = 1

The result of regression analysis was statistically significant, $F(2, 216) = 4.728$, $p < .01$. The following illustrates the regression equation and expected stress levels of expatriate workers in each pattern of community interaction:

(a) Regression equation:

$$Y (\text{Perceived stress}) = 1.987 - .242 (\text{Dummy1}) - .160 (\text{Dummy2})$$

(b) Expected stress levels of expatriate workers:

$$\begin{aligned} (1) \text{ More interaction with expatriate community:} \\ Y = 1.987 - .242 (0) - .160 (0) = 1.987 \end{aligned}$$

⁷ Appendix G includes Question no. 19 (Part II).

(2) More interaction with host nationals:

$$Y = 1.987 - .242 (1) - .160 (0) = 1.745$$

(3) Almost equal amount of interaction:

$$Y = 1.987 - .242 (0) - .160 (1) = 1.827$$

The regression coefficients on both dummy 1 and dummy 2 were respectively significant at the .05 level. This finding suggests that the expatriate workers who interacted more with host country nationals adjusted better to the host culture than those who interacted more with people from their home country. Thus, Hypothesis 9 was supported.

Hypothesis 10

The tenth hypothesis predicts that the extent to which expatriate families are satisfied with living in the host country is likely to influence the expatriates' adjustment. Regarding the expatriates' spouses, their favorable attitudes toward the overseas assignment were negatively correlated with the expatriates' lower stress levels, but this correlation was not statistically significant. Favorable attitudes of the expatriates' children toward living in the host country did not seem to affect the workers' stress levels, either.

Nevertheless, an analysis of variance suggested that the children's attitudes toward living in the host country had a significant influence on the expatriates' intention to stay in the assigned country: $F(4, 155) = 2.584, p < .039$. This suggests that the more the expatriates' children were satisfied with living in the host country, the more the expatriate workers intended to

stay and continue to work on the overseas assignment. Although the spouses' favorable attitudes to the host country showed somewhat positive correlation with the expatriates' intention to stay, this was not statistically significant.

Hypothesis 11

The final hypothesis posits that expatriate workers whose families must stay behind in the home country are less likely to adjust to foreign assignments than workers whose families accompany them. The overall sample—both comparison groups combined—had an average of 2.7 children, but were accompanied by 2.3 children in the overseas assignment. Differences between comparison groups were statistically significant ($p < .001$). American expatriates had 2.7 children, but brought only 1.7 children to South Korea, while Korean expatriates were accompanied by almost all their children.

According to results of a simple factorial analysis of variance, the combined effects of both the number of children and the number of children living in the host country on the expatriates' perceived level of stress were statistically significant: $F(8, 216) = 4.622, p < .001$. This suggests that if the expatriates' children stay behind in the home country, it is then likely to influence negatively the cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate workers. In fact, the American expatriate workers whose children did not accompany

them worried about their children back home and this problem ranked sixth among their difficulties experienced in South Korea.

Table 17. Summary of Results: Testing Hypotheses

Hypothesis	Result
<u>COUNTRY</u>	
1. Defining national culture (U.S. vs. S. Korea)	
Power distance	Supported
Uncertainty avoidance	Supported
Individualism	Supported (conditional)
2. National culture (vs. adjustment)	
Power distance	Supported
Uncertainty avoidance	Supported
Individualism	Not supported
<u>INDIVIDUAL EXPATRIATE</u>	
3. Adjustment comparison (U.S. vs. S. Korea)	Not supported
4. Coping methods	Supported
5. Relationships with foreign counterparts	Supported
6. Previous foreign experience	Supported
7. Length of residence	Supported
<u>ORGANIZATION/COMMUNITY</u>	
8. Cross-cultural training	Supported
9. Community interaction	Supported
<u>FAMILY MEMBERS</u>	
10. Family attitude	
Spouse	Not supported
Child	Supported
11. Family back home	Supported

Note. Testing the issue of individualism in Hypothesis 1 was supported only under the control of foreign-born American expatriates. All the hypotheses were statistically tested at .05 level.

Chapter VI

SOCIAL SERVICE NEEDS OF EXPATRIATE WORKERS

Through the analyses of the hypotheses, the present study ascertained that the cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate workers was affected by their national cultures, individual attributes, work organizations and/or communities, and family members.

What then are the major problems these workers face in overseas assignments and what types of services are critically needed to alleviate these problems? Answers to these questions are expected to provide us with basic information needed to plan for intervention. Needs assessment is a critical first step in the design of a social intervention (Rossi, Freeman, & Wright, 1979). That is, in order to plan for human services, needs must be accurately assessed.

Needs assessment should be approached by examining both problems of clients and services desired by the clients (Research Group, 1976; Sung, 1989). To assess the needs of the expatriate workers, both American expatriates and Korean expatriates were asked to check the five most serious problems they experienced and the five most desirable services they would like to see developed (A list of items regarding the problems and services was

provided to each respondent as shown below). In addition to data on the frequency with which each expatriate worker cited problems and services, a degree of importance given by the worker to the problem and the service was also assessed. Such a combined approach, which accounted for both frequency and importance in regard to both problems and services, would mitigate the negative bias from any single approach and increase the validity of the needs measurement.

The items used for the needs assessment included not only the usual problems and services of social workers' concern, but also such problems as language, racial relations, crime and safety, transportation, and recreation—all of which the expatriate workers encounter in their respective host countries. The items included in the questionnaire are as follows:

- Marital relations
- Family relations
- Emotion relations
- Mental health
- Day care
- Children's health
- Adoption
- Children's schooling
- Juvenile relations
- Parenting
- Family planning
- Safety/Crime
- Gambling
- Alcohol/Drug usage
- Adult health care
- Physical handicaps
- Language
- Racial/ethnic relations
- Cross-cultural differences
- Educational needs
- Employment
- Homemaking
- Financial needs
- Recreation
- Volunteer activities
- Police and fire services
- Legal support
- Transportation/Traffic
- Religion
- Elderly parents back home
- Children back home
- Repatriation

Needs Expressions Based on Frequency

Needs Common to Both Comparison Groups

Problems experienced

In the process of needs assessment, the first step was to average frequencies with which the problems or the services were cited by the expatriate workers. Results of the questionnaire administration indicated that both American expatriates and Korean expatriates had encountered various types of problems in the host country and they desired similar social services. Based on the frequency with which the items were checked, the ten most serious problems were initially identified (Table 18).

Table 18. Frequency of Problems Experienced in Foreign Countries Cited by American Expatriates (N = 101) and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Type of Problem	American Expatriates			Korean Expatriates		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	rank	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	rank
Language barriers	66	65.3	1	95	74.2	1
Cross-cultural misunderstanding	64	63.4	2	68	53.1	4
Concern about elderly parents back home	22	21.8	6	71	55.5	3
Adult health care	22	21.8	6	38	29.7	8
Crime/safety	17	16.8	10	58	45.3	5
Lack of recreation	60	59.4	3	—	—	—
Transportation/traffic	32	31.4	4	—	—	—
Concern about children back home	24	23.5	5	—	—	—
Marital conflict	20	19.8	8	—	—	—
Lack of employment guidance	20	19.8	8	—	—	—
Children's schooling	—	—	—	77	60.2	2
Repatriation	—	—	—	50	39.1	6
Racial/ethnic conflict	—	—	—	48	37.5	7
Legal problems	—	—	—	38	29.7	8
Lack of financial support	—	—	—	30	23.4	10

Note. n = the number of respondents; % = the number of cases cited/the number of responses; rank is based on the percentage size. The ten items listed received the most responses in each group.

It is noteworthy that both Americans and Koreans cited language barriers, cross-cultural misunderstanding, concern about elderly parents back home, adult health care, and crime and safety issues as the most serious problems commonly experienced in the host country. Language barriers emerged as the top-ranking problem. In total, 66 out of 101 American expatriates (65.3%) and 95 out of 128 Korean expatriates (74.2%) cited language barriers as the most serious problem. Although respondents gave different ranking, the majority of the Americans (63.4%) and the Koreans (53.1%) reported cross-cultural misunderstanding in the host country.

Both groups were concerned about elderly parents back home. About 22% of the American workers cited this item, giving this problem a ranking of sixth. Among the Korean workers, however, this item was the third most serious problem. More than half of the Koreans surveyed (55.5%) expressed concern over elderly parents back home. Although adult children in both cultures appeared to have filial concern and a sense of responsibility for their elderly parents back home, Koreans reported greater concern and sense of responsibility than Americans.

Adult health care services appeared to be a serious problem to both groups of expatriates. Americans in South Korea tended to have greater concerns about health care than Korean expatriates in the United States. The American group ranked health care as the sixth most serious problem; the Korean group ranked it eighth. In other words, the Americans appeared

to believe that medical facilities and health care services in South Korea were less qualified than those in the United States, or it seemed to be difficult for them to access to the Korean health care system.

Concern about crime and safety was another problem both groups faced in the host country. Koreans showed more anxiety about their safety in the United States: About 45% of the Koreans pointed out high crime rates in the United States and they ranked this issue as the fifth most serious problem. Meanwhile, about 17% of the Americans were concerned about crime and safety in Korea and ranked this item tenth. Figure 10 shows the five most frequently cited problems.

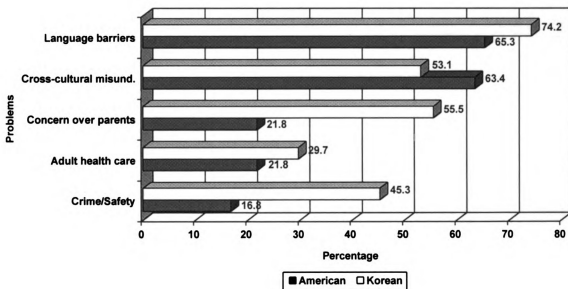


Figure 10. Frequency of problems cited by both American expatriates and Korean expatriates

Services desired

In the assessment of services most desired by the expatriate workers in their respective host countries, several items emerged. Table 19 lists ten services which were most often cited by each comparison group.

Table 19. Frequency of Desired Services in Foreign Countries Cited by
American Expatriates (N = 101) and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Type of Service	American Expatriates			Korean Expatriates		
	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	rank	<u>n</u>	<u>%</u>	rank
Cross-cultural training	55	54.5	1	69	53.9	2
Language programs	52	51.5	2	84	65.6	1
Adult health care	24	23.8	5	45	35.2	7
Crime prevention/safety	20	19.8	7	49	38.3	5
Education programs	19	18.8	8	45	35.2	7
Services for elderly parents in the home country	15	14.9	10	50	39.1	4
Repatriation	15	14.9	10	46	35.9	6
Re-creation programs	49	48.5	3	—	—	—
Transportation/traffic solution	33	32.7	4	—	—	—
Employment guidance	21	20.8	6	—	—	—
Homemaking	16	15.8	9	—	—	—
School counseling	—	—	—	56	43.8	3
Legal services	—	—	—	40	31.3	9
Racial/ethnic problem solving	—	—	—	39	30.5	10
Financial support	—	—	—	39	30.5	10

Note. n = the number of respondents; % = the number of cases cited/the number of responses; rank is based on the percentage size. The ten items listed received the most responses in each group.

Most Americans and Koreans cited cross-cultural training and language programs as their most desired services. These were either the first or second most desired services for both Americans and Koreans.

Americans and the Koreans also cited adult health care programs, crime prevention, and services for elderly parents in their own home country. Desire for better adult health care programs was more common among the Americans in South Korea, while concern with crime prevention was more conspicuous among the Koreans in the United States. Adult health care and crime prevention were ranked fifth and seventh respectively by the Americans, but seventh and fifth by the Koreans. Although services for elderly parents in the home country was desired by a greater number of Koreans (50 out of 128; 39.1%), the Americans also considered this item important by citing it as their tenth most desired service (15 out of 101; 14.9%).

In addition, needs for education programs and repatriation services were cited as eighth and tenth respectively by the Americans, whereas the Koreans cited these seventh and sixth. Forty five out of 128 Koreans (35.2%) and 19 out of 101 Americans (18.8%) desired for additional or extensive education programs in the host country; the ranking of this item for each group was somewhat similar. However, more Korean workers desired repatriation services than did American workers. About 36% of Koreans, the sixth largest number of the respondents, cited the need for this particular

service. Americans ranked services for elderly parents in the home country as the tenth most important issue. Figure 11 shows the seven services most frequently desired by both groups.

Needs Only of American Expatriates

Problems experienced

Although both the American group and the Korean group shared similar needs in foreign assignments, the findings clearly suggest that both groups indicated unique needs in their respective situations.

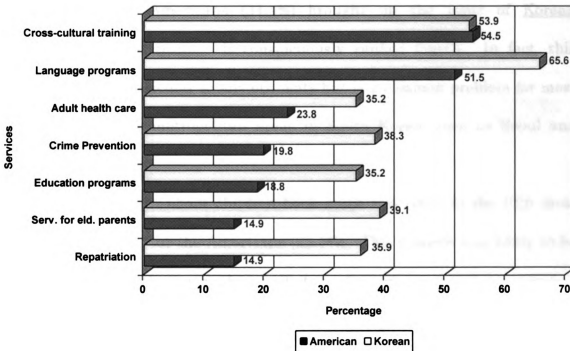


Figure 11. Frequency of services desired by both American expatriates and Korean expatriates

In terms of problems experienced while working in South Korea, the American group particularly cited lack of recreation, transportation and traffic, concern over children back home, marital conflict, and lack of employment guidance.

First, the Americans pointed out a lack of recreation facilities and/or programs available in South Korea. Sixty out of 101 Americans (59.4%) cited this difficulty, making this the third important issue. However, this study did not examine whether the Americans had considered it difficult to find American-style recreation facilities and/or opportunities in South Korea or whether they had simply failed to adjust to Korean-style recreation.

Second, 32 Americans (31.4%) brought up the issue of Korean transportation and traffic. It conspicuously ranked fourth. In fact, this difficulty is not particular to any ethnicity but is a common problem for most residents in major metropolitan areas in South Korea, such as Seoul and Pusan (Lee, 1997).

Third, concern about children back home was cited as the fifth most significant problem for the Americans (23.5%). This concern was likely to be caused by the fact that more than half of the American respondents who had children did not bring their children when they went to South Korea. Thus, the Americans' concern about children would probably be greater than that of Korean expatriates who were mostly accompanied by their children.

Fourth, about 20% of the American expatriates answered that they faced marital conflict while they were staying in the host country. In fact, the extent to which American expatriates' spouses were satisfied with living in South Korea was lower than Korean expatriates' spouses in the United States ($\underline{M}$ [American spouses] = 3.41, $\underline{SD}$ = .12; $\underline{M}$ [Korean spouses] = 3.87, $\underline{SD}$ = .08; $\underline{t}$ = - 3.16; $\underline{df}$ = 121.24; $\underline{p}$ < .001). The degree of satisfaction among the American expatriates' children was statistically lower as well ($\underline{M}$ [American children] = 3.46, $\underline{SD}$ = .98; $\underline{M}$ [Korean children] = 4.21, $\underline{SD}$ = .64; $\underline{t}$ = - 4.80; $\underline{df}$ = 60.99; $\underline{p}$ < .001). These data suggest that low life-style satisfaction of the American families in South Korea could contribute to marital conflicts with the American expatriates.

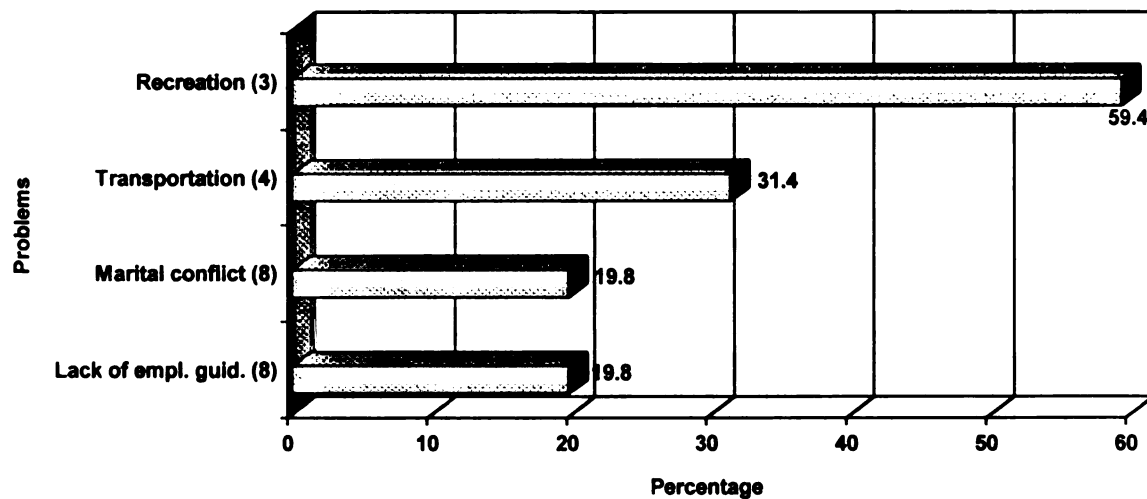


Figure 12. Frequency of problems cited only by American expatriates in South Korea. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Finally, for the Americans, the lack of employment guidance was tied in rank with marital conflicts as eighth. Figure 12 summarizes frequency of problems cited only by the Americans.

Services desired

Although the six services most commonly desired by both comparison groups were identified; the American group in South Korea specifically called for better services to meet needs. They saw recreation programs, transportation and traffic solutions, employment guidance and training, and homemaking services as important. With regard to the first three items, i.e., recreation, transportation/traffic, and employment guidance/training, the ranking based on services matched fairly well with the ranking based on problems cited.

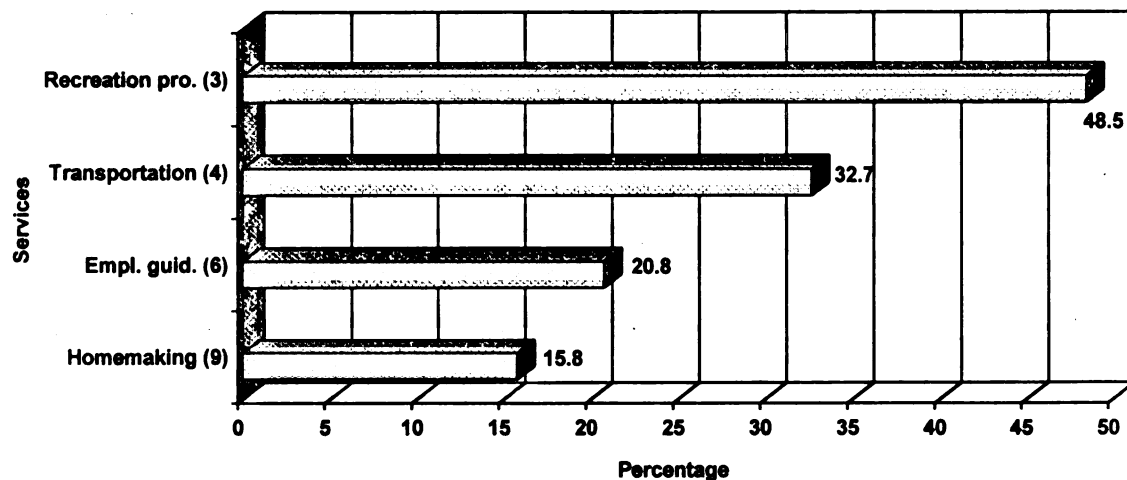


Figure 13. Frequency of services cited only by American expatriates in South Korea. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

The Americans additionally cited homemaking as one of the most desirable services that they would like to see expanded and they ranked it ninth. Figure 13 illustrates frequency of services desired only by the American expatriates in South Korea.

Needs Only of Korean Expatriates

Problems experienced

In addition to the common problems cited by both comparison groups, only Korean expatriates responded that they had experienced difficulties with issues regarding children's schooling, repatriation, racial and/or ethnic conflict, legal status, and lack of financial support from the parent company.

More than 60% of the respondents, the second largest group of Koreans, expressed concern about educational issues related to children's schooling. They were anxious to see that their children successfully adapted to the new American school system and learning environment. According to Berg and Jaya (1993), Asians, including Koreans, tend to dedicate a large portion of their lives to educating their children.

... Unlike other ethnic groups who migrated to avoid starvation, poverty, or war, they [Asians] come, by or large, to enhance their children's chances of success. Therefore, the Asian green grocer on the street corner in Manhattan ... may be aiming to have his and/or her children graduate from Harvard or Yale. Nothing less will do (p. 31).

As remarked in Chapter II, repatriation to the home country is becoming recognized as problematic and a major concern for the Korean expatriates who were about to return to South Korea. Approximately 39% of the Koreans cited this difficulty, placing it as the sixth most serious problem. In the personal interviews, some Korean expatriates were concerned about the children's re-adaptation to the Korean school system and their own readjustment to the Korean work environment.

About 38% of the Koreans reported that they had experienced racial and/or ethnic discrimination since returning from the United States. This seemed to be consistent with the results of the first-stage study that was conducted to design the study questionnaire in Chapter III: About 32% of Korean respondents agreed that this issue was a concern.

Thirty-eight out of 128 Koreans also pointed out visa-related legal problems in the United States. This often occurred when they tried to extend their working contracts or change their working conditions in the host country. Visa-related regulations also frequently hindered the spouse from maintaining a career in the host country, a factor that might eventually affect his or her satisfaction or adaptability to the new environment.

In addition, the Koreans often faced a lack of financial support from the parent company. About 23% of the Korean respondents agreed that this issue was a concern. Some Korean companies did not seem to be fully supportive in terms of the expatriates' budgets for the overseas assignment.

Figure 14 shows the frequency of problems cited by only Korean expatriates in the United States.

Services desired

The services desired only by the Korean expatriates tend to match the problems that they cited as difficulties experienced in the United States. The four services requested only by the Koreans were school counseling, legal services, racial and/or ethnic problem solving, and financial support. Although repatriation was one of the most serious problems for the Koreans, this concern was not among the ten services Koreans would most like to have (re: Table 19).

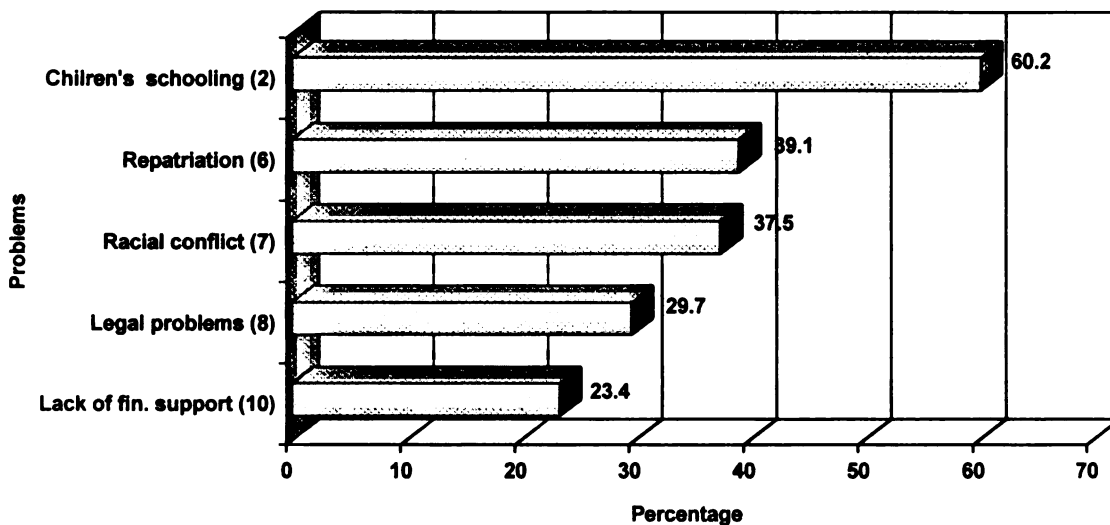


Figure 14. Frequency of problems cited only by Korean expatriates in the United States. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Rankings based on these services were moderately consistent with rankings based on problems. Figure 15 shows Koreans ranked their desires for various services.

Needs Expressions Based on Importance

In addition to the data on frequency given to the problems and the services, the degree of importance given by the two comparison groups to the same problems and the same services was estimated as well. This was the second step in assessing the expatriates' needs in the host country. Sung (1989) noted that convergence of the needs data should be carried out in two steps: (1) averaging frequencies with which the problems and services were cited and (2) averaging importance (weight) values given to the problems and services.

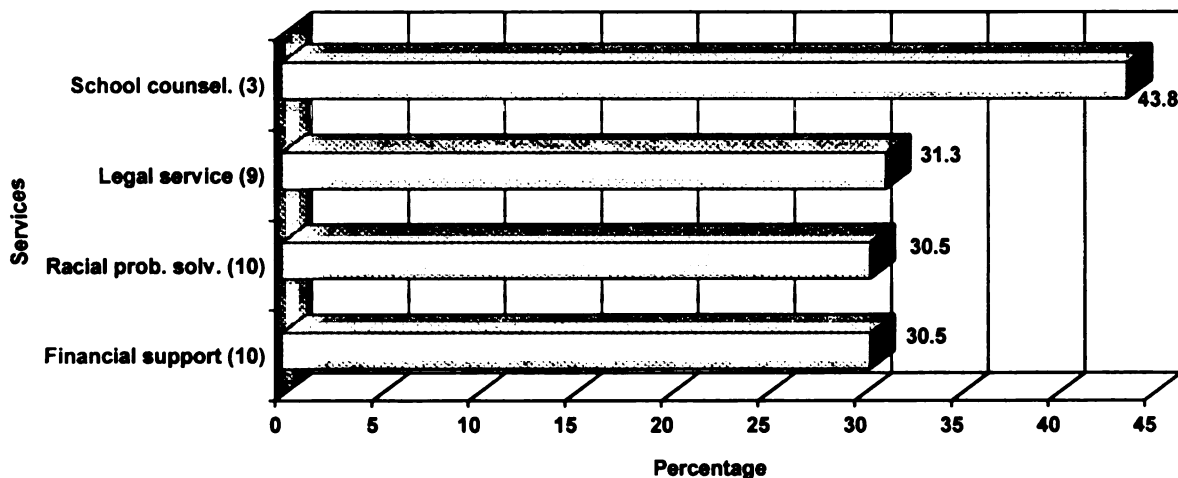


Figure 15. Frequency of services desired only by Korean expatriates in the United States. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Next, assessing the association between the priority based on frequency and that based on importance, the relevance between the problems and the services should be sought.

The American expatriates and the Korean expatriates were asked to rank each problem they experienced in the host country from 5 to 1 in priority, 5 being the most serious . . . 1 being the least serious. They were also asked to rank those services that they would like to see developed with 5 being the most desirable and 1, the least desirable.

Needs Common to Both Comparison Groups

Problems experienced

A list of importance values and rankings concerning the problems is presented in Table 20. Ten items rated most important by each group were identified. The table shows five common problems and their rankings as cited by both groups. Again, language problems was ranked first. The Americans weighed it as 4.1 out of 5; the Koreans weighed it 3.8. Problems regarding emotion, children's schooling, mental health, and child health care followed. However, these five top ranking problems cited by the expatriates were placed within a somewhat small range of differences in importance, suggesting that the respondents considered these items almost equally important.

Table 20. Importance of Problems Experienced in Foreign Countries Cited by American Expatriates (N = 101) and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Type of Problem	American expatriates			Korean expatriates		
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	rank	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	rank
Language barriers	66	4.1	1	95	3.8	1
Emotional problems	7	3.9	2	18	3.2	6
Children's schooling	12	3.4	3	77	3.6	2
Mental health	3	3.3	4	27	3.4	4
Child health care	9	3.3	4	21	3.1	8
Adoption	3	3.3	4	—	—	—
Family planning	3	3.3	4	—	—	—
Marital conflict	20	3.1	8	—	—	—
Homemaking	14	3.1	9	—	—	—
Cross-cultural misunderstanding	64	3.0	10	—	—	—
Juvenile problems	—	—	—	21	3.4	3
Concern about children back home	—	—	—	13	3.3	5
Concern about elderly parents back home	—	—	—	71	3.2	6
Family conflict	—	—	—	18	3.1	8
Parenting problems	—	—	—	24	3.0	10

Note. n = the number of respondents; rank is based on the importance value. The ten items that received the highest mean scores in each group were selected.

Services desired

Table 21 presents the ten most conspicuous service items based on importance values. In particular, the list includes four services most commonly desired by both groups: language programs, child health care, youth programs, and mental health services. Except for youth programs, three out of the four items were the same in kind and nearly the same in ranking as in the case of the problems that they experienced. Again, these top-ranking services cited by both groups showed a small range of differences in importance values.

Table 21. Importance of Desired Services in Foreign Countries Cited by American Expatriates (N = 101) and Korean Expatriates (N = 128)

Type of Service	American expatriates			Korean expatriates		
	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	rank	<u>n</u>	<u>M</u>	rank
Language programs	52	4.2	2	84	4.0	1
Child health care	11	3.9	5	24	3.7	2
Youth programs	6	3.7	7	31	3.2	8
Mental health services	5	3.6	9	27	3.1	9
Alcohol/Drug prevention	5	4.4	1	—	—	—
Counseling for gambling	2	4.0	3	—	—	—
Rehabilitation	4	4.0	3	—	—	—
Marital counseling	8	3.9	5	—	—	—
Emotional support	6	3.7	7	—	—	—
Adoption	2	3.5	10	—	—	—
Financial support	—	—	—	32	3.6	3
Support for children in the home country	—	—	—	12	3.5	4
School counseling	—	—	—	56	3.5	4
Services for elderly parents in the home country	—	—	—	50	3.4	6
Parenting education	—	—	—	18	3.2	7
Racial/ethnic problem solving	—	—	—	39	3.1	10

Note. n = the number of respondents; Rank is based on the importance value. The ten items that received the highest mean scores in each group were selected.

Needs Only of American Expatriates

Problems experienced

In addition to the five problems that both comparison groups experienced, the Americans also expressed serious concern about issues of adoption, family planning, marital conflict, homemaking, and cross-cultural misunderstanding. Some differences existed between the frequency-based items and the importance-based items. Although the Americans did not frequently cite adoption and family planning, both ranked fourth in terms of the degree of importance.

Variations of importance values in each problem were fairly small. Figure 16 shows the importance of problems cited only by the American expatriates.

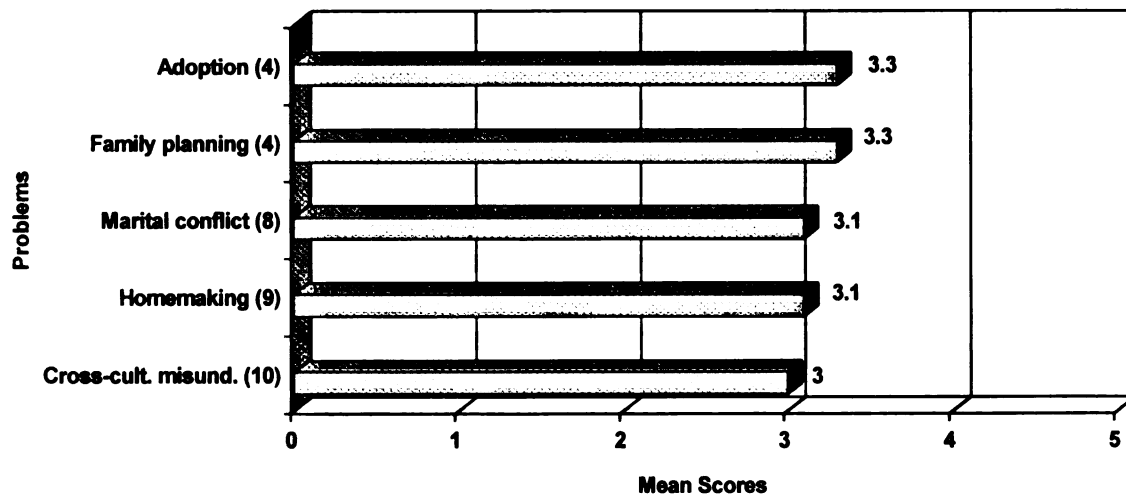


Figure 16. Importance of problems cited by American expatriates working in South Korea. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Services desired

The Americans gave high importance values to alcohol and/or drug prevention, counseling for gambling problems, rehabilitation, marital counseling, emotional support, and adoption issues. Again, these items based on importance values were not consistent with the services based on frequency in terms of kind or ranking. For example, alcohol and/or drug prevention and counseling for gambling problems respectively ranked first and third, but they did not rank in the top ten service items that received the most responses in the American group. Figure 17 illustrates the ranking of problems cited by Americans living in South Korea.

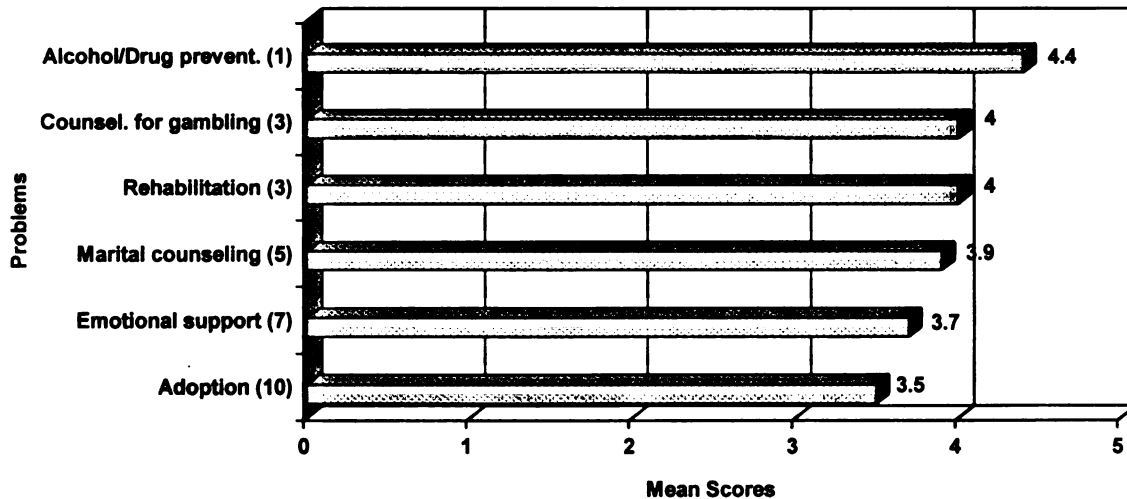


Figure 17. Importance of desired services cited only by American expatriates in South Korea. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Needs Only for Korean Expatriates

Problems experienced

Five issues such as juvenile problems, concern over children back home, concern over elderly parents back home, family conflicts, and parenting problems were of particular concern for Koreans. Regardless of the frequency of problems cited, juvenile problems, concern over children back homes, family conflict, and parenting problems obtained high importance values. For the Koreans, concern over elderly parents back home was conspicuous. This issue ranked high in importance value as well as in frequency. The degree of importance for the problems named only by the Koreans is presented in Figure 18.

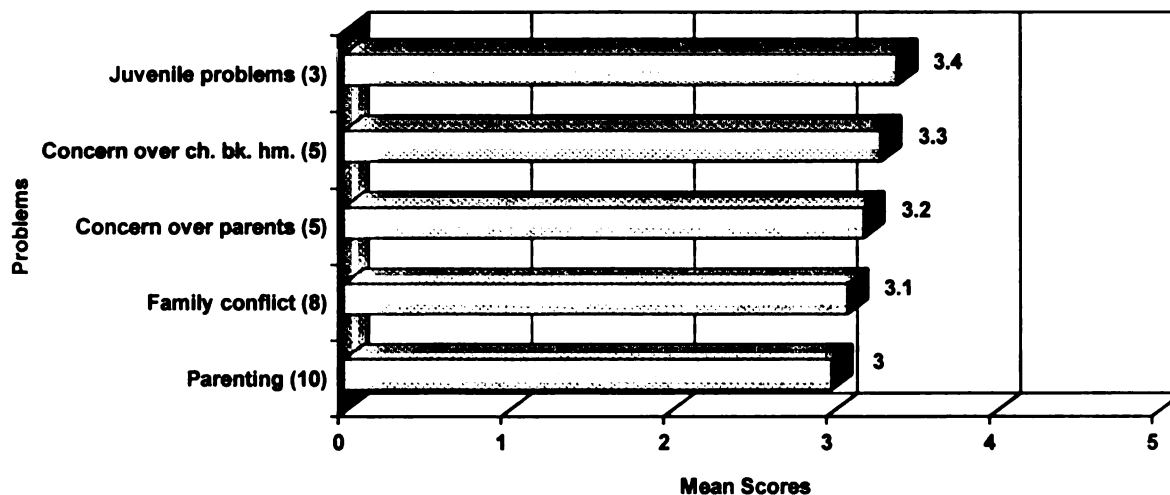


Figure 18. Importance of problems experienced cited only by Korean expatriates in the United States. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Services desired

The following items gained high importance values only from the Koreans: financial support, support for children in the home country, school counseling, services for elderly parents in the home country, parenting education, and racial and/or ethnic problem solving. Three of these items were generally consistent with problems that the Koreans considered important, i.e., support for children in the home country, services for elderly parents in the home country, and parenting education. Figure 19 illustrates the degree of importance and the ranking of the services desired only by the Koreans in the United States.

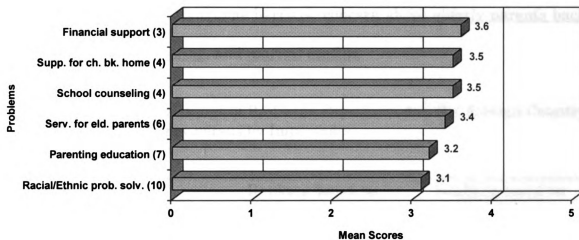


Figure 19. Importance of desired services cited only by Korean expatriates in the United States. The numbers in parentheses indicate rankings within the group.

Convergence of Frequency and Importance

Next, the relevance between frequency and importance was examined. First, frequencies with which the Americans and the Koreans respectively cited the problems or the services were converged by assessing the average of the two sets of frequencies. Second, a comparable procedure was then applied for the two sets of importance with which both groups respectively rated the problems or the services. Finally, the potential discrepancy between the average rankings based on frequency and those based on importance was further examined by comparing the two types of rankings.

As shown in Table 22, the rankings based on frequency largely corresponded to the rankings based on importance with regard only to four serious problems, i.e., language barriers, concern about elderly parents back home, children's schooling, and marital conflict.

Table 22. Average Rankings of Problems Experienced in the Foreign Country by Frequency versus by Importance

Type of Problem	Ranking based on Frequency	Ranking based on Importance
Language barriers	1 -----	1
Concern over elderly parents back home	3 -----	9
Children's schooling	4 -----	2
Marital conflict	10 -----	10

Note: Dotted lines indicate the relevance between an experienced problem and an expected service. Problem ranking is based on Table 18; service ranking is based on Table 20.

Next, as illustrated in Table 23, both types of rankings appear to be closely matched with regard to five services, i.e., language programs, services for elderly parents back home, school counseling, cross-cultural training, and adult health care.

Relevance between Problems and Services

By taking into account the respondents' expressions of both problems and desires for services, more reliable needs data could be obtained. The problems and services based on frequency (Tables 18 and 19) and those based on importance (Tables 20 and 21) were matched with a comparable pair. Findings suggest that, in setting priorities, most of the problems generally correspond to most of the services, whether the priorities are based on frequency or importance as shown in Tables 24 and 25.

Table 23. Average Rankings of Desired Services in the Foreign Country by Frequency versus by Importance

Type of Service	Ranking based on Frequency	Ranking based on Importance
Language programs	1 -----	1
Services for elderly parents in the home country	5 -----	5
School counseling	7 -----	3
Cross-cultural training	2 -----	8
Adult health care	4 -----	8

Note: Dotted lines indicate the relevance between an experienced problem and an desired service. Problem ranking is based on Table 19; service ranking is based on Table 21.

To summarize, the major needs that the expatriate workers were most likely to have were: language barriers or programs, cross-cultural differences, concerning about or services for elderly parents back home, children's schooling, mental health care, youth problems or programs, adult health care, crime and safety, repatriation, and legal problems or services.

Table 24. Relevance between Problems Experienced and Services Desired in Foreign Countries: Ranking based on Frequency

Experienced Problems		Expected Services	
Problem	Ranking	Ranking	Service
Language barriers	1 -----	1	Language programs
Cross-cultural misunderstanding	2 -----	2	Cross-cultural training
Concern over elderly parents back home	3 -----	6	Services for elderly parents back home
Children's schooling	4 -----	8	School counseling
Crime/safety	6 -----	4	Crime prevention
Repatriation	7 -----	9	Repatriation programs
Adult health care	8 -----	4	Adult health care
Legal problems	9 -----	10	Legal services

Note: Dotted lines indicate the relevance between an experienced problem and an expected service. Problem ranking is based on Table 18; service ranking is based on Table 20. Rankings are computed by average numbers of responses, regardless of the comparison groups.

Table 25. Relevance between Problems Experienced and Services Desired in Foreign Countries: Ranking based on Importance

Experienced Problems		Expected Services	
Problem	Ranking	Ranking	Service
Language barriers	1 -----	1	Language programs
Children's schooling	2 -----	3	School counseling
Mental health	3 -----	10	Mental health programs
Juvenile problems	5 -----	7	Youth programs
Child health care	6 -----	2	Child health care
Concern about elderly parents back home	8 -----	5	Services for elderly parents back home
Adult health care	1 -----	8	Adult health care

Note: Dotted lines indicate the relevance between an experienced problem and an expected service; Problem ranking is based on Table 19; service ranking is based on Table 21. Rankings are computed by average values of importance, regardless of the comparison groups.

Chapter VII

CONCLUSION

The present study focuses on a cross-cultural framework for the study of expatriate workers' adjustment to overseas assignments. A set of 11 hypotheses was employed to develop the framework, which has been presented in the preceding chapters.

This study has confirmed that the framework is composed of four major dimensions, i.e., (1) national culture, (2) organization and community, (3), individual characteristics and relationships with foreign workers, and (4) family members. Each of these dimensions tended to directly affect the expatriate workers' adaptability in the foreign assignment.

In addition to developing the framework of cross-cultural adjustment, a needs assessment was conducted to identify both serious problems which the expatriates were experiencing in the foreign country and services desired by them to alleviate the problems. This needs assessment has provided information that will be useful for planning social work services or interventions for the expatriate workers.

This chapter begins with an overall summary of the research findings. Implications of the findings are also discussed, suggesting social work

interventions for expatriates in foreign work environments. With the limitations of this study, various recommendations for future studies are presented at the end.

Summary of Results

Major findings from testing hypotheses

The results of the various statistical analyses suggested that most of the hypotheses were tenable. In terms of the three cultural dimensions, i.e., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism, the American expatriate workers and the Korean expatriate workers showed different degrees of the cultural attributes. These differences influenced the extent to which the expatriates adapted to the host culture. For example, the expatriate workers from a low power distance society (the United States) experienced more difficulties in adjusting to a high power distance society (South Korea) than did the expatriates to a low power distance culture from a high power distance culture. Meanwhile, the expatriate workers who showed a high degree of uncertainty avoidance encountered more difficulties in their adjustment in a low uncertainty avoidance society (United States) than did expatriates who represented a low degree of uncertainty avoidance, but were assigned to a high uncertainty avoidance culture (South Korea). Contrasting to Hypothesis 2, the stress levels of the Korean expatriates in the United

States (a heterogeneous society) were higher than those of the American expatriates in South Korea (a homogeneous society).

All of the four hypotheses regarding individual expatriates were supported in this study. First, planning, a direct coping method, was the strongest predictor in promoting the adaptation of the Korean expatriates in the United States. The negative predictors related to coping strategies that the American expatriates employed were seeking social support for instrumental reasons, focusing on and venting of emotion, behavioral disengagement, and mental disengagement. For the Korean expatriates, coping methods such as acceptance, behavioral disengagement, and alcohol and/or drug disengagement caused stress in the U.S. work environment.

Second, relationships with foreign counterparts also affected the expatriates' adjustment to the new work environment. The more the expatriate workers encountered a different business style among their foreign counterparts, the more they were likely to have difficulties in adjusting. The expatriates' familiarity with etiquette in the host culture, however, alleviated his or her stress levels. Unique relationship issues also emerged from the American group: factors such as trusting Korean counterparts and familiarity with hierarchical management systems were strong predictors of the American expatriates' adaptation to the Korean work setting.

Third, the degree to which the expatriates adapted to the host culture was likely to be positively related to the number of countries in which they

had previously worked. Fourth, the length of employment in the host country was a positive predictor in promoting the expatriates' adjustment.

Data gathered support two hypotheses regarding organizational and/or community issues. The more the expatriate workers had cross-cultural training before they were assigned, the more ability they demonstrated to adjust to the host culture. And, the expatriate workers who interacted more with the host country community were more likely to adjust than those who interacted mainly with people from the home country.

In terms of the expatriates' family issues, relevant hypotheses were moderately supported. Although the degree of children's satisfaction about life abroad was suggested to have significant influence on the expatriates' intention to stay in the host country, attitudes of spouses toward the host country were found to be not influential. Finally, expatriate workers whose families stayed behind in the home country are less likely to adjust to the host country than workers whose families accompanied them.

Social service needs of expatriate workers

The needs assessment examined major problems expatriate workers face and services they desire for meeting needs in overseas assignments. Both American and Korean expatriates raised various issues, including language barriers, cross-cultural misunderstanding, concern about elderly parents back home, children's schooling, crime and safety, repatriation, adult health care, and legal problems. Corresponding to these problems,

respondents cited a range of services such as language programs, cross-cultural training, services for elderly parents in the home country, school counseling for children, crime prevention, repatriation programs, adult health care programs, and legal services.

In addition to the data on frequency, expatriate respondents assigned a degree of importance to the problems and desired services. Similarly, the results based on frequency, issues such as language barriers, children's schooling, mental health, juvenile problems, child health care, concern over elderly parents back home, and adult health care were highly rated as serious problems that the expatriates generally faced in overseas assignments. Again, the expatriates desired social services such as language programs, school counseling for children, mental health programs, youth programs, child health care systems, services for elderly parents in the home country, and adult health care services.

Some of the above issues emerged from a particular ethnic group. In terms of frequency of problems or services, American expatriates focused on issues such as recreation, transportation and/or traffic, children back home, marital relations, employment guidance, and homemaking; Korean expatriates in the United States mainly cited children's schooling, repatriation, racial and/or ethnic relations, legal support, and financial needs. These items based on frequency also fairly corresponded to data based on rankings of the importance in the problems and the services.

Implication of Major Findings

The present study has broadened conceptual knowledge of American and Korean expatriate workers' adaptation to culturally different work environments, presenting a composite picture of the expatriate work setting. The findings suggest social work interventions to alleviate various problems of expatriate workers and to facilitate adjustment problems in overseas assignments.

This study was particularly designed to gather cross-cultural adjustment data, based on synergistic systems approaches. It established a methodological link among the four major environments that affect the expatriates' adaptation to overseas assignments: national culture, organization and community, individual expatriate workers, and the expatriates' families.

The results of this study support existing literature on cross-cultural studies (Briody & Chrisman, 1991; Fontaine, 1997; Hofstede, 1980, Mendelhall & Oddou, 1991, Takeuchi & Hannon, 1996). Hypotheses 1 (defining cultural attributes of the comparison group), 6 (number of foreign countries experienced), 8 (cross-cultural training), 9 (community interaction), and 11 (family members back home) coincide with previous findings. The data offer moderate support to Hypothesis 10.

Some unique findings also emerged. The cultural attributes of the expatriates directly influenced their adjustment in the host country

(Hypothesis 2). Expatriate workers characterized by low power distance but who worked in a high power distance society were more likely to experience adjustment difficulties, whereas the expatriates from low uncertainty avoidance tended to have more difficulties in adapting to a high uncertainty avoidance society.

This study examined extensively the influence of individual coping methods to the expatriates' cross-cultural adaptation (Hypothesis 4). In addition to planning, which Cross (1995) found to be a strong predictor of alleviating stress for the Asian students in the United States, this study discovered negative effects such as acceptance, behavioral disengagement, and alcohol and/or drug disengagement that some Korean expatriates applied to overcome difficulties. The extent to which the American expatriates were more dependent on coping methods such as seeking social support for instrumental reasons, focusing on and venting of emotion, behavioral disengagement, and mental disengagement was suggested to evoke higher stress in South Korea.

Hypothesis 5 involved examination of the effects of relationships with foreign counterparts that the expatriates maintained. Using the factor analysis method, 10 out of 11 items from the first-stage survey were grouped into four factors: explicitness of relationship, social customs, different business style, and reliance.⁸ These 10 items were suggested to be directly or

⁸ Sub-categories in each factor are listed in Table 15.

indirectly influencing the expatriates' adaptation to the new work environment.

To design a practical intervention plan, a needs assessment was carried out. Chapter VI discusses major problems these expatriate workers faced and types of services they critically needed in their overseas assignments. The assessment provided information on common needs of both comparison groups and each comparison group.

Some results of the study were, however, not consistent with earlier findings. Previous research has indicated that expatriate workers who originated from a heterogeneous culture but are assigned to a homogeneous culture would encounter more difficulties than workers from a homogeneous culture assigned to a heterogeneous culture. In the present study, American expatriates from a relatively heterogeneous society showed higher adaptability in South Korea, considered a homogeneous society, than Korean workers in the United States, a heterogeneous society.

The "U" curve theory in Chapter II was partially supported through Hypothesis 7. Although the expatriates' cultural adaptability after the fifth year of working in foreign assignments had dramatically increased as predicted by the "U" curve assumption, the expatriate workers in this study showed the highest level of stress in the first year of employment in the host country and this was not correspondent to the previous research. During the initial period, the "U" curve theory holds that expatriate workers show better

adjustment due to their enthusiasm for the new tasks and interests in the host culture.

Suggestions for Social Work Intervention

Industrial social workers have not yet been actively involved in the strategic planning for human services in multinational corporations, at least not in the process of assigning expatriate workers. However, with the unique systemic perspective on the basis of the comprehensive service model, the social worker could be a valuable counselor, consultant, and therapist to enhance the adjustment of expatriates to new work environments. Rather than looking at the expatriate process in fragmented pieces, international assignees have a higher chance of success when a social worker links the overseas assignment elements together from start to finish. The professional social worker is considered to have enough understanding and ability to see how any one part of the process links with other parts.

According to Solomon (1995), the elements of the international assignment process include: assessment selection, company orientation, cross-cultural training, dual career support, relocation/move assistance, in-country orientation, support and development, re-entry planning and assistance, repatriation, and reintegration. The social worker can directly facilitate a range of activities, including selection, cross-cultural training, overseas support systems, helping expatriates and their families to adapt to a

foreign assignment, and repatriation. The expansion of social work programs in the industrial setting is a key issue which needs to be critically addressed.

Selection

Companies should first select employees who are qualified for overseas assignments. A sophisticatedly planned selection system enhances the likelihood of the best candidate for the overseas job. The vast majority of multinational corporations in the United States, however, select their expatriates based on managerial or technical excellence (Mendelhall & Oddou, 1991). They presume that managing well in the United States takes the same characteristics as managing well in South Korea (In this respect, Korean companies are similar to the American corporations). They also believe that the expatriate's ability to solve a technical problem will lead to success in any environment. However, technical competence may have nothing to do with his or her ability to adapt to a new environment, deal effectively with foreign coworkers, or perceive foreign behavioral norms.

Industrial social workers may evaluate the following factors in the process of selection of expatriate employees by: (1) assessing a worker's cultural attributes and national culture respectively and comparing them with each other; (2) considering his or her previous expatriate experiences in overseas assignments; (3) examining the adaptability potential of the spouse and other family members.

First, the assessment of individual cultural characteristics follows the formulas 1, 2, and 3 described in Hypothesis 1 in Chapter V. Each acquired score on PDI, UAI, and INV consequently predicts the individual's tendency in power distance, uncertainty avoidance, and individualism. Information about the national culture in the host country where he or she expects to be assigned can be obtained by Hofstede's study. In Cultural Consequences (1980), he classified the cultural attributes of each country on the basis of power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity. Appendix F includes a list of 53 national cultures analyzed by Hofstede.

Through the careful comparison of cultures between the individual worker and the host country, the social worker can select an appropriate assignee who is the most likely to adapt to the host culture. As tested in Hypothesis 2, the social worker can avoid assigning a worker who tends to indicate low power distance to a high power distance nation. Sending a worker who is inclined toward high uncertainty avoidance to a low uncertainty avoidance prevalent country would be inappropriate.

Second, the extent to which an expatriate worker adapts to the host culture is likely to depend on the number of foreign countries in which he or she has worked (Hypothesis 6). Earlier expatriate experiences in overseas assignments should be considered as one of the most important aspects for predicting successful adjustment of the expatriate workers. In the selection process, the social worker should consider the number of foreign countries

employees have previously worked in and carefully pay attention to their residential experiences during the overseas assignments.

Third, Hiltrop and Janssens (1995) argued that the company should conduct a “family screening process.” According to them, important factors social workers need to consider in this selection process are: the level of marital stability, responsibilities for aged parents, the presence of learning disabilities in a child, behavioral problems in teenagers, and the strength of the family’s ties to the community, friends, and other family members.

Since the reason most often cited for the failure of foreign operation is a spouse’s inability to adapt, the social worker should consider the spouse’s likelihood to succeed overseas. This issue is further complicated when both spouses work. One of the two generally has to put a career “on hold.” In addition, families with middle and late teens often have more problems than those with younger children (Mendelhall & Oddou, 1991). These are critical issues that must be dealt with by industrial social workers.

In addition, assigning an expatriate worker whose family will accompany him or her to the foreign country will be more likely to be successful than sending him or her alone and leaving the family back home. In support of Hypothesis 11, the difference between the actual number of children and the number of children accompanying the expatriate worker to the host country negatively influenced the cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate workers. In fact, the American expatriates whose children did not

accompany them often expressed worries about their children back home and they considered this as one of the most serious problems connected with working in South Korean. Some companies, however, do not allow expatriates to go abroad with the whole family; they may support expatriates' spouses only, not their children. If a worker is eager to be assigned with all the family, the social worker should advocate for the worker and encourage the company to support his or her family in the host nation.

Finally, according to Mendenhall and Oddou (1991), industrial social workers should participate in the selection process with evaluating additional factors such as:

- Do the expatriates have sufficient cross-cultural skills in terms of individual-oriented, others-oriented, and perception-oriented aspects?⁹
- How appealing is the assignment to the family?
- How likely are they to succeed in adjustment?
- Are there support systems for them (and their families) in the host country?

Training

Once the selection process is completed, companies should offer formal training programs to prepare expatriate workers and families for overseas assignments. Despite the clear needs to minimize the expatriates' problems caused by "culture shock," few companies offer formal cross-cultural training

⁹ Each cross-cultural skill is introduced in Chapter II.

to help employees deal with adaptation issues. Some firms simply hand the expatriate a few brochures intended to give the information just before he or she boards a plane. Though brochures are sometimes quite informative, written information alone usually is not sufficient to guarantee successful adaptation when an employee is sent to a culture that differs significantly from his or her own (Mendelhall & Oddou, 1991).

The results from this study demonstrate that that most expatriates received little pre-departure training. In total, 75.5% of the expatriate workers responded that their companies provided no cross-cultural training (65.3% of the Americans; 83.6% of the Koreans). This study shows the amount of cross-cultural training received significantly influenced the extent to which the expatriates adjusted to overseas assignments ($p < .031$); this corresponds to a recent review of the literature by Black and Mendenhall (1990) who found strong empirical support for a positive relationship between cross-cultural training and cross-cultural adjustment. The finding of this study additionally suggests that the training might be more effective in increasing expatriates' adaptability when it is conducted for more than 30 hours (re: Figure 9).

In terms of contents, the pre-departure training described in previous studies should meet the expatriates' needs for understanding of foreign customs, thinking patterns, societal values, language, organizational culture, environmental factors, and support systems. Among these issues, a test of

Hypothesis 5 in this study verified that familiarity with social customs, trusting foreign counterparts, and understanding hierarchical management were most likely to affect the American expatriates' adaptation to South Korea, while issues of different business style and familiarity of business etiquette tended to significantly influence the Korean expatriates in the United States. Thus, training of employees about to be sent to a foreign country should include general education (different business environments, social and business etiquette, and social customs), role playing, ethnic sensitivity training, culture confrontation, critical incidents, and field experiences in order to overcome misunderstandings, frustration, and differences in customs and traditional courtesies. Industrial social workers should understand all these effects on cross-cultural adjustment and actively participate in or organize the entire training programs. If necessary, social workers should link the expatriates with community resources such as foreign language centers.

Testing Hypothesis 4 denotes that individual coping styles and/or abilities directly affect the expatriates' adjustment. In general, strategic planning was the most influential predictor in alleviating stress in overseas assignments, while venting of emotion, denial, behavioral disengagement, and alcohol and/or drug disengagement, on the contrary, increased the expatriates' stress levels. During cross-cultural training sessions, social workers should examine individual coping methods and intervene to

strengthen employees' strategic planning ability as well as to minimize negative effects from the inappropriate coping methods in order to help expatriate workers overcome difficulties in the host country.

In addition, trying to understand and deal with cross-cultural problems before leaving one's home country reduces the degree of stress expatriate workers will inevitably encounter in a foreign country. General problems that expatriate workers are likely to experience in foreign assignments are described in Chapter VI.

Since the main reason for early returns to the country of origin is the spouse's and/or family's inability to adapt, social work services should also include the spouse and any other family members planning to accompany the worker abroad. According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1991), such training is often more important for the spouse than it is for the expatriate worker. Although the employee changes job locations, the nature of the job may not change drastically. However, the spouse may experience extreme changes: a postponed career, a different language, different stores and shopping habits, a lack of friends and family nearby upon which to rely, and so forth.

Finally, social workers should not overlook today's technology which can play an important role in cross-cultural training. For example, videoconferencing is used as a key element in many training programs. An employee who is about to leave the home country can meet local experts in the destination country. In other words, teleconferencing makes it possible

for the potential expatriate worker to converse with someone who is actually working and living in the host country, and thus he or she can experience the host culture and the new work environment in advance.

Overseas Support Systems

To minimize the risk of expatriate failure, companies should provide continuous supports or training to the expatriates even after they arrive in the foreign assignment. Hiltrop and Janssens (1995) recommended that expatriate workers should be exempted from active duties in the first six months of arrival in a foreign country because the pressure to produce immediately in an overseas assignment compounds the demands imposed on the expatriates and may negatively affect fulfillment on the job. Their performance should be assessed on the basis of long-term profitability rather than on short-term figures.

Once expatriate workers start to work in the overseas assignment, social workers should consider establishing an overseas support system for the expatriates. First, social workers can encourage supervisors to assist in expatriates' adjustment. The supervisor could be responsible for informal counseling, the sponsorship of monthly social gatherings to discuss problems and successes as expatriates, and could serve as a mentor to newly arrived spouses. Industrial social workers can train "potential" supervisors in a foreign site to be sensitive to cross-cultural issues, identify their employees'

job performance problems, recognize their difficulties in living in the new environment, and refer employees to qualified professionals. In fact, supervisory training has been recognized as a major component in the domain of industrial social work. Historically, employee assistance programs have emphasized supervisory training in their design and operation since the 1940s (Boone, 1995). The sufficient use of social workers in supervisory training can promote expatriates' adjustment in the culturally different workplace.

Second, communication is critical among expatriates, not only for ongoing information-sharing, but also for the "out of sight, out of mind" dilemma. Much can change after a long-term overseas assignment. If the expatriate is the only one at the foreign assignment, social workers should encourage the employee to call corporate or division headquarters and his or her family as often as needed. The expatriate worker may need to ask questions for guidance, to receive suggestions from other former expatriates about difficulties he or she is experiencing, or just to have someone who will listen. If necessary, telephone counseling with the expatriate should be facilitated. Social workers can be available to offer such support.

Social workers should recognize again that recent technology is an important communication tool and actively apply it to both expatriate workers and their families. Electronic mail (E-mail), faxes, voice mail, video-conferencing, online newsletters and shared data bases are some of the ways

global employees can remain linked to their home country and colleagues. Croft (1995) also noted that electronic communication could help employees adjust to their new surroundings by providing a channel to seek feedback on cultural issues. Because many expatriates are highly mobile, electronic communication is one of the most efficient methods of interaction. Social workers should encourage the expatriate, troubled or not, to contact them in headquarters by E-mail to discuss any problems they have as they try to adjust to the new environment.

Third, social workers can also inform the expatriate of any local resources to increase mutual support. For example, if the family is active in a church, social workers could tell them about the nearest congregation of their faith. If the expatriate is a member of a club such as Rotary or Lions, social workers can inform him or her about local chapters (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Also, the other forms of employee assistance programs, contracted-out services from a private consulting firm, a nonprofit community facility, or a private social work practitioner in the host country, can be used by social workers as referral sources.

Fourth, although it is important to maintain social networks among the expatriates, interacting with host nationals seems to be more effective in adjusting to the host culture. The result of testing Hypothesis 9 confirmed that the expatriate worker who became involved more with the host country community was more likely to adjust to that culture than one who interacted

mainly with others from his or her home country. Social workers should emphasize the importance of the host country community and offer practical guidance on how to become involved in the community. Social work theories regarding community organization might be applied to this intervention.

Finally, joint efforts with another corporation should be considered. If another U.S.-owned or South Korea-owned firm or subsidiary in the same area has expatriate employees, the two firms might cooperatively encourage those employees to share information and otherwise help each other (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Thus, it is essential to keep in touch with other industrial social workers who work for other multinational corporations and to cooperate with them in order to pursue the interests of both successful adjustment of expatriate workers and their families who do not belong to the same company but face similar difficulties in the same region.

Repatriation

As described in Chapter II, expatriate workers who return to their home country after an extended period of time are likely to face a number of problems. Although expatriates do not expect any unusual upon returning, they often soon realize that the country and the company have changed considerably since taking their foreign assignment (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). A large number of the expatriates, particularly the Korean expatriates in this study, found that repatriation was one of the most serious

problems that they encountered related to the foreign operation. They expected to have specific repatriation services or programs available to help them repatriate effectively.

Social workers should understand the essence of this re-entry problem and develop a succession plan that identifies the subsequent job position upon repatriation. Shepard (1997) revealed that only 25% of returning expatriates receive any forms of repatriation counseling to prepare them for reentry. Six months prior to the termination of the global assignment, an internal position search should be initiated (Hiltrop & Janssens, 1995). In addition to job related issues, social workers can design a repatriation program which applies not only to individual workers but also to their families. During personal interviews with the Korean expatriates in the United States, some expressed serious concerns about the readjustment of their children to the Korean education system. The key issue that the work organization should recognize is to involve the expatriates in the corporation's decision-making process and to listen carefully to the expatriates' and their families' needs to minimize a "culture shock in reverse." This is indeed basic social work practice, i.e., listening carefully to client needs and responding to them.

Research Limitations and Recommendations for Future Study

The results of this study should be viewed cautiously because of some limitations. Results of this study may not be generalizable to diverse

workforce. Respondents were primarily middle- and upper-level managers. About 96% of the sample were male; thus, only 4% were female. For the American expatriates, both African Americans and Hispanics accounted for only five percent (2% and 3% respectively). Future studies need to involve more diverse samples—females, people of color, and rank and file workers— to increase the validity of research outcome. Gender and race issues in the expatriate setting should be considered.

This study was designed to examine various issues of cross-cultural adjustment between the two particular comparison groups. Thus, the study's findings may be limited to expatriate workers in a specific region: American expatriates in South Korea and Korean expatriates in the United States.

This study assessed the expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and considered the influence of national culture, organization and/or community, individual expatriate workers, and family members. However, broad power dependency between the two countries, e.g., the United States and South Korea, may also influence expatriate workers' adjustment. In the world economic system, South Korea is more likely to depend on the U.S. economy and the attitudes of Korean expatriates toward the U.S. companies in business negotiations, for example, would not be the same as those of American expatriates in South Korea. Thus, future studies should consider this power relation as a fifth element, provide more insights into the effects of

the world's power structure on expatriates' adjustment, and lead to a more generalized theory of cross-cultural adjustment.

There exists some inadequacy in terms of testing factors which influence foreign adjustment of expatriate workers. For example, results of Hypothesis 10 suggested that most spouses were satisfied with their lives in the foreign country and thus the degree of spouses' satisfaction did not significantly affect the expatriates' adaptability. However, the extent of the satisfaction was rated not by spouses themselves but by the expatriates. All questions used in this study were designed to ask the expatriates only, not the spouses. If the future study has a separate questionnaire for spouses and asks them directly how satisfied they are with living in the host country, the answers of spouse satisfaction may differ.

Although this study has recommended social workers' interventions in the four major processes, i.e., selection, training, establishment of the overseas support system, and repatriation, specific effects of the interventions should be further confirmed in future studies. To measure overall effects, future researchers might consider a longitudinal research design that starts with workers at the beginning of the selection process and follows them to the end of repatriation. Another type of longitudinal study could involve employees who are about to be sent overseas, some who are currently working in foreign assignments, and others who have completed overseas jobs and returned to the home country.

In addition to evaluating expatriate adjustment processes, a future study might analyze relationships between the degree of adjustment and the extent of performance in overseas assignments. If such an experimental study empirically verifies that the extent to which expatriate workers adapt to foreign environments positively influences productivity in the workplace, the importance of cross-cultural adjustment will be better recognized and appreciated. And, such studies will contribute further to the expansion of industrial social work in the expatriate work setting.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for the First-Stage Study

We would like to have your honest opinion.

I am a doctoral student studying labor relations and social welfare at Michigan State University. This is part of my study on the influence of cultural differences between American employees and Korean counterparts on work satisfaction and productivity in the workplace. Your answers will be a basis for a more specific future survey.

Please, give us 3 major problems which tend to evoke difficulties associated with cultural differences when you work with Korean counterparts. Then, according to the degree of the importance, please rate each factor on each of the following scale (1, 2, 3, 4 or 5).

Please, do not write your name. Thank you very much.

The difficulties I often encounter when I work with Korean counterparts:

1. _____

☐ 5. very important
☐ 4. somewhat important
☐ 3. important
☐ 2. somewhat unimportant
☐ 1. not important at all
2. _____

☐ 5. very important
☐ 4. somewhat important
☐ 3. important
☐ 2. somewhat unimportant
☐ 1. not important at all
3. _____

☐ 5. very important
☐ 4. somewhat important
☐ 3. important
☐ 2. somewhat unimportant
☐ 1. not important at all

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

Table 26. Categories of Difficulties in Working with Foreign Counterparts
Cited by Americans (N = 33) Using Questionnaire in Appendix A.

Response	Rank
Communication barriers ex. Language barrier	1
Hierarchical management style ex. Top down mgt. (the U.S.: rational team meeting) Little empowerment (authorities) given to junior/middle managers Conscious of a visitor's rank/status Lack of teamwork and cooperation (don't know how to handle criticisms and disagreement) Rigid structured organizational thinking Too much red tape Low worker satisfaction (because many Korean companies are very militaristic)	2
Different business style ex. Decision making process: Collectivism (tendency to delay decision until all are in agreement or informed) (prefer to make group decision) Negotiation style (Korea: importance of outside meeting) Too many meetings (and each meeting takes too much time) Working pace: too fast (didn't have time to reflect their actions) Different process for achievement of goal/objective Great attention to detail (rather than "big picture")	3
Misunderstanding social culture/custom ex. Different work culture/work ethic Difficulties in translation Attitude toward women Reluctant to say "No"	4

APPENDIX B

Table 26 (cont'd).

Response	Rank
Resistance to changes	6
ex. Not listen to recommendations	
Lack of consultation	
Lack of creativity (good at following direction but not think on their own)	
Adherence to existing/outdated position/procedures	
Lack of open communication	7
ex. Lack of information sharing/explanations	
Illogicality	8
ex. Not being ordered to do things	
Too emotional in business projects (don't know how to separate business process from personal feeling)	
Exchange of complex ideas (don't involve numbers)	
Lack of rational/logical evaluation	
Lack of implementation of strategic plans	9
ex. Difference in business priorities	
No specific strategic plans	
Others	5
ex. Lack of professional knowledge	
Lack of accountability/responsibility by management (new ideas are made by lower managers without clear direction from the top)	
Capricious (The Korean customer always tries to change the contract conditions even when my company believe the business is "settled")	
Insufficient knowledge on U.S. regulations	
Office Automation (E-mail, files, computers)	
Conflict Resolution	
Frequent management rotation (based on age/seniority/time)	

Note. Rank is based on the aggregation of scales that respondents rated in each category.

APPENDIX C

Table 27. Categories of Difficulties in Working with Foreign Counterparts
Cited by Koreans (N = 41) Using Questionnaire in Appendix A.

Response	Rank
Misunderstanding of culture/custom ex. Lack of respect to cultural differences Different perspectives/way of thinking Misunderstanding from different eating habits Cultural conflict (the U.S.: opened/flexible; Korea: closed/ conservative) Cultural prejudice/conflict Co. is unwilling to give days off for Korean Holidays Blood/territorial/alumni relation (Korea) Difficulties in understanding humor	1
Communication barriers ex. Misunderstanding to reactions Lack of English ability	2
Individualism ex. Lack of warm & friendly heart/affection Drawing a too sharp line bet. public & private affairs Overly money-oriented Not a good team player Lack of loyalty to the company	3
Reliance ex. Keeping schedule Being on time Unclear duty/responsibility	4
Discrimination/white supremacy ex. Reluctance in hiring natives & unequal opportunities in promotion and wage Strong pressure to adapt American business style (overlooking characteristics of Korean business/market)	5

APPENDIX C

Table 27 (cont'd).

Response	Rank
Logicality ex. Americans: too rational vs. Koreans: emotional/immediate	6
Different business style ex. Different decision making process Lack of international outlook/sensitivity (Korea) Different accounting system Different business practice, e.g., dining out together after the business hour	7
Business manners ex. Etiquette Lack of courtesy/respect on supervisors/coworkers (in the U.S.)	8
Unclear duty/responsibility ex. Absence of centripetal force/person	10
Lack of understanding corporation culture/structure	11
Others ex. Insufficient professional knowledge Lack of consistent policy Reluctance in revealing know-how/technology Facial expression Different daily life/hobby	9

Note. Rank is based on the aggregation of scales that respondents rated in each category.

APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

Table 28. Rating of Difficulties in Working with Foreign Counterparts Cited by American Employees (N = 33) and Korean Employees (N= 41)

Difficulties	American Workers		Korean Workers	
	rating	<u>n</u>	rating	<u>n</u>
Communication barriers	4.63	20	4.80	25
Misunderstanding of social culture	4.10	10	4.48	27
Logicity	4.80	8	4.38	8
Different business style	4.47	17	3.78	9
Hierarchical management	4.27	18	—	—
Lack of open communication	4.33	7	—	—
Lack of strategic plans	4.60	8	—	—
Resistance to change	3.57	7	—	—
Individualism	—	—	4.38	16
Discrimination	—	—	4.08	13
Reliance	—	—	4.75	12
Business manners	—	—	4.00	7
Understanding corporate culture	—	—	4.00	3
Others	4.25	8	4.00	5

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

Table 29. Sources of Study Subjects for the Second-Stage Survey

Company	Description
(American Expatriates in South Korea)	
Ford International Business Development, Inc.	Ford's representative office.
Ford Motor Company of Korea	Sales and distribution network for imported Ford vehicles in S. Korea
Kia Ford Credit Finance Company	Joint venture: Financing business for Ford and/or Kia vehicles
Halla Climate Control Corp.	50/50 joint venture between Ford and Mando Machinery Corp.: Automotive climate control systems and engine cooling
Halla Electronics Corp.	Joint venture between Ford and Mando Machinery: Electrical equipment for motor vehicles
General Motors-Korea	GM's administrative and sales office in Korea
Daewoo Automotive Components	Joint venture between GM and Daewoo: Automotive components and sub systems
Kia Motors Corp.	Headquarters and Sohari plant
Bosch Korea Ltd.	Automotive equipment
Alliedsignal Korea, Ltd.	Turbocharger products for automobile

APPENDIX E

Table 29 (cont'd).

Company	Description
Dynacast Korea, Ltd.	Precision die castings for automobile
EG&G Korea	Analytical and clinical instruments; mechanical and optoelectronic components for automobile
Korea Bosch Mechanics & Electronics	ABS and fuel pumps to car manufacturer in S. Korea
Siemens Automotive Systems Corp.	Joint venture with Daesung Industrial Co.: Electronic control unit for gasoline engine
Teledyne	Engines and machine tools
United Technologies	Automotive components
Dana Asia Korea Co.	Engine parts and fluid power systems
(Korean Expatriates in the U.S.)	
Kia Motor Corp.	Automobiles
Daewoo Motor America	Automobiles
Daewoo Heavy Industries	Automobiles and automotive components
Halla Climate Control Corp.	Car air conditioning components
Hankook Tire America Corp.	Tires for automobiles
Hyundai Motor America	Automotive components
Hyundai Precision & Industry	Automobiles and automotive components
Haitai Electronics	Electronic components for automobiles

APPENDIX E

Table 29 (cont'd).

Company	Description
Kwang Jin Sang Gong	Automotive components
Mando America Techical Center, Inc.	Automotive components
Samsung Motors Inc.	Automobiles
Ssangyong Motors Corp.	Automobiles

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

Table 30. Rankings of National Cultures Using Hofstede's Classification

Country	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity
Africa (East)	22 (64)	36 (52)	34 (27)	39 (41)
Africa (West)	10 (77)	34 (54)	40 (20)	30 (46)
Arab region	7 (80)	27 (68)	26 (38)	23 (53)
Argentina	35 (49)	12 (86)	22 (46)	20 (56)
Australia	41 (36)	37 (51)	2 (90)	16 (61)
Austria	53 (11)	24 (70)	18 (55)	2 (79)
Belgium	20 (65)	5 (94)	8 (75)	22 (54)
Brazil	14 (69)	21 (76)	26 (38)	27 (49)
Canada	39 (39)	41 (48)	4 (80)	24 (52)
Chile	24 (63)	12 (86)	38 (23)	46 (28)
Colombia	17 (67)	20 (80)	49 (13)	11 (64)
Costa Rica	43 (35)	12 (86)	46 (15)	48 (21)
Denmark	51 (18)	51 (23)	9 (74)	50 (16)
El Salvador	18 (66)	5 (94)	42 (19)	40 (40)
Ecuador	8 (78)	28 (67)	52 (8)	13 (63)
Finland	46 (33)	31 (59)	17 (63)	47 (26)
France	15 (68)	12 (86)	10 (71)	35 (43)
Germany (West)	43 (35)	29 (65)	15 (67)	9 (66)
Great Britain	43 (35)	47 (35)	3 (89)	9 (66)
Greece	27 (60)	1 (112)	30 (35)	18 (57)
Guatemala	3 (95)	3 (101)	53 (6)	43 (37)
Hong Kong	15 (68)	49 (29)	37 (25)	18 (57)
Indonesia	8 (78)	41 (48)	47 (14)	30 (46)
India	10 (77)	45 (40)	21 (48)	20 (56)
Iran	29 (58)	31 (59)	24 (41)	35 (43)
Ireland	49 (28)	47 (35)	12 (70)	7 (68)
Israel	52 (13)	19 (81)	19 (54)	29 (47)
Italy	34 (50)	23 (75)	7 (76)	4 (70)
Jamaica	37 (45)	52 (13)	25 (39)	7 (68)
Japan	33 (54)	7 (92)	22 (46)	1 (95)
Korea (South)	27 (60)	16 (85)	43 (18)	41 (39)
Malaysia	1 (104)	46 (36)	36 (26)	25 (50)
Mexico	6 (81)	18 (82)	32 (30)	6 (69)
Netherlands	40 (38)	35 (53)	4 (80)	51 (14)

APPENDIX F

Table 30 (cont'd).

Country	Power Distance	Uncertainty Avoidance	Individualism	Masculinity
Norway	47 (31)	38 (50)	13 (69)	52 (8)
New Zealand	50 (22)	40 (49)	6 (79)	17 (58)
Pakistan	32 (55)	24 (70)	47 (14)	25 (50)
Panama	2 (95)	12 (86)	51 (11)	34 (44)
Peru	22 (64)	9 (87)	45 (16)	37 (42)
Philippines	3 (94)	44 (44)	31 (32)	11 (64)
Portugal	24 (63)	2 (104)	34 (27)	45 (31)
Singapore	13 (74)	53 (8)	40 (20)	28 (48)
South Africa	35 (49)	39 (49)	16 (65)	13 (63)
Spain	31 (57)	12 (86)	20 (51)	37 (42)
Sweden	47 (31)	49 (29)	10 (71)	53 (5)
Switzerland	45 (34)	33 (58)	14 (68)	4 (70)
Taiwan	29 (58)	26 (69)	44 (17)	32 (45)
Thailand	22 (64)	30 (64)	40 (20)	44 (34)
Turkey	18 (66)	16 (85)	28 (37)	32 (45)
United States	38 (40)	43 (46)	1 (91)	15 (62)
Uruguay	26 (61)	4 (100)	29 (36)	42 (38)
Venezuela	5 (81)	21 (76)	50 (12)	3 (73)
Yugoslavia	12 (76)	8 (88)	34 (27)	48 (21)

Note. Adapted from Hofstede, G. (1980). Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage. Numbers in parentheses indicate scores in each cultural dimension, i.e., power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism, and masculinity.

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

Cross-Cultural Adjustment Survey

This survey is designed to examine the effect of cultural aspects on workers' adjustment to culturally different work environments in the United States and South Korea. The information from this survey will be used in a graduate school thesis. I would appreciate if you kindly give honest answers to the following questions.

If you agree to participate in this study, please understand the following:

1. The following questionnaire will take 15 to 20 minutes.
2. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential.
Please, DO NOT WRITE YOUR NAME.
3. After reading each question, you will answer it by circling the number next to the best answer.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you wish, I will share with you the outcome of this survey.
I can be reached at:

U.S. Fax: (provided)
Seoul Fax: (provided)

APPENDIX G

Please think of an ideal job - disregarding your present job. In choosing an ideal job, how important would it be to you? (Mark one answer for each line)

How important is it to you to:	<u>of utmost importance</u>	<u>very important</u>	<u>of moderate importance</u>	<u>of little importance</u>	<u>of very little or no importance</u>
1. Have challenging tasks to do, from which you can get a personal sense of accomplishment?	1	2	3	4	5
2. Have training opportunities (to improve your skills or to learn new skills)?	1	2	3	4	5
3. Have good physical working conditions (good ventilation and lighting, adequate work space, etc.)?	1	2	3	4	5
4. Have considerable freedom to adapt your own approach to the job?	1	2	3	4	5
5. Fully use your skills and abilities on the job?	1	2	3	4	5
6. Have sufficient time left for your personal or family life?	1	2	3	4	5

The descriptions below apply to four different types of managers. First, please read through these descriptions:

Manager Type 1	Usually makes his/her decisions promptly and communicates them to his/her subordinates clearly and firmly. Expects subordinates to carry out the decisions faithfully and without raising difficulties.
Manager Type 2	Usually makes his/her decisions promptly, but, before going ahead, tries to explain them fully to his/her subordinates. Gives them the reasons for the decisions and answers whatever questions they may have.
Manager Type 3	Usually consults with his/her subordinates before he/she reaches his/her decisions. Listens to their advice, considers it, and then announces his/her decision. Then expects all to cooperate to implement it whether or not it concurs with the advice they gave.
Manager Type 4	Usually calls a meeting with his/her subordinates when there is an important decision to be made. Puts the problem before the group and tries to obtain consensus. Accepts the majority viewpoint as the decision.

7. Now, for the types of manager above, please mark the one for which you would *prefer* to work.

1. ___ Manager 1 2. ___ Manager 2 3. ___ Manager 3 4. ___ Manager 4

8. And, to which one of the four types of managers above would you say your own manager *most closely corresponds*?

1. ___ Manager 1 2. ___ Manager 2 3. ___ Manager 3 4. ___ Manager 4
5. ___ None of them

APPENDIX G

Please indicate the extent to which you personally agree or disagree with the following statement.
(Mark one answer for each line)

	strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
9. I am familiar with the social customs of the host country.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I tend to draw a clear line between official and personal affairs in the workplace.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I prefer to make group decisions.	1	2	3	4	5
12. It is natural that I follow the orders of supervisors.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I am willing to share information with foreign counterparts.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am very open to the advice/recommendations of foreign counterparts.	1	2	3	4	5
15. If the company really needs me, I don't mind coming in and working overtime on weekends.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I have received unequal treatment by foreign counterparts based on my culture.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I trust foreign counterparts.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I understand what would bother foreign counterparts when I dine with them.	1	2	3	4	5
19. I feel nervous or tense at work.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Employees <i>in my parent company</i> in the U.S. seem afraid to express disagreement with their managers.	1	2	3	4	5
21. I believe that a company's rules should not be broken--even when the employee thinks it is in the company's best interests.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

For each item, you will be asked to indicate how often you felt or thought a certain way in your daily life during the last month. The best approach is to answer each question fairly quickly. That is, don't try to count up the number of times you felt a particular way, but rather indicate the number that seems like a reasonable estimate.

(Mark one answer for each line)

In the last month, how often:	very often	fairly often	sometimes	not often	never
22. Have you been upset because of something that happened unexpectedly?	1	2	3	4	5
23. Have you felt that you were unable to control the important things in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
24. Have you felt nervous and "stressed"?	1	2	3	4	5
25. Have you dealt successfully with irritating hassles in life?	1	2	3	4	5
26. Have you felt that you were coping effectively with important changes that were occurring in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
27. Have you felt confident about your ability to handle your personal problems?	1	2	3	4	5
28. Have you felt that things were going your way?	1	2	3	4	5
29. Have you found that you could not cope with all the things that you had to do?	1	2	3	4	5
30. Have you been able to control irritations in your life?	1	2	3	4	5
31. Have you felt that you were "on top" of things?	1	2	3	4	5
32. Have you been angered because of things that happened that were outside of your control?	1	2	3	4	5
33. Have you found yourself thinking about things that you have to accomplish?	1	2	3	4	5
34. Have you been able to control the way you spend your time?	1	2	3	4	5
35. Have you felt that you were facing difficulties that were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

Please consider and indicate what you *usually* do and feel, when you experience difficult or stressful events.

(Mark one answer for each line)

	(I usually do this:)			
	<u>a lot</u>	<u>a fair amount</u>	<u>a little</u>	<u>never</u>
36. I take additional action to try to get rid of the problem.	1	2	3	4
37. I try to come up with a strategy about what to do.	1	2	3	4
38. I put aside other activities in order to concentrate on this.	1	2	3	4
39. I force myself to wait for the right time to do something.	1	2	3	4
40. I try to get advice from someone about what to do.	1	2	3	4
41. I discuss my feelings with someone.	1	2	3	4
42. I look for something good in what is happening.	1	2	3	4
43. I accept that this has happened and that it can't be changed.	1	2	3	4
44. I try to find comfort in my religion.	1	2	3	4
45. I get upset and let my emotions out.	1	2	3	4
46. I pretend that it hasn't really happened.	1	2	3	4
47. I give up getting what I want.	1	2	3	4
48. I turn to work or other substitute activities to take my mind off things.	1	2	3	4
49. I drink alcohol or take drugs, in order to think about it less.	1	2	3	4

Please indicate your (or your family's) degree of satisfaction with the following statement.

(Mark one answer for each line)

	<u>very satisfied</u>	<u>satisfied</u>	<u>undecided</u>	<u>seldom satisfied</u>	<u>never satisfied</u>
50. How satisfied are you with work-related relationships with <i>foreign counterparts</i> ?	1	2	3	4	5
51. How satisfied are you with your social relationships with <i>people from your country</i> ?	1	2	3	4	5
52. If you are living with a <i>spouse</i> in South Korea, how satisfied would you say he/she is with living in this country? (<i>if not applicable, please skip this question</i>)	1	2	3	4	5
53. If you are living with <i>children</i> in South Korea, how satisfied would you say they are with living in this country? (<i>if not applicable, please skip this question</i>)	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

54. What are the five most serious problems you are experiencing in South Korea (*1=most serious, 2=2nd most serious, 3=3rd most serious, 4=4th most serious, 5=5th most serious*)? Please check ONLY FIVE problems in the following list, in order of seriousness

Problem

- | | |
|---|---|
| ☐ marital conflict | ☐ language barrier |
| ☐ family conflict | ☐ racial/ethnic conflict |
| ☐ emotional problems | ☐ cross-cultural misunderstanding |
| ☐ mental health | ☐ lack of educational opportunities |
| ☐ day care | ☐ lack of employment guidance/training |
| ☐ health problems of children | ☐ lack of homemaking/home help services |
| ☐ adoption | ☐ lack of financial support |
| ☐ school problems of children | ☐ lack of recreation |
| ☐ juvenile problems | ☐ lack of volunteer activities |
| ☐ parenting problems | ☐ poor police and fire services |
| ☐ family planning | ☐ legal problems |
| ☐ crime | ☐ public transportation |
| ☐ safety/security | ☐ religion |
| ☐ gambling | ☐ concern over elderly parents back home |
| ☐ alcohol and drug problems | ☐ concern over children back home |
| ☐ health care problems of adults | ☐ repatriation |
| ☐ physically handicapped | ☐ others (specify) _____ |

55. Please indicate five services that you would like to see developed as soon as possible (*1=most desirable, 2=2nd most desirable, 3=3rd most desirable, 4=4th most desirable, 5=5th most desirable*). Please choose ONLY FIVE services in the following list, in order of preference.

Service

- | | |
|--|---|
| ☐ marital counseling | ☐ language program |
| ☐ family counseling | ☐ racial/ethnic problem solving |
| ☐ emotional support/counseling | ☐ cross-cultural training |
| ☐ mental health services | ☐ education program |
| ☐ day care | ☐ employment guidance/training |
| ☐ health care services for children | ☐ homemaking/home help services |
| ☐ adoption | ☐ financial support |
| ☐ school counseling | ☐ recreation program |
| ☐ youth program | ☐ volunteer activities enhancement |
| ☐ parenting education | ☐ police and fire services |
| ☐ family planning services | ☐ legal services |
| ☐ crime prevention | ☐ public transportation |
| ☐ safety/security | ☐ religious services |
| ☐ gambling problem counseling | ☐ services for elderly parents in the home country |
| ☐ alcohol and drug prevention services | ☐ support for children in the home country |
| ☐ health care services for adults | ☐ repatriation |
| ☐ rehabilitation services for the handicapped | ☐ others (specify) _____ |

APPENDIX G

Please check the following questions about yourself:

1. Sex:
 1. ☐ male
 2. ☐ female

2. Current age:
 1. ☐ ≤ 29
 2. ☐ 30-39
 3. ☐ 40-49
 4. ☐ 50-59
 5. ☐ ≥ 60

3. Racial/Ethnic Background:
 1. ☐ White or Caucasian
 2. ☐ Black or Afro-American
 3. ☐ Latino/Hispanic
 4. ☐ Asian/Pacific Islander
 5. ☐ other _____

4. Current marital status
 1. ☐ never married
 2. ☐ married (*go to 4-1*)
 3. ☐ widowed
 4. ☐ divorced
 5. ☐ separated

- 4-1. You married
 1. ☐ prior to departure to South Korea
 2. ☐ during your assignment in South Korea

5. Highest degree attained
 1. ☐ high school/GED or less
 2. ☐ bachelor's degree
 3. ☐ master's degree
 4. ☐ doctoral degree
 5. ☐ other _____

6. Religion
 1. ☐ Catholic
 2. ☐ Protestant
 3. ☐ Buddhist
 4. ☐ no religion
 5. ☐ other _____

7. Nationality
 1. ☐ American
 2. ☐ Korean
 3. ☐ other _____

APPENDIX G

8. Nationality at birth (if different from your present nationality)
1. ☐ American
 2. ☐ Korean
 3. ☐ other _____
9. Number of children: _____
10. Number of children *currently* living in South Korea: _____
11. Number of foreign countries you have worked (or lived) in: _____
12. Employment
1. ☐ full-time
 2. ☐ part-time
13. Job classification
- | Office-related | Plant-related |
|---|---|
| 1. ☐ executive | 1. ☐ plant manager |
| 2. ☐ manager | 2. ☐ production manager |
| 3. ☐ supervisor | 3. ☐ superintendent |
| 4. ☐ recognized expert (scientist, etc.) | 4. ☐ general supervisor |
| 5. ☐ professional | 5. ☐ supervisor/group leader |
| 6. ☐ entry professional | 6. ☐ skilled trades |
14. The total length of employment in your company (including the time you have worked in South Korea)
1. ☐ less than 2 years
 2. ☐ 2 years - less than 5 years
 3. ☐ 5 years - less than 10 years
 4. ☐ 10 years - less than 20 years
 5. ☐ 20 years or more
15. How long do you think you will continue working for your company?
1. ☐ 2 years at the most
 2. ☐ 2 years - 5 years
 3. ☐ more than 5 years (but I will probably leave before I retire)
 4. ☐ until I retire
16. Length of time you have worked in South Korea: _____ year(s)
17. How many more years would you like to work in South Korea, *regardless of your official contract*?
1. ☐ 2 years at the most
 2. ☐ 2 years - 5 years
 3. ☐ more than 5 years (but I probably will leave before I retire)
 4. ☐ until I retire
18. Your social interaction in South Korea
1. ☐ more with expatriates
 2. ☐ more with host nationals (Koreans)
 3. ☐ almost equal amounts with both expatriates and host nationals

APPENDIX G

19. How good are you at understanding spoken Korean?

1. ☐ very good
2. ☐ good
3. ☐ moderate
4. ☐ poor
5. ☐ very poor

20. Did you experience cross-cultural training before you were assigned to South Korea?

1. ☐ yes (training hours: _____)
2. ☐ no

Please answer the following questions if you are living with a spouse in South Korea

21. Was your spouse employed just before you were assigned to South Korea?

1. ☐ yes
2. ☐ no

22. Is your spouse currently employed in South Korea?

1. ☐ yes
2. ☐ no

23. Spouse's social interaction in South Korea

1. ☐ more with expatriates
2. ☐ more with host nationals (Koreans)
3. ☐ almost equal amounts with both expatriates and nationals

24. How good is your spouse at understanding spoken Korean?

1. ☐ very good
2. ☐ good
3. ☐ moderate
4. ☐ poor
5. ☐ very poor

Thank you for completing the questionnaire.

Please send this survey in the self-addressed envelope or fax it to the following:

U.S. Fax: (provided)
Seoul Fax: (provided)

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