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AN EXTENDED MODEL OF EXPATRIATE EFFECTIVENESS:

THE ROLE OF SOCIAL NETWORKS

(Spin title: Social Network and Expatriate)

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by

Lily Jiao Li

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Richard Ivey School of Business
Graduate Program in Business Administration

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The School of Graduate and Postdoctoral Studies
The University of Western Ontario
London, Ontario, Canada

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An Extended Model of Expatriate Effectiveness: The Role of Social Networks

ABSTRACT

Previous research on expatriate management has mainly focused on expatriate adjustment to a new environment. However, expatriate effectiveness, a pertinent issue for both organizations and individuals, has not been examined in depth. In addition, few studies have focused on the role of social networks in expatriate management. This dissertation addresses two issues arising from related gaps in the existing literature on expatriate management: the components of expatriate effectiveness, and the impact of expatriate social networks. An empirical study was also conducted to test the influence of social networks, which provide cultural information and social support, on expatriate effectiveness.

In order to examine expatriate assignments from different perspectives, a multi-dimensional concept of expatriate effectiveness was proposed as including four indicators: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance and subsidiary performance. These four indicators measured expatriate assignment outcomes from the perspectives of both organizations and individuals.

To explore the role of expatriate social networks, this study categorized expatriate social networks based on the network contacts' nationalities. Therefore, the impact of both an expatriate's host and home national networks were examined. The results from a survey of expatriates showed that a larger

social network comprised of host nationals and with more frequent contacts with host nationals tended to give the expatriate more social support, and the closeness of host national networks was positively related to both the exchange of cultural information and social support. Furthermore, expatriates receiving more cultural information reported higher job performance, and expatriates experiencing more social support showed higher levels of job performance and job satisfaction.

The theoretical and practical implications for the findings are discussed, as well as the limitations of the study and recommendations for future research.

Key words: expatriate; effectiveness; social network

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

The internationalization of business has led to a significant increase in expatriate assignments. It is estimated that multinational corporations employed over 1.3 million expatriates from the United States alone (e.g. Shepard, 1997). In 1999, it was reported that 80% of the mid-sized and large companies sent expatriates abroad, and 45% of those companies planned to increase that number (Black & Gregersen, 1991, 1999). In their new assignments, expatriates are bound to face different work environments and colleagues as well as markedly different lifestyles and cultural environments. In the academic and practitioner literature on expatriate management, expatriate adjustment has been given considerable attention by researchers. However, relatively few studies (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Shay & Baack, 2004) focus on expatriate effectiveness, which is a broader issue in expatriate management. Also, the role of the expatriates' social networks as an antecedent of effectiveness has received limited attention. Hence, this dissertation addresses two issues based on the existing literature. First, what factors contribute to the effectiveness of expatriate assignments; and second, what is the impact of social networks on expatriate effectiveness through the provision of cultural information and social support? To examine these two aspects of expatriate effectiveness, I conducted an empirical survey based study of a sample of expatriates working world-wide.

The first goal of this dissertation is to measure the degree of international assignment success with a broad concept, expatriate effectiveness, which is comprised of a number of indicators. Many previous expatriate studies have used expatriate adjustment as the only outcome of an international assignment. I extend the measurement of expatriate assignment outcomes by applying a multiple-dimensional concept of expatriate

effectiveness and proposing four criteria: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance. These indicators of both the subjective and objective success of an expatriate's assignment from the perspective of both the individual and the organization makes this measurement more comprehensive and reliable. The multiple-dimensional framework of expatriate effectiveness also facilitates the integration of expatriate literature because it identifies the components of expatriate effectiveness and therefore facilitates comparisons across different studies.

The second purpose of this dissertation is to link the expatriate literature with the social network literature in order to gain a better understanding of how social network structures relate to the indicators of expatriate effectiveness. Social networks, for example, have been widely studied in the management literature and have been found to be related to many important outcomes, such as career success (Seibert *et al.*, 2001), newcomers' socialization (Morrison, 2002), and job performance (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994). However, the impact of social networks on expatriate effectiveness has been neglected. Thus, little is known about the function of the different types of social network structures on expatriate effectiveness. This dissertation extends the existing literature by addressing the issue of expatriate social networks as a determinant of expatriate effectiveness. To further explore the social network functions embedded in different network contacts, and based on the network contacts' nationality, I categorize an expatriate's social network into two types: host national networks and home national networks. Because they are comprised of contacts of different nationalities, these two types of social networks provide varying amounts of information and social support to expatriates. In social network literature, the function of social networks has been shown

to vary according to the network contacts' characteristics, such as gender (Ibarra, 1992) and organizational position (Seibert et al., 2001). Accordingly, the categorization of an expatriate's social network in this dissertation is based on the network contact's nationality, which is consistent with the nature of the expatriate context. This categorization presents a new perspective on expatriate research and enriches the social network literature. From a practical point of view, through gaining an enhanced understanding of the diverse functions of different types of social networks, expatriates may become better informed with respect to how best to seek out specific resources.

In this dissertation, the literature on expatriate effectiveness and social networks is reviewed in Chapter 2, where the research gaps in expatriate effectiveness studies are discussed. Then, in Chapter 3, based on previous literature, I propose a model of how expatriates' social networks may influence their effectiveness within a new environment by providing cultural information and social support. The methodology and scales used in the empirical study are discussed in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 presents the outcomes from the empirical study, and Chapter 6 discusses the results and implications. The limitations of this study and suggestions for future research are also included.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW AND RESEARCH GAPS

This chapter proposes the conceptualization of expatriate effectiveness as a multi-dimensional construct and reviews the literature on expatriate effectiveness and social networks. Specifically, this chapter discusses the construct of expatriate adjustment, which is widely used in the expatriate literature, and suggests that expatriate effectiveness is a more reliable and comprehensive measure of expatriate assignment since expatriate effectiveness includes the concerns of both the organization and the individual. Four indicators of expatriate effectiveness are proposed—psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance.

The impact of the social network on expatriate effectiveness is then discussed. Based on the literature review of social networks, I propose that social networks influence expatriates through two functions: cultural information and social support.

2.1 Expatriate Effectiveness

The term, expatriates, refers to people working outside of their home countries. With the marked increase in globalization of organizations, many researchers and practitioners have sought to examine the issue of expatriate management effectiveness. At the same time, researchers are facing an essential question: What are the criteria for identifying a successful expatriate assignment? Although there are many theoretical and empirical studies on expatriate management, researchers have adopted different criteria to measure the effectiveness of expatriate assignments, which makes the integration of the literature in subsequent research difficult. In order to develop a more thorough understanding of the expatriate assignment, I propose the term “expatriate effectiveness” and use four indicators by which to measure this concept. In the following section, I first

discuss Black and his colleagues' construct of expatriate adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991), which has been widely cited in the expatriate literature, and then I examine the concept of expatriate effectiveness and its four indicators. Antecedents of expatriate effectiveness from previous literature are reviewed as well.

2.1.1 The framework of expatriate adjustment

In the literature on expatriate management, the majority of studies have focused on the issue of expatriate adjustment as being a key outcome variable (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Mendenhall *et al.*, 2002) based on the construct proposed by Black and his colleagues (1991). Black and Gregersen (1991: 498) define adjustment as "the perceived degree of comfort" of the expatriate. They proposed three dimensions of expatriate adjustment: general adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment. General adjustment refers to the expatriate's psychological comfort with respect to the general living conditions and culture of the foreign country. Interaction adjustment refers to the interaction with the host-country nationals. Work adjustment refers to the job tasks of the foreign assignment.

Although Black *et al.*'s model has been used for over fifteen years; there are some limitations to this construct. First, the definition of adjustment itself lacks clarity. According to Black and Gregersen's definition, adjustment is "the perceived degree of comfort" (1991). However, this definition has received criticism for its lack of theoretical foundation and empirical evidence (Thomas, 1998) "Comfort" is an ambiguous word that refers only to the expatriates' general feelings, which does not provide a clear definition of the construct. Black *et al.*'s adjustment construct, therefore, may be interpreted in numerous ways such as: degree of satisfaction, absence of stress, psychological mood,

effective intercultural interaction as well as the ability to deal with conflict, anxiety, and life style changes (Thomas, 1998). Also, because the items in their scale all begin with "how adjusted are you to ..." they are not clearly linked to the definition of "comfort". The three broad dimensions in Black et al.'s construct of adjustment: work adjustment, interaction adjustment, and general adjustment, have also been questioned by some researchers (Nicholls *et al.*, 2002; Thomas, 1998). Moreover, Black and his colleagues have not provided enough theoretical rationale to explain the origin of the three adjustment dimensions, nor did they provide solid evidence for the construct validity of their measurement of these dimensions (Black, 1988; Black et al., 1991). Furthermore, Stahl and Caligiuri (2005) found that there is an overlap between work adjustment and interaction adjustment, and other important elements may not have been identified by Black's three adjustment dimensions (Hippler, 2000). In sum, Black et al.'s construct of adjustment is limited and requires a clearer definition of expatriate adjustment.

In addition, adjustment is not the only primary outcome of an expatriate's assignment. Although the issue of expatriate adjustment has stimulated many studies, the initial and basic purpose of an organization's international ventures and posting of individuals on expatriate assignments is to accomplish certain goals, such as to achieve international subsidiary control and success or to foster managerial development (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Harzing, 2001). In the expatriate management literature, the assumption is that better adjustment leads to higher performance (Hannigan, 1990). But some empirical studies have provided inconsistent evidence. For example, Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993) found that self-reports of performance were positively related to work adjustment, but not to general or interaction adjustment. On the other hand, Parker and

McEvoy (1993) found a negative relationship between general living adjustment and the level of performance of expatriates. Kealey (1989) demonstrated that the highest performing individuals, in terms of transferring skills and knowledge to host nationals, were also the most likely to experience severe culture shock. Therefore, a higher level of adjustment may not necessarily lead to improved expatriate performance. In addition, Clarke and colleagues (1995) found that performance and adjustment were predicted by different antecedents. For example, interpersonal skills were a predictor of personal adjustment, but not of expatriate performance. In summary, it seems that personal adjustment in itself is not a sufficient predictor of expatriate effectiveness.

2.1.2 Expatriate effectiveness as a more comprehensive framework

Although there are many studies focusing on expatriate adjustment, numerous researchers have realized the importance of other aspects of expatriate outcomes. For example, Testa, Mueller and Thomas (2003) examined the issue of expatriates' job satisfaction. Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) used actual task performance as the indicator of expatriate success. Shaffer and Harrison (1998) focused on expatriates' withdrawal cognition, and found that organizational commitment, job satisfaction and non-work satisfaction had a negative impact on withdrawal cognitions.

In an early article, Copeland and Griggs (1985) drew attention to expatriate effectiveness as an important outcome variable, but researchers have had different interpretations of the criteria of expatriate effectiveness. Caligiuri (1997) suggested that the effectiveness of expatriates could be evaluated by measures that included the completion of assignments, cross-cultural adjustment and performance. Feldman and

Thomas (1992) also used several indicators to assess expatriate effectiveness. These included: job performance, relationships with host nationals, skill acquisition from different cultures, psychological withdrawal, mutual influence, internal motivation, job satisfaction, psychological stress and physical stress. Shay and Baack (2004) used expatriate self-reported performance and subordinate-reported expatriate effectiveness as a way to measure expatriate assignment outcomes. Thomas (1998) also indicated that there are three types of expatriate assignment outcomes: individual outcomes that include satisfaction and commitment, organizational outcomes that include performance and turnover, and adjustment outcomes as suggested in Black et al.'s (1991) conceptualization. Gregersen, Hite and Black (1996) argued that expatriate performance criteria could be divided into three categories: hard criteria, soft criteria and contextual criteria. Hard criteria are performance-based or outcome-based, such as profits and market share. Soft criteria are often relationship or trait-based (Bernadin & Villanova, 1986; Carroll & Schneir, 1982; Schuler & Huber, 1993). Contextual criteria refer to factors arising from the environment within which the employee is performing.

Given the diverse conceptualization of expatriate effectiveness, expatriate effectiveness is considered to be a multi-dimensional framework that measures the degree to which an expatriate is able to achieve the assigned goals. In order to define the criteria for expatriate effectiveness, I propose that the perspectives of both individual expatriates and organizations should be considered.

Individual expatriates face a variety of challenges, both in their jobs and in their everyday lives. Because they have been transported to a new and unfamiliar cultural environment, expatriates have to deal with additional stresses beyond their regular work.

Their psychological well-being is a subjective indicator of their feelings level to the new environment. And job satisfaction is an important indicator that expresses an expatriate's affective and cognitive evaluation of the job.

In terms of an organization's purpose in sending an expatriate to a particular country, a survey showed that the five most common objectives for international assignments were: (1) filling a skills gap; (2) launching new endeavors; (3) building management expertise; (4) technology transfer; and (5) transferring corporate culture. Hence, the concerns of organizations should include an expatriate's job performance in a new environment, as well as the performance of the subsidiary in which the expatriate is working (Global Relocation Service *et al.*, 2004). Therefore, in this study, I propose to use expatriates' *psychological well-being*, *job satisfaction*, *job performance*, and *subsidiary performance* as the criteria for expatriate effectiveness. With these indicators, the framework for examining expatriate effectiveness reflects the concerns of both individuals and organizations. These indicators also represent the subjective and objective perspectives of expatriate assignments. Therefore, this integrated framework of expatriate effectiveness provides a more comprehensive and reliable understanding of expatriate assignment success. In the following sections, each of these indicators is discussed.

Psychological well-being was initially defined by Bradburn & Caplovitz (1965) as general happiness for a human being. It is a global evaluation that refers to one's life as a whole (Wright & Cropanzano, 2000). Ryff (1989) described psychological well-being as the positive psychological functioning of individuals. According to Ryff, psychological well-being has six dimensions: *self-acceptance*, *positive relations with other people*,

autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth. Compared with the term “adjustment”, the construct of psychological well-being is more theoretically developed (Ryff, 1989) and its psychometric properties have been extensively established (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). In the psychology and human resources management literatures (e.g. Ilies *et al.*, 2005; Lundberg & Lindfors, 2002; Wright & Cropanzano, 2000), the term, psychological well-being, has also been broadly applied. In the expatriate management literature, psychological well-being has been used to indicate an expatriate’s psychological state in a new environment (Wang, 2002). As applied within the context of expatriate assignments, having greater psychological well-being indicates a state of having a better sense of self, establishing personal relationships with others, having more self-confidence, mastering the new environment, and being clear about personal goals and career development. Compared with the construct of “adjustment” (Black *et al.*, 1991), which only measures the expatriates’ feelings of comfort with the environment, psychological well-being presents a broader perspective that reflects the expatriates’ overall life experience in the new environment.

Job satisfaction has been defined as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Locke, 1976: p1300). Brief (1998: p86) broadened this definition into “an internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor”. Brief (1998) also proposed an integrated model, where job satisfaction was influenced directly by how people interpret their jobs and how those interpretations were influenced by both their personality and the objective circumstances of the job. The objective job circumstances included compensation levels, hours worked, the

repetitiveness of tasks performed, the number and quality of social interactions required and permitted, and the status attached to a job. While gender (e.g. Witt & Nye, 1992) and race (e.g. Brush *et al.*, 1987) were not found to be reliably associated with satisfaction, age was found to be consistently positively related to job satisfaction (e.g. Brush *et al.*, 1987).

The relationship between job satisfaction and job performance is complicated. An early literature review found that there is little or no relationship between job satisfaction and job performance (Brayfield & Crockett, 1955). Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985) conducted a more comprehensive meta-analysis by explaining the different facets of job satisfaction. They reported that the average correlation between job satisfaction and job performance was .17, which was relatively weak. A more recent meta-analysis by Judge, Thoresen, Bono, and Patton (2001) produced a moderate correlation of .30 between overall job satisfaction and job performance. They also proposed that the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance may have been moderated and mediated by other variables, such as job characteristics and need for achievement. Studies have also shown that job satisfaction was related to contextual performance in the form of organizational citizenship behaviors (e.g. Organ & Ryan, 1995). In the context of international assignments, expatriates' job satisfaction refers to their interpretation of and attitudes toward their jobs in the new environment. Expatriates' job satisfaction can be related to their intention to stay on current assignments and other international assignment problems (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003). Hence, job satisfaction should be considered as a criterion of expatriate effectiveness.

Job performance is the issue that concerns organizations the most. It includes those employee actions or behaviors that are relevant to the organization's goals and that can be scaled or measured in terms of an individual's proficiency (Campbell *et al.*, 1996). Job performance is also undoubtedly important for an individual's career development. In general, the antecedents of job performance include cognitive ability (e.g. Hunter, 1983), job knowledge (e.g. Hunter, 1983), job skills (e.g. Hunter, 1983), work experience (e.g. Schmidt *et al.*, 1988), personality (e.g. Borman *et al.*, 1991) and several others. The organizations sending expatriates abroad want them to fill the technology or management gaps, and/or transfer knowledge between headquarters and subsidiaries (Global Relocation Service *et al.*, 2004). How well the expatriates meet the external standards and expectations of their position should be a significant indicator of the effectiveness of the international assignment. Some expatriate studies have examined expatriates' job performance and its antecedents (e.g. Shaffer *et al.*, 2006) and found that the expatriates' personality traits of Agreeableness and Extraversion were associated with their job performance.

Subsidiary performance also is an important concern of multinational companies. The main purpose of multinational companies' expatriate human resources strategy can be summarized as: (1) maintaining cultural control over subsidiaries (Gong, 2003); (2) transferring firm-specific resources from headquarters to subsidiaries (Gong, 2003); and (3) increasing the absorptive capacity of the subsidiary units (Gupta & Govindarajan, 2000). Hence, the staffing of subsidiaries with expatriates has been considered to be a major mechanism for corporate integration (Harzing, 2001; Martinez & Jarillo, 1989) as well as a conduit for transferring knowledge from parent firms to subsidiaries (Downes &

Thomas, 2000). Gong (2003) found that the use of expatriates improved subsidiary labor productivity because expatriates align a subsidiary's action with the goals of headquarters. Therefore, subsidiary performance is a significant criterion for expatriate effectiveness.

In summary, expatriate effectiveness is a broad, multi-dimensional concept that includes a number of factors that are critical to the success of expatriate assignments. Among the four indicators, psychological well-being and job satisfaction reflect the perspective of individuals; job performance and subsidiary performance reflect the concerns of organizations.

2.2 Antecedents of Expatriate Effectiveness

The antecedents of expatriate effectiveness have been broadly discussed in the expatriate management literature. Generally, these antecedents can be placed in four categories: expatriate individual characteristics, family characteristics, contextual characteristics, and social network factors. In the literature, expatriate effectiveness is operationalized through various measures, such as level of adjustment (e.g. Caligiuri, 2000), performance (e.g. Kraimer & Wayne, 2004), and turnover intention (e.g. Nicholls et al., 2002).

In the following sections I review the individual, family, contextual and social antecedents of expatriate effectiveness.

2.2.1 Individual characteristics

Individual factors that influence expatriate effectiveness include personality, individual experience, and skills.

Caligiuri (2000) explored the relationships between the Big Five personality factors (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience) and international assignments. She found that expatriates high in Extraversion and Agreeableness showed a lower desire to terminate the international assignment, and Conscientiousness was positively related to supervisor rated performance on their assignment. On the other hand, Emotional Stability and Openness to Experience did not show any effect on predicting the expatriates' desire to terminate or supervisor-rated performance. In another study, Caligiuri (2000) found that Sociability was related to cross-cultural adjustment, and Openness to Experience moderated the relationship between contact with host nationals and cross-cultural adjustment. In other words, expatriates who had higher score in Openness to Experience benefited more from interactions with host nationals because they had a greater interest in learning about new cultures. A survey of a sample of expatriates working in China demonstrated that the expatriates who were more open to ambiguity and uncertainty were more culturally sensitive and better able to adapt to the new environment (Nicholls et al., 2002).

Language skills, too, were found to be an important antecedent of adjustment because they directly influence expatriates' interactions with local people. Researchers have found that lack of language skills was related to a lower level of adjustment, and lower level of expatriate contextual performance in helping and cooperating (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). In a study of expatriate spousal adjustment, local language skills were

found to predict expatriate spouses' interaction adjustment (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). Previous international experience can provide expatriates with accumulated knowledge and ability when living abroad, thus helping them to better adjust to a new international assignment (Black et al., 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002). Expatriates' competency in integrating the head and host offices was found to be negatively related to turnover intentions, and positively related to job satisfaction and commitment, and expatriates' competency in managing diversity was also found to be associated with job satisfaction (Nicholls et al., 2002).

2.2.2 Family characteristics

An expatriate's family, which includes the expatriate's spouse and children, also has a significant impact on expatriate effectiveness.

Researchers have consistently reported significant relationships between spousal adjustment and expatriate adjustment (e.g. Black, 1988). This is important since 60% of expatriates are married and 86% of married expatriates take their spouses to the new assignments (Global Relocation Service et al., 2004). Marital support has been shown to play a crucial role in the adaptation to a new environment (Aycan, 1997). Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi, and Bross (1998) conducted a longitudinal study and found that expatriates' family support, family communication, and family adaptability were antecedents of the family's host-cultural adjustment, which in turn influenced the expatriates' work adjustment. Black and Stephens (1989) found that expatriate and spousal adjustment were positively related to each other, and both of them were related to the expatriate's intention to stay on the assignment. However, Kraimer, Wayne and

Jaworski (2001) found that spousal support did not relate to either expatriate adjustment or performance.

In dual-career families, expatriate spouses need to handle not only a new environment, but also significant career challenges. The spouses, if unemployed, may suffer stress due to a disruption of children's education, loss of self-worth and identity, lack of contact with friends and relatives, and social or cultural ostracism in the foreign country (Harvey, 1985). Ali, Van der Zee, and Sanders (2003) examined the determinants of expatriate spousal adjustment in a new culture and found that open-mindedness and emotional stability were associated with spouse adjustment. Spousal adjustment was also affected by family cohesion, family adaptability, and the expatriate's level of work satisfaction. Shaffer & Harrison (2001) conducted qualitative and quantitative studies to build a model of expatriate spousal adjustment. They described spousal adjustment as a process of initial loss followed by a reclarification or reestablishment of self-identity in a new environment. Results showed that the spouse's language fluency, the expatriate's level of adjustment, the expatriate's assignment duration certainty, the family's parental demands, and favorable living conditions were positively associated with spousal adjustment. Spouses with a larger and broader social network and deeper support from host nationals reported better adjustment. On the other hand, cultural novelty and the spouse's change in employment status were negatively related to spousal adjustment. Self-efficacy and social support from non-host nationals showed no relationship to spousal adjustment.

Children can be another source of stress for expatriates. When moving to a new environment, older children face the loss of strong peer relationships. Hence, it has been

proposed that the older the accompanying children are, the more negative the expatriate's work attitudes become (Naumann, 1992). De Cieri, Dowling and Taylor (1991) also found that relationships with children were a predictor of both the expatriate and expatriate spousal psychological adjustment to the international relocation.

2.2.3 Contextual characteristics

Contextual factors include culture, expatriate's new role, and the level of organizational support and training.

Cultural differences between home and host country have been found to be a source of mal-adjustment for expatriates (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Naumann, 1992). Van Vianen and her colleagues distinguished between the effects of surface- and deep-level cultural differences (Van Vianen *et al.*, 2004). More visible, surface-level differences such as living conditions, everyday customs, and availability of health care facilities only predicted general adjustment. On the other hand, deep-level differences such as beliefs and values were strong predictors of the degree of interaction and work adjustment because beliefs and values are accumulated over a relatively long time and expatriates need to have more interaction with local people in order to understand the deep-level differences.

Although expatriates generally have extensive experience in their old positions and with their organizations, their role in an unfamiliar subsidiary is still relatively new. Black and Gregersen (1991) identified three job-related variables that affect expatriate adjustment: job role discretion, which reflects the level of freedom an expatriate has with respect to his/her job; role ambiguity, which indicates the lack of clarity in the job

description; and role conflict, which reflects the different expectations an expatriate faces.

Perceived organizational support is a valued resource, which provides expatriates with the assurance that help will be available from the organization when it is needed. Kraimer and Wayne (2004) found that expatriates' perceived level of organizational support for adjustment, career, and financial factors could all facilitate adjustment and commitment within a new environment.

Pre-departure training also plays a critical role. For it provides for more realistic expectations of a new environment, buffers the shock of a new culture, and provides some skills to handle the problems that will be encountered within a new culture, all of which are recognized as antecedents of adjustment (Black et al., 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002).

2.2.4 Social network related factors

In the area of expatriate management, some researchers have examined the role of social networks. Studies have found, for example, that interacting with host nationals facilitated expatriate adjustment by providing social support (Black et al., 1991; Toh *et al.*, 2004) and feedback on the expatriate's behaviors (Kim, 1987). Shaffer and Harrison (2001) examined expatriate spouses' social networks and found that the breadth and depth of expatriate families' social support networks predicted expatriates' general adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. Wang (2001) found that expatriates' social networks provided social support and thus promoted expatriate psychological well-being and performance. Au and Fukuda (Au & Fukuda, 2002)

examined boundary spanning behaviors of expatriates in Hong Kong. They found that expatriates whose social networks were comprised of diverse relationships, such as professionals, co-workers, and customers, had more community resources and were more active in presenting a positive image of their organization to outsiders. Expatriates whose social networks were comprised of diverse nationalities had more role benefits. Diverse social networks also tended to provide access to a variety of groups and more information (Au & Fukuda, 2002). Johnson and colleagues examined personality antecedents and the consequences of expatriate social ties with host country nationals and other expatriates (Johnson *et al.*, 2003). They found that the expatriates' core self-evaluations were positively related to the number of ties formed with other expatriates and host country nationals. Social ties with other expatriates were found to provide greater social support than those with host country nationals. The depth and breadth of social ties with other expatriates also predicted an expatriate's general and work adjustment. Breadth and number depth of social ties with host country nationals also predicted general, work and interaction adjustment.

In summary, previous studies found significant antecedents of the effectiveness of international assignments, but these studies used different indicators to measure international assignment outcomes. These indicators included: expatriate adjustment, job satisfaction, commitment, turnover intention, job performance, adaptability, and so on. The inconsistency of these outcome indicators makes it difficult to compare and integrate expatriate studies. Therefore, a concept that is sufficiently broad to cover the various critical aspects of an international assignment is necessary for use in expatriate literature.

In this study, expatriate effectiveness is introduced as a more appropriate measure of expatriate assignment outcomes. Expatriate effectiveness is a multi-dimensional concept which includes psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance as indicators. Thus, it encompasses a broader range of both personal and organizational issues.

2.3 Social Networks

In the expatriate literature, many factors (such as an expatriate's personality traits, international experience, marital status and organizational support) have been explored with respect to their impact on expatriate effectiveness. However, research on the impact of expatriate social networks has been limited compared to other antecedents. For example, current literature examined the relationship between the expatriate's social network and international assignment outcomes, such as adjustment, psychological well-being, and job performance. But few studies examined the mechanism of how social networks influenced expatriate effectiveness. In addition, an expatriate's social network is comprised of contacts from different countries. The effect of host nationals has been examined, but the role of the expatriate's home nationals has received little attention, and there is no study comparing the effects of host and home nationals. Therefore, based on previous research findings, one of the purposes of this study is to explore the function of an expatriate's social networks and compare the different effects of home and host nationals. In the following section, social network literature will be briefly reviewed.

2.3.1 Introduction to social networks

A social network is defined as a finite set or sets of actors that are connected by one or more specific type of relational ties (Hall & Wellman, 1985). A social network is comprised of certain types of relationships within a social structure, and its possession can facilitate the activities of individuals within that social structure (Coleman, 1988).

Social network studies are primarily concerned with two types of networks: a complete network that focuses on the entire social structure of a population, and an ego network that focuses on an individual's unique set of social contacts (Morrison, 2002). In this dissertation, I emphasize the expatriate's ego social network.

In an ego social network, the focal point is referred to as the "ego," while a "tie" refers to the connection between ego and a network contact. Typical measures of egocentric networks usually include: network size, closeness and frequency. Size is the number of actors in an egocentric network. The strength of network ties is derived from a combination of time, emotional intensity, intimacy and reciprocal services (Granovetter, 1982). Closeness and frequency are the two effective and most used indicators of the strength of network relationships (Marsden & Campbell, 1984).

There are three dominant theories about social networks (Seibert et al., 2001): Granovetter's weak tie theory (1973), Burt's structural hole theory (1992), and Lin, Ensel and Vaughn's social resources theory (1981a, 1981b). Granovetter's (1973) weak tie theory focuses on the strength of social ties. He argues that since developing strong ties requires a large amount of time and effort, there are usually more weak ties than strong ties in an ego network. Hence, compared with strong ties, weak ties can provide more diverse information, which gives the ego more mobility opportunities. Therefore, in terms

of efficiency, weak ties are indispensable to individuals' opportunities and to their integration into communities. Burt's (1992) structural hole approach stresses the structure of relationships between the network contacts in an ego's social network. A structural hole is defined as "a relationship of non-redundancy between two contacts" (Burt, 1992: p18). An individual can leverage his or her investments in social relations by establishing relationships with a diverse set of groups that are not connected to each other rather than by establishing all of his or her relationships with members of one group. Large, sparse networks are more advantageous in mobility contests. The social resources theory (Lin et al., 1981a, 1981b) focuses on properties of network contacts and emphasizes the nature of the resources embedded within a network. Lin et al. argue that social ties are more likely to reach someone with the type of resource required for an ego to fulfill his or her instrumental objectives. A person who possesses certain characteristics or who controls resources that are useful for attaining the ego's goals can be considered to be a social resource. While these three theories argue the function of social networks from different perspectives, they all agree that social networks can benefit egos by providing certain resources, such as information, support, and power.

2.3.2 Social networks in management literature

In the management literature, there are several important factors influencing the development of a social network. Individuals with similar characteristics (such as age, sex, education and social status) tend to interact with each other (e.g. Coleman, 1957; Ibarra, 1992). Thus, similarity is thought to ease communication, increase predictability of behavior, and foster trust and reciprocity (Brass, 1995). Workflow or technology also influences the development of social networks. For example, when an organization

adopts a new technology, the communication patterns in the organization change (Burkhardt & Brass, 1990). Organizational life cycle also affects the emergence of social networks. For instance, networks are more likely to emerge in the early stages of organization development (Brass, 1995; Monge & Eisenberg, 1987). Other organizational factors, such as organizational size, type of industry, and culture may also affect social networks (Brass, 1995).

In general, a social network is an important resource for fostering an individual's social life and career development. Luthans, Hodgetts, and Rosenkrantz (1988) found that successful managers in their sample spent 70% more time engaged in networking activities and 10 % more time engaged in routine communication activities than their less successful counterparts. Resources exchanged through informal networks include work-related resources (such as task advice and strategic information), social identity, norms, and social support (Podolny & Baron, 1997). Informal social relations not only forge a sense of personal belonging, but also they create and sustain a comprehensible normative framework within which individuals can rationally determine which course of action is in their best interest (Podolny & Baron, 1997). From the perspective of career development, social networks provide individuals with access to resources such as information via direct and indirect links. Burt (1992) has suggested that the advantage of structural holes was to provide the ego with nonredundant information and to create a position to control the information flow between the two separate networks. In a job transfer study undertaken within one cultural context, Morrison (2002) demonstrated that the newcomers' social network structure was related to their level of social integration and degree of organizational commitment. Kilduff and Krackhardt (1994) also demonstrated

that a strong tie to a prominent person within an organization tended to boost an individual's performance reputation. Seibert et al. (2001) explored the effect of social capital, which was conceptualized as a social network, on career success and found that social networks facilitated career success through three network benefits: access to information, access to resources, and career sponsorship. However, a social network is not always positive in an organizational environment. Brass (1981) found that no relationship existed between network centrality (which refers to the degree to which an individual's task position is central to the workflow network) and job satisfaction. More surprisingly Kilduff and Krackhardt (1994) found that there was a negative relationship between centrality in the friendship network and job satisfaction. These findings suggest that social networks may also include a negative side.

A large amount of evidence shows that social networks provide a variety of resources for individual development in both career and daily life. However, limited attention has been given to the impact of social networks on expatriate effectiveness. As mentioned in the expatriate literature review section, several researchers have examined the effects of social support on expatriate effectiveness (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001; Wang, 2001). The role of social networks has been closely examined only by Au and Fukuda (2002) and Johnson and his colleagues (Johnson *et al.*, 2002), but there was no further examination of the different functions of the various components of a social network. In addition, the mechanism of the social network's impact on expatriate effectiveness is still an unexplored field of study. Hence, a primary purpose of this study is to integrate theoretical notions from previous social network research into the expatriate literature in order to expand our understanding of the factors that affect expatriate effectiveness.

2.4 Functions of Social Networks

The two main functions of social networks generally are to provide information and social support (Podolny & Baron, 1997). In this dissertation, I argue that social networks influence expatriate effectiveness through providing *cultural information* and *social support*.

According to House and his colleagues (House *et al.*, 1997: p540), cultures are defined as:

“distinctive environments of collectivities about which members share meaning and values, resulting in a compelling model pattern of common affective, attitudinal, and behavioral orientation that is transmitted across generations and that differentiates collectivities from each other.”

In an international assignment, an expatriate is facing not only a new language and different social situations, but also new values and norms. Hence, *cultural information* refers to the information related to the expatriate's new cultural environment. It includes values, norms, behavior styles, customs, language, and so on. In expatriate situations, information about local culture is critical for both the expatriates' work and daily life. It has been shown that large perceived discrepancies between the host and native cultures create more doubt and more serious problems, such as anxiety and the need for medical consultations (Babiker *et al.*, 1980; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Access to cultural information can help expatriates to better understand their environment, interact with others, handle stress, and complete their tasks.

Social support refers to the stimuli that lead a person to believe that he or she is cared for, esteemed, valued, and belongs to a network of communication and mutual

obligation (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987). Social support has been given extensive attention in the mental health literature. It can be argued that, for an expatriate, social support can act as a buffer against the psychological effects of stress and uncertainty, and can be a crucial factor in reducing feelings of loneliness and strangeness. On an international assignment, expatriates face a new environment that is most unfamiliar. They are separated from their former friends and co-workers and must interact with local people who may have very different values and customs. Besides reducing the stress of dealing with unfamiliar situations, social support can also help expatriates build self-esteem and develop self-identification by providing encouragement (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). Social support from expatriates' spouses and host country nationals have been shown to enhance expatriate adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989).

Social networks have also been found to be great resources for information and social support (Podolny & Baron, 1997). For expatriates who are working in an unfamiliar environment, social networks composed of network contacts from a variety of backgrounds provide information about the local environment. For expatriates, the interactions with network contacts produce social supports such as sense of belonging and identity.

2.5 Summary

In this chapter, existing literature on expatriate effectiveness and social networks was reviewed and some research gaps were identified. First, many expatriate studies measure expatriate assignment outcomes according to the level of expatriate adjustment--a construct with limited theoretical rationale or psychometric evidence. Second, the

construct of expatriate adjustment itself is not sufficiently broad to explain all relevant expatriate assignment outcomes. Third, the effect of social networks on expatriate effectiveness has not been thoroughly investigated. In order to fill these gaps, I propose to use the framework of expatriate effectiveness instead of expatriate adjustment as the measure of the quality of outcomes in an expatriate assignment. Expatriate effectiveness is a multi-dimensional concept that includes four indicators which represent issues of importance to both organizations and individuals. I also argue that social networks may have a significant effect on expatriate effectiveness by providing cultural information and social support.

CHAPTER 3 CONCEPTUAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

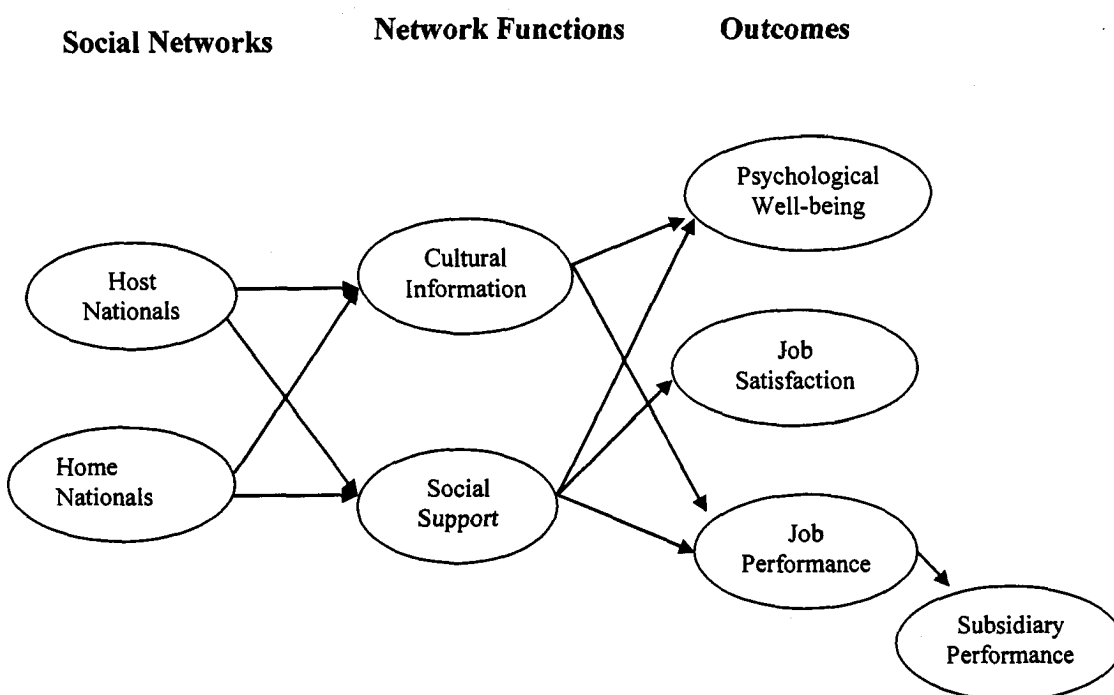
This chapter introduces a new model of expatriate effectiveness, based on the foundation of previous research in expatriate management. In this model, a multi-dimensional conceptualization of expatriate effectiveness is proposed as a means by which to measure the outcomes of expatriate assignments. Expatriate effectiveness is taken to be composed of four indicators: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance.

Included in this model of expatriate effectiveness, I further propose that expatriates' social networks are key facilitators of expatriate effectiveness by providing cultural information and social support.

3.1 Conceptual Model

Figure 1 shows a model identifying the impact of social networks on expatriate effectiveness through providing cultural information and social support, and a list of the key concepts in this study is presented in Appendix 1.

Figure 1 Social Networks, Their Functions, and Expatriate Effectiveness



In this model, an expatriate's social network refers to the expatriate's social contacts within the international assignment environment. An expatriate's social networks are divided into *host nationals* and *home nationals* according to the contacts' nationalities. The term, *host nationals*, refers to local people living in the host country; and the term, *home nationals*, refers to people originating from the same country as the expatriate. In an expatriate's international assignment, there may also be other expatriates who originate from a third country, i.e., a country other than the host or home country. However, since the number of third-country nationals is much smaller than the number of host and home nationals within an expatriate's social network, and the role of third-country nationals is unknown, I do not include third-country nationals in this model.

Importantly, two variables, cultural information and social support, are identified through which social networks influence expatriate effectiveness. This model also proposes four criteria of expatriate effectiveness: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance. These four factors capture both the expatriate's subjective feelings and the objective results, and, as a result, reflect expatriate outcomes more comprehensively than does the construct of expatriate adjustment.

3.2 The Role of Social Networks

In this model, an expatriate's social network is categorized based on his or her contacts' nationalities, or on whether they are host nationals or home nationals. Researchers tend to categorize social networks based on the nature of network contacts in order to investigate the specific functions of the networks. According to different research foci, social networks have been categorized according to the contact's gender, race (Ibarra, 1992), organizational status (Kilduff & Krackhardt, 1994), and so on. In the context of an expatriate assignment, nationality tends to be a significant differentiating factor between the expatriate and other people. Hence, nationality forms an important characteristic of an expatriate's social network contacts. In the following section, the specific functions of the expatriates' host and home national networks will be discussed.

3.2.1 Host nationals

Host nationals compose a major part of the expatriates' social network within a new environment, and they play important roles by providing expatriates with various kinds of information and forms of support. Kim (1987) showed that the variance in

expatriates' acculturation level explained by their participation in relationships with host nationals was twice as strong as the variance explained by their communication with home nationals. An expatriate's host national co-workers, friends and even neighbors may be the richest source of information and social support for expatriates in understanding their jobs and lives within a new cultural environment (Black, 1988; Black et al., 1991).

One major function of social relationships is to provide information (Hansen, 1999), particularly in an unfamiliar situation. Entering another cultural environment, the expatriate experiences many difficulties caused by unfamiliar situations. As Hofstede (2001) has proposed, a visitor to a foreign culture returns to the mental state of an infant, in which he or she has to learn the simplest things all over again. This uncertainty about the environment potentially leads to feelings of distress, helplessness, and hostility toward the new environment. Interaction with host nationals can help reduce this uncertainty about the general environment. For example, host nationals can provide information about local customs, living conditions, and health care issues, which are important to expatriates and to their family life.

Host nationals can also provide expatriates with cultural information through social learning. According to social learning theory (Bandura, 1977), in addition to learning based on the consequences of their own actions, individuals can also learn from their observations of other people's (model's) behaviors and associated consequences and by imitating the modeled behaviors. Individuals can use symbols to engage in anticipatory action, and learn by watching actions and mentally rehearsing them as well as real behavior, which enables people to forecast how they will behave in an actual

situation. Effective models that provide appropriate examples of behavior could thus facilitate social learning. Frequent interaction with host nationals offers expatriates opportunities to observe how people behave and react in particular situations, to compare their own behaviors, and to mimic and adjust their own behaviors. In addition, host nationals provide feedback on expatriates' behaviors so that expatriates can examine their own cognitive, affective, and behavioral tendencies and modify them accordingly (Kim, 1987).

A larger host national network is a valuable resource for expatriates. With more contacts, the expatriate can access more cultural information. The strength (which is measured by closeness and frequency of interaction) of the network is also associated with the amount of cultural information obtained by an expatriate. The more an expatriate communicates with host nationals, the more opportunity the expatriate has to learn local customs and appropriate behaviors. Close host national friends can also provide the expatriate with more specific knowledge about the local environment. Therefore, the size and strength (closeness and frequency) of an expatriate's network are all associated with the amount of cultural information obtained by the expatriate.

H 1a: The larger the social network an expatriate has of host nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

H 1b: The closer the relationships of an expatriate with host nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

H 1c: The more frequently an expatriate communicates with host nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

Compared with the expatriate's home nationals, host nationals have more knowledge about local culture and customs, thus they provide more cultural information to expatriates.

H 1d: Host national networks can provide more cultural information to expatriates than home national networks.

Host nationals also provide social support to expatriates. In a host country, many of the expatriate's contacts will be host nationals. To live in a host country and to accomplish the international assignment effectively, interactions with host nationals are necessary. However, because of differences in culture, language, appearance, and status, it might be difficult to build strong social ties between expatriate and host nationals (Johnson et al., 2002). Nevertheless, the opportunities to interact with host nationals are still far greater than they could be with other expatriates if the expatriate takes advantage of these opportunities. The existence of a positive social relationship is in itself a resource of psychosocial support (e.g. Ibarra, 1995) which may be critical in dealing with the stresses and strains of a new environment. In addition, some of the weak social ties with host nationals may eventually develop into stronger ties, and provide more social support.

The research literature on social networks has shown that close networks can provide social support in those areas such as trust, and identification (Granovetter, 1982; Wellman, 1981). In an expatriate's social network with host nationals, close relationships with host nationals enable the expatriate to seek help and support easily, especially in stressful situations.

H 2: The closer the relationships between an expatriate and host nationals, the more social support will be obtained by the expatriate.

3.2.2 Home nationals

In this study, expatriates' home nationals refer to people coming from the expatriates' home country and staying in the same host country, such as family members and expatriate peers. Research on relationships between expatriates and their home nationals are rare; however, home nationals may be in a position to provide social support and relevant information that may improve expatriate effectiveness.

In a work setting, because of their similar cultural background and similar work environment, expatriates share more common experiences with their home nationals than with host nationals. Manev and Stevenson (2001) examined the managerial network in a multinational enterprise and found that managers tended to establish and maintain strong expressive ties that involve friendships and social support with peers from similar cultures. Also, although expatriates can make a conscious effort to overcome the barriers of their cultural background and status to build incremental ties with local staff in order to obtain cultural and work information, they still prefer to maintain social ties with other expatriates.

Home nationals can also help expatriates understand the circumstances surrounding the life events or transitions they are facing by sharing experiences in the host country and exchanging problem-solving strategies. Also using the same language and having similar customs makes communication with home nationals more direct and comfortable. Compared with host nationals, home peers have a shared understanding of

cultural differences and they know what information is the most important for expatriates (Kim, 1987). Thus, they can provide information that is more relevant in the new environment. They are also more helpful in providing information about local living conditions, such as which health care program or which child education institution is better suited to expatriates.

H 3a: The larger the social network an expatriate has of home nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

Similar to the effects predicted by the host national social network, the strength of the home national social network should also influence expatriates' access to cultural information.

H 3b: The closer the relationships between an expatriate and home nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

H 3c: The more frequent the communications between an expatriate and home nationals, the more cultural information will be obtained by the expatriate.

As Toh and DeNisi (2005) suggested, because of the potentially significant differences in physical characteristics, language, and values between expatriates and host nationals, host nationals may perceive expatriates as an "outgroup", and thus may be less willing to help them. In fact, Florkowski and Fogel (1999) found that host nationals may consciously or subconsciously discriminate against expatriates by withholding vital technical information, maintaining a social distance, resisting suggestions from the

expatriate, and in extreme cases, even by engaging in hostile behaviors towards the expatriate.

In addition, expatriates themselves may also face many difficulties in building relationship with host nationals outside their work setting. At the beginning of an international assignment, the expatriate may experience great uncertainty because he or she has relatively little experience with or knowledge about the host culture or language. Uncertainty reduction theory would suggest that individuals are likely to seek support from those with whom they experience less relational uncertainty, and those who share a stressful context will be perceived as being more helpful than those who do not share the same context (Albrecht & Adelman, 1984: p20). Hirsch (1981) found that when people experience the emotional and cognitive uncertainties accompanying life crises and transitions, they have a need to share and compare their own reactions and beliefs with those of others who are currently or have recently experienced similar events.

The social network literature provides similar evidence. In studies of minorities' networks within organizations, cross-race relationships are found to be weaker than same-race ties (Thomas, 1990). Friendship ties tend to develop between people who share commonalities, including race and gender (Ibarra, 1992; Lincoln & Miller, 1979; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Relationships with comparable others, those who share a relevant similar experience or characteristic, are often the most sought out providers of social support (Adelman, 1988). People tend to be more comfortable interacting with similar others because 'interpersonal similarity increases ease of communication, improves predictability of behavior, and fosters relationships of trust and reciprocity' (Ibarra, 1993: p61).

In an international assignment, an expatriate's home nationals in the same social context act as the "similar others". They support one another's efforts toward achieving behavioral and attitudinal change, and through the process of social comparison they reduce feelings of uniqueness regarding their problems and establish new norms to support one another's revised social identities (Hirsch, 1981). Home national networks can also convey a sense of personal belonging within a collectivity and clarify normative expectations associated with one's role, which improves an expatriate's social identity. Home nationals may also be more suitable contacts for expressing feelings of isolation or loneliness. For instance, Thomas (1998) showed that married expatriates adjust better than unmarried ones because of spousal support. In addition, close relationships with home nationals within the work setting were more likely to enhance an expatriate's sense of competence and identity. Johnson and colleagues (2003) found that compared with host nationals, other expatriates could provide more social support to the expatriate because of similar experiences in adjusting to the new environment. Therefore, a strong network comprised of home nationals is a major source of social support for the expatriate.

H 4a: The closer the relationships between an expatriate and home nationals, the more social support will be obtained by the expatriate.

In addition, compared with host nationals and third-country nationals, home nationals may provide more social support to expatriates.

H 4b: Home national networks can provide more social support to expatriates than host national networks.

3.3 The Role of Network Function in Expatriate Effectiveness

3.3.1 Function of cultural information

Many cross-cultural problems arise because expatriates have difficulty negotiating daily social encounters (Searle & Ward, 1990). Expatriates may lack knowledge of basic aspects related to day-to-day life, such as local customs, food, and the health care system. These 'small' uncertainties can lead to feelings of distress, helplessness, and hostility toward the new environment. Social cognition theory suggests that access to information facilitates 'sense-making' and self-efficacy in high uncertainty situations (Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Weick, 1979). Hence, providing cultural information to expatriates can help them adapt to local life, feel more control over their environment, and improve their psychological well-being, which is defined as general happiness for a human being (Bradburn & Caplovitz, 1965).

Information about how to behave appropriately within the new environment is also an essential component of cultural information. Expatriates will have less knowledge about how to understand others' non-verbal language and how to behave properly, which may cause frustration. Cultural information about local customs, values, and cultural background can help expatriates understand the lives and behaviors of local people, and ease communication between locals and employees.

Therefore, cultural information that is provided by the expatriate's social networks can help expatriates better understand their new environment, and thus gain more control over it. With more knowledge about the cultural environment, an expatriate would feel more comfortable and happy about his/her life, and feel more self-confidence and self-esteem which is reflected in psychological well-being.

H 5a: The amount of cultural information obtained by an expatriate is positively related to the expatriate's psychological well-being.

Many multinational companies send expatriates overseas to strengthen their control over or to transfer knowledge to subsidiaries (Delios & Beamish, 2004). If expatriates have access to cultural information, they are more likely to communicate and interact appropriately with their subordinates and peers, most of whom are most likely to be host nationals. Expatriates can then build better relationships with them, which in turn would have a positive impact on their job performance. Therefore, cultural information -- which includes knowledge of local situations and appropriate behaviors in the new environment -- can improve expatriates' job performance.

H 5b: The amount of cultural information obtained by an expatriate is positively related to the expatriate's level of performance.

3.3.2 Function of social support

Social support leads individuals to believe that they are cared for, esteemed, valued, and belong to a network based on good communication and mutual obligation (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987). From a career development perspective, close relationships are more likely to fulfill psychosocial functions, such as self-identification and self-esteem, (Kram, 1988) that enhance an individual's sense of competence, identity and effectiveness in a professional role. The within country job transfer literature has shown that organizational newcomers feel better adjusted to their environments after being

socialized through social support from insiders (Cabel & Parsons, 2001). Social support can also help by reaffirming an expatriate's ability to deal with the stresses of the situation, and thus enhance his or her self-confidence and self-esteem. In addition, by reducing feelings of loneliness, social support is essential for maintaining the expatriate's mental health. *Self-acceptance, positive relations with other people, autonomy, environmental mastery, purpose in life, and personal growth* are the key elements of psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989). Therefore, social support serves to improve an expatriate's psychological well-being.

H 6a: The amount of social support obtained by an expatriate is positively related to the expatriate's psychological well-being.

Social support also has a direct effect on work outcomes. Fisher (1985) found that social support from co-workers and supervisors had a positive effect on newcomers' work performance. Similarly, Seers, McGee, Serey and Graen (1983) found that social support had a direct influence on workers' job satisfaction and supervisory satisfaction. In the expatriate adjustment literature, Shaffer, Harrison, and Gilley (1999) found that support from co-workers was positively related to expatriate interaction adjustment. Toh, Varma and DeNisi (2004) also showed that host nationals' organizational citizenship behavior provided social support and had a positive effect on expatriate adjustment. Wang and Sangalang (2005) investigated the work adjustment and job satisfaction of Filipino immigrants in Canada. They found that Filipino immigrant employees' work adjustment was significantly correlated with perceived social support from peer immigrants and Canadian-borns, while job satisfaction correlated with support from

Canadian-born co-workers and management. In addition, spousal support was found to be positively related to expatriate work performance and general adjustment (Caligiuri et al., 1998; Harvey & Buckley, 1998). Therefore, it is proposed that social support has a significant influence on expatriate job satisfaction and level of performance.

H 6b: The amount of social support obtained by an expatriate is positively related to the expatriate's job satisfaction.

H 6c: The amount of social support obtained by an expatriate is positively related to the expatriate's level of performance.

The employment of expatriates in subsidiaries has been demonstrated to benefit these subsidiaries by transferring the parent firms' knowledge and culture (Inkpen & Dinur, 1998) and accessing special resources (Hitt et al., 2001; Inkpen & Dinur, 1998). When located in foreign countries, subsidiaries of a multinational company often acquire technological and management expertise from their parent firms and countries that enhance their strategic competitiveness (Downes & Thomas, 2000; Inkpen & Beamish, 1997). When equipped with the parent firm's knowledge and values, expatriates provide efficient and effective knowledge transference to culturally distant subsidiaries, which helps subsidiaries to gain a competitive advantage (Barney, 1991). Because expatriates may have already internalized the parent firm's values prior to their international assignments to subsidiaries, they are likely to be able to identify with the parent's global strategic goals (Kobrin, 1988) and align subsidiaries' actions with those of the parent firm, which subsequently improves subsidiary labor productivity (Gong, 2003). Hence,

the job performance of individual expatriates should be related to subsidiary performance.

H 7: An expatriate's job performance is related to subsidiary performance.

CHAPTER 4 METHODOLOGY

4.1 Overview

This chapter describes the methodology of this study, including the sampling method, the procedure and questionnaires used to collect data, and the statistical methods applied for data analysis.

An internet survey was used to collect data to test the proposed model. In order to test the psychometric characteristics of the measures, a pilot study was conducted before the main study. In the following section, the procedures of data collection and analysis will be discussed.

4.2 Sample and Procedures

The sample for the pilot study was drawn from MBA students who had expatriate experience and international PhD students in a Canadian business school. These MBA students were asked to respond to the survey, based on their latest expatriate assignment. The international PhD students were chosen because they were working at the business school as research assistants or teaching assistants, which may be somewhat similar to an international assignment.

The survey was posted on the Internet, and the links to and description of this study were sent by e-mail to the MBA and PhD students. A reminder was sent two weeks later by e-mail.

The main study used a sample drawn from the following: (1) alumni from a Canadian business school who are currently working as expatriates; (2) a large Canadian bank's expatriate employees; and (3) expatriates contacted by the author. The subjects

received an e-mail containing the description of this study and a link to the internet survey. In order to maximize responses, subjects were also requested to forward this e-mail to any other expatriates they knew. A reminder was sent two weeks later through e-mail.

The following definition of an expatriate was posted at the beginning of the survey: "An expatriate is an individual who is working outside of his or her home country." Subjects were asked to judge whether they qualified as expatriates based on this definition. Only those qualifying in accordance with this definition were asked to continue the survey. In the e-mail to the participants, they were also offered a summary of the study if they were interested.

4.3 Measurements

Social Network: This study emphasizes an expatriate's egocentric network, which is an individual's unique set of social contacts (Marsden, 1990). Subjects were asked to indicate the individuals (social network contacts) with whom they discussed matters important to them regarding their current international assignment. In order to keep the information confidential, only the initials of the contacts were required. Ten blank spaces were provided for contact initials. The decision to provide 10 spaces was based on interviews with international students and those with previous expatriate experience. The interviewees indicated that they had up to seven important social network contacts within an international environment, so it was concluded that 10 spaces would be more than sufficient. According to the social network literature (Ibarra, 1992; Manev & Stevenson, 2001), size, closeness, and frequency are three important measures of social network. Therefore, these three indicators were examined in this study. The *size*

of the respondent's social network was measured by the total number of contacts in the network. Next, the subjects were requested to provide the contacts' gender and nationality. The subjects also responded to multi-point scales with respect to the closeness of their relationship with each contact and the frequency of their interactions. *Closeness* was measured using a 4-point scale with 1 = "distant relationships" and 4 = "very close relationships". *Frequency* of interaction was measured using a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "less than once a month" to 5 = "daily".

Based on this method, network characteristics (size, closeness and frequency) of home and host nationals were respectively calculated, according to the respondents' and contacts' nationality.

Cultural information: An expatriate's cultural information was measured by five items adopted from Torbiorn (1982). These items were used to measure the expatriates' knowledge of host country conditions. Torbiorn's study (1982) included six items measuring an expatriate's knowledge about local language, customs, traditions, social and political situations, authorities and institutions as well as current affairs and topical events. In this study, since a question about the expatriate's ability to speak the local language was already included, only the remaining five items from Torbiorn's study were adopted. Torbiorn (1982) did not report the psychometric properties of these items. The respondents rated the items on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "very little" to 5 = "very much".

Social support: An expatriate's social support scale was developed by Wang (2001) in her doctoral thesis. The reliability alpha of this 20-item scale is .91, and a confirmatory factor analysis reported acceptable model fit indices (Satorra-Bentler Scaled

Chi-Square = 210.85, $p=.01$, and Comparative Fit Index = .89) (Wang, 2001). Participants recorded responses on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "very little" to 5 = "very much".

Psychological well-being: Ryff and Keyes' (1995) psychological well-being scale is used in this study. This scale contains 6 sub-scales with 3 items, respectively. The reliability of these 3-item sub-scales ranges from .33 to .56 (Ryff & Keyes, 1995), which is relatively low due to the smaller number of items for each sub-scale. Other researchers (e.g. Wang, 2002) indicated that the reliability for the overall scale was .77, which is acceptable. Confirmatory factor analysis found that each of the six sub-scale dimensions belongs to a single conceptual domain, psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995). In this study, the global psychological well-being construct has been adopted. Participants recorded responses on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

Job satisfaction: In this study, Hackman and Oldham's (1975) measurement of general job satisfaction is used. This measurement includes three 5-point items with an internal consistency reliability of .76 (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). A meta-analysis (Fried & Ferris, 1987) showed that the reliability of this scale when used in other empirical studies ranged from .65 to .95. Participants were requested to respond on a 5-point scale ranging from 1 = "strongly disagree" to 5 = "strongly agree".

Job Performance: Job performance was evaluated by a self-report scale developed by Caligiuri and Day (2000). This scale included 17 items belonging to three dimensions: contextual performance (12 items), expatriate specific performance (3 items), and technical performance (2 items). Factor analysis approved the three-factor

solution, and the factor loading for all the items is greater than .47 (Caligiuri & Day, 2000). One item ("Language and culture proficiency") is deleted in this study since it is redundant with respect to the measurement of language skill and cultural information. The reliability of the scale was not reported in the original study, but was tested in our pilot study. Participants responded on a 5-point scale with 1 = "poor" and 5 = "outstanding".

Subsidiary performance: Subsidiary performance was measured using a single self-reported question: "In general, how was the overall performance of the subsidiary in the last fiscal year?" Respondents chose from three options: "loss", "break-even", and "profit". This single-item measure has been broadly used in international business literature (e.g. Goerzen & Beamish, 2007). There is also empirical evidence that this single-item subjective measure of international joint venture performance is highly correlated with objective measures (Geringer & Hebert, 1991).

Control variables

Control variables in this study include the respondents' demographic data plus information on their positions, their organizations and their families. Their language ability and cultural novelty are also controlled.

Demographic Data: *Age* and *gender* are two demographic variables broadly used in expatriate studies (e.g. Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). In the literature of psychology and sociology, age has been found to be related to an individual's psychological well-being (Brush et al., 1987; Horley & Lavery, 1995; Wilson, 1967) and job satisfaction (Kacmar

& Ferris, 1989). Gender is another factor affecting an individual's psychological well-being and the perception of level of social support (Inglehart, 1990; White, 1992).

Family situation: Research has shown that an expatriate's spouse can provide support to the expatriate when in a new environment (Caligiuri et al., 1998) and spousal adjustment influences the expatriate's attitude toward work (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi, and Bross (1998) in a longitudinal study found that expatriates' family support, family communication, and family adaptability were antecedents of the family's host-cultural adjustment, which in turn influenced expatriates' work adjustment. Marital status was also found to influence individuals' psychological well-being (Coombs, 1991; Diener et al., 2000; Gove et al., 1990). In this study, the subjects reported their *marital status* based on 3 choices: "Single", "Married", or in a "Common-law Partnership". If the answer was "Married" or in a "Common-law Partnership", the expatriate would indicate whether or not the spouse was with him or her on the assignment.

Prior international experience: Previous studies have shown that expatriates with international experience have accumulated knowledge about living in a new culture, which influences their effectiveness on the current assignment (Black et al., 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002). In the current study, participants were asked to report their *prior international experience* (in years) before the current overseas assignment and this variable would be controlled for in the regression models of cultural information, psychological well-being, and job performance.

Cross-cultural training: The respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they had taken part in any *cross-cultural training* either prior to or during the assignment.

Such training serves to generate more realistic expectations of a new environment, buffers the shock of a new culture, and provides some necessary skills with which to address the problems in a new culture (Black et al., 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002). In this study, the level of cross-cultural training will be controlled for with respect of the expatriates' cultural information, social support, and job performance.

Language ability: Researchers have found that the lack of language skills is related to a lower level of adjustment for an expatriate, and to a lower level of expatriate contextual performance in assisting and cooperating (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). *Language ability* also influenced expatriates' communication with others in another cultural environment (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). In this study, *language ability* is assessed by asking expatriates to indicate how well they speak the host-country language on a 4-point scale: 0 = "not at all" and 3 = "fluent". Language ability is controlled in the models of expatriate's social support, psychological well-being, and job performance.

Tenure: *Tenure* refers the length of time that an expatriate has remained within the organization. It is measured by years in this study. Since *tenure* is an antecedent of job satisfaction (Lynn et al., 1998), it is controlled for in the analysis of job satisfaction.

Subsidiary size: The subjects were asked to indicate the *size* of their subsidiaries since subsidiary size has been found to be positively related to subsidiary performance (Delios & Beamish, 2004). The respondents were asked to indicate the size of the subsidiary at which they were working by choosing from 1 of 3 alternatives: "Less than 200 employees"; "200-700 employees" and "Over 700 employees".

Cultural novelty: *Cultural novelty* was measured using an 8-item scale that Black and Stephens (1989) adopted from Torbiorn (1982). This measure has been

adopted by other researchers (e.g. Shaffer et al., 1999) and has a demonstrated reliability of .81 (Shaffer et al., 1999). Expatriates were asked to indicate how different the culture of the current host country was from their home country on a 5-point scale with 1= "no different" and 5 = "extremely different".

Cultural novelty between home and host country has been found to be a source of mal-adjustment for expatriates (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Naumann, 1992; Van Vianen et al., 2004). In addition, cultural novelty reflected the difference between the host and home country's culture, which could be associated with subsidiary performance (Tihanyi *et al.*, 2005). In this study, cultural novelty is controlled for in the analyses of cultural information, job performance, and subsidiary performance.

CHAPTER 5 RESULTS

The data collected from the survey were coded and entered into the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). A pilot study was conducted before the main study was undertaken in order to test the reliability of the multi-item scales. The results from the pilot study and the main study are presented in this chapter.

5.1 Pilot Study

In order to test the internal reliability of the multi-item scales adopted in this study, a pilot study was conducted. An on-line survey was distributed through e-mail to a sample of 53 MBA and international PhD students who were attending a Canadian business school. The sample included MBA students who had worked as expatriates before they entered the MBA program. The international PhD students were chosen because they were working as research/teaching assistants in the PhD program, who would thus have some characteristics similar to those on an international assignment.

Thirty-eight usable responses were received with a response rate of 71.70 %. The sample included 23 males (60.5%) and 18 females (39.5%), and represented individuals from 9 countries working in 10 host countries. Twenty-six (59.1%) of the respondents were either married or living in common law relationships.

Cronbach alpha was used as an indicator of scale reliability. The original scale of psychological well-being (Ryff & Keyes, 1995) contained 18 items. Based on the Cronbach alpha analyses from the pilot study, Item 1 was deleted due to its low correlation with other items. In addition, the respondents in the pilot study felt that this item lacked face validity within the expatriate context. The Cronbach alpha of the

modified 17-item scale was 0.796. The results of the reliability analysis for the original psychological well-being scale are presented in Table 1.

Table 1 Reliability Analysis for Psychological Well-being Scale

	Mean	S.D.	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
1. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions	3.18	1.141	.796
2. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	3.76	.955	.763
3. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	3.65	1.125	.776
4. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	3.62	.817	.770
5. The demands of everyday life often get me down.	3.18	1.029	.754
6. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	3.59	.743	.779
7. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	4.18	.968	.753
8. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	4.56	.786	.754
9. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	4.00	1.393	.749
10. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.	3.56	1.353	.756
11. People would describe me as a giving person who is willing to share my time with others.	3.71	.906	.780
12. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.	4.03	1.087	.761
13. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.	3.94	1.254	.754
14. I am not one of those people wandering aimlessly through life.	4.15	.958	.758
15. I sometimes feel as if I have done all there is to do in life.	4.06	1.043	.761
16. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	3.62	.954	.768
17. I like most aspects of my personality.	3.65	.981	.743
18. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.	3.47	.992	.775

The original scale of job satisfaction (Hackman & Oldham, 1975) included 3 items (1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job; 2. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job; 3. I frequently think of quitting this job). But the results from the pilot study showed a negative Cronbach's Alpha (-0.163), and the respondents indicate that item 2 and 3 lacked of face validity. Therefore, only the first item was included in the main study for job satisfaction.

One item "Carrying out additional task activities" was deleted from the scale of job performance (Caligiuri & Day, 2000) because the respondents reported that the description was not clear enough. This deleted item was included in the main study, but not in the analysis. In order to ensure that the modification was appropriate, I compared the regression results using the full scale and the modified scale, and did not find any difference in the results for hypotheses 5b and 6c.

The reliability of the multi-item scales and the number of items within each are reported in Table 2. The Cronbach alphas of all these scales which were calculated from the sample of pilot study are greater than 0.7, which indicates an acceptable level of reliability. These items would be used in the main study.

Table 2 Reliability of Scales in Pilot Study

Scale	Cronbach α	No. of Items in Main Study
Cultural Information	.895	5
Social Support	.934	20
Psychological Well-Being	.796	17
Job Performance	.861	15
Adjustment	.895	11
Cultural Novelty	.819	8

The modified items used in the main study are provided in Appendix 2.

5.2 Results of Main Study

5.2.1 Descriptive analysis

The sample for this study consisted of expatriates working worldwide. An on-line survey was sent through e-mails to expatriates and 187 usable responses were received. The expatriates were accessed through the alumni office of a Canadian business school (87 respondents with the response rate of 20.5%), a Canadian bank (45 respondents with an unknown response rate), the Canadian Chamber of Commerce in Hong Kong (27 respondents with an unknown response rate), and the personal network of the author (28 respondents with an unknown response rate). Since the surveys of the bank and of the Canadian Chamber of Commerce were sent through their internal circulation system, the number of recipients was not known. Therefore, it was not possible to calculate the response rates for these two organizations. In the e-mails within the author's personal network, the expatriates were requested to forward the survey to other expatriates who they knew. Therefore, the total number of invited recipients is unknown, and the response rate cannot be calculated with complete accuracy.

The respondents' nationalities and the countries in which they were working are listed in Tables 3 and 4.

Table 3 Expatriates' Nationalities

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Argentina	2	1.1
Australia	1	.5
Austria	1	.5
Bangladesh	1	.5
Brazil	1	.5
Canada	99	52.9
China	12	6.4
Colombia	2	1.1
Costa Rica	1	.5
Croatia	1	.5
Denmark	1	.5
Dominican Republic	1	.5
France	1	.5
Germany	2	1.1
Greece	1	.5
Hong Kong	3	1.6
India	6	3.2
Italy	2	1.1
Jamaica	1	.5
Japan	1	.5
Kyrgyzstan	1	.5
Mexico	2	1.1
Netherlands	2	1.1
Pakistan	1	.5
Peru	1	.5
Poland	1	.5
Romania	1	.5
Russia	1	.5
Saint Lucia	2	1.1
Singapore	1	.5
South Africa	1	.5
South Korea	1	.5
Spain	1	.5
Sweden	1	.5
Switzerland	5	2.7
Trinidad and Tobago	3	1.6
Turkey	1	.5
United Kingdom	6	3.2
United States	6	3.2
Venezuela	1	.5
Missing Data	8	4.3
Total	187	100

Table 4 Host Countries of the Respondents

	Frequency	Valid Percent
Australia	4	2.1
Bahamas	3	1.6
Barbados	2	1.1
Belgium	1	.5
Belize	1	.5
British Virgin Islands	2	1.1
Bulgaria	1	.5
Canada	31	16.6
Cape Verde	1	.5
Chile	1	.5
China	5	2.7
Costa Rica	3	1.6
Dominica	1	.5
Dominican Republic	1	.5
Ecuador	1	.5
Egypt	1	.5
El Salvador	3	1.6
France	1	.5
Germany	2	1.1
Guyana	1	.5
Honduras	1	.5
Hong Kong	23	12.3
Italy	2	1.1
Jamaica	1	.5
Japan	2	1.1
Mexico	7	3.7
Namibia	1	.5
Netherlands	1	.5
Netherlands Antilles	2	1.1
Peru	3	1.6
Poland	1	.5
Puerto Rico	2	1.1
Qatar	1	.5
Russia	1	.5
Saint Kitts and Nevis	2	1.1
Saint Lucia	2	1.1
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1	.5
Singapore	7	3.7
Sweden	1	.5
Switzerland	4	2.1
Taiwan	2	1.1
Thailand	2	1.1
Trinidad and Tobago	1	.5
Turks and Caicos Islands	2	1.1
United Arab Emirates	1	.5
United Kingdom	10	5.3
United States	24	12.8
Missing data	14	7.5
Total	187	100

These expatriates came from 40 different countries and areas, and more than half of them (55.1%) were from Canada. The expatriates were working in 47 countries and global areas.

The descriptive characteristics of this sample are reported in Table 5.

Table 5 Description of Variables

Variables	Category & Coding	Numbers	Percentage
Gender	Male -- 1	132	76.7
	Female -- 2	40	23.3
Marriage Status	Single -- 1	52	30.8
	Married/ Common-Law -- 2	117	69.2
Age	21~30 -- 1	35	20.3
	31~40 -- 2	76	44.2
	41~50 -- 3	30	17.4
	51~60 --4	30	17.4
	>61 -- 5	1	6
Local Language Skills	Poor -- 1	37	21.8
	Average -- 2	15	8.8
	Good -- 3	118	69.4
Accompanied by Spouse	Yes -- 1	105	82.7
	No -- 0	22	17.3
Expatriates' Positions	Non-management --1	25	14.6
	Technical / Functional management --2	18	10.5
	Middle management -- 3	48	28.1
	Senior management --4	71	41.5
Cross-cultural Training	Yes -- 1	34	19.9
	No -- 2	137	80.1
Organization Size	Small (< 200) --1	69	40.6
	Medium (200~ 700) --2	26	15.3
	Large (> 700) --3	75	44.1
Subsidiary Industry	Mining --0	4	2.4
	Construction --0	1	.6
	Manufacturing --0	13	7.8
	Transportation --0	4	2.4
	Wholesale Trade --0	6	3.6
	Retail Trade --0	5	3.0
	Finance, Insurance and Real Estate --1	71	42.8
	Services --0	27	16.3
	Others --0	35	21.1

As shown in Table 5, 76.7% of the sample were male expatriates, and 69.2% were either married or in a common-law relationship. Among the married expatriates, 82.7% had their spouses with them on their international assignments. Many expatriates (69.4%) could speak the local language well. Seventy-one (41.5%) expatriates were in senior management positions, and 48 (28.1%) held middle management positions. Sixty-nine (40.6%) respondents were working in organizations with fewer than 200 employees. And only 34 (19.9%) expatriates had received cross-cultural training from their employers. There were 9 categories in the variable of subsidiary industry, and 42.8% of them were in the finance, insurance and real estate industry. Since the rest categories had small sample sizes (fewer than 30), this variable was converted into a dummy variable in the following regression analysis. The organizations in "finance, insurance and real estate" industry was coded as 1, and the rest was coded as 0.

5.2.2 Scale reliability

The Cronbach alpha reliabilities of the multi-item scales were calculated using the sample from the main study and the results are reported in Table 6.

Table 6 Reliability of the Scales in Main Study

Scale	Cronbach α	No. of items
Cultural Information	.873	5
Social Support	.931	20
Psychological Well-Being	.725	17
Job Performance	.832	15
Adjustment	.878	11
Cultural Novelty	.850	8

5.2.3 Variable calculation

For the variables of cultural information, social support, psychological well-being, job performance, adjustment, and cultural novelty, the means of multi-item scales were calculated as variable values.

The social network size was calculated as the total number of contacts reported by an expatriate. Host national network size was counted as the number of contacts reported as being host nationalities. Home national network size was the total number of contacts reported as being of the same nationality as the expatriate. If the respondent did not report any network contacts, the network size was treated as 0.

The social network closeness variable was calculated based on an expatriate's answers to the question: "Please indicate the closeness of your relationship with each person." The closeness with host nationals was calculated as the mean of closeness reported with host nationals; the closeness with home nationals was the mean of the closeness reported with home nationals. For example, if an expatriate reported that there were three host nationals in his/her social network and the closeness with each of them was 3, 4, and 5 respectively, the closeness of host nationals was taken to be 4, which is the mean of 3, 4, and 5.

Social network frequency with contact variable was calculated based on the answers to a 5-point scale. The question read: "On average, how frequently do you talk, exchange e-mails, or socialize with this person?" The frequency with host nationals is the mean of the reported frequency of contact with host nationals, and the frequency with home nationals is the mean of the reported frequency of contact with home nationals.

Missing data in closeness and frequency were handled in 2 different ways: (1) if the respondent did not report any network contact, the means of closeness and frequency of host and home nationals would be treated as missing data and would not be included in the following regression analyses; (2) if the respondent did not report any contact with either host OR home nationals, but he/she reported at least 1 network contact, the missing closeness or frequency would be treated as 0 and would be included in the regression analysis. For example, if an expatriate reported 5 host national contacts and 0 home national contacts in his/her network, the closeness of host nationals would be the mean of reported closeness with the 5 host nationals; and the closeness with home nationals would be replaced with 0. The reason for the second method of replacing missing data is that, if an expatriate only missed a certain type of contact, it is very possible that the expatriate did not have this type of contact in his/her social network. In the example, the expatriate reporting 5 host national contacts but no home national contacts may have had no home nationals in his/her network at all in this assignment. Therefore, the closeness and frequency of contact with home nationals were both 0. In the following regression analysis, I found that the analysis using two different coding methods led to the same results. The second method was used in the following analysis since it increased the sample size and statistical power.

5.2.4 Variable description

The means, standard deviations, and correlations among all the variables used in this study are reported in Table 7.

Table 7 Means, Standard Deviations, and Variable Intercorrelations

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Size_host	1.620	1.632								
2. Closeness_host	2.743	1.806	.600**							
3. Frequency_host	2.926	1.966	.527**	.898**						
4. Size_home	2.335	1.886	.037	-.107	-.068					
5. Closeness_home	3.690	1.690	-.088	.091	.095	.504**				
6. Frequency_home	3.154	1.583	-.083	.038	.088	.407**	.869**			
7. Social Support	3.149	0.724	.270**	.248**	.232**	.014	.028	.046		
8. Cultural Information	3.768	0.741	.066	.210**	.127	-.030	.144	.083	.163*	
9. Psychological Well-being	4.177	0.470	.090	.181*	.140	.070	.190*	.137	.199**	.052
10. Job Satisfaction	3.798	0.923	.059	-.005	.021	-.044	-.003	.032	.231**	-.030
11. Job Performance	3.902	0.441	.140	.169*	.106	.026	.100	.051	.256**	.255**
12. Subsidiary Performance	2.817	0.519	.015	-.135	-.078	-.029	-.086	-.022	.017	.175*
13. Gender	1.233	0.424	.073	.044	.029	.050	.123	.013	-.028	.118
14. Language Ability	2.476	0.830	.273**	.218**	.200*	-.085	-.030	.028	.137	.369**
15. Marital Status	1.692	0.463	.048	.012	.067	-.018	-.152	-.041	-.145	.088
16. Cross-cultural Training	1.801	0.400	-.015	-.032	-.110	-.032	.071	-.021	.061	.175*
17. International Experience	4.493	5.369	-.111	-.156*	-.192*	-.179*	-.224**	-.264**	-.094	.080
18. Cultural Difference	3.413	0.860	-.104	-.131	-.133	-.129	-.144	-.087	-.147	-.175*
19. Adjustment	4.258	.579	.136	.255**	.175*	-.053	.000	-.074	.302**	.432**

Table 7 Means, Standard Deviations, and Variable Intercorrelations (continued)

	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Size_host										
2. Closeness_host										
3. Frequency_host										
4. Size_home										
5. Closeness_home										
6. Frequency_home										
7. Social support										
8. Cultural Information										
9. Psychological Well-being										
10. Job Satisfaction	.341**									
11. Job Performance	.334**	.356**								
12. Subsidiary Performance	-.040	-.011	.050							
13. Gender	.000	-.154*	-.140	.011						
14. Language Ability	-.024	.024	.104	.125	.125					
15. Marital Status	-.076	-.035	-.003	-.031	-.292**	-.001				
16. Cross-cultural Training	-.058	-.084	.030	-.059	.102	-.045	-.113			
17. International Experience	-.009	.044	.105	.000	-.202**	-.153*	.141	.208**		
18. Cultural Difference	-.075	-.031	-.046	.197*	-.206**	-.242**	.277**	.043	.175*	
19. Adjustment	.354**	.129	.356**	-.016	.113	.211**	-.201**	.043	.029	-.235**

Note: Gender: 1-male, 2-female; Marital status: 1-single, 2-married or common law; Spouse accompaniment: 0-no, 1-yes; cross-cultural training: 1-yes, 2-no

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

5.2.5 Examination of the data

Before testing the hypotheses, the following assumptions of regression were tested:

(1) constant variance of residuals, which is also known as homoscedasticity; (2) independence of residuals; (3) linear relationship between independent variables and dependent variables; and (4) normality of residuals. These assumptions held for all the regression models in this study.

5.2.6 Hypothesis testing

Hypotheses on host nationals (H1a, H1b, H1c, H1d and H2)

Hypotheses H1a, H1b and H1c predicted the relationship between host national networks and the amount of cultural information an expatriate received. These hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regression procedures with the control variables as an expatriate's international experience (in years), whether or not cross cultural training was provided by the company (1- Yes, 2-No), and cultural novelty. An expatriate's previous international experience may help the expatriate realize the differences in a new culture, and facilitate the understanding of the new cultural environment. Cross-cultural training can provide relevant knowledge about the new culture. Cultural novelty, which refers to the expatriate's perceived difference between their home culture and the host culture, affects the amount of cultural information an expatriate receives. Therefore, these variables were controlled in the regression model of cultural information.

The respective effects of an expatriate's social network size, closeness, and frequency of contact on cultural information were also tested. The results were presented in Table 8, 9, and 10.

Table 8 Regression Results of Host National Network Size on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.066*		
International experience			.010
Cross-cultural training ¹			.288*
Cultural novelty			-.158*
Step 2 Host national networks	.072*	.006	
International experience			.011
Cross-cultural training			.286*
Cultural novelty			-.152*
Host network size			.035

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 9 Regression Results of Host National Network Closeness on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.098**	.024*	
International experience			.018
Cross-cultural training			.305*
Cultural novelty			-.122
Host network closeness			.061*

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 10 Regression Results of Host National Network Frequency on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.084**	.009	
International experience			.018
Cross-cultural training			.317*
Cultural novelty			-.127*
Host network frequency			.035

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Among the three host network traits, only network closeness showed a significant relationship to an expatriate's perceived cultural information ($B = .061$, $p < .05$). Therefore, Hypothesis 1b was supported: closer relationships with host nationals provided more cultural information to expatriates. The size and frequency of host national networks were not significantly related to cultural information. Hypotheses 1a and 1c therefore were not supported. Among the control variables, cross-cultural training was positively related to cultural information, which is consistent with the literature. Host country's cultural novelty was negatively related to the acquisition of cultural information. This indicates that the greater the difference between the host and home cultures, the harder it is for an expatriate to learn about the host culture.

In order to test the overall effect of a host national network, the three network measures were simultaneously put into a regression model. The results are shown in Table 11.

Table 11 Regression Results of Host National Networks on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.107**	.033	
International experience			.017
Cross-cultural training			.277*
Cultural novelty			-.124*
Host network size			.000
Host network closeness			.134*
Host network frequency			-.076

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

When the three network traits were entered together in a regression model, the results were similar to the individual regressions: only host network closeness was significantly related to the acquisition of cultural information.

Hypothesis 1d predicts that host nationals provided more cultural information than did home nationals. In order to compare the effect of host and home national networks on cultural information, a test of the difference between two regression coefficients from a single sample was applied (Cohen *et al.*, 2003: p636-642). Since only the closeness of

host national networks was found to influence cultural information significantly, I compared the effects of host national network closeness and home national network closeness on cultural information.

The difference between the two standardized regression coefficients was tested by a t-test:

$$t = \frac{\beta_i - \beta_j}{SE_{\beta_i - \beta_j}}$$

where β represents the standardized regression coefficient, and the $SE_{\beta_i - \beta_j}$ is the standard error of the difference between β_i and β_j .

Firstly, host national network closeness and home national network closeness were included as independent variables in a regression model with the control variables as: international experience, cross-cultural training, and cultural novelty. The coefficients and the squared multiple correlations (R^2) are presented in Table 12. Standardized coefficients (β) are reported in this table since they would be used in the following calculations.

Table 12 Regression Results of Host and Home National Networks Closeness on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B	β
Step 1 Control variables	.074**			
International experience			.016	.123
Cross-cultural training			.302*	.173*
Cultural novelty			-.135*	-.171*
Step 2 Social networks	.101**	.027		
International experience			.020	.158
Cross-cultural training			.294*	.168*
Cultural novelty			-.117	-.148
Host network closeness			.062*	.160*
Home network closeness			.023	.055

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

In the regression results, host network closeness showed a significant impact on cultural information, while the effect of home network closeness was not significant.

The standard error of the difference between the two regression coefficients ($SE_{\beta_i - \beta_j}$) can be calculated using the following formula:

$$SE_{\beta_i - \beta_j} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - R_Y^2}{n - k - 1} (r^{ii} + r^{jj} - 2r^{ij})}$$

Where R_Y^2 is the squared correlation of IV set in the regression model, n is the sample size, k is the number of independent variables in the regression model, and r^{ii} is the element of the inverted correlation matrix of the independent variables.

In this case:

$\beta_4 = .160$ (Host network closeness)

$\beta_5 = .055$ (Home network closeness)

$R_Y^2 = .101$ (Squared correlation of independent variable set)

$n = 157$ (Sample size)

$k = 5$ (Number of independent variables)

The next step is to produce the inverted correlation matrix of the 5 independent variables. Table 13 shows the procedure. The first column contains the instructions. The method begins by copying the full correlation matrix among independent variables (r^{ij}) and, to the right, setting out a parallel matrix in which the diagonal elements are all 1 and off-diagonal elements are 0 (the identity matrix, I) (Cohen et al., 2003: p636).

Table 13 Calculation Procedure of Inverted Correlation Matrix

Instruction ¹		R _{ij}					I					
		1.	2.	3.	4.	5	r ¹⁵	r ²⁵	r ³⁵	r ⁴⁵	r ⁵⁵	
	A	1. International Experience	1.00000	0.20773	0.17533	-0.15574	-0.22412	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
	B	2. Cross-cultural Training	0.20773	1.00000	0.04325	-0.03180	0.07103	0.00000	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
	C	3. Cultural Novelty	0.17533	0.04325	1.00000	-0.13054	-0.14373	0.00000	0.00000	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000
	E	4. Host Network Closeness	-0.15574	-0.03180	-0.13054	1.00000	0.09125	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	1.00000	0.00000
	H	5. Home Network Closeness	-0.22412	0.07103	-0.14373	0.09125	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	1.00000
Copy A	J		1.00000	0.20773	0.17533	-0.15574	-0.22412	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
J*R12	K			0.04315	0.03642	-0.03235	-0.04656	0.20773	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
B-K	L			0.95685	0.00683	0.00055	0.11759	-0.20773	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
L/L2	M			1.00000	0.00714	0.00058	0.12289	-0.21710	1.04510	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
J*R13	N			0.03074	-0.02731	-0.03929	0.17533	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
L*M3	O			0.00005	0.00000	0.00084	-0.00148	0.00714	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
C-N-C	P			0.96921	-0.10324	-0.10528	-0.17385	-0.00714	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
P/P3	Q			1.00000	-0.10652	-0.10862	-0.17937	-0.00737	1.03177	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
J*R14	R				0.02425	0.03490	-0.15574	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
L*M4	S				0.00000	0.00007	-0.00012	0.00058	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
P*Q4	T				0.01100	0.01121	0.01852	0.00076	-0.10652	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
E-R-S-T	U				0.96475	0.04506	0.13734	-0.00134	0.10652	1.00000	0.00000	0.00000
UU4	V				1.00000	0.04671	0.14235	-0.00139	0.11041	1.03654	0.00000	0.00000

Table 13 Calculation Procedure of Inverted Correlation Matrix (Continued)

Instruction			R _{ij}					I				
			1.	2.	3.	4.	5	r ¹⁵	r ²⁵	r ³⁵	r ⁴⁵	r ⁵⁵
J*R15	W						0.05023	-0.22412	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
L*M5	X						0.01445	-0.02553	0.12289	0.00000	0.00000	0.00000
P*Q5	Y						0.01144	0.01888	0.00078	-0.10862	0.00000	0.00000
U*V5	Z						0.00210	0.00641	-0.00006	0.00498	0.04671	0.00000
E-W-X-Y-Z	a						0.92178	0.22435	-0.12360	0.10365	-0.04671	1.00000
a/a5	b						1.00000	0.24339	-0.13409	0.11244	-0.05067	1.08486

¹ This is the instruction of the calculation for each row in this table.

Following the instruction in the first column, the last line (b) provides the inverse matrix elements for IV_5 , that is, the r^{i5} values. Therefore,

$$r^{45} = -0.05067$$

$$r^{55} = 1.08486$$

The elements for X_4 are determined by subtracting from the right-hand figures in line V (which is 1.03654 in Table 13) the product of the left-hand figure (.04671) and the corresponding r^{i5} ($r^{45} = -0.05067$ in this case).

$$r^{44} = 1.03654 - (0.04671 * (-0.05067)) = 1.03891$$

Therefore,

$$SE_{\beta_4 - \beta_5} = \sqrt{\frac{1 - 0.101}{157 - 5 - 1} (1.08486 + 1.03891 - 2 * (-0.05067))}$$

$$= 0.10973$$

$$t = \frac{0.160 - 0.055}{0.10973} = 0.91227$$

for $df = 151$, $p > .05$. Thus the null hypothesis cannot be rejected, which means that the difference between the coefficients of host national network closeness and home national network closeness was not significant. Hypothesis 1d was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 2 predicts that host national network closeness and the perceived amount of social support received by an expatriate would be significantly related. This hypothesis was tested using hierarchical regression. The variables controlled in the regression model were the expatriate's: gender, marital status, cross-cultural training, and local language ability. Gender has been found to related to many psychological traits, such as general happiness (Inglehart, 1990; White, 1992). In this study, gender is controlled since male and female expatriates may perceive the social support in different ways. Marital status is also controlled in order to determine the level of social support independently from that provided by a spouse (Caligiuri et al., 1998). Cross-cultural training may help expatriates to seek more support from their networks; and expatriates' local language skills facilitate the interaction with local people and make expatriates feel more supported. Therefore, these variables were included as control variables when the effect of host networks was tested on social support.

The results of the regression are presented in Table 14.

Table 14 Regression Results of Host Network Closeness on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.104**	.040*	
Gender			-.183
Marital status			-.303*
Cross-cultural training			.148
Local language ability			.098
Host network closeness			.082*

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The overall regression model on social support was significant ($R^2 = .104$, $p < .01$). The host network closeness was significantly related to the social support an expatriate received in the host country ($B = .082$, $p < .05$), and host national network closeness significantly increased the prediction of social support over the control variables ($\Delta R^2 = .040$, $p < .05$). Hypothesis 2 was therefore supported. Among the control variables, an expatriate's marital status was significantly associated with social support; married expatriates received less social support than did single expatriates (Caligiuri et al., 1998).

In order to explore the functions of the other aspects of social network, the effects of host network size and frequency on level of social support were also tested using multiple regressions. The results are presented in Table 15 and 16.

Table 15 Regression Results of Host Network Size on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.122**	.071**	
Gender			-.196
Marital status			-.287*
Cross-cultural training			.112
Local language ability			.064
Host network size			.121**

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 16 Regression Results of Host Network Frequency on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.104**	.040*	
Gender			-.185
Marital status			-.316*
Cross-cultural training			.176
Local language ability			.099
Host network frequency			.076*

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Host network size and frequency of contact both showed significant effects on social support ($B = .121$, $p < .01$ and $B = .076$, $p < .05$ respectively). Expatriates with more host network contacts and with more frequent interactions with host nationals reported higher levels of social support. Hence, all three network characteristics of host networks were found to be positively related to the expatriate's social support.

The overall effect of a host national network was also tested by including network size, closeness and frequency together in a regression model. The results are reported in Table 17.

Table 17 Regression Results of Host National Network on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.142**	.078**	
Gender			-.201
Marital status			-.335**
Cross-cultural training			.177
Local language ability			.062
Host network size			.107*
Host network closeness			-.025
Host network frequency			.052

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

When the three network characteristics were tested together, only the size of the host national network showed a significant effect on social support ($B = .107$, $p < .05$). There was a significantly increased R-square change ($\Delta R^2 = .078$, $p < .01$) in the model, which means these three host national network characteristics explained 7.8% of the variance of social support over the control variables.

Hypotheses on home nationals (H3a, H3b, H3c, H4a and H4b)

Hypotheses H3a, H3b and H3c predicted the relationships between home national network characteristics and cultural information. These hypotheses were tested using hierarchical regressions.

The expatriate's previous international experience, cross-cultural training, and cultural novelty were entered in Step 1 as control variables, and home national network size, closeness and frequency were tested, respectively, in the next step. The results are shown in Tables 18, 19, and 20.

Table 18 Regression Results of Home Network Size on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.066*		
International experience			.010
Cross-cultural training ¹			.288*
Cultural novelty			-.158*
Step 2 Host national networks	.070*	.004	
International experience			..008
Cross-cultural training			.289*
Cultural novelty			-.163*
Home network size			-.025

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 19 Regression Results of Home Network Closeness on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.076*	.002	
International experience			.017
Cross-cultural training			.293*
Cultural novelty			-.131*
Home network closeness			.020

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 20 Regression Results of Home Network Frequency on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.075*	.001	
International experience			.017
Cross-cultural training			.301*
Cultural novelty			-.134*
Home network frequency			.013

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The results of the overall regression models were significant. But none of the three network characteristics of home nationals had a significant effect on the receipt of cultural information. Thus, Hypotheses H3a, H3b and H3c were not supported.

Hypothesis 4a predicted that home national network closeness would be related to social support. This hypothesis was tested in hierarchical regression using control variables such as the expatriate's gender, marital status, cross-cultural training, and local language ability. The rationale for controlling these variables has been discussed in the test for Hypothesis 2.

The results are reported in Table 21.

Table 21 Regression Results of Home Network Closeness on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.066	.004	
Gender			-.164
Marital status			-.311*
Cross-cultural training			.142
Local language ability			.134
Home network closeness			-.029

¹ Gender: 1 - male; 2 - female

² Marital status: 1 - single; 2 - married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1 - yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

In this regression model, only the expatriate's marital status showed a significant effect on social support ($B = -.298, p < .01$), which means that married expatriates received less social support than single expatriates. Home national network closeness, on the other hand, did not show any significant relationship to social support. Hypothesis 4a, which predicted the relationship between home national network closeness and social support, was therefore not supported.

Although not hypothesized, the effect of home national network size and frequency was also tested in order to gain a better understanding of the home national network. The results are presented in Tables 22 and 23.

Table 22 Regression Results of Home Network Size on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.051		
Gender ¹			-.174
Marital status ²			-.261*
Cross-cultural training ³			.110
Local language ability			.127
Step 2 Host national networks	.051	.001	
Gender			-.176
Marital status			-.261*
Cross-cultural training			.112
Local language ability			.130
Home network size			.010

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 23 Regression Results of Home Network Frequency on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.064	.001	
Gender			-.173
Marital status			-.301*
Cross-cultural training			.134
Local language ability			.137
Home network frequency			-.015

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Neither the home network size nor the frequency of contact had a significant effect on the level of social support.

Hypothesis 4b predicted that home nationals provided more social support than did host nationals. Based on the results from Hypothesis 4a and Hypothesis 2, however, home national network closeness was not significantly related to social support, but host national network closeness showed a significant effect on the level of social support. Therefore, there is no evidence indicating that home national networks provide more social support than do host nationals. Hypothesis 4b was therefore not supported.

**The effect of cultural information and social support on expatriate effectiveness
(H5a, H5b, H6a, H6b, H6c)**

In this study, the individual level of expatriate effectiveness is measured using several indicators: psychological well-being, job satisfaction and job performance. Hypotheses 5a and 5b predicted that cultural information was positively associated with the expatriates' psychological well-being and job performance. Hierarchical regressions were used to test the effect of cultural information on psychological well-being and job performance.

For the regression model of psychological well-being, five control variables were included: gender, age, marital status, international experience, and local language ability. Gender, age, and marital status has been consistently found to be related to individual psychological well-being in the literature (e.g. Diener et al., 2000; Wilson, 1967). Expatriates with previous international experience have accumulated knowledge about living in a new culture (Black et al., 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002), which may influence their perception of their present level of psychological well-being. Local language ability was controlled for because it is directly related to the expatriates' interaction with others (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001), which further affects their psychological well-being in host countries. The results of the effect of cultural information on psychological well-being are reported in Table 24.

Table 24 Effect of Cultural Information on Psychological Well-being

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.017		
Gender ¹			-.109
Age			.012
Marital status ²			-.059
International experience			-.001
Local language ability			.027
Step 2 Cultural information	.023	.006	
Gender			-.115
Age			.014
Marital status			-.068
International experience			-.002
Local language ability			.012
Cultural information			.046

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- Single, 2 –Married or in common-law relationship.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Neither the control variables nor the level of cultural information were found to be significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 5a was not supported.

In the hierarchical regression model of job performance, cultural information was entered after four control variables: cross-cultural training, international experience, local language ability, and cultural novelty. Cross-cultural training can provide knowledge about the local leadership style and the market in general, which will further improve expatriate job performance. Expatriates' international experience helps them be more aware of cultural background and their experience in other countries may be transferred to their current assignments and thus improve their job performance. Local language ability is related to the level of communication with expatriates' local colleagues and

business partners which is also associated with job performance. On the other hand, cultural novelty may lead to uncertainties and misunderstanding and thus negatively affect expatriate job performance. Therefore, these variables were controlled for in the regression analysis of expatriate job performance. Cultural information was then entered into the regression model. The results are presented in Table 25.

Table 25 Effect of Cultural Information on Job Performance

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.023		
Cross-cultural training ¹			.013
International experience			.009
Local language ability			.056
Cultural novelty			-.014
Step 2 Cultural information	.056	.033*	
Cross-cultural training			-.023
International experience			.007
Local language ability			.020
Cultural novelty			-.004
Cultural information			.121*

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Cultural information was found to be significantly related to job performance ($B = .121$, $p < .05$), and it accounted for 3.3% of the variance in job performance over the control variables. Hypothesis 5b was therefore supported: more cultural information leads to better job performance. In this model, none of the control variables showed a significant effect on expatriate job performance.

Hypotheses 6a, 6b, and 6c predicted the effect of an expatriate's social support on an expatriate's psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and job performance. Multiple regression analysis was used to test these hypotheses.

Using the same rationale discussed in Hypothesis 5a, the expatriate's gender, age, marital status, international experience, and local language ability were controlled for in the regression analysis predicting psychological well-being. The results of the effect of social support on psychological well-being are shown in Table 26.

Table 26 Effect of Social Support on Psychological Well-being

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.018		
Gender ¹			-.113
Age			.010
Marital status ²			-.054
International experience			-.001
Local language ability			.029
Step 2 Social support	.042	.024	
Gender			-.100
Age			.016
Marital status			-.036
International experience			-.001
Local language ability			.020
Social support			.084

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 - female

² Marital status: 1- Single, 2 - Married or common law.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Social support did not have a significant effect on psychological well-being.

Hypothesis 6a was therefore not supported.

Hypothesis 6b predicted that social support had a positive impact on the expatriate's job satisfaction. When this hypothesis was tested in multiple regression, the expatriate's age and tenure were controlled for since these two variables have been consistently found to be positively related to job satisfaction (e.g. Kacmar & Ferris, 1989; e.g. Lynn et al., 1998).

The results are presented in Table 27.

Table 27 Effect of Social Support on Job Satisfaction

	R ²	ΔR ²	B
Step 1 Control variables	.016		
Age			-.068
Tenure			.015
Step 2 Social support	.080**	.064**	
Age			.021
Tenure			.008
Social support			.343**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Social support was found to be positively related to expatriate job satisfaction ($B = .343, p < .01$), and explained an increase of 6.4% of the variance in job satisfaction over the control variables ($p < .01$). Hypothesis 6b was therefore supported: expatriates receiving more social support were more satisfied with their jobs.

Hypothesis 6c tested the relationship between social support and expatriate job performance. Cross-cultural training, international experience, local language ability, and cultural novelty were all controlled for in the regression model. Table 28 shows the results.

Table 28 Effect of Social Support on Job Performance

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.023		
Cross-cultural training ¹			.013
International experience			.009
Local language ability			.058
Cultural novelty			-.012
Step 2 Social support	.079*	.056**	
Cross-cultural training			-.005
International experience			.010
Local language ability			.045
Cultural novelty			.002
Social support			.145**

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The regression coefficient of social support was found to be significant ($B = .145$, $p < .01$), which indicates that expatriates with more social support perform better in their international assignments. The overall regression model and the increased explained variance related to social support were both significant ($R^2 = .079$, $p < .05$; $\Delta R^2 = .056$, $p < .01$). Hypothesis 6c was therefore supported.

Since cultural information and social support both had a significant effect on job performance, these two variables were entered simultaneously in the same multiple regression on an exploratory basis. The results are presented in Table 29.

Table 29 Effect of Cultural Information and Social Support on Job Performance

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.023		
Cross-cultural training ¹			.013
International experience			.009
Local language ability			.058
Cultural novelty			-.012
Step 2 Social support	.105**	.082**	
Cross-cultural training			-.036
International experience			.009
Local language ability			.014
Cultural novelty			.010
Cultural information			.109*
Social support			.136**

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The regression model with both cultural information and social support was significant ($R^2 = .105$, $p < .01$), and the increased R-square was significant as well ($\Delta R^2 = .082$, $p < .01$). Cultural information and social support both had a significant effect on job performance ($B = .109$, $p < .05$ and $B = .136$, $p < .01$ respectively).

In summary, the more cultural information an expatriate obtains, the higher the level of job performance of the expatriate. Hypothesis 5b was thus supported. However, no significant relationship was found between the level of cultural information obtained and psychological well-being; thus, hypothesis 5a was not supported. Social support was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and job performance, but not to be significantly related to psychological well-being. Hypotheses 6b and 6c were thus supported, but Hypothesis 6a was not.

The effect of expatriate job performance on subsidiary performance (H7)

A regression model was used to test the relationship between an expatriate's job performance and the performance of the subsidiary for which the expatriate worked. According to the literature, subsidiary size is positively related to subsidiary performance (Delios & Beamish, 2004) and cultural novelty reflects the uncertainty subsidiaries may face in host countries (Tihanyi et al., 2005). The level of the expatriate's position in subsidiary may affect how important the expatriate is for the subsidiary, and the subsidiary industry may also have influence on the subsidiary performance. Therefore, subsidiary size, cultural novelty, subsidiary industry, and an expatriate's position level were controlled for in the regression analysis of subsidiary performance. The variable of subsidiary industry has two categories: "Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate" and "Others". The results are reported in Table 30.

Table 30 Effect of Job Performance on Subsidiary Performance

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.130**		
Subsidiary size			.132**
Cultural novelty			.120*
Subsidiary industry ¹			.089
Position level			-.058
Step 2 Job performance	.131**	.001	
Subsidiary size			.134**
Cultural novelty			.122*
Subsidiary industry			.086
Position level			-.059
Job performance			.046

¹ Subsidiary industry: 1 – Finance, Insurance, and Real Estate; 0 - Others

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Job performance was not shown to have a significant effect on subsidiary performance. Hence, Hypothesis 7 was not supported. Among the control variables, subsidiary industry and an expatriate's position level did not indicate significant effect on subsidiary performance, but subsidiary size and cultural novelty were both positively related to subsidiary performance ($B = .134, p < .01$ and $B = .122, p < .05$ respectively).

5.3 Additional Notable Findings

Besides the hypothesis testing, some additional tests were conducted on an exploratory basis. The following section discusses these findings.

5.3.1 The comparison among host, home, and third country nationals

In order to explore the components of an expatriate's network, the variables of network size, closeness, and frequency of contact among host, home, and third country nationals were compared using a one-way ANOVA. The ANOVA tests for network size, closeness, and frequency of contact were all found to be statistically significant ($F(2, 491) = 13.266, p < .01$; $F(2, 491) = 22.174, p < .01$; and $F(2, 491) = 7.438, p < .01$, respectively).

Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate the pairwise differences among the means using a Bonferroni post hoc test. The results of these tests, as well as the means and standard deviations for each of the groups, are reported in Table 31.

Table 31 Differences in Network Size, Closeness, and Frequency among Host, Home, and Third Country Nationals

		Mean	SD	Host	Home
Size	Host	1.768	1.626		
	Home	2.549	1.804	*	
	Third country	1.603	1.885	NS	*
Closeness	Host	2.743	1.806		
	Home	3.690	1.690	*	
	Third country	2.388	1.984	NS	*
Frequency	Host	2.926	1.966		
	Home	3.154	1.583	NS	
	Third country	2.380	2.026	*	*

NS = non-significant differences between pairs of means

* = significance using Bonferroni post hoc test with alpha of 0.05

There were significant differences in the means between host network size and home network size, and between home network size and third country network size. Expatriates tended to have more home nationals than host or third country nationals in their social network. But there was no significant difference between host and third country national network size. In terms of network closeness, the relationships with home nationals were significantly closer than those with host and third country nationals. The interaction frequency with third country nationals was lower than those with host or home nationals.

The comparison of network size, closeness, and frequency among host, home, and third country nationals is illustrated in Figures 2 to 4.

Figure 2 Social Network Size with Host, Home and Third Country Nationals

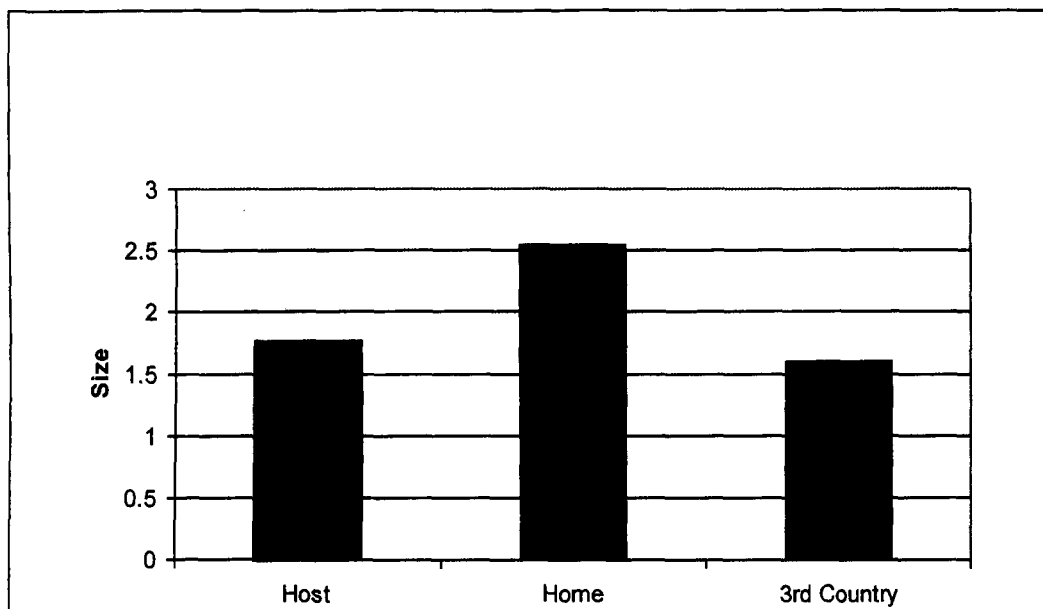


Figure 3 Social Network Closeness with Host, Home and Third Country Nationals

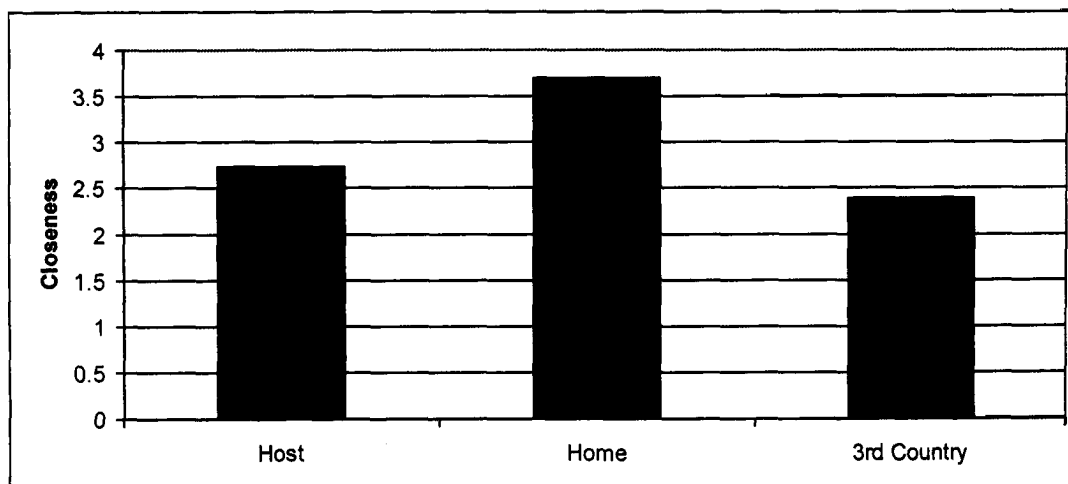
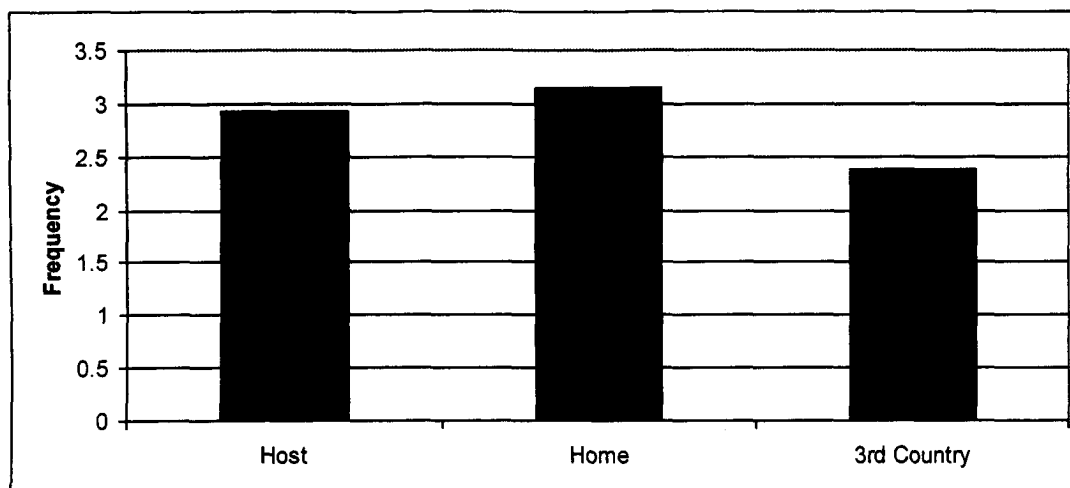


Figure 4 Interaction Frequency with Host, Home and Third Country Nationals



5.3.2 The effect of overall network size, closeness, and frequency

In the hypotheses, the effect of networks originating from different nationalities was examined. In the following section, the effect of an expatriate's overall network was tested to examine their influence on cultural information and social support.

The overall network size is the total number of network contacts an expatriate listed in the survey; the overall network closeness is the mean of reported closeness with all the network contacts regardless of their nationalities, and the overall frequency was calculated as the mean of reported frequency of all the contacts.

Regression models on cultural information and social support were conducted with the overall network size, closeness, and frequency as independent variables, respectively. In the analysis of cultural information, an expatriate's international experience, cross-cultural training, and cultural novelty were controlled. The assumptions of the regression

were tested and verified. The results of the regression models are reported in Tables 32, 33 and 34.

Table 32 Regression Results of Overall Network Size on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.077*	.003	
International experience			.015
Cross-cultural training			.297*
Cultural novelty			-.137*
Overall network size			-.014

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 33 Regression Results of Overall Network Closeness on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.092**	.018	
International experience			.017
Cross-cultural training			.242
Cultural novelty			-.130*
Overall network Closeness			.189

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 34 Regression Results of Overall Network Frequency on Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.074**		
International experience			.016
Cross-cultural training ¹			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Step 2 Host national networks	.074*	.000	
International experience			.015
Cross-cultural training			.302*
Cultural novelty			-.135*
Overall network frequency			-.010

¹ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1 - yes, 2 - no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

An expatriate's cross-cultural training was found to be positively related to cultural information ($B = .302$, $p < .05$); on the other hand, cultural novelty was found to be negatively related to cultural information ($B = -.135$, $p < .05$). None of the characteristics of overall social networks were significantly associated with cultural information.

The effect of an expatriate's overall network on social support was also tested with regression models. The control variables in this model were: the expatriate's gender, marital status, local language ability, and cross-cultural training. The results of the regression analysis are reported in Tables 35, 36 and 37.

Table 35 Regression Results of Overall Network Size on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.098**	.034*	
Gender			-.185
Marital status			-.310*
Cross-cultural training			.156
Local language ability			.154*
Overall network size			.054*

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$ **Table 36 Regression Results of Overall Network Closeness on Social Support**

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.065	.001	
Gender			-.163
Marital status			-.317*
Cross-cultural training			.152
Local language ability			.135
Overall network closeness			.059

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 37 Regression Results of Overall Network Frequency on Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.064*		
Gender ¹			-.173
Marital status ²			-.298*
Cross-cultural training ³			.136
Local language ability			.136
Step 2 Host national networks	.065	.001	
Gender			-.172
Marital status			-.294*
Cross-cultural training			.137
Local language ability			.132
Overall network frequency			.030

¹ Gender: 1- male; 2 – female

² Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

³ Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The overall network size was significantly related to social support ($B = .054$, $p < .01$). An expatriate with more contacts in his/her network received more social support. However, the closeness and frequency of the overall network did not reveal a significant effect on level of social support.

5.3.3 The mediation effect of cultural information and social support

The mediation effect of cultural information and social support were also examined on an exploratory basis:

Research question 1: Does cultural information mediate the relationships between social network and overseas assignment outcomes?

Research question 2: Does social support mediate the relationships between social network and overseas assignment outcomes?

The mediation effect was tested with the Sobel (1982) test. The regression coefficients and standard errors in previous analyses were used to calculate the t-values for the Sobel statistics. Since the test of the hypotheses has shown that only host national networks were significantly related to cultural information and social support, the mediation tests focuses on the relationships between host national networks and expatriate effectiveness outcomes as well. The results of the Sobel test are presented in Table 38.

Table 38 Mediation Effect of Cultural Information and Social Support

Relationship	A ¹	SE _A ²	B ³	SE _B ⁴	Sobel ⁵
Host national size → social support → job performance	.121	.034	.145	.047	2.33*
Host national size → social support → job satisfaction	.121	.034	.343	.101	2.46*
Host national closeness → cultural information → job performance	.061	.030	.121	.052	1.53
Host national closeness → social support → job satisfaction	.082	.032	.343	.101	2.05*
Host national closeness → social support → job performance	.082	.032	.145	.047	1.97*
Host national frequency → social support → job satisfaction	.076	.030	.343	.101	2.03*
Host national frequency → social support → job performance	.076	.030	.145	.047	1.95

Note: * $p < .05$;

1: the regression coefficient for the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator;

2: The standard error of the relationship between the independent variable and the mediator;

3: The regression coefficient for the relationship between the mediator variable and the dependent variable;

4: The standard error of the relationship between the mediator variable and the dependent variable;

5: the Sobel test statistics.

The significance of the Sobel test indicates the significance of a mediation effect (Sobel, 1982). The results show that social support was a mediator between host national networks and expatriate effectiveness: social support mediates the relationship between host national size and job performance, host national size and job satisfaction, host national closeness and job satisfaction, host national closeness and job performance, and host national frequency and job satisfaction. On the other hand, cultural information did not have any significant mediation effect on expatriate effectiveness.

5.3.4 The role of expatriate adjustment

In the introduction section, I have discussed the rationale for using the multi-dimensional measure of expatriate effectiveness instead of the single measure of expatriate adjustment. The results of this study have proved that the social network functions of cultural information and social support are related to some indicators of expatriate effectiveness. In the following section, the effect of expatriate adjustment will be explored along with the relationships between adjustment and other indicators of expatriate effectiveness.

Expatriate adjustment has been used as an outcome of international assignment in expatriate literature (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black, 1988; Mendenhall et al., 2002). In order to explore the role of expatriate adjustment, adjustment was included in this study, and Table 7 identifies the correlations among expatriate adjustment and other factors. Adjustment was significantly related to: host network closeness, frequency, social support, cultural information, psychological well-being, job performance, marital status, and cultural differences.

The effect of social networks on expatriate adjustment was tested. The size, closeness and frequency of host networks were included in the regression model. According to the literature (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004), expatriates' marital status, cross-cultural training, local language ability, and international experience were necessary as control variables. Table 39 shows the results.

Table 39 Regression Results of Host Networks on adjustment

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.082*	.082*	
Marital status ¹			-.274**
Cross-cultural training ²			.002
Local language ability			.132*
International experience			.009
Step 2 Host national networks	.148**	.067*	
Size			-.003
Closeness			.136*
Frequency			-.057

¹ Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

² Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

While the closeness of host national networks was positively related to adjustment ($B = .136, p < .05$), the size of the network and frequency of contact did not have a significant effect on adjustment.

The effect of cultural information and social support on adjustment was also explored using multiple regression. Table 40 presents the results.

Table 40 Effect of Cultural Information and Social Support on Adjustment

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Step 1 Control variables	.082*	.082*	
Marital status ¹			-.274**
Cross-cultural training ²			.002
Local language ability			.132*
International experience			.009
Step 2	.289**	.206**	
Cultural information			.332**
Social support			.184**

¹ Marital status: 1- single; 2 – married

² Has your company given you cross-cultural training? 1- yes, 2 – no.

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Cultural information and social support are both significantly related to expatriate adjustment ($B = .332$, $p < .01$ and $B = .184$, $p < .01$ respectively). Therefore, expatriate adjustment, can be predicted by the closeness of the host national network, the amount of cultural information, and the level of social support.

Is expatriate adjustment a good measure of the success of an expatriate assignment? In order to answer this question, the relationships between adjustment and other indicators of expatriate effectiveness were examined. Table 41 presents the correlation among these factors.

Table 41 Correlations among Expatriate Effectiveness Indicators

	1	2	3	4
1. Psychological well-being				
2. Job satisfaction	.324**			
3. Job performance	.460**	.356**		
4. Subsidiary performance	.015	-.011	.050	
5. Adjustment	.364**	.129	.356**	-.016

** $p < .01$.

Table 41 shows the correlations among outcome variables. Adjustment is related to psychological well-being and job performance, but not to job satisfaction or subsidiary performance. The significant correlations indicate that there is covariance between adjustment and other effective indicators. But it is also important to know the extent to which adjustment can predict the outcomes of expatriate effectiveness. Hence, I further explored adjustment's impact on other effectiveness indicators.

In the following section, expatriate adjustment was treated as a predictor of effectiveness indicators, and the incremental effects of adjustment were examined with respect to certain control variables and network functions.

In the tests of the hypotheses, neither cultural information nor social support was found to be significantly related to psychological well-being. Expatriate adjustment was added to the regression models after the control variables, cultural information and social support. The results are shown in Tables 42 and 43.

Table 42 Effect of Adjustment on Psychological Well-being over Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Cultural Information	.022		
Gender			-.115
Age			.014
Marital status			-.068
International experience			-.002
Local language ability			.012
Cultural information			.046
Model 2 Adjustment	.128**	.105**	
Gender			-.113
Age			-.001
Marital status			.017
International experience			-.001
Local language ability			.008
Cultural information			-.040
Adjustment			.243**

** $p < .01$

Table 43 Effect of Adjustment on Psychological Well-being over Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Social Support	.042		
Gender			-.100
Age			.016
Marital status			-.036
International experience			-.001
Local language ability			.020
Social support			.084
Model 2 Adjustment	.128**	.086**	
Gender			-.115
Age			.003
Marital status			.013
International experience			-.002
Local language ability			-.011
Social support			.035
Adjustment			.210**

** $p < .01$

Adjustment showed a significant effect on psychological well-being ($B = .243, p < .01$ and $B = .210, p < .01$ respectively in two regression models). Over the control variables and cultural information, adjustment explained an extra 10.5% ($p < .01$) variance of psychological well-being. Adjustment also explained an extra 8.6% ($p < .01$) variance over control variables and social support. Therefore, for the effectiveness indicator, psychological well-being, adjustment could be a more important predictor compared with cultural information and social support.

Using the similar rationale, the effect of adjustment on job performance was analyzed, and the results were presented in Tables 44 and 45.

Table 44 Effect of Adjustment on Job Performance over Cultural Information

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Cultural Information	.056*		
Cross-cultural training			-.023
International experience			.007
Local language ability			.020
Cultural novelty			-.004
Cultural information			.121*
Model 2 Adjustment	.128**	.072**	
Cross-cultural training			-.017
International experience			.007
Local language ability			.016
Cultural novelty			.020
Cultural information			.050
Adjustment			.225**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

When adjustment was added into the regression model for job performance over cultural information, the significant effect ($B = .121$, $p < .05$) of cultural information was reduced ($B = .050$, non-significant). Adjustment showed a significant impact on job performance ($B = .225$, $p < .01$), and adjustment alone explained 7.2% ($p < .01$) variance of job performance over the control variables and cultural information.

Table 45 Effect of Adjustment on Job Performance over Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Social Support	.079*		
Cross-cultural training			-.005
International experience			.010
Local language ability			.045
Cultural novelty			.002
Social support			.145**
Model 2 Adjustment	.145**	.066**	
Cross-cultural training			-.013
International experience			.008
Local language ability			.026
Cultural novelty			.025
Social support			.098*
Adjustment			.208**

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 45 presents the effects of social support and adjustment on job performance. In the model without adjustment, social support revealed a significantly positive effect on job performance ($B = .145$, $p < .01$). When adjustment was included, the impact of social support was reduced, but was still significant ($B = .098$, $p < .05$). Adjustment was also significantly related to job performance ($B = .208$, $p < .01$). Therefore, social support and adjustment both made a unique contribution to the variance of job performance.

Regression coefficients indicate the unique contribution from each independent variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007, p. 137). Therefore, the significance of the coefficient of social support indicates that some variance of job performance can only be interpreted by social support.

Table 46 reports the effect of adjustment on job satisfaction.

Table 46 Effect of Adjustment on Job Satisfaction over Social Support

	R^2	ΔR^2	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Social Support	.080**		
Age			.021
Tenure			.008
Social support			.343**
Model 2 Adjustment	.084**	.003	
Age			.011
Tenure			.010
Social support			.317**
Adjustment			.098

** $p < .01$

There was no significant effect of adjustment on job satisfaction. However, the effect of social support remained significant even when adjustment was included ($B = .317$, $p < .01$). Therefore, a significant amount of variance in expatriate job satisfaction can be attributed to social support rather than to adjustment.

Table 47 reports the effect of adjustment on subsidiary performance.

Table 47 Effect of Adjustment on Subsidiary Performance over Job Performance

	R ²	ΔR ²	B
Model 1 Control Variables & Job Performance	.137**		
Subsidiary size			.171**
Cultural novelty			.120*
Job performance			.106
Model 2 Adjustment	.137**	.000	
Subsidiary size			.171**
Cultural novelty			.119*
Job performance			.109
Adjustment			-.007

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Neither job performance nor adjustment showed a significant effect on subsidiary performance.

Based on the results of the correlations and regressions, adjustment was positively related to the expatriate's host network closeness, cultural information, and social support. In terms of effectiveness indicators, adjustment was a construct related to some expatriate effectiveness outcomes, such as psychological well-being and job performance. In the regression analyses, adjustment was shown to be significantly related to psychological well-being while cultural information and social support failed to predict psychological well-being. In the regression models of expatriate job performance, adjustment also exhibited an incremental validity in predicting job performance beyond cultural information or social support alone. This evidence indicates that the construct of adjustment is related to specific expatriate effectiveness outcomes.

On the other hand, adjustment was not found to be related to job satisfaction or to subsidiary performance, which suggests that adjustment alone cannot explain every aspect of expatriate effectiveness. Even in the regression model of job performance (Table 45), although adjustment showed a significant effect, social support also present a significant partial coefficient in predicting job performance. Therefore, adjustment alone can only be responsible for a limited amount of variance in expatriate effectiveness. In order to better and more comprehensively describe expatriate effectiveness, a multi-dimensional concept rather than a single concept such as adjustment is more desirable.

5.4 Summary

In summary, an expatriate who has closer relationships with host nationals was found to receive more cultural information. Similarly, an expatriate with a larger host network, with closer relationships, or who was interacting more frequently with host nationals receives more social support. However, no effect was found with respect to home national network size, closeness, or frequency of contact on expatriates' cultural information or social support.

An expatriate's received cultural information and social support was found to be associated with overseas assignment effectiveness outcomes. The amount of cultural information was positively associated with an expatriate's job performance, and the amount of social support was related to an expatriate's job satisfaction and job performance. Social support was also found to mediate the relationship between host national network and expatriate job performance and satisfaction. The individual

expatriate's job performance, however, was not significantly related to subsidiary performance.

Among the control variables, cross-cultural training was associated with a better understanding of cultural information. Cultural novelty of host countries reduced the amount of cultural information, but it had a positive impact on subsidiary performance. It was also found that married expatriates received less social support.

Additional analyses showed that expatriates tended to have more home nationals than host and third-country nationals in their networks, and that they felt closer to their home national contacts than to others. When the effect of expatriates' overall networks—which include host, home, and third-country nationals—was examined, only the size of the overall network showed a significantly positive relationship to social support.

The analysis of the construct expatriate adjustment indicated that adjustment was related to some but not all the indicators of expatriate effectiveness, which suggests that a multi-dimensional concept of effectiveness can better represent the various aspects of overseas assignment.

CHAPTER 6 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

This chapter provides a general discussion of the findings of the thesis. A discussion of the limitations of the study is included along with suggestions for further related avenues of research.

6.1 Overview – Summary of Findings

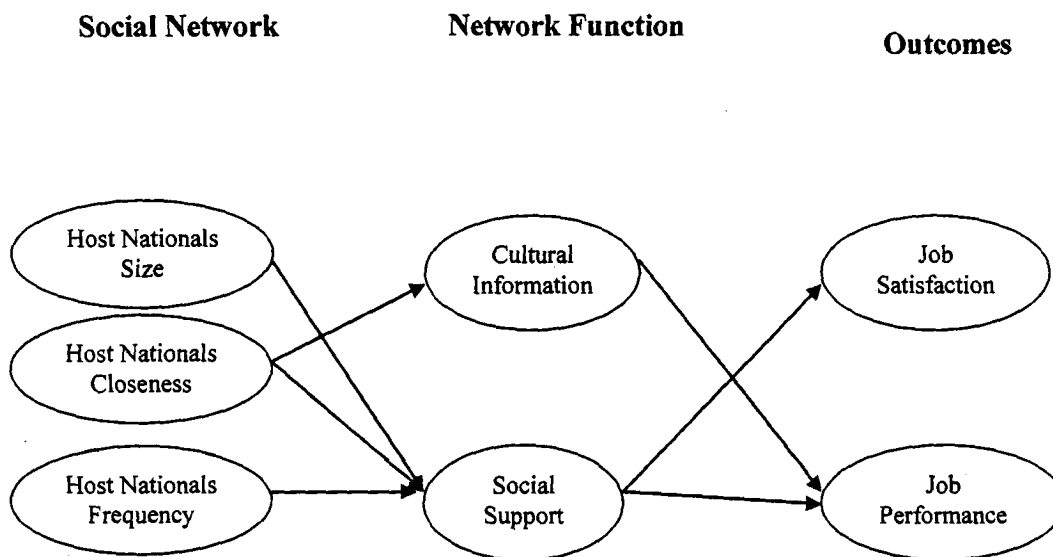
This study explored the functions of an expatriate's social network in a new cultural environment using multiple indicators to measure the effectiveness of the overseas assignments. The results of this study contribute to our understanding of expatriate management primarily with respect to the following four observations:

(1) An expatriate's host national network is an important source of cultural information and social support in an international assignment, especially with respect to the size and closeness of the expatriate's host social network. Specifically, closer relationships with host nationals provide an expatriate with more cultural information and social support; a larger social network with host nationals and more frequent contacts with host nationals tend to give the expatriate more social support. (2) Contrary to the hypotheses, home national networks were not found to be significantly related to the amount of social support or cultural information an expatriate received. (3) Both cultural information and social support were found to have positive effects on expatriate effectiveness. Cultural information can facilitate an expatriate's job performance, and social support can improve his/her job performance and job satisfaction. Social support was also found to mediate the relationship between host national networks and expatriate effectiveness variables. (4) The multiple measures of the dependent variables used (e.g. psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance) provide a

more comprehensive and accurate assessment of expatriate effectiveness which includes the concerns of both individual expatriates and international companies.

Figure 5 indicates the significant relationships identified in this study.

Figure 5 Significant Relationships among Variables



6.2 Components of Expatriates' Social Networks

6.2.1 The effect of host national networks

One of the contributions of this study is the identification of the nationality of an expatriate's social network contacts. In an international assignment, an expatriate's social network is composed of host nationals, home nationals, and third-country nationals. Due to the differences in expatriates' experience, culture, and customs, the expatriates' social relationships may vary according to their social contacts' nationality. For example, this study showed that expatriates tended to interact more with home nationals than with host nationals. From another point of view, people of different nationalities with different

periods of residence in the host country and varied depths of understanding of the local environment, may provide a variety of resources to the expatriate. One of the purposes of this study was to identify the functions embedded in different network contexts. An expatriate's social network in a new national culture can be categorized as: host nationals, home nationals, and third-country nationals. In this study, the functions of host nationals and home nationals were discussed. In order to further explore the functions of social networks, three specific aspects of an expatriate's social networks were measured: size, closeness, and frequency.

The expatriate literature has shown that host nationals act as the richest sources of information and social support for expatriates in understanding their jobs and lives in a new cultural environment (e.g. Black, 1988; Black et al., 1991). In an international assignment, an expatriate has more opportunities to gain access to host nationals than to home nationals. This study supported the findings that host national networks are associated with an expatriate's cultural information and social support. Host nationals are familiar with local customs and thus can provide the expatriate with necessary information about living in a new environment. Even some of the simplest things, such as grocery shopping in a new environment, could be a challenge for a newcomer. Interacting with host nationals provides the expatriate with information about daily life facilities, local customs, government policies, and business models. Interacting with host nationals also gives expatriates the opportunity to learn tacit knowledge which may not be accessible through formal training. For example, in some Asian countries, maintaining harmony is very important, therefore people hesitate to express opposing opinions in public. A western manager lacking this knowledge may miss the silent signals sent by

his/her Eastern employees. Therefore, spending time with host nationals facilitates expatriate learning especially in the area of non-verbal behaviors such as body language and facial expressions.

An intriguing finding of this study was that the size, closeness, and frequency of an expatriate's host national network may serve different roles in the context of international assignments. The amount of cultural information the expatriate receives was found to be related to host network closeness rather than to network size or frequency. People who are closer contacts are more familiar with the expatriate's background and know what type of information the expatriate needs the most. Therefore, closer network contacts are able to provide more relevant cultural information (Kim, 1987). In addition, the expatriate may feel more comfortable asking his/her close contacts questions about certain aspects of private life as well as about work tasks. Recall that the measure of cultural information captured many aspects of the local culture that go beyond the work domain such as customs and traditions as well as social and political norms. It is reasonable to expect that the expatriate would have the opportunity to learn this type of cultural information only from close contacts, since the communications between them could be based on a deeper level of trust.

Although it was hypothesized that the size and frequency of host national networks would be related to an expatriate's cultural information, these hypotheses were not supported as expected. It is possible that the cultural information from a large or more frequently interacted network is redundant. For example, an expatriate may interact with a co-worker everyday for work purposes, but the communication content may be limited only to specific tasks. Although the expatriate has very frequent interactions with the

colleague, due to the narrow context of the communication, opportunities for learning cultural information are limited. In addition, a large network with few close relationships may provide expatriates more opportunities to interact with host nationals, but the conversation may remain at a superficial level, and include topics such as the weather and the general economy. It is rare to discuss issues such as personal values with someone with whom one is unfamiliar. In summary, the size and frequency of contact with host national networks do not significantly contribute to the gaining of cultural information.

The expatriate's perceived social support depends on all three of the host national's network characteristics: size, closeness, and frequency. An expatriate with a larger host national network tends to receive more social support because it is easier to seek help and support from a larger group of people. A larger network provides more availability and diversity to the expatriate for sharing his/her experiences and feelings with the network contacts and the expatriate may obtain more encouragement and feedback from them. In the work setting, many host nationals may try to be friendly and supportive to the expatriate as long as they realize the difficulties the expatriate may be experiencing in adjusting to the new environment. In addition, being included in a large network makes it easier for the expatriate to develop a sense of belonging to certain groups.

At the same time, host national network closeness and frequency were found to be significantly associated with social support as hypothesized. Closeness and frequency indicated the strength of the network relationships. Close relationships with host nationals enhanced the level of mutual trust between an expatriate and host nationals and provided identification and a sense of belonging (Granovetter, 1982; Walker *et al.*, 1994; Wellman, 1981). Individuals tended to seek help from their close friends, especially in stressful and

uncertain situations. Frequent interactions with host nationals were found to provide more opportunities for expatriates and their host national contacts to share their feelings and opinions, which reduces expatriate uncertainties and ambiguity about staying overseas and makes them feel more supported.

In the expatriate literature, Caligiuri and Lazarova (2002) proposed that interacting with host nationals helps expatriates develop a positive attitude toward local culture, which serves to improve the expatriates' psychological well-being. In a conceptual model, Wang (2002) argued that host national network size, closeness and frequency would make expatriates feel better supported. The results of this study provide support for these theoretical arguments by indicating that a large, close, and frequently contacted host national network can provide expatriate social support.

In addition, the unique contribution of host network size, closeness and frequency on social support was tested by putting all the three measures together into a regression model (see Table 17). The results showed that the size of the host network had a significant partial relationship with social support, but the coefficients of network closeness and frequency were not significant. The results indicated that there was covariance among the three network measures, but host network size provided a unique contribution in explaining the variance of social support.

6.2.2 The effect of home national networks

The effect of home national network size, closeness, and frequency were also tested in this study. My hypothesis of a significant association between home national networks and expatriates' perceived cultural information and social support was not supported. In

addition, except for the positive relationship between the closeness of home national networks and expatriate psychological well-being, home national networks were not related to any other overseas assignment outcomes.

Subsequent analyses indicated that expatriates tended to have more home nationals than host and third country nationals in their social network, and that expatriates felt closer to home nationals, although host nationals were more important in terms of providing cultural information and social support.

People tended to associate with others similar to themselves since interpersonal similarity increases ease of communication, improves predictability of behavior, and fosters relationships of trust and reciprocity (Kanter, 1977; Lincoln & Miller, 1979). The literature on racial and gender minorities' social networks have revealed sufficient evidence (e.g. Ibarra, 1993; Molica *et al.*, 2003) to indicate that minorities develop more social relationships with people in the same race or gender despite their lower level of availability. Although most of these studies were conducted in North American organizations or universities, the findings reflect the fact that interpersonal similarity affects social network development.

When an expatriate arrives at an overseas assignment, there are many uncertainties such as cultural differences and language barriers that influence social network development. Compared with host nationals, home nationals share similar cultures, values, language, and customs with the expatriate. Therefore, interaction with home nationals is more comfortable due to the ease of communication and the predictability of behavior. The comfort aspect accounts for the fact that, even with the restricted availability of home nationals in overseas assignments, expatriates have more home

nationals than host or third country nationals in their social networks and the relationships with home nationals are closer than those with host and third country nationals.

Size, closeness, and frequency of home national networks were not significantly associated with an expatriate's cultural information or social support as hypothesized. The unfamiliar surroundings may force expatriates to interact more with home nationals, but in a different country the availability of home nationals is limited. This would limit the amount of cultural information provided by home nationals. Plus, since an expatriate's home nationals are also foreigners within the local environment, they simply may not have enough information about the local culture, and therefore may not be able to provide as much cultural information to the expatriate as host nationals. In addition, since networking requires an investment of both time and effort, too much interaction with home nationals may also reduce the time an expatriate has to spend on acquiring broad cultural information, and this restriction slows down the learning process.

The limitation with respect to home national network availability may also influence the amount and kind of social support an expatriate receives. Social support comes from multiple sources: family members, friends, co-workers, clients, and so on. An expatriate's home national network may not contain all these types of contacts, thus limiting the social support available. For example, an expatriate may have several home national friends, but no home national co-workers. Therefore, when the expatriate needs to seek help in the workplace, he/she has to go to host nationals, because the problems the expatriate is experiencing in the work setting may not be well understood by the home national friends. The lack of significant correlation between home national network

indicators and expatriate effectiveness measures also shows that home nationals do not act as a rich resource for expatriates.

In summary, expatriates' social networks contain more home nationals than host nationals, and expatriates tend to feel closer to their home nationals. However, in terms of providing cultural information and social support, host nationals play a more important role in determining the success of an expatriate's overseas assignment.

6.3 Effect of Cultural Information and Social Support

Most hypotheses concerning the effects of cultural information and social support on expatriate effectiveness were supported. Working in a different country, a basic requirement for an expatriate is to be aware of local policies, regulations, and the legal system. Also information on local culture, values, customs and events can assist expatriates in understanding local markets and conditions, thus helping the expatriate conform to local norms, and contributing to their job performance. Hence, communication with local employees is one of the core facets of expatriate performance (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997). Cultural information can help expatriates understand the communication style of local people, which helps to avoid offending others.

Understanding local value systems also facilitates the communication process. In addition, cultural information about the norms, rules, and procedures within the work setting helps expatriates to understand their role and the nature of their tasks within their subsidiary, and thus fulfill specific task requirements (Seibert et al., 2001). Cultural information also helps expatriates to apply corporate culture and policies in the local environment, especially when adjustment is necessary (Tan & Mahoney, 2004). Many

expatriates work in management positions. Understanding their employees' needs is very important in terms of motivating and leading. For instance, in some Asian countries, a performance-based reward system is not as effective as in North America as a motivator. Managers need to consider some other factors such as seniority of employees and the equality among team members. Therefore, a better understanding of the social norms and customs helps expatriates manage and lead their employees more effectively. In summary, cultural information can help expatriates perform better in many facets of a new environment.

Social support was found to positively relate to an expatriate's job satisfaction, and to job performance. The social support provided by network contacts can make the expatriate feel respected and cared for and thus more comfortable and satisfied with his/her daily life and job (Kram, 1988; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001). Social support can also make expatriates feel more confident and motivated in their jobs, leading to better job performance, an outcome which is consistent with other findings in the literature (e.g. Fisher, 1985).

The exploratory mediation analysis showed that social support was a significant mediator between host national network (size, closeness, and frequency) and expatriate effectiveness (job performance and job satisfaction), but the mediation effect of cultural information was not significant (see Table 38). The results seem to suggest that a larger, closer, and more frequently interacted network with host nationals can improve expatriate job performance and satisfaction by providing more social support. On the other hand, host national closeness serves to provide more cultural information, which in turn, facilitates expatriate's job performance. But the insignificant results of cultural

information indicate that the closeness with host nationals does not necessarily lead to better job performance. Other factors, such as expatriate's ability and skills, are required to accomplish the overseas assignment (e.g. Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). The results of the mediation test illustrate the importance of a host national network in overseas assignments through providing social support to expatriates. The results also indicate that social networks are not the only antecedents of expatriate effectiveness since other factors would influence the amount of cultural information an expatriate receives.

6.4 Multiple Indicators of Expatriate Effectiveness

This study measured expatriate effectiveness from multiple perspectives: psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance. Consistent with the literature (Caligiuri, 1997; Gregersen et al., 1996), in this study expatriate effectiveness was treated as a comprehensive framework rather than as a single measure. The data revealed that there were moderate inter-correlations among psychological well-being, job satisfaction, and job performance (correlation coefficients ranged from .334 to .356). However, each of these measures had different predictors: psychological well-being was related to the expatriate's perceived level of social support, although after including the control variables (gender, age, marital status, international experience, and local language ability), the effect of social support was found to not be significant; job satisfaction was found to be related to social support but not to cultural information; job performance was found to be related to both social support and cultural information. These measures represent different facets of expatriate effectiveness. To have a comprehensive understanding of expatriate effectiveness, it is therefore necessary to have multiple indicators. It is commonly understood that psychological well-being and

job satisfaction represent the expatriates' subjective perception of their status, i.e. how well they feel about themselves and how comfortable they feel with their work. On the other hand, job performance is a relatively objective measure which indicates productivity in the overseas assignment, one of the major reasons organizations send expatriates overseas. Therefore, these three indicators include concerns of both individual expatriates and their organizations.

In this study, subsidiary performance was found associated with subsidiary size and the cultural novelty of host country, but not with any of the individual level variables. The finding of the lack of relationship between expatriate's job performance and subsidiary performance is consistent with some studies in the literature (e.g. Peterson *et al.*, 1996). Subsidiary performance is an organizational level measure which is influenced by many factors, such as the subsidiary's entry mode (e.g. Arregle *et al.*, 2006) and joint venture ownership type (e.g. Delios & Beamish, 2004). Compared with the organizational level variables, individual level factors may only have limited effect on subsidiary performance. Therefore, even though over 40% of the respondents were holding senior management positions in the sample of this study, the lack of other types of information (such the total number of expatriates in a subsidiary) makes it difficult to estimate the influence of individual expatriates on organizational performance.

The expatriate literature has focused primarily on the construct of expatriate adjustment as a measure of effectiveness (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Mendenhall *et al.*, 2002), a construct proposed by Black *et al.* (1991). In order to test the relationship between expatriate adjustment and other variables, expatriate adjustment was also included in this survey. The correlation results showed that adjustment was associated

with social support, cultural information, psychological well-being, and job performance. The related analyses indicated that adjustment provided a significantly increased explanation for the variance in psychological well-being and job performance over and beyond the level of cultural information and social support. This result indicates that the level of expatriate adjustment is related to some important aspects of expatriate effectiveness. This might be one of the reasons why expatriate adjustment is broadly used in expatriate studies.

However, it is also noticeable that there was no significant relationship between adjustment and job satisfaction which reflects the expatriates' feelings toward their daily work. In addition, some variance of job performance can only be explained by the amount of social support rather than by adjustment (see Table 45). Therefore, adjustment alone cannot provide a comprehensive measure of expatriate effectiveness which includes differing aspects. Using only one measure would also blur the distinctions among the different aspects of expatriate effectiveness. Hence, it was necessary to use multiple measures to examine expatriate effectiveness such as: psychological well-being, job performance, job satisfaction, and subsidiary performance.

6.5 Other Interesting Findings on Expatriate Assignment

The demographic data in this study revealed some findings that were consistent with the existing literature. Among the respondents, for example, there were more male than female expatriates, and most expatriates were married and were accompanied by spouses (Global Relocation Service et al., 2004). Therefore, assistance for expatriate spouses requires more attention from both researchers and practitioners since many failed

international assignments are caused by the maladjustment of spouses (Black & Stephens, 1989).

Surprisingly, in this study, 80% of the respondents reported they did not receive any cross-cultural training from their employers even though research has shown that such training can significantly improve the expatriates' level of adjustment and performance (Caligiuri *et al.*, 2001; Landis & Brislin, 1983). The results from this study also indicated that cross-cultural training had a strong influence on the expatriate's success in acquiring cultural information and was also related to the expatriate's closeness with his/her network contacts. The literature indicates that training could help expatriates experience less cultural shock, and be better prepared for the difficulties inherent in adjusting to a foreign environment (Black *et al.*, 1991; Boies & Rothstein, 2002). In addition, cross-cultural training may also provide the necessary background knowledge and appropriate expectations about local circumstances which, in turn, facilitates the process of developing closer social networks within the new environment (Hannigan, 1990). However, in the results of this study, cross-cultural training was found to be only related to cultural information and not to any other outcome measure. One possible explanation is that pre-departure training can provide necessary cultural information to expatriates and reduce culture shock immediately after the expatriate arrives in the new country, but the long-term effects, such as improved performance and psychological well-being, depend on other factors such as the candidate's personality (Caligiuri, 2000) and career interest (Boies & Rothstein, 2002). This study only included one general question on cross-cultural training and did not identify the type or extent of the training, thus making it difficult to detect the effect of different training programs. Further research could

explore the short-term and long term effects of cross-cultural training, and thus identify the respective influence of different types of training sessions.

Almost 70% of the expatriates had a good grasp of the local language. The ability to speak the local language was found to be positively related to the size, closeness and frequency of the host network and cultural information. Local language ability was found to benefit expatriate communication in a new environment by making it easier and faster to build relationships with local people, and to obtain access to relevant information. These benefits of local language acquisition strongly suggest that international companies should include language training in their pre-departure training programs.

Since English is the mostly used language, I indicated the number of expatriates with both home and host countries having English as the official language in Table 48.

Table 48 A Matching Table of Home vs. Host Countries

Home Country	Frequency	Host country	Frequency	Both home and host country has English as official language? Y=Yes; N = No
Argentina	2	Australia	1	N
		Italy	1	N
Australia	1	Italy	1	N
Austria	1	Australia	1	N
Bangladesh	1	Australia	1	N
Brazil	1	Jamaica	1	N
Canada	99	Australia	1	Y
		Bahamas	3	N
		Barbados	2	N
		Belgium	1	N
		Belize	1	Y
		British Virgin Islands	2	Y
		Bulgaria	1	N
		Japan	2	N
		Mexico	7	N
		Namibia	1	Y
		Netherlands	1	N
		Netherlands Antilles	2	N
		Peru	3	N
		Poland	1	N
		Puerto Rico	2	N
		Qatar	1	N
		Russia	1	N
		Saint Kitts and Nevis	2	Y
		Saint Lucia	2	Y
		Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	1	Y
		Singapore	7	Y
		Sweden	1	N
		Switzerland	4	N
		Taiwan	2	N
		Thailand	2	N
		Trinidad and Tobago	1	Y
		Turks and Caicos Islands	2	N
		United Arab Emirates	1	N
		United Kingdom	10	Y
		United States	10	Y
		Missing data	22	

Table 48 A Matching Table of Home vs. Host Countries (continued)

China	12	Canada	9	N
		Cape Verde	1	N
		Chile	1	N
		United States	1	N
Colombia	2	China	1	N
		United States	1	N
Costa Rica	1	China	0	N
Croatia	1	China	0	N
Denmark	1	China	0	N
Dominica	1	China	0	N
France	1	Costa Rica	0	N
Germany	2	Costa Rica	2	N
Greece	1	Dominica	1	N
Hong Kong	3	Dominica	1	Y
		United States	2	Y
India	6	Ecuador	1	N
		Egypt	1	N
		El Salvador	2	N
		United States	2	Y
Italy	2	El Salvador	1	N
		United States	1	N
Jamaica	1	France	1	N
Japan	1	Germany	1	N
Kyrgyzstan	1	Germany	1	N
Mexico	2	Guyana	1	N
		United States	1	N
Netherlands	2	Honduras	1	N
		Hong Kong	1	N
Pakistan	1	Hong Kong	1	N
Peru	1	Hong Kong	1	N
Poland	1	Hong Kong	1	N
Romania	1	Hong Kong	1	N
Russia	1	United States	1	N
Saint Lucia	2	Hong Kong	1	Y
		United States	1	Y
Singapore	1	Hong Kong	1	Y
South Africa	1	Hong Kong	1	Y
South Korea	1	United States	1	N
Spain	1	United States	1	N
Sweden	1	Hong Kong	1	N
Switzerland	5	Hong Kong	1	N
		United States	2	N
		Missing data	2	N
Trinidad and Tobago	3	Hong Kong	2	Y

Table 48 A Matching Table of Home vs. Host Countries (continued)

Turkey	1	Missing data	1	
United Kingdom	6	Hong Kong	6	Y
United States	6	Hong Kong	4	Y
		Missing data	2	N
Venezuela	1	Missing data	1	
Missing Data	8			
Total	187			

Among all the respondents, there were 58 expatriates (31.02%) who were English native speakers working in English speaking countries. These expatriates may find it is easier to work and live in a country using the same language. Developing networks with people using the same language may be easier, and the expatriate effectiveness outcomes for these expatriate may be different from their counterparts working in countries using different languages. The expatriate effectiveness under certain language context is worth further study in the future.

6.6 Theoretical Contribution

This dissertation makes two major contributions to the literature on expatriate management. First, this study provides evidence with respect to existing social network theories and also indicates some unique network characteristics within the context of overseas assignment. Second, this dissertation has proven that it is necessary to adopt multiple indicators in order to accurately measure expatriate effectiveness.

In the literature on social networks, various dimensions have been used to measure social network functions. Granovetter (1973, 1982) argued that the strength of network ties was an important predictor of the amount of information provided by individual

networks. The function of strong ties within an individual's personal network may overlap since the information possessed by one member of the network may duplicate the information possessed by others. Since the development of a social network requires a considerable investment in time and energy, a network that contains more weak ties is more efficient in terms of providing information. This study partially supported the weak tie theory by showing that the expatriates' home national networks did not provide a significant amount of cultural information although home national networks provided closer and more frequent relationships, i.e. stronger ties, than did host national networks.

On the other hand, the results from the analysis of expatriates' host nationals seemed to be in contrast with the weak tie theory. In Granovetter's weak tie theory, the strength of a network ties was found to be a "combination of the amount of time, the emotional intensity, the intimacy, and the reciprocal services which characterize the tie"(Granovetter, 1973: p 1361). The results of this dissertation, however, indicated that the closeness of a host national network was positively related to the amount of cultural information received by expatriates. Since this study was conducted within the context of an overseas assignment, the "information" measured in this study focused on the information related to the local culture. Expatriates must deal with a considerable amount of information, which leads the fact that most cultural information provided by host nationals is new for the expatriates, and therefore reduces the redundancy mentioned in the weak tie theory. In addition, the mastery of cultural information depends not only on the breadth of the information, but also on the depth of the understanding of the information. Hence, close relationships with host nationals facilitate the process of receiving cultural information. Therefore, the weak tie theory may not be suitable for use

within the context of expatriate networks in which individuals need to learn a substantial amount of new information.

Another prevailing social network theory is social capital theory. It proposed that social resources embedded in networks will be of benefit to individuals, and that the types of social resources vary according to status of the network's contacts which include their occupation, organizational level, demographic characteristics, and so on (Lin, 1999). Seibert and his colleagues (2001) found that having network contacts at higher organizational levels and across different organizational functions provided employees with a larger amount of information which, in turn, was positively related to salary, promotions and career satisfaction. Network contacts with other organizational levels and functions provide unique resources, such as social capital, due to their differentiated daily tasks and perspectives. Similarly, this study found that the functions of host and home nationals were also different. Although no home national networks were found to be significantly related to the level of cultural information gained or of social support, home nationals could provide other resources not included in this study such as family support.

Therefore, the network contacts' nationality is an important characteristic in expatriate social network studies since different nationalities can provide a wide variety of recourses due to their differing backgrounds, experience, world view, and values. This finding further reinforces our understanding that, in social network studies, the specific characteristics of contacts such as nationality, gender, and race, should be considered along with network characteristics such as network size, closeness and density.

Another contribution of this study is the approach of using multiple indicators for measuring expatriate effectiveness. Many expatriate studies in the literature focused on

only one aspect of overseas assignments (Naumann, 1992), or used expatriate adjustment as a general measure (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Mendenhall et al., 2002). However, expatriate effectiveness is a multi-faceted phenomenon that should include the expatriates' subjective feelings and the organizations' concerns about objective outcomes. Hence, this study adopted psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance and subsidiary performance as measures of expatriate effectiveness, and found that these measures were moderately related to each other, and also were associated with different predictors. Expatriate effectiveness, therefore, includes a diversity of elements that should be measured separately.

6.7 Practical Contribution

The results of this study show that, on average, expatriates have more home nationals than host nationals in their social networks and that they feel closer to their home nationals than to host nationals. However, the expatriates' cultural information and social support are more inclined to be associated with their host national networks rather than with their home national counterparts. Although people tend to feel more comfortable interacting with similar others, the results of this research suggest that organizations should create more opportunities, such as internal social events and orientation sessions, for expatriates to socialize with host nationals. On the other hand, organizations can also design programs to encourage their host national employees to mentor and interact with expatriates to help them adjust to their new environment. For individual expatriates, the implications of this study show that, although they feel more comfortable and experience less uncertainty when spending time with home nationals, in order to learn more about

the local culture and to feel more confident about their environments, expatriates should make an effort to interact with host nationals who provide more cultural information and social support.

The fact that expatriate effectiveness is a multi-faceted framework should also be recognized by organizations. Accomplishing the required tasks is a basic and critical requirement for expatriate employees, but organizations should also pay attention to the expatriates' psychological well-being and level of job satisfaction since these factors are associated with job performance.

The analysis and design of expatriate training, then, is crucial. What are the important issues for expatriate training? While the results of this study suggest that cross-cultural training provided by organizations may not be directly related to expatriate effectiveness, we cannot conclude arbitrarily that expatriate assignment training per se is not useful. Employers must determine what skills or information are most needed by expatriates on specific assignments. Therefore, a training needs analysis and specialized training design, rather than general training sessions, would produce better results for organizations. Based on the results of this study, the ability to speak the local language is an important skill which facilitates interaction with local people and provides access to cultural information. Hence, the provision of language skills training should be a priority for international organizations.

6.8 Limitations of the Study

This study determines the association between social networks and an expatriate's cultural information and social support, but causal relationships cannot necessarily be

informed. It is possible that expatriates with more cultural information feel more confident in interacting with host nationals, and therefore it is easier for them to develop close relationships with host nationals. Also, expatriates who experienced more social support feel more comfortable within their environments and may tend to interact with more host nationals. Another possibility is that there might be other factors, such as personality or level of ability, that influence an expatriate's social network development and perception of cultural information and social support. Longitudinal studies are recommended to explore these causal relationships.

Another potential limitation of this study is its exclusive reliance on self-reporting to measure expatriate job performance and subsidiary performance. Thus, common method bias may have inflated the relationship among variables. Hence, an analysis using Harman's one-factor test (Podsakoff & Organ, 1986) was conducted to assess the presence of common method bias. All the scales used in this study were put together for a factor analysis. The results of the principal component factor analysis revealed that there were 18 factors with eigenvalues of greater than 1.0, which accounted for 72% of the total variance. Furthermore, the first factor identified did not account for the majority of the variance (only 16%). These results indicated that common method bias was not a serious problem in this study.

This study collected information on individual expatriates, such as their gender and family status, but little was known about their organizations. Expatriate effectiveness has been found to be influenced to some degree by organizational factors, such as organizational support to expatriates (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004). There may be factors

other than those included in this study affecting expatriate effectiveness or interacting with existing factors.

The respondents to this study come from 40 countries and were working in many different host countries as well. The broad sampling increases the generalization of the results of this study. However, the broad sampling spread of the respondents cannot determine the effect of a particular cultural context. Since the sample size from each country was not large enough to conduct separate analyses for each country, the effect of expatriates' home and host country culture could not be examined.

In addition, it must be acknowledged that the sample used in this study was a sample of convenience, which may cause an uneven distribution of the respondents' home and host nationalities. The respondents from the convenience sample may not represent the whole expatriate population. However, this is a common problem in the literature since it is very hard to get random samples. The convenience samples from this study were from many different organizations, industries, and countries, which to some degree minimized this problem.

6.9 Future Research

Developing and maintaining a network requires a significant amount of time and effort. An expatriate with a very large network may not have enough time to develop many close relationships and experience frequent interactions. For example, this study found that an expatriate's home network size was negatively related to home network closeness and frequency. Future research may examine the combination of network measures. For instance, what should be the best balance between network size and closeness? Social network literature has also used other social networks measures, such

as network density (Wang, 2001) and breadth (Johnson et al., 2003). Future research on expatriate social networks could explore what other measures might reflect certain characteristics of an expatriate's social network, and how various measures are related to different functions.

This study found that network size, closeness, and frequency had different relationships with other variables, but future research would be useful to identify the processes behind these results. Also, the causal relationship between host national networks and an expatriate's cultural information and social support system cannot be determined from this study. Since the development of social networks is a process, a longitudinal study would be appropriate to explore the dynamic relationships between social networks and cultural information and social support.

Social network contacts were identified based on their nationality in this study, but there may be other characteristics affecting the social resources embedded in expatriate social networks, such as the type of relationship (work or non-work) with contacts, and the contacts' positions within the organization. Identifying the relevant characteristics of network contacts would improve our understanding of social networks and provide suggestions for the expatriates' network development.

Future research may also explore the effect of social networks on expatriate effectiveness within certain cultural contexts since cultural environment has been found to affect expatriate adjustment (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Naumann, 1992). For example, most expatriates working in China may face similar problems due to the general host culture, and a closer look at a particular cultural context may provide more specific implications for expatriates and international organizations.

Another direction for future research is to identify the best measures of expatriate effectiveness. In addition to the measures included in this study, other indicators of importance, such as expatriate turnover intention, can be considered. Some team-level and organizational level indicators may also be critical. For example, using expatriates in foreign countries may affect subsidiaries' organizational culture and organizational learning. Local employees' job satisfaction and performance may also be affected by expatriates. Studies including these organizational level outcomes would provide a more comprehensive understanding of overseas assignments.

6.10 Conclusion

This study examined the effect of social network and expatriate effectiveness. The results show that expatriates tended to develop closer social relationships with their home nationals than with their host nationals on overseas assignments, although home nationals were not found to be related to cultural information or social support. However, the host nationals in an expatriate's social network were the richer sources of cultural information and social support. Expatriates having closer relationships with host nationals received more cultural information; and expatriates having more host national contacts and in closer relationships, and interacting more frequently with host nationals received more social support. With more cultural information, expatriates showed better job performance on their assignments; and expatriates receiving more social support reported higher levels of job satisfaction and job performance.

Using multiple indicators (psychological well-being, job satisfaction, job performance, and subsidiary performance) of expatriate effectiveness provided a more

comprehensive description of the success of overseas assignments. This group of measures reflected not only the expatriates' level of performance within the work setting, but also their subjective feelings about their work environments and daily lives. The comparison with the construct of adjustment also indicated that it is necessary to use a multi-dimensional concept for measuring expatriate effectiveness so that various aspects could be examined.

This study produced theoretical contributions to social network literature by applying the weak ties theory and the social capital theory to the expatriate context and suggested that strong ties could also be efficient in providing information in overseas assignments. The multiple measures of expatriate effectiveness used also contribute to the understanding of overseas assignment outcomes. The results of this study can also help organizations and individual expatriates realize the importance of social networks, especially the function of host national networks, and thus they may facilitate the success of their overseas assignments by developing more effective social networks.

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APPENDIX 1 TABLE OF KEY CONCEPTS

Expatriate	People working outside of their home countries.
Expatriate effectiveness	A multi-criterion framework that describes how well an expatriate is achieving the goals that an expatriate assignment is intended to attain.
Social network	A finite set or sets of actors that are connected by one or more specific types of relational ties.
Host national	Local people in host country.
Home national	People from the same country as the expatriate.
Cultural information	The information related to the expatriate's new cultural environment.
Social support	Stimuli that leads a person to believe that he or she is cared for, esteemed, valued, and belongs to a network of communication and mutual obligation
Psychological well-being	The positive psychological functioning of individuals.
Job satisfaction	An internal state that is expressed by affectively and/or cognitively evaluating an experienced job with some degree of favor or disfavor.
Job performance	The actions or behaviors that are relevant to the organization's goals and that can be scaled (measured) in terms of each individual's proficiency.
Subsidiary performance	The organizational level performance of an international organization's subsidiary.

APPENDIX 2 QUESTIONNAIRE USED IN DATA COLLECTION

Direction:

The purpose of this study is to better understand the role of an individual's social network in a cross-cultural environment.

Please answer the following questions based on your current expatriate experience. Your responses are strictly confidential.

The survey takes 10 to 15 minutes to complete.

Part 1

The following questions refer to varied aspects of your international assignment.

In this survey, we will use the term "expatriate" to refer to people who work outside of their own countries. Some expatriates are assigned by their companies to a position located in another country; some expatriates find their own positions in another country. Please indicate your situation:

☐ I was assigned by my company to this position

☐ I found this position

☐ Others. Please indicate _____

Please indicate your nationality: (dropdown country list) ____

In which country is your current assignment located? (dropdown country list) ____

Cultural information

Please evaluate your knowledge about the environment where your current international assignment is:

	1 – very little	2 – little	3 – some	4- much	5- very much
1. Knowledge of local language	1	2	3	4	5
2. Knowledge of local ways	1	2	3	4	5
3. Knowledge of traditions and cultural background	1	2	3	4	5
4. Knowledge of social and political conditions	1	2	3	4	5
5. Knowledge of authorities and institutions	1	2	3	4	5
6. Knowledge of current affairs and topical events.	1	2	3	4	5

Social support

The following statements refer to the types of social support that you have obtained from people in your daily life during the international assignment. Please indicate the amount of social support you have obtained during the assignment in the manner described below by choosing the appropriate number:

	1 – very little	2 – little	3 – some	4- much	5- very much
1. They give me information about local entertainment activities	1	2	3	4	5
2. They listen to me when I needed to talk about my private feelings during the overseas assignment	1	2	3	4	5
3. They help me out in a crisis situation even though they have to go out of their way to do so	1	2	3	4	5
4. They would let me know that I did something well with local people	1	2	3	4	5
5. They give me information about local customs	1	2	3	4	5
6. They are with whom I can totally be myself	1	2	3	4	5
7. They loan me or give me something that I need at home/work	1	2	3	4	5
8. They tell me that what I did does not comply with local customs	1	2	3	4	5
9. They give me information about where I can buy what I need for home/work	1	2	3	4	5
10. They are concerned about my well-being in my overseas assignment	1	2	3	4	5
11. They help me out when too many things need to get done	1	2	3	4	5
12. They make it clear what is expected of me at work	1	2	3	4	5
13. They give me information about how to get things done at my work in the local situation	1	2	3	4	5
14. They console me when I am upset	1	2	3	4	5
15. They help me to take care of my family when I am busy or away	1	2	3	4	5
16. They give me objective feedback about how I handle my problems	1	2	3	4	5
17. They give me information about how to deal with interpersonal relationships with local people	1	2	3	4	5
18. They help me feel better when I was very irritable working in the local situation	1	2	3	4	5
19. They give me tangible help in settling down in the local environment	1	2	3	4	5
20. They tell me that what I want to do at work is right	1	2	3	4	5

Psychological well-being

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements during your international assignment by choosing the appropriate number. These are personal opinions and there are no right and wrong answers.

1- Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3-Undecided; 4-Agree; 5-Strongly Agree	
1. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	1 2 3 4 5
3. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	1 2 3 4 5
4. The demands of everyday life often get me down. ®	1 2 3 4 5
5. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	1 2 3 4 5
7. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago. ®.	1 2 3 4 5
9. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me. ®	1 2 3 4 5
10. People would describe me as a giving person who is willing to share my time with others.	1 2 3 4 5
11. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others. ®	1 2 3 4 5
12. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future. ®	1 2 3 4 5
13. I am not one of those people wandering aimlessly through life.	1 2 3 4 5
14. I sometimes feel as if I have done all there is to do in life. ®	1 2 3 4 5
15. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	1 2 3 4 5
16. I like most aspects of my personality.	1 2 3 4 5
17. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life. ®	1 2 3 4 5

Job satisfaction

1- Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3-Undecided; 4-Agree; 5-Strongly Agree	
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	1 2 3 4 5

Performance

Please evaluate your job performance in the following areas during this international assignment by choosing the appropriate number. This evaluation is confidential and will only be used for the research purposes.

1- Poor; 2- Not very good; 3-Moderate; 4-Very good; 5- outstanding					
1. Fostering commitment in the business unit.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Carrying out additional task activities	1	2	3	4	5
3. Communicating effectively and keeping others informed	1	2	3	4	5
4. Representing the organization to customers and public	1	2	3	4	5
5. Maintaining good working relationships	1	2	3	4	5
6. Transferring information across business unit	1	2	3	4	5
7. Training, coaching, and developing subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
8. Facilitating peer and team performance	1	2	3	4	5
9. Succession planning	1	2	3	4	5
10. Maintaining motivation of my work	1	2	3	4	5
11. Process improvement	1	2	3	4	5
12. Establishing interpersonal relationships with host nationals	1	2	3	4	5
13. Ability to handle stress	1	2	3	4	5
14. Technical knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
15. Technical knowledge application	1	2	3	4	5
16. Organizational commitment	1	2	3	4	5

Subsidiary Performance

In general, how is the overall performance of the subsidiary in the last fiscal year you worked there?

___ Loss ___ Break-even ___ Profit

Part 2

In the following section, you will be requested to answer questions about your social networks.

In your latest international assignment environment, who are the people you interact with and talk about important issues? They can be your family, friends, colleagues, or acquaintances, and your interaction with them could happen face-to-face, through the internet, telephone, or regular mail. Please begin by listing their initials across the first row in the following table. You can list as many or as few as you want. The initials are for your use only, to help you keep track of your responses – we will not attempt to identify names.

Once you have listed the appropriate initials across the first row, please complete the following rows for each of the persons listed.

	Person 1	Person 2	Person 3	Person 4	Person 5	Person 6	Person 7	Person 8	Person 9	Person 10
1. Write the initials of the individuals you interact with during this international assignment:										
2. The person's gender: F = Female; M = Male										
3. The person's nationality										
4. Please indicate the closeness of your relationship with each person using the scale indicated below. "Very close" relationships are those characterized by high degrees of liking, trust, and mutual commitment. "Distant" relationships are characterized by not knowing the person very well, or by having very little liking, trust, or mutual commitment. 1= distant; 2= not very close; 3=somewhat close; 4=close; 5= very close										
5. On average, how frequently do you talk, exchange e-mail, or socialize with this person? 1= less than once a month; 2= once or twice a month; 3= 3-5 times a month; 4=a few times a week; 5 = daily										

Part 3

The following questions refer to varied aspects of your international assignment.

Expatriate adjustment

Adjustment

Please indicate your level of adjustment on the following items by choosing the appropriate number.

	1 – Not adjusted at all	3 – moderately adjusted	5- very well adjusted
1. How adjusted are you to your job and responsibilities?	1	2	3 4 5
2. How adjusted are you to working with local co-workers?	1	2	3 4 5
3. How adjusted are you to the transportation system in this country?	1	2	3 4 5
4. How adjusted are you to working with local people outside your company?	1	2	3 4 5
5. How adjusted are you to the food in this country?	1	2	3 4 5
6. How adjusted are you to the weather in this country?	1	2	3 4 5
7. How adjusted are you to interacting with local people in general?	1	2	3 4 5
8. How adjusted are you to shopping in this country?	1	2	3 4 5
9. How adjusted are you to supervising local subordinates?	1	2	3 4 5
10. How adjusted are you to generally living in this country?	1	2	3 4 5
11. How adjusted are you to the entertainment available in this country?	1	2	3 4 5

Cultural Novelty

Please rate how the following aspects in your home country differ from those in the country you are currently working by choosing the appropriate number.

	1 – no different; 2 – slightly different; 3 – moderately different; 4 – very different; 5 – extremely different
1. Everyday customs that must be followed	1 2 3 4 5
2. General living conditions	1 2 3 4 5
3. Using health care facilities	1 2 3 4 5
4. Transportations system	1 2 3 4 5
5. General living costs	1 2 3 4 5
6. Available quality and types of foods	1 2 3 4 5
7. Climate	1 2 3 4 5
8. General housing conditions	1 2 3 4 5

Background information

Please provide the following background information to help categorize and better interpret your responses.

Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female

Age: ☐ <20 ☐ 21~30 ☐ 31~40 ☐ 41~50 ☐ 51~60 ☐ >61

How well have you learned the language used in the host country?

☐ Poor ☐ Average ☐ Good

Marital status: ☐ Single ☐ Married or in common law relationship ☐ Divorced or widowed

If you are married, is your spouse with you in your current international assignment?

☐ Yes ☐ No

If you have children, how many of them are with you in your current international assignment?

How long (in years) have you been to this assignment?

How long (in years) have you been in this company?

In which country are the headquarters of your company located? (a dropdown menu)

The size of your subsidiary in the host country is:

☐ Less than 200 employees ☐ 200-700 employees ☐ Over 700 employees

The industry of your organization is: Options will be provided

What is your position in the organization?

☐ Non-management ☐ Technical / functional management

☐ Middle management ☐ Senior management ☐ Others

Did your company give you cross-cultural training? ☐ Yes ☐ No

How many years of international experience do you have? year(s)

APPENDIX 3 SCALES USED IN FINAL ANALYSIS

Cultural Information

Please evaluate your knowledge about the environment where your current international assignment is:

	1 – very little	2 – little	3 – some	4- much	5- very much
1. Knowledge of local ways	1	2	3	4	5
2. Knowledge of traditions and cultural background	1	2	3	4	5
3. Knowledge of social and political conditions	1	2	3	4	5
4. Knowledge of authorities and institutions	1	2	3	4	5
5. Knowledge of current affairs and topical events.	1	2	3	4	5

Social support

The following statements refer to the types of social support that you have obtained from people in your daily life during the international assignment. Please indicate the amount of social support you have obtained during the assignment in the manner described below:

	1 – very little	2 – little	3 – some	4- much	5- very much
The people in your daily life of this assignment...					
1. ...gave you information about local entertainment activities	1	2	3	4	5
2. ...listened to you when you needed to talk about your private feelings during the overseas assignment	1	2	3	4	5
3. ...helped you out in a crisis situation at work even though they had to go out of their way to do so	1	2	3	4	5
4. ...would let you know that you did something well at work with local people	1	2	3	4	5
5. ...gave you information about local customs	1	2	3	4	5
6. ...were people with whom you could totally be yourself	1	2	3	4	5
7. ...loaned you or gave you something that you needed at home/work	1	2	3	4	5
8. ...told you that what you did does not comply with local customs	1	2	3	4	5
9. ...gave you information about where you can buy what you need for home/work	1	2	3	4	5
10. ...were concerned about your well-being in your overseas assignment	1	2	3	4	5
11. ...helped you out when too many things needed to get done	1	2	3	4	5
12. ...made it clear what was expected of you at work	1	2	3	4	5
13. ...gave you information about how to get things done at your work in the local situation	1	2	3	4	5

14. ...could be counted on to console you when you were very upset at work	1 2 3 4 5
15. ...helped you to take care of your family when you were busy or away	1 2 3 4 5
16. ...gave you objective feedback about how you were handling your problems at work	1 2 3 4 5
17. ...gave you information about how to deal with interpersonal relationships with local people	1 2 3 4 5
18. ...helped you feel better when you were very irritable working in the local situation	1 2 3 4 5
19. ...gave you tangible help in settling down in the local country	1 2 3 4 5
20. ...told you that what you wanted to do at work was right.	1 2 3 4 5

Psychological well-being

Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each of the following statements during your international assignment. These are personal opinions and there are no right and wrong answers.

1- Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3-Undecided; 4-Agree; 5-Strongly Agree	
1. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	1 2 3 4 5
2. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	1 2 3 4 5
3. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	1 2 3 4 5
4. The demands of everyday life often get me down. ®	1 2 3 4 5
5. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	1 2 3 4 5
6. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	1 2 3 4 5
7. For me, life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	1 2 3 4 5
8. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago. ®	1 2 3 4 5
9. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me. ®	1 2 3 4 5
10. People would describe me as a giving person who is willing to share my time with others.	1 2 3 4 5
11. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others. ®	1 2 3 4 5
12. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future. ®	1 2 3 4 5
13. I am not one of those people wandering aimlessly through life.	1 2 3 4 5
14. I sometimes feel as if I have done all there is to do in life. ®	1 2 3 4 5
15. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	1 2 3 4 5
16. I like most aspects of my personality.	1 2 3 4 5

17. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life. ®	1	2	3	4	5
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® indicates the reversed item.

Job satisfaction

1- Strongly Disagree; 2-Disagree; 3-Undecided; 4-Agree; 5-Strongly Agree					
1. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.	1	2	3	4	5

Performance

Please evaluate your job performance in the following areas during this international assignment. This evaluation is confidential and will only be used for the research purposes.

2- Poor; 2- Not very good; 3-Moderate; 4-Very good; 5- outstanding					
1. Fostering commitment in the strategic unit.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Communicating effectively and keeping others informed	1	2	3	4	5
3. Representing the organization to customers and public	1	2	3	4	5
4. Maintaining good working relationship	1	2	3	4	5
5. Transferring information across strategic unit	1	2	3	4	5
6. Training, coaching, and developing subordinates	1	2	3	4	5
7. Facilitating peer and team performance	1	2	3	4	5
8. Replacement planning	1	2	3	4	5
9. Motivation of my work	1	2	3	4	5
10. Process improvement	1	2	3	4	5
11. Establishing interpersonal bonds with host nationals	1	2	3	4	5
12. Ability to handle stress while abroad	1	2	3	4	5
13. Technical knowledge	1	2	3	4	5
14. Technical knowledge application	1	2	3	4	5
15. Organizational commitment	1	2	3	4	5

Subsidiary Performance

In general, how is the overall performance of the subsidiary in the last fiscal year you worked there?

1. Loss 2. Break-even 3. Profit

Expatriate adjustment

Please indicate your level of adjustment on the following items.

1 – Not adjusted at all 3 – moderately adjusted 5- very well adjusted					
1. How adjusted are you to your job and responsibilities?	1	2	3	4	5
2. How adjusted are you to working with local co-workers?	1	2	3	4	5
3. How adjusted are you to the transportation system in this country?	1	2	3	4	5
4. How adjusted are you to working with local people outside your company?	1	2	3	4	5
5. How adjusted are you to the food in this country?	1	2	3	4	5
6. How adjusted are you to the weather in this country?	1	2	3	4	5
7. How adjusted are you to interacting with local people in general?	1	2	3	4	5
8. How adjusted are you to shopping in this country?	1	2	3	4	5
9. How adjusted are you to supervising local subordinates?	1	2	3	4	5
10. How adjusted are you to generally living in this country?	1	2	3	4	5
11. How adjusted are you to the entertainment available in this country?	1	2	3	4	5

Cultural Novelty

Please rate how the following aspects in your home country differ from those in the country you are currently working.

1 – no different; 2 – slightly different; 3 – moderately different; 4 – very different; 5 – extremely different					
1. Everyday customs that must be followed	1	2	3	4	5
2. General living conditions	1	2	3	4	5
3. Using health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
4. Transportations system	1	2	3	4	5
5. General living costs	1	2	3	4	5
6. Available quality and types of foods	1	2	3	4	5
7. Climate	1	2	3	4	5
8. General housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5