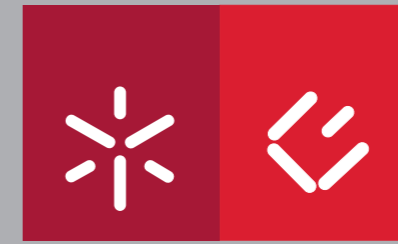




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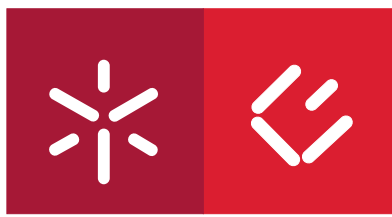


Universidade do Minho
Escola de Economia e Gestão

Luisa Helena Ferreira Pinto

The effects of organizational culture on expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

Fevereiro de 2008



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Área de Organização e Políticas Empresariais

Trabalho efectuado sob a orientação do
Professor Doutor Carlos José Cabral Cardoso
Professor Doutor William B. Werther Jr.

Fevereiro de 2008

Declaração

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Assinatura:

Dedication

I dedicate this dissertation to my family, especially to my son Luis. I sincerely hope he might profit from my work, one day, when his turn to leave his mummy's' home finally arrives. He may not yet have realized what I was working on, but he knows how important it is to me. After all, he is waiting for me to finish so we can have time for travelling. In any case, we have started together and he has done his part. He has started in the kindergarten while I have started my dissertation journey. Meanwhile, he has learnt to read, write and do calculations, in two languages, while I have been trying to find my way. It has most certainly been a lengthy marathon, during which time he has inspired me to persevere and given me the motivation to continue. Happily, he will see my graduation and hopefully I will see his...

This dissertation is also dedicated to my husband, Carlos, for his absolute trust and unconditional support, as well as for his MS Word skills. Finally, my love, admiration and respect go to my parents. They have taught me I could do whatever I wish, as long as I work hard. They have instilled in me the value of persistence.

Finally I wish to dedicate this work to my friends Odete and Ubaldo. Since I started, Odete has been fighting against a terrible disease, which has undermined her strength but never her will. Nor Ubaldo's. They have endured a painful path, just to be together one more day. My journey is nothing compared to the power of their love.

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Thank you all for your trust!

Abstract

This study explored the organizational antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment and its outcomes, namely expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Specifically, this study examined the effects of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

The data was obtained through 30 semi-structured interviews to Portuguese international workers (Study I) and through a questionnaire survey to 221 expatriates and repatriates from different nationalities (Study II). Qualitative data were examined using thematic content analysis, and quantitative data were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and hierarchical regression analysis. Factor analyses found support for the research variables of organizational culture (sociability and solidarity), culture novelty, cross-cultural adjustment (work, interaction and general adjustment), general satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions (from the assignment, the organization and the occupation).

Data from Study I revealed that employing companies are using Portuguese expatriates under different staffing policies. And candidates, once invited, have often little choice to refuse an assignment. Family adjustment emerged as an essential dimension of cross-cultural adjustment, even for expatriates moving alone. Study I also suggested the influence of organizational factors on cross-cultural adjustment, and revealed that adjustment and satisfaction can be negatively affected even when home and destination countries are culturally close.

The results of the regression analyses showed that organizational culture is a predictor of cross-cultural adjustment. Organizational culture also predicts general satisfaction and occupation withdrawal intentions. Expatriation adjustment does not necessary lead to general satisfaction with the assignment, though satisfaction predicts expatriates' withdrawal intentions.

Overall, results suggest expatriation adjustment differs from repatriation adjustment. Besides, expatriates and repatriates can be poorly adjusted to their assignments, and yet be generally satisfied and committed to remain in their company and complete the assignment.

Theoretical contributions, practical implications and suggestions for further research are also presented.

Resumo

Esta investigação explora os antecedentes organizacionais do ajustamento socio-cultural e as consequências desse ajustamento para a satisfação e as intenções de abandono dos expatriados e repatriados. Especificamente, examinam-se os efeitos das diferenças de cultura nacional e da cultura organizacional, sobre o ajustamento socio-cultural.

O trabalho empírico envolveu a realização de entrevistas semi-estruturadas a 30 trabalhadores internacionais Portugueses (estudo I) e a realização de um inquérito a 221 expatriados e repatriados de várias nacionalidades (estudo II). Os dados qualitativos foram tratados a partir da análise de conteúdo temática, enquanto os dados quantitativos foram analisados com o recurso à análise de variância (ANOVA) e análise de regressão. A análise factorial efectuada confirmou a escolha das medidas para as variáveis de cultura organizacional (nas dimensões de sociabilidade e solidariedade), cultura nacional, ajustamento socio-cultural (no trabalho, na interacção e ao meio em geral), satisfação com a missão e intenções de abandono (da missão, da organização e da profissão).

Os resultados qualitativos revelaram que as empresas recorrem aos expatriados Portugueses com diversos objectivos e que estes, uma vez convidados, sentem-se frequentemente compelidos a aceitar. O ajustamento da família emergiu como uma dimensão essencial do ajustamento socio-cultural, mesmo para os expatriados que se deslocam sózinhos. Além disso, o estudo I revelou a influência das variáveis organizacionais sobre o ajustamento socio-cultural e mostrou que o ajustamento e a satisfação com a missão podem ser negativos mesmo quando a mudança ocorre entre países culturalmente próximos.

Os resultados da análise de regressão mostraram que a cultura organizacional é um predictor do ajustamento socio-cultural, da satisfação com a missão e das intenções de abandono da profissão. Os resultados revelaram que a satisfação dos expatriados com a missão internacional não é uma consequência do seu ajustamento socio-cultural, embora afecte as suas intenções de abandono.

No seu conjunto, os resultados desta investigação mostram que o ajustamento socio-cultural dos expatriados difere do ajustamento socio-cultural dos repatriados. Indicam também que expatriados e repatriados podem sentir-se desajustados e ainda assim estarem satisfeitos e tencionarem permanecer na empresa e na missão até ao fim.

Por fim, são discutidas as principais contribuições teóricas e práticas deste estudo, assim como as sugestões para a investigação futura.

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CHAPTER I - INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the research

Most publications and research on expatriation rely on expatriate high early departure rates to justify the interest for the subject of cross-cultural adjustment. In this regard, empirical evidence continues scarce, though some authors (Harzing, 1995; Forster, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 1999; Daniels and Insch, 1998) generally agree that departure rates are not as high as have been mentioned and might be declining. Even though, the cost of an unsuccessful expatriation is high. Premature returns are especially problematic for the replacement and relocation costs involved, in addition to the impact on firms and individuals' reputation. Conversely, the decision of remaining, unsatisfied or underperforming, has also extended implications for companies and individual careers and families. For these reasons, the theme of cross-cultural adjustment remains a subject of interest for academics and practitioners.

The issue of cross-cultural adjustment has received much academic attention. The first attempt to develop a comprehensive model for cross-cultural adjustment was done by Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991). Their theoretical model brought together the existing contributions of domestic and international adjustment literature and focused mainly the degree of overall adjustment to a new culture. Cross-cultural adjustment was defined as the degree of psychological discomfort felt by individuals in a new situation (Black, 1988; Black *et al.*, 1991). Unfamiliar situations alter individuals' routines, might create uncertainty and therefore, psychological discomfort. As individuals tend to reduce this uncertainty, they will tend to adapt the behaviors perceived as appropriate. This process is critical in international assignments, as individuals face different cultural environments both at work and outside, and additionally, have fewer cues on how to perform. Further, the model conceives adjustment as a multi-dimensional construct, which involves the adjustment to work, the adjustment to the interaction with others and the adjustment to the general environment. Based on the initial assumptions of Black *et al.* (1991) model, in-country adjustment dimensions are differently influenced by four groups of variables: (1) individual factors (such as self-efficacy and relational skills); (2) job factors (such as role clarity and role conflict); (3) organizational factors (such as social support and organizational culture), and (4) non-work factors (such as culture novelty and spouse adjustment). From these initial premises to date, several studies empirically confirmed most of authors' initial presuppositions and even extended the model

(Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer and Luk; 2005). However, despite the number of studies that have been published on the topic of cross-cultural adjustment, several limitations persist.

First, an excessive emphasis was attributed to the degree of adjustment, instead of the adjustment process itself. Consequently, less is known about how expatriates (and repatriates) really adjust, what their coping skills are, and what consequences adjustment has along time. More critically, less is known about factors expatriates and repatriates perceived to enhance their adjustment at the different stages of an assignment (e.g., selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and relocation). The above suggests research is needed to explore the factors perceived to affect expatriates and repatriates. Moreover, research has mainly focused on international assignments from USA and Asiatic international workers (Brewster, 1995a; Brewster and Suutari, 2005), disregarding the expatriation experience of other nationalities.

Second, there has been little research related with organizational factors affecting expatriates and repatriates cross-cultural adjustment, in particular the influence of organizational culture. Previous research (e.g., Hyder and Lovblad, 2007; Haslberger and Brewster, 2005; Shay and Baack, 2004; Selmer and Leung, 2003a, 2003b; Selmer, 2000; Arthur and Bennett, 1995; Black *et al.*, 1991) on expatriation management practices has emphasized environmental and individual factors perceived to contribute to success or failure of international assignments, mostly disregarding organizations' influence. Consequently, organizations policies and practices not only might overlook the real needs of their international population, as might ignore its true influence. In this research, it is believed organizations influence expatriates and repatriates' adjustment, satisfaction and thereafter withdrawal intentions, through organizational culture.

Third, because of these limitations, the research concerning the outcomes of adjustment is scarce (with few exceptions, such as Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). More specifically, the dominant literature has focused mainly the antecedents of adjustment, disregarding such outcomes as expatriation performance, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. This is surprising, because cross-cultural adjustment has been extensively researched based on the conviction that poor adjustment leads to unsuccessful assignments (measured essentially by an early return). Some facts however, challenge this assumption. On the one hand, most empirical studies revealed adjustment levels are significantly higher (Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar, 2007; Selmer, 2007; 2005; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Black and

Gregersen, 1991a; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Black and Stephens, 1989). This means expatriates weigh up their in-country adjustment as satisfactory, if not much satisfactory. On the other hand, early return rates have been, most often, the single measure for an unsuccessful assignment. However, early departure rates are not as high as extensively mentioned and seem to be decreasing (Harzing, 1995; Forster, 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 1999; Daniels and Insch, 1998; GMAC, 2006). These findings, lead to the question as to whether adjustment is a good predictor of a successful assignment and what other variables can be more insightful. Therefore, more research is needed on the association between in-country adjustment, satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions.

Finally, repatriation research has received less attention, as research has been mostly directed to the study of expatriates. The same model of cross-cultural adjustment has been adopted (e.g., Black *et al.*, 1991; Black and Gregersen, 1992) even if quantitative and qualitative analyses have revealed repatriates face different adjustment challenges upon return (e.g., Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Suutari and Valimaa, 2002; Vidal, Sans Valle, Aragón and Brewster, 2007). Moreover, turnover rates among repatriates are higher and the risk of departure is extended after at least two years upon return (GMAC, 2006). As a greater emphasis has been directed toward factors influencing poor adjustment, such as the influence of not having a position upon return, less attention has been given to the factors that help repatriates adjust. Thus, further research is needed to compare expatriates and repatriates' adjustment.

In sum, these limitations indicate there is a need for further research, namely on the:

- (1) Antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment, namely factors perceived to enhance and hinder expatriates and repatriates adjustment;
- (2) Influence of organizational factors, such as organizational culture, on expatriation and repatriation adjustment;
- (3) Outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment, namely general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, and how these outcomes relate to organizational factors;
- (4) Expatriation and repatriation adjustment, with non-US samples.

1.2 Purpose of the study

The literature shows that organizations might not be entirely aware of their influence on expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal

intentions. This research looks at the factors expatriates and repatriates perceive to influence their adjustment at the different stages of an assignment, in special the influence of organizational factors. In this respect, this research addresses the role of organizational culture as an antecedent of cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

This research aims to examine the influence of culture, namely the influence of national cultural differences and organizational culture, on cross-cultural adjustment. Early studies, from Black (1988, 1990) and more recently Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh (1999), used the uncertainty avoidance theory and assumed greater differences between home and destination national cultures (e.g., culture novelty) would result on more in-country adjustment difficulties. Similarly, they expected greater differences between home and host organizational cultures (e.g., organizational culture novelty) would increase the uncertainty involving the assignment, and therefore, would hinder cross-cultural adjustment.

With regard to cultural differences, several studies empirically confirmed a negative association between culture novelty and cross-cultural adjustment (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley, 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) while less attention has been directed to the influence of organizational culture. Apparently, the main reason for that has been the difficulty in separating the effect of organizational culture from the broad influence of the national cultural environment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005).

A promising research approach may be the adoption of a divergent perspective on the influence of national culture. According to the supporters of this view (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003; Goffee and Jones, 1998), national culture does not have an isomorphic influence on organizational culture. It is accepted organizations and individuals are open systems under the influence of the environment, and their complex characteristics are beyond the influence of national culture. If one accepts organizational cultures are mostly determined by national cultural values, there would be no reason to research organizational culture influence, as ultimately, one would return to the influence of national culture. Therefore, a key objective of this research is to explore the influence of organizational culture on expatriates and repatriates cross-cultural adjustment, regardless of culture novelty. An important reference for this research is the literature that addressed the influence of organizational culture on commitment (Lahiry, 1994; Wasti 2003), and performance (Lee and You, 2004; Rashid, Sambasivan and

Johari, 2003; Rashid, Sambasivan, and Rahman, 2004). For the purpose of this research, the conceptual framework of organizational culture from Goffee and Jones (1998) is adopted. The authors describe organizational culture as the intersection between two dimensions: sociability (e.g., the level of friendliness and socialization between organization members) and solidarity (e.g., the level of commonality of objectives and goals between organization members). The unique combination of each dimension originates four types of culture: communal, networked, fragmented and mercenary. For example, a communal type of culture results from the combination of high sociability and high solidarity, while a networked culture type is characterized by high sociability and low solidarity between group members. This framework also highlights the fact that each organizational culture type can have a dysfunctional form, which arises when organization or culture generates ineffective behaviors (such as when high sociability turns into gossip in a communal or networked culture). This model implicitly assumes a non-direct and non-isomorphic association between national and organizational cultures.

Research on repatriation has shown repatriates face significant adjustment challenges upon return (Duoto, 2002; Vidal *et al.* 2007; Lee and Liu, 2006a; 2006b; Hammer, Hart and Rogan, 1998). Therefore, this research also explores the extent to which the same conclusions about expatriation are applicable to repatriation.

In sum, this study aims to address the following questions:

a) *What factors are perceived to influence international assignments selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and return, especially among Portuguese expatriates and repatriates?*

b) *What are the effects of organizational culture (namely the dimensions of sociability and solidarity) on work, interaction and general adjustment, among expatriates and repatriates?*

c) *Does culture novelty moderate the influence of organizational culture? How is it related with cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the assignment and intentions to withdraw?*

d) *Is cross-cultural adjustment an antecedent of general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions among expatriates and repatriates?*

e) *Does organizational culture (namely the sociability and solidarity dimensions) influence international assignees' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?*

f) To what extent does repatriation adjustment differ from expatriation adjustment?

1.3 Definitions of terms

This research uses some specific terms, which are defined next. Operational definitions and measures are further presented on chapter IV.

International worker or international employee – individual temporarily posted, into a foreign subsidiary, by a corporation. May refer to individuals still on assignment (expatriates) or recently relocated (repatriates).

International assignment - temporary work assignments, of variable duration, where the individual is living and working in a country other than his/her home country.

Expatriate – individual temporarily posted into a foreign subsidiary by a corporation to work and live outside home country. May or may not be accompanied by the family (spouse and children).

Repatriate – individual temporarily posted into a foreign subsidiary by a corporation, who was recently relocated back home (within the last 18 months).

Cross-cultural adjustment - this term refers the degree of comfort individuals exhibit while confronted with different cultural environments. It is assumed to have three dimensions: adjustment to work, adjustment to the interaction with others (at work and outside), and adjustment to the general environment (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991; Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh, 1999).

In-country adjustment - refers to the degree of comfort an individual reveals while facing the new living and work challenges associated to an international assignment.

Adjustment upon return or repatriation adjustment - refers to the degree of comfort an individual reveals while reintegrating his/her home living and working environment.

Organizational culture - generally refers to the shared assumptions, beliefs, values and practices associated with the attitudes and behaviors of the members of an organization.

Sociability - is based on a sociological concept (Fukuyama, 1995, 1999) and on Goffee and Jones (1998) framework of organizational culture, herein defined as the degree of friendliness, cooperation and kindness between the members of a group.

Solidarity - is based on a sociological concept (Durkheim, 1997) and on Goffee and Jones (1998) framework of organizational culture, herein defined as the degree of commonality of objectives and goals between the members of a group.

Culture novelty - this term is herein defined as the degree of perceived cultural differences between two countries, usually home and destination countries.

General satisfaction - this term is herein defined as the perceived well-being and contentment with one job or assignment and life.

Withdrawal intentions - this term is herein defined as one intention to quit or departure. It is assumed, in this research, to have three dimensions (Carmeli, 2005): job or assignment withdrawal intentions (intentions to quit the present job or assignment), organization withdrawal intentions (intentions to leave the organization) and occupation withdrawal intentions (intentions to renounce the present occupation).

1.4 Overview of the remaining chapters

Having described the fundamentals underlying this thesis, the following chapters provide a detailed description of the research.

Chapter II presents a literature review, relevant to this research. The chapter brings together the literature on organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment, including separate sections for these topics.

Chapter III presents a detail description of the research theoretical model and hypotheses.

Chapter IV presents the methodology adopted. As two separate studies were used to collect the data, qualitative (Study I) and quantitative (Study II), separate sections describe the procedures, measures and subjects.

Chapter V presents the qualitative data analyses and results from Study I. For purposes of clarity and detail, the chapter contains separate sections, which follow the themes focused on the interviews: selection, preparation, in-country adjustment, return adjustment and major outcomes of the international assignment.

Chapter VI presents the quantitative data analyses and results from Study II. It reports the results of the statistical analyses conducted to test the hypotheses.

Chapter VII summarizes the key findings and discusses each research question.

Finally, chapter VIII presents the conclusions and the theoretical and practical implications of this dissertation. It also presents suggestions for further research.

CHAPTER II - LITERATURE REVIEW

Linked to the growth of internationalization and global competition, an increasing number of people are now travelling, working and leaving abroad, tasting the breath of differences. Immigrants, sojourners and international employees are perhaps the best aware of these differences. Cultural and life-style differences are decreasing, but they are there and that is when cross-cultural adjustment begins to matter.

With regard to the influence of national and organizational cultures on cross-cultural adjustment, research has addressed mainly the extent to which the national culture, in the destination country, is different from the national culture at home or the degree of national culture toughness (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; 1986). The greater the difference, the more difficult the adjustment and longer it takes (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley, 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Less is known about the role of organizational culture and the role organizations can play to assist international employees overcome adjustment difficulties. Thus, one of the purposes of this research is to determine what characteristics of organizational culture ease cross-cultural adjustment.

For the purposes of this research, the following sections summarize the extant literature on culture and cross-cultural adjustment, with a focus on the international dimension.

2.1 National and organizational culture

Culture is defined as *“the way in which a group of people solve problems and reconciles dilemmas”* (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 6). Alternatively, culture is *“the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another”* (Hofstede, 1980, p. 21). In addition, Schein (1992) defines culture as *“a pattern of shared basic assumptions one group learned as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration. These basic assumptions have worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”* (Schein, 1992, p. 12).

All these definitions assume:

(1) Shared and basic assumptions underlie culture and the expression of people behaviors;

(2) Culture is transmitted to new members through socialization;

(3) Cultures differ, that is, different subcultures exist within each social unit, as different groups find different solutions to solve their problems;

(4) Culture is a form of social control. Culture can be used explicitly and implicitly to manipulate the members of a group to perceive, think and feel in a certain way.

These assumptions are consistent with the culture definition used more recently by the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project. It considers culture as practices, such as *"the way things are done"* (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman and Gupta, 2004, p. 15) and culture as values, such as *"the way things should be done"* (House et al., 2004, p. 15). Culture is therefore defined as *"shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations"* (House et al., 2004, p. 15). Depending on the level of analysis, this definition is applicable to societies and organizations.

In relation to culture manifestations, several authors (Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1992; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997) consider that culture manifests itself in several levels, according to the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer. Culture can manifest itself through products, explicit values, organizational processes and visible behaviors, which constitute the most superficial level. Other more profound level of exhibition of culture, corresponds to *"espoused values"* (Schein, 1992), which also includes shared assumptions. Finally, a more profound level, difficult to assess, contains the *"basic assumptions"* or the theories people rely on as true and never confront (Schein, 1992).

2.1.1 National culture

During recent decades, managers and researchers have increasingly recognized the importance of national cultures because of business globalization. In particular, there is an increasing interest for depicting the relationships between national and organizational culture as companies face international challenges. If national cultural values dominate over organizational ones, then a weak organizational culture would be beneficial for a successful international and local adaptation. Inversely, if organizational culture values are not entirely dominated by national culture, a strong organizational culture will be a valuable asset to international expansion. Therefore, understanding this relationship would help to find more

appropriate forms of cooperation among international ventures, which in turn would ease international workers' adjustment. Some studies in this area provide the background.

First, it is important to distinguish cross-cultural management studies (CCMS) and cross-national management studies (CNMS) (Sparrow and Wu, 1998). CCMS relate to the similarities between cultures while CNMS look for the differences. Cross-cultural management researchers aim to find how a theory developed in one cultural environment applies to others, while cross-national management researchers want to demonstrate how cultural differences affect the functioning of organizations. The studies that examine the influence of culture give importance to its influence on management theories (Laurent, 1983; Hofstede, 1980; 1996; Miroshnik, 2002); on human resources management (Hansen, 2003; Sparrow and Wu, 1998) and on organizational development (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003; Webster and Sundaram, 2005). The main assumption is that consciously or unconsciously societal culture with its myths, values, perceptions, behaviors and communication styles, influences people beliefs, attitudes, knowledge and behaviors. Some data indicate people work beliefs are shaped during childhood, and established early. More, the depth of these early orientations remains longer and more powerfully than the temporary effects produced by organizational affiliation (Hofstede, 1980; 1993; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997).

Perhaps the best-known typologies of national cultural differences are those by Hofstede (1980) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997).

Hofstede (1980) delineated four dimensions of cultural differences: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individualism/collectivism and masculinity/femininity. Each of these value dimensions comes from a research the author conducted within IBM, about employees' perceptions of work, satisfaction, personal beliefs and work goals. He found national culture explained more of the differences on attitudes and work-related values than other variables as gender, occupation or age. Later, a fifth dimension, named long-term vs. short-term orientation (LTO), was added based on a study of the values of students in 23 countries, carried out by Michael Harris Bond (Hofstede, 1993).

Hofstede (1980) classified attitudes and work-values into four (and later five) basic dimensions:

Power distance (PDI). This is the first dimension, which measures the way people perceive and accept an unequal distribution of power. This dimension is measured in the values survey by three items: (1) perceptions of the superior's style of decision-making; (2)

colleague's fear to disagree with superiors and (3) type of decision-making subordinates prefer in their boss (Hofstede, 1980; p. 65). Power Difference Index (PDI) was found to differ with education level and across occupations, especially in countries where it is low. For instance, high PDI countries (such as Japan and Portugal) are characterised by greater centralization, taller organization pyramids, larger wage differentials and higher differentials in education level between high and low status employees.

Uncertainty avoidance (UAI). The second dimension measures the tolerance for uncertainty, which is the way people cope with ambiguous situations. The uncertainty avoidance index (UAI) is composed by: (1) rules orientation, which is the extent to which rules are to be broken, (2) employment stability and (3) level of stress at work. A high score means a low tolerance for ambiguity and so a high uncertainty avoidance. High results in these three questions correlate with dogmatism, intolerance to ambiguity, traditionalism and ethnocentrism (Hofstede, 1980). For instance, high uncertainty avoidance countries (such as Japan and Portugal) are characterized by higher anxiety levels in population, more worry about the future, higher job stress, less achievement motivation, less risk taking and higher preference for clear requirements and instructions, just to name a few differences.

Individualism/collectivism (IDV). According to Hofstede (1980), individualism is a measure of the relationship between the individual and the collectivity, which exists in a given society. Individualism Index (IDV) is obtained as the mean answer scores on 14 work goals questions, on a format similar to: "How important is it to you to have a challenging work to do". Countries with a low individualism score (such as Japan and Portugal) are characterized by lower importance attributed to employees' personal life, higher organization attractiveness, more involvement with companies, less importance attached to freedom and challenge in jobs and less acceptance for the attainment of individual goals (Hofstede, 1980).

Masculinity/femininity (MAS). This is the fourth dimension. It is defined as the extent to which respondents tend to endorse goals usually more popular among men (high MAS) or among women (low MAS). MAS is correlated with UAI, with need for achievement and is negatively correlated with the percentage of women in professional and technical jobs (Hofstede, 1980). High masculine countries (such as Japan) are characterized by a higher importance attributed to earnings, recognition, advancement, leadership independence and challenge. They also exhibit a higher belief in the independence of the decision-makers, stronger achievement motivation, greater work centrality and higher job stress. High feminine

countries (such as Portugal) are characterized by more importance attributed to relationships and quality of life.

Long-term orientation vs. short-term orientation (LTO). This fifth dimension focuses on the degree a society embraces, or not, long-term traditional and forward thinking values. For instance, countries with a High Long-Term Orientation score (such as Japan and China) prescribe the values of long-term commitment and respect for tradition. Additionally, long-term rewards are expected because of today's hard work. Change is more difficult to occur as long-term traditions and commitments are often an impediment.

Trompenaars (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997) classifies cultures by the way people find solutions to problems related with: (1) relationships with others, (2) the passage of time and (3) the environment. This typology includes seven dimensions, the first five related with people relationship, the sixth related with time orientation and the last related with the relationship with nature. These dimensions are:

Universalism vs. Particularism. According to Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997), this is the first dimension linked with the way people relate to each other. For instance, a universalistic culture emphasizes rules and contracts more than relationships. A trustworthy person is the one who follows his/her word and respects a contract. There is only one truth or reality, which is what was agreed to. In the reverse, a particularism culture focus more on relationships than contracts, accepting several perspectives on reality and truth. The basic assumption is that relationships evolve.

Individualism vs. Comunitarianism. This is the second dimension related with people relationships. An individualist culture values personal responsibility and personal interest over collective ones. A comunitarianism culture focuses on collective interests. The group assures the joint responsibility for decision-making and takes time for consultation and consensus.

Neutral vs. Emotional. This third dimension is linked to the way people relate to each other. It measures the amount of emotion exhibited while interacting. Cultures differ in the way they allow the emotional expression and the use of humor. Neutral cultures do not allow the expression of feelings and thoughts. A cool and self-contained conduct is admired, often against the use of strong facial expressions and physical contact. On the contrary, affective cultures promote the overt and open expression of thoughts and feelings, defending the use of physical contact and expressive facial signs. These differences have implications on the way people negotiate in each context: in a neutral culture, negotiations are founded on the object

while on an affective culture; negotiations are based on the relationship and not on the propositions under discussion.

Specific vs. Diffuse. This is the fourth dimension, which identifies how far people get involved. It corresponds to the degree people engage with others “*in specific areas of life and single levels of personality or diffusively in multiple areas of their lives and at several levels of personality at the same time*” (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 81). Specific and diffuse cultures are often named low and high context. Cultures with low context (specific cultures) value principles, directedness, transparency and consistency in relationships, while cultures with high context (diffuse cultures) value indirect, often ambiguous and situational forms of relating. Business is impacted by these differences: at a diffuse culture, it is best to take time at negotiations and respect people titles, age, backgrounds and personal histories while at a specific culture the focus is on structure, efficiency and goals achievement.

Achievement vs. Ascription. This fifth dimension relates to the way people accord status in society. An achievement culture is based on merit to attribute status. The respect for others is based on how effectively people accomplish their goals; while in an ascription culture respect comes from the possession of some attributes such as age, education, money or seniority. These differences affect business practices, as in an ascription culture, performance incentives are less effective and only people with higher authority can challenge decision.

Sequential vs. Synchronic. This dimension is relative to the way people manage time. Cultures differ a lot in the way time is recognized and managed. A sequential culture envisions time as sequential, that is a series of passing and unrelated events; while a synchronic culture views time as a sequence of interrelated events so that the past shapes the present and both influence the future. These differences influence business practices as in a sequential culture, people often do one activity at a time and relationships are to subordinate to a schedule. In a synchronic culture, several actions can be done at the same time, which means that schedules are subordinated to relationships. “*Appointments are approximate and subject to “giving time” to “significant others”*” (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 139).

Inner-Directed vs. Outer-directed. This dimension refers to the way people relate with the natural environment. An inner-directed culture conceives nature as a machine that operates on the will of people. On the contrary, outer-directed cultures see nature as the result of an ecological balance that may be broken by people intervention. These different orientations affect business practice as inner-directed managers’ focus much more on the

internal functioning of the organization than on “others”, that is customers, partners or colleagues. Therefore, to the first what is important is “to win your objective” (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 155), while to the others, what is valued is the maintenance of the relationships and win together.

Hofstede (1980; 1993) and Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) typologies use the dimensions that characterize people solutions to different problems and as such underlie people behaviors. For that reason, these dimensions also affect business practices and organizational cultures.

2.1.2 National culture influence

With regard to national culture influence, Hofstede (1983, 1996) has also studied national culture influence on management theories. To him, “*there are no such things as universal management theories*” (Hofstede, 1993, p. 81). His argument is that managers, management researchers, theorists and writers are human and as such are under the influence of the cultural values they grew up and their ideas are the expression of that influence. For instance, he considers that to understand management in a country, one has simultaneously to know and be aware of the local constraints and influences. To him, “*there is something in all countries called “management”, but its meaning differs to a larger or smaller extent from one country to the other, and it takes considerable historical and cultural insight into local conditions to understand its process, philosophies, and problems*” (Hofstede, 1993, p. 89). American management theories, for historical reasons, have long dominated the studies and theories in this area, reflecting the American culture profile. These theories stress three elements, not always present in other countries: the emphasis on market processes, the focus on individuals instead of groups and the attention to managers instead of employees. In many ways, these aspects are valued differently in different countries. For instance, in France, emphasis is put on class differences within society and the rejection of a dual report (as in a matrix organization), while in Japan, the focus is on work groups, tenure and life-long employment. Japanese are more susceptible to the group pressure to conform than to the influence of their managers (Hofstede, 1993). To Hofstede (Hofstede, 1993, 1996) the conclusion is that theories travel between countries and are enriched by external influences. The same happens to international employees. They are exposed to different customs and

people and by the time they are adjusted, they have incorporated some of these new experiences to put them in action while returning home.

Similarly, Laurent (Laurent, 1983; Miroshnik, 2002) hypothesized national cultures act as a determinant of management philosophy. Laurent (1983) researched how managers' basic, implicit beliefs about effective action in organizations, translate into behaviors. He used a questionnaire, between 1977 and 1979, proposing 56 different statements about the management of organizations. In this study, 817 managers, attending the various INSEAD executive programs, participated. Executives were from ten Western countries and the United States. He found four dimensions, which were associated with respondents' nationality. These dimensions are: (1) organizations as political systems, (2) organizations as authority systems, (3) organizations as role-formalization systems and (4) organizations as hierarchical-relationship systems (Laurent, 1983). In the first dimension, relative to the perception of power motivation within the organization, French and Italian managers perceived more strongly their political role in a society and the importance of power motivation within the organization, than managers from Denmark and UK did. Similarly, Belgium, Italian and French managers saw their organizations more as authority systems than American managers did or Swiss and German managers did. The latter managers reported a more rational and instrumental view of authority, while the former seemed to be convinced that authority is something individuals possess. In relation to the third dimension – organizations as role-formalization systems – Swedish, Americans and Netherlanders perceived less the need of formalization in organizations than the other nationalities. Finally, the last index – organizations as hierarchical-relationship systems – differentiated Swedish from Italians. The former are more likely to accept the matrix organization type than the latter. Despite of the interest of these results, these comparisons and the influence of national culture, need to be considered cautiously. Some methodological limitations, as the use of a single questionnaire and the use of small country samples, may have accounted for those differences. In addition, the study did not account for possible significant differences between individuals from the same nationality, having different occupations.

Researchers have also examined how culture influences human resources management (HRM) practices. For example, Aycan and his associates (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendonça, Yu, Deller, Stahl and Kurshid, 2000) presented a model of culture fit to examine the impact of several cultural variables on HRM practices. They tested the model with

business organizations from ten different countries and found that socio-cultural environment (e.g., paternalism, power distance etc.) and enterprise environment (e.g., market characteristics, nature of industry etc.) affect internal work culture (e.g., task and employee related assumptions) and HRM practices (e.g., job design, supervisory practice and reward allocation). More specifically, they found evidence for the: (1) variance among socio-cultural characteristics of the countries; (2) impact of fatalism in internal work culture and HRM dimensions, in the majority of countries; (3) influence of internal work culture (such as assumptions of malleability, proactivity and responsibility seeking) on HRM practices (such as job enrichment, empowering and performance-based rewards) in the majority of countries. Despite the support to some predictions of the model of culture fit, in fact, in some countries, the variance in HRM practices was not accounted for by managerial assumptions. For example, managerial assumptions did not predict HRM practices for Canada and US. The authors alleged that this weak association between managerial assumptions and HRM practices could be due to the influence of external environment, which could be stronger, in these countries, than the influence of internal work culture. It should be emphasized that in Aycan *et al.* (2000) study, the socio-cultural environment (e.g., societal level of culture) and the internal work culture (e.g., the organizational level of culture) were conceptualized and operationalized as separate entities, though related. However, this study was among the few that attempted to answer the question of *how* societal culture influence organizational culture and HRM practices, rather than researching whether or not national culture had an influence. More, it somewhat empirically supported the assumption of the culture fit model, according to which multiple internal and external forces, unrelated with societal culture, influence organizational culture.

Sparrow and Wu (1998) also examined the influence of culture on HRM practices. They concluded for the existence of a relationship between cultural values and human resources preferences, more specifically a relationship between nature orientations, value orientations and activity thinking orientation and those same HR practices. Nevertheless, the authors also found the absence of a relationship between cultural values and some human resources practices. In fact, 50 percent of the compensation choices, 44 per cent of staffing choices, 44 percent of performance appraisal choices, 36 percent of planning choices and 29 percent of training and development choices were not related with cultural values. They stated that this absence of a relationship between cultural values and human resources practices

might signal a cultural value orientation-free preference. Alternatively, that may mean national cultural values do not entirely shape human resources practices. As the authors have not accounted for the influence of organizational culture upon the preferences for human resources practices, this may explain the absence of a relationship between national cultural values and some human resources practices.

Along the lines of the cross-national tradition, Kogut and Singh (1988) aimed to determine whether the choices of an entry mode into a new market were influenced by the investor's national culture. The authors aimed to explain differences in countries' practices regarding the choice of an entry mode based on cultural differences among countries. To the authors, these differences would influence managers' perception of the costs and risk of the investment. Their hypotheses stated that the greater the uncertainty avoidance of the culture of the investing company, and the cultural distance between the countries of the investing firm and the entry market, the more likely the company would choose a joint venture or a wholly owned Greenfield investment, instead of an acquisition. Cultural distance is significantly related with the choice for joint ventures and uncertainty avoidance is significantly associated with the choice for Greenfield projects though not significantly associated with the choice for joint ventures. The authors concluded that cultural distance and national attitudes towards uncertainty avoidance are associated with the choice of entry mode. Again, one of the strongest limitations of that study is not having accounted for organizational culture differences. The authors have just assumed as true that national cultural differences result in different organizational and administrative practices and managers' expectations regarding a foreign investment, which may not always be the case.

2.1.3 National and organizational culture: a convergent and divergent perspective

Organizational culture is often referred as shared assumptions, beliefs, values and practices that shape members' attitudes and behaviors in an organization (Hofstede, 1980; Schein, 1992). Organizational culture has been envisioned differently according to the convergent vs. divergent perspective as follows.

Regarding the influence of national culture, the convergent view assumes individuals and organizations are the product of the influence of national values, while the supporters of a divergent perspective accepts organizations and individuals are open systems under the

influence of the environment, whose complex characteristics are beyond the influence of national culture.

Among the supporters of the convergent view (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Laurent, 1983; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997; Van Oudenhoven, 2001; Webster and Sundaram, 2005; House *et al.*, 2004), organizational culture replicates at the organizational level the dominant national values. This relationship is expected as it comes up from external and internal forces, which shape “*the way things are done*” at the organizational level. External forces comprise, for instance, the influence of local customers and markets which endorse the expectations and values of their national culture. Internal forces contain employees’ basic assumptions and core values derived from the same cultural background. As organizational cultures are difficult to change, this pervasive effect of home national culture persists even under the influence of other national cultures (Webster and Sundaram, 2005; Hansen, 2003; Kogut and Singh, 1988).

Along with this convergent view, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) assert that national cultures help determine the type of organizational culture. To their taxonomy of organizational cultures, three aspects of organizational structure are important: (1) the general relationship between organization and employees; (2) the vertical and horizontal system of authority and (3) employees’ perceptions of organizational goals and mission and their contribution to them. This framework is built around two vectors: equality vs. hierarchy; and orientation to the person vs. orientation to the task. The four resulting organizational cultures types are: (1) the Family, (2) the Eiffel Tower, (3) the Guided Missile and (4) the Incubator. Each cultural type is ideal, as in practice, they are mixed or overlaid. The “*Family culture*” corresponds to the combination of person-orientation with hierarchy. “*The result is a power-oriented culture, in which the leader is regarded as a caring father, who knows better than his subordinates what should be done and what is good for them*” (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997, p. 158). Several Japanese companies represent this culture. The combination between hierarchy and task orientation, was named the “*Eiffel Tower*” organizational culture. It represents bureaucratic companies and it is characterized by a bureaucratic division of work with several pre-defined functions and roles, coordinated at the top by a leader. The “*Guided Missile*” organizational culture, results from the combination between task orientation and equality. In this type of culture, all are potentially equal depending on their contribution. Relationships are instrumental to achieve task execution and performance. The “*Incubator*”

culture is the fourth organizational culture type and combines equality with person orientation. This means that organizations exist for self-expression and self-fulfillment. American start-up companies, where motivation is intrinsic and intense and status is achieved not ascribed, had better represent this type of culture.

Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1997) have searched for associations between national cultural characteristics and organizational culture type dominance. Using a 16 questions survey to collect data from employees' perceptions of their organizational culture, they found a positive association between USA and UK national cultures and the Guided Missile corporate type of culture, or between Germany and the Eiffel Tower type. To the authors, national culture not only influences, but prevails over corporate values (Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997). However, they advised caution in the interpretation of these results because organizational culture types overlay as well as the values underlying national cultures. Additionally, the data available from small companies was scarce and research has shown that large companies, wherever located, tend to have Eiffel Tower or Guided Missile as the dominant organizational culture types.

In line with the convergent tradition, Van Oudenhoven (2001) aimed to cross-validate the Hofstede study, testing two hypotheses: (1) knowing whether individuals use spontaneously Hofstede dimensions to describe their organizations; (2) determining whether organizational cultures within each country reflect the dominant national values as described by the Hofstede's framework. Using students of business administration from 10 countries, he asked respondents to freely describe a national company they knew. After, they should indicate which of the four sets of statements (replicating Hofstede dimensions) applied best to the organizations in their country and which were their preferred. The results for the first question revealed that apparently Hofstede dimensions correspond to only one part of the characteristics individuals used spontaneously to describe organizations. Forty per cent of all descriptions referred to neutral aspects of organizations (such as size, age, profitability etc). The results to the second research question showed significant differences between countries in all the four dimensions and these effects were stronger than other moderating variables as gender, age and previous work experience. Moreover, these differences were significantly correlated with Hofstede scores for each country. Additionally, there were large differences between the perceived organizational characteristics and the desired ones, which confirmed the two variables are independent. Respondents from all countries revealed consensus in

their preferences for lower power distance and lower uncertainty avoidance as compared with the perceived level of these dimensions in their companies. In some countries, the same pattern was also obtained for individualism and masculinity. These findings lead the authors to defend a growing convergence of national and organizational cultures, because of the global market integration and international expansion. Though this study had not tested the convergence vs. divergence debate, but the differences between perceived and desired organizational culture dimensions, the results obtained somewhat support Hofstede dimensions and so the convergence perspective.

A major premise of the GLOBE study is that societal and industry systems influence organizational culture (House *et al.*, 2004). To test whether organizational cultural practices are influenced by industry sector and societal system, the study sampled middle managers from several organizations within three industries (food processing, financial services, and telecommunication services). The final data set for the analysis included 3 859 midlevel managers from 208 organizations from 27 countries. The hypotheses tested whether the societal system, the industry system and the interaction between societal and industry system affect organizational practices. The GLOBE conceptual model assumed societal cultural dimensions drive the development of convergent organizational cultural practices. Results showed that societal cultural differences have a relevant impact on all organizational cultural practices, while industry cultural differences only affected gender egalitarianism cultural practices. The main effect for industry relates with the fact that the telecommunications industry is more male-oriented than the other two industries (finance and food) are. Finally, industry characteristics interacted with societal system to affect four of the nine organizational cultural practices: assertiveness, gender egalitarianism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance (House *et al.*, 2004). Altogether, these results indicate that: (1) organizational cultural practices differ with societal culture, regardless of industrial sector; (2) organizational cultural practices almost do not differ with industry sector (with the exception of gender egalitarianism); (3) organizational cultural practices differ with some specific society-industry differences. Based on these findings, it is clear that societal system do affect organizational cultural practices. It is worth mention, however, that the organizational cultural practice dimensions studied were deliberately selected to be isomorphic to the societal cultural practice dimensions. Therefore, it is likely to expect stronger effects with this design. However, as the authors admitted, these findings do not reject the idea that organizations need to adjust to

local and industry specific demands, and therefore may display non-isomorphic organizational cultural practices, in order to be competitive.

Related with the convergent perspective, Webster and Sundaram (2005) aimed to determine if international service firms should modify their dominant organizational culture (displayed as a reflection of the dominant national culture) to enhance their international expansion. The authors used a sample of US and Japanese service retail firms to test the assumptions that firms organizational culture would replicate the dominant cultural values of US and Japan and that would have an impact on firm's outcomes as measured by customer satisfaction and business performance. Data generally supported the first assumption in that the relationship between the values of stability, detail, people and team orientation was higher for Japanese than for US service firms. The reverse relationship was found for the cultural values of innovation, outcome orientation and aggressiveness. Additionally, they found congruency between organizational values that characterize a service firm in a country (e.g., Japan) and the values that characterize its subsidiaries in the other (e.g., US). According to these findings, the authors concluded for the dominance of national values over organizational and international barriers, influencing home and subsidiaries' organizational culture. Moreover, they found that when this happened (when the culture of subsidiaries matched the one of the home country but differed from the country in which they operate), the subsidiaries achieved lower levels of outcomes (customer satisfaction and business performance). The authors recommended that managers should not assume their home country (and consequently home company culture) is the best to increase international business performance. In our view, what the results express is not whether home country culture should be "*exported*", but whether organizational cultures are flexible enough to adapt to local environmental demands, especially for international firms competing locally. As Goffee and Jones (1998) emphasized, there is no such thing as the "*best organizational culture*" to enhance competitiveness. Instead, organizational cultures should adjust to the business environment.

That is why the followers of the divergent perspective (e.g., Nelson and Gopalan, 2003; Goffee and Jones, 1998), consider organizations are shaped by multiple influences and are, therefore, beyond the influence of national culture. Divergent forces, such as modernization influences and specific organizational processes, shape organizational culture beyond that deterministic relationship.

For instance, Nelson and Gopalan (2003) endeavored to go beyond the work of Hofstede by focusing the interface between national culture and organizational culture, using data from three different countries: India, Brazil and USA. The authors assumed that even if the national environment pressures organizations, firms also possess boundaries that make them differ from that influence, in many regards. They believe some forces, as “*modernization*” and “*reciprocal opposition influences*” (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003, p. 1119) push organizations to develop differently from, if not opposed, the national dominant culture. They found that organizations cultures’ vary with nationalities though this variation is not isomorphic with national culture. In the three countries, they found organizational culture clusters similar to national values, and opposing clusters. They also found a “*reciprocal opposition*” cluster in all three countries, coexisting with a “*modernizing*” or “*capitalistic cluster*” (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003 p. 1137) emphasizing time, planning, work and analytical skills. Though results somewhat support the convergent perspective of organizational culture they also suggest the existence of strong forces pushing organizations cultures outside the dominant national direction (divergent view).

2.1.4 A framework of organizational culture

Unlike other research fields, cultural research has not yet reached the point where a taxonomy of cultural dimensions could be accepted as more parsimonious. Admittedly, the literature on culture is broader than the picture depicted in this chapter (e.g., Trice and Beyer, 1993; Pheysey, 1993; Schneider, 1990). To the purposes of this research, however, it is adopted a framework of organizational culture consistent with the divergent perspective of a non-isomorphic national culture influence. Goffee and Jones (1998) designed the selected framework, which uses two cultural dimensions - solidarity and sociability – derived from two sociological concepts: social solidarity and spontaneous sociability.

Social solidarity refers to the degree and type of integration, shown by a society or group. It refers to the “*ties in a society that connect people to one another*” (Jary and Jary, 1991, p.621). Durkheim introduced the terms “*mechanical*” and “*organic solidarity*” as part of his theory of the development of societies (Durkheim, 1997). Mechanical solidarity derives from individuals’ homogeneity while organic solidarity derives from individuals’ interdependence and complementarities. To him, individuals’ homogeneity underlies a society that exhibits mechanical solidarity and this homogeneity is the root to cohesion and

integration. In such a society, people feel connected through similar education, religion, work and lifestyle. Conversely, a society that displays organic solidarity, basis cohesion and integration, on individuals' interdependence, derived from work specialization (Durkheim, 1997).

Goffee and Jones (1998) define solidarity as a measure of relatedness toward the achievement of mutual interests and goals. Solidarity emerges between people who share common interests and perceive the advantages of pursuing them collectively, whether they are personally affectionate or not (Goffee and Jones, 1998). It exists in work as in personal environments, for the sake of goals' achievement. It has numerous benefits for organizations, as for individuals themselves, who benefit from a higher clarity relative to performance goals and the appropriate means and behaviors to achieve them (Goffee and Jones, 1998). Nevertheless, high solidarity can also have negative outcomes. An excessive focus on collective goals and demands can be oppressive and even destructive of personal freedom and performance. Additional, it may end up with excessive competition between group members, disproportionate focus on winning (over all other values) and ruthless relationships (Goffee and Jones, 1998).

The concept of sociability has also his roots in Durkheim, namely on his emphasis on group life, as a solution to "*anomie*" and self-destruction. More recently, Fukuyama (1995, 1999) defined sociability as a spontaneous informal norm that promotes cooperation among individuals. Fukuyama (1995) defends that trust and spontaneous sociability, underlie the life in modern societies, otherwise relationships would be impossible. In general, trust arises when a community shares common moral values, which in turn creates a certain expectation regarding social behaviors. Without that, individuals would assume everything and everyone would be distrustful, which would raise social and economic costs above any acceptable limit. Thus, a certain amount of trust and sociability among the members of a society is a pre-condition to social and economic efficiency (Fukuyama; 1995). Three states or forms of trust can be discerned: distrust (e.g., absence of trust), conditional trust and unconditional trust (Jones and George, 1998). Conditional trust is often sufficient to facilitate interactions and is the most common form of trust in organizations. Unconditional trust, however, arises when individuals share common values, which structure their relationships. In that case, individuals cooperate not because they want to reciprocate, for example because they want to

compensate past help or anticipate future needs, but because they want to and feel responsible for it (Jones and George, 1998). Unconditional trust forms the base for sociability.

Goffee and Jones (1998) framework defined sociability as a “*measure of friendliness among members of a community*” (Goffee and Jones, 1998, p.23), usually valued by its own. It exists in personal and in work environments, and emerges when people share similar attitudes, ideas, interests and values. Sociability at work means that people relate to each other in a friendly way and the line between work and personal life is often diffuse. The benefits of sociability for organizations are diverse, such as higher creativity and openness to new ideas, higher commitment to colleagues and so higher commitment to performance (Goffee and Jones, 1998). However, high sociability can also have negative effects. It may imply increased tolerance for friends’ poor performance at the workplace and an overstated drive for consensus. Additionally, it may end up with excessive gossip between those belonging to the in-group and loss of commitment and loyalty for those who feel outside and hopeless to influence processes and decision-making (Goffee and Jones, 1998).

The dimensions of sociability and solidarity can combine to form the axes of the *Double S Cube*, which outlines four types of culture: communal, networked, fragmented and mercenary and its dysfunctional forms.

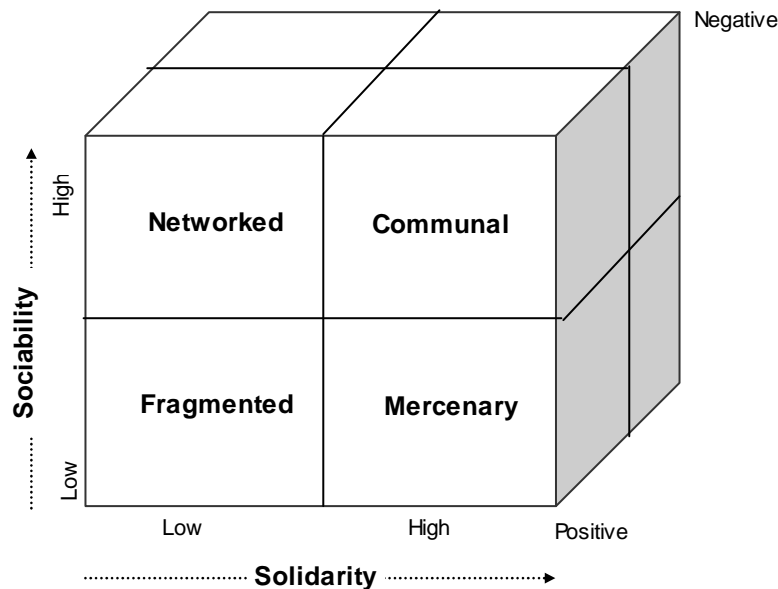


Figure 1 - Double S Cube Framework for Corporate Culture – Adapted from Goffee and Jones (1998)

The Double S Cube is three-dimensional to illustrate the fact that all four organizational culture types can be functional or dysfunctional. The sociability and solidarity

dimensions may generate ineffective behaviors to organizations. When an organization exhibits an excessive level of sociability, its culture may turn into cliques, into gossip and politicking. Similarly, an excessive level of solidarity may make cooperation and information sharing difficult and turn into a devious organizational culture (Goffee and Jones, 1998).

A communal culture results from the combination of high sociability and solidarity. It is characterized by bringing together friendship and commitment, with energy and focus. Organizations with this type of culture possess a strong sense of "*family*": are committed to individuals as to business goals. Another strong related characteristic is a generalized reciprocity between group members, as assistance is giving without a return expectation simply because it benefits the company. These characteristics, however, are often difficult to combine and sustain, especially when conflict arises. The negative form emerges when personal interests dominate over organizational ones. When negative sociability dominates, the company becomes exclusive of people's lives, while when negative solidarity dominates the organization loses focus from its real competitive advantages. To the end, negative communal companies lose people, commitment and competitive advantage (Goffee and Jones, 1998).

A networked culture results from the combination of high sociability and low solidarity. As such, it is characterized by friendly relationships, informality between group members, loyalty and commitment to the group. Within networked organizations, high sociability positively affects information and knowledge sharing, which stimulates creativity and learning. Another strong related characteristic is the willingness of group members to provide assistance, with no immediate return expectation. Social and psychological contracts are strong. Similarly, rules are to be flexible and interpreted. In the negative form, a networked culture shows high (often excessive) tolerance for poor performance, excessive concern for the means instead of the targets, persistent disagreements about company strategy, mission and goals, and inequality of rewards, depending on who people connect with. To the end, people are mainly committed to each other at the expenses of the company, which can create a political and manipulative work environment.

The opposite dimensions – low sociability and high solidarity – yield a mercenary culture. It is best characterized by intensity, energy, focus and drive for making things happen. Within mercenary organizations, high solidarity boosts clarity regarding shared goals and their attainment, while low sociability inhibits networks and politicking. This combination also means

mercenary organizations accept disagreement (it is all about business), conflict and risk. Another strong related characteristic is the negotiated reciprocity associated to group members' assistance, because relationships are instrumental to achieve people goals'. In the negative form, a mercenary culture turns heartless, because of an obsessive focus on measured outcomes. Hitting targets is all it matters, regardless of (and often at the expenses of) relationships. Consequently, psychological and social contracts are fragile and turnover potentially high.

Finally, low sociability and solidarity result on a fragmented culture. People are not particularly friendly and work side by side for themselves and not for the sake of shared interests or goals. Organizations possessing this type of culture are often the ones which success depends on great ideas, and not so much on common goals or strong relationships ties. This appeal for ideas instead of individuals means fragmented organizations have high tolerance for distinctive behaviors and individual freedom. Another related characteristic is the negative reciprocity between group members, as they expect assistance without giving anything in return. The negative form is best described when ideas matter depending on who defends them. In this context, excessive criticism arises and often people work hard to undermine any collective goal. Consequently, organizational learning and creativity are undermined.

With the Double S Cube framework, the authors' (Goffee and Jones, 1998) assumed the following assumptions:

(1) No business strategy or program can succeed without an appropriate organizational culture.

(2) A uniform organizational culture along the entire organization is difficult to find and maintain. Sociability and solidarity dimensions are not mutually exclusive. In fact they both develop along a continuum and organizations can be categorized into a one dominant level but most contains several combinations.

(3) No one-culture type is better than the other is, "*there is only the right culture for a business situation*" (Goffee and Jones, 1998, p.10). No one of the four culture types: communal, networked, fragmented and mercenary, is good or bad, better or worse the other. Each has to be appreciated by its adjustment to the competitive environment where the organization operates. Even the communal type, characterized by strong friendship ties at the workplace and strong commitment to clear and common business goals, may not be the best

organizational culture type. The communal type, like the other organizational cultures, is effective only when it is appropriate for the work context and competitive situation.

(4) Organizational culture is not easy to replicate which gives leaders a powerful force of cohesion in organizations to influence organizations' competitive advantage.

(5) *"No culture lasts forever"* (Goffee and Jones, 1998, p. 35). The authors' research and experience indicates that organizational cultures often evolve with the company growth, starting by being communal, moving to the networked quadrant, to finally establish as mercenary. However, not all companies have an organizational culture progressing through this *"life cycle"*. Some start as mercenary or fragmented and remain relatively unchanged over time, which means the process of characterizing and changing an organizational culture is more complex than the Cube denotes.

As described, this typology assumes a non-isomorphic influence of national cultures over organizational ones, perspective followed in this research.

2.1.5 Organizational culture influence

Most culture researchers have concentrated more on the nature of culture, culture definition and the search for national cultural differences and influences, than on studying the outcomes of organizational culture. Previous studies have mainly investigated organizational culture influence on employees' related variables, such as satisfaction, commitment and performance. However, few empirical studies have examined these relationships. For example, Lund (2003) examined the influence of organizational culture on employees' job satisfaction, while Carmeli (2005) related organizational culture with employees' withdrawal intentions and behavior. Some empirical studies regarding organizational culture influence on employees' job satisfaction, attitudes toward change, organizational commitment, performance, and withdrawal intentions are briefly revised.

Given the need for a systematic examination of the influence of organizational culture on employees' job satisfaction, Lund (2003) conducted a study using the Cameron and Freeman's (1991) model of organizational culture. According to this typology, organizational cultures consist of four forms: clan, adhocracy, hierarchy and market. These culture forms result from the intersection of two dimensions: organic vs. mechanistic processes, and internal maintenance vs. external positioning. Lund (2003) hypothesized that employees' job satisfaction would decrease along the continuum of organic processes (clan and adhocracy)

to mechanistic processes (hierarchy and market). Organizational cultures that emphasized values of fraternal relationship, flexibility and respect for individuals (clan and adhocracy) were expected to be more positively associated with job satisfaction than cultures that emphasized control, order and individual achievement (hierarchy and market). The research variables were assessed through a self-administered questionnaire, filled by 360 American marketing professionals. Results indicated that: (1) market organizational culture type was the most similar to respondents organization, followed by clan culture; (2) employees job satisfaction significantly differ according to organizational culture types, being lower for market or hierarchy cultures and higher for clan and adhocracy cultures. These findings, obtained within the limitations of a specific sample and a cross-sectional design, are theoretically appealing. Employees reported higher levels of job satisfaction in the clan culture, in which individuals share a strong sense of camaraderie, teamwork and pride and, inversely, reported lower levels of job satisfaction in the market culture, in which individuals share goal orientation and achievement. The parallelism and similarities between this organizational culture typology and Goffee and Jones (1998) framework is obvious. Therefore, based on these results one would expect an organization culture high in sociability (e.g., communal and networked) to be more positively associated with international employees' cross cultural adjustment and satisfaction than an organizational culture high in solidarity (e.g., mercenary).

Regarding the relationship between organizational culture and employees attitudes, Rashid, Sambasivan and Rahman (2004) used Goffee and Jones (1998) framework to test empirically the influence of the four culture types (in its functional face) and employees' attitudes toward change. They found a positive association between these two variables. More specifically, they found that strongly positive attitudes toward change were more frequent in organizations having a mercenary culture (low sociability, high solidarity) and positive attitudes toward change were dominant in organizations having a networked culture (high sociability, low solidarity). Apparently, none of the dimensions – sociability and solidarity – was dominant to explain attitudes toward change. The authors concluded that attitudes regarding change are more favorable when organizational culture promotes a common mission and goals (high solidarity) or when organizational culture promotes friendliness among peers (high sociability). In these cases, the sharing of common values and interests on cooperation and friendship helps them share similar and positive attitudes toward change. Attitudes toward change are apparently related with common business goals or common friendship ties. In other words, a

communal culture was not strongly related with positive attitudes toward change as high sociability entails time and patience to create the informal ties needed to change. This might collide with the drive to work hard and hit the targets associated with the high solidarity that also characterizes this type of organizational culture. For the same reasons, a fragmented culture (low sociability and solidarity) had the weakest association between organizational culture and attitudes toward change, as individuals do not share nor common goals nor common friendship ties. The findings of this study not only provided empirical evidence for Goffee and Jones (1996, 1998) measurement of organizational culture as revealed a positive association between organizational culture and attitudes toward change.

On the relationship between organizational culture and commitment, most studies focused the links between the strength of organizational culture and the strength of employees' commitment, remaining largely under researched the potential links between the contents of organizational culture and the level of commitment (Lahiry, 1994). One exception is the work of Wasti (2003) who aimed to understand the influence of culture, on the antecedents of organizational commitment. He collected data at the individual level, using participants from a single country – Turkey, who hold individualist and collectivist values. Wasti (2003) adopted Allen and Meyer (1990) framework of organizational commitment. This framework distinguishes three dimensions of commitment: affective commitment (commitment based on the emotional attachment and identification with the organization), continuance commitment (commitment based on the perceived costs of leaving the organization) and the normative commitment (commitment based on the perceived obligation to stay with the organization). The results revealed that satisfaction with the work itself was the main predictor of affective, normative and continuance commitment for individuals who hold individualistic values, while satisfaction with the supervisor was the main antecedents of affective, normative and continuance commitment for individuals who hold collectivist values. Apparently, the organizational commitment of individuals holding individualist values derived more from aspects associated with the work itself, while organizational commitment from individuals holding collectivist values derived from relational aspects. Satisfaction with the work and promotion opportunities was also found to predict affective and normative commitment for individuals holding collectivist values. Overall, this study indicated that holding different cultural values (such as individualism-collectivism) influences the importance individuals'

attribute to work and relational variables, and therefore, influences their organizational commitment.

With regard to the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance, most authors speculate a positive relationship between these variables as an increasing influence of organizational culture on companies' success or failure (Goffee and Jones, 1998; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997; Schein, 1992; Hofstede, 1980). There is also some empirical evidence (Lee and You, 2004; Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari, 2003), as briefly mentioned.

For example, Lee and You (2004) aimed to examine the relationship between organizational culture and organizational performance among Singaporean companies from three industries: insurance, hospitals and high-tech manufacturing. In particular, they wanted to determine whether: (1) organizational culture could be operationalized and measured; (2) organizational culture profile would vary with industry membership; and (3) culture strength would affect organizational performance. Organizational culture was assessed using the organizational culture profile (OCP) from O'Reilly *et al.* (1991), and performance indicators included financial ratios over a period of five-years. The results indicated: (1) five factors emerged from the factor analyses to the OCP responses (e.g., innovation, supportive team, humanistic and task orientation), which supported previous findings and confirmed that the concept of organizational culture can be operationalized; (2) a greater cultural variation between industries than within them, even if organizations from the same industry differed in their cultural profile; and (3) mixed results regarding the influence of culture strength on performance. For example, culture strength was positively correlated with return on assets in manufacturing firms, but no significant correlations were achieved with hospitals. The authors considered that results partially supported their hypothesis, specifically regarding culture operationalization and culture variance between industries. However, several conceptual and methodological limitations exist in this study, which might have affected the conclusions. For instance, the first limitation relates with the selection of a few number of industries and secondly, the consideration of a single country. Further, the operationalization of the culture concept, on five selected factors, while the factor analysis allowed for 18 factors extracted with eigenvalues greater than one, might have also compromised data analyses. Therefore, ahead of the positive effort of bringing empirical support to the myth of a positive association between

organizational culture and performance, the conclusions are not generalizable beyond and above the research limitations.

Another example of the influence of organizational culture on performance comes from Rashid, Sambasivan and Johari (2003). They tested a model along which organizational culture affects the three dimensions of organizational commitment and both variables affect organizational performance. In this study, organizational commitment was measured based on the work of Allen and Meyer (1990), and organizational culture was operationalized based on the work of Deshpande and Farley (1999). According to this typology organizational culture consists of four types: competitive, entrepreneurial, bureaucratic, and consensual culture. Performance was determined using the average of three annual values (1997-1999) for return on total assets, return on investment and current ratio. The results showed: (1) a positive and significant correlation between organizational culture and organizational commitment: the consensual culture was positively related with affective commitment, while the entrepreneurial and competitive cultures were positively associated with continuance commitment; (2) a positive and significant association between organizational culture and financial performance; (3) a positive association between organizational commitment and financial performance/return on assets and return on investments. These results provided empirical evidence for a positive association between organizational culture, commitment and organizational performance.

Regarding the relationship between organizational culture and withdrawal intentions, the literature has focused predominantly the relations between turnover intentions, absenteeism and actual turnover, and the impact of individual-related variables (such as job satisfaction, job stress or work commitment). For instance, it is assumed that withdrawal decisions can lead to absenteeism, which in turn relates to actual turnover. Withdrawal decisions can also lead directly to turnover. Though these interrelationships between withdrawal intentions and withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism and departure) are still under debate, it is acknowledged that withdrawal intentions are a strong predictor of actual withdrawal behaviors (Carmeli, 2005). While early studies placed the emphasis on the influence of individual factors, less attention has been directed to the role of organizational variables. One exception is the work of Carmeli (2005), who analyzed the effects of five dimensions of organizational culture on withdrawal intentions and behaviors, among social employees' from health institutions in Israel. He defined organizational culture as "daily-

practices” related with five dimensions: job challenge, communication, trust, innovation and social cohesiveness. Withdrawal intentions were defined as a multidimensional construct, composed by three dimensions: withdrawal intentions from the job, withdrawal intentions from the organization and withdrawal intentions from the occupation. Employees' withdrawal intentions from the job were defined as an individuals' assessment that he or she will be leaving the current job in the near future, while employees' withdrawal intentions from the organization and the occupation, were defined as individual subjective judgments relative to the abandonment of the present employer and the current occupation. The results revealed: (1) the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions were all significantly and positively inter-related; (2) a significant association between age and withdrawal intentions from the occupation, that is older employees revealed less intentions to withdraw from the current occupation; and (3) a negative association between one of the dimensions of organization culture (e.g., job challenge) and withdrawal intentions from the job, the organization and occupation. In addition, the same dimension of organizational culture (e.g., job challenge) was negatively associated with withdrawal behavior (e.g., self-reported absenteeism). These findings indicate, at least to a certain extent, that organizational culture determines employees' withdrawal intentions and behaviors. The author also alleged these results somewhat supported previous Hofstede findings according to whom a results-oriented culture is highly correlated with low employees absenteeism (Carmeli, 2005).

In summary, investigating the influence of organizational culture in the international context, namely studying the influence of the organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, will make a decisive contribution to the understanding of the withdrawal process and international employees' turnover.

2.1.6 National and organizational culture: a synthesis

Researchers have been arguing for the impact of culture for years. Some maintain that internationalization and modernization are diminishing organizational cultural differences (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003; Goffee and Jones, 1998), while others concluded that dissimilarities are relentless (Hofstede, 1980; Laurent, 1983; Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner, 1997; Van Oudenhoven, 2001; Webster and Sundaram, 2005).

To date, despite the controversy between the convergent vs. divergent approach and the number of studies published on the topic of culture, several conceptual and methodological limitations persist (Lim and Firkola, 2000; Tayeb, 1994). The most frequent are:

- (1) Unclear culture definition and consequently a mistreatment of national and organizational culture as variables and explanatory factors;
- (2) Unclear definition of the level of analysis while referring to cultural differences;
- (3) Inadequate (or even absent) empirical test of the influence of national culture on organizational culture;
- (4) Inadequate sample selection (often confronting “east” and “western” cultural values as guaranty of an adequate contrast).

It is believed these methodological weaknesses have lead to the disproportionate conclusion of “*national culture*” effects on organizational and individual behaviors. Therefore, before studying the relationship between culture and employees' behaviors, it is important to select the level of analysis as well as the cultural characteristics that are influential. Previous research apparently revealed, “*Employees and managers do bring their ethnicity to the workplace*” (Miroshnik, 2002, p. 530). As referred above, Hofstede (1980, 1993, 1994, and 1996) found interesting and significant differences in employees' attitudes and behaviors within the same multinational. To him, national culture explained more these differences than any other variable, as occupation, gender or age. Likewise, Laurent (1983) found more cultural differences among international employees than among their domestic colleagues, as if the fact of working abroad strengthens their national cultural values. It seemed that far from reducing national differences, organizational culture maintains or even enhances them. Nevertheless, this convergent perspective has been questioned conceptually and empirically (Nelson and Gopalan, 2003). Whatever the viewpoint, most authors agree that national, and organizational culture, are different and independent variables. As Hofstede (1993) summarized “*culture at the national level and culture at the organizational level – organizational culture – are two very different phenomena and that the use of a common term for both is confusing. (...) National cultures differ primarily in the fundamental, invisible values held by a majority of their members, acquired in early childhood, whereas organizational cultures are a much more superficial phenomenon residing mainly in the visible practices of the organization, acquired by socialization of the new members who join as young adults.*”

National cultures change only very slowly if at all; organizational cultures may be consciously changed, although this is not necessarily easy." (Hofstede, 1993, p. 92).

The more interesting question to this research is not whether organizational culture can erase or diminish the impact of national culture but the impact of organizational culture, as perceived by international employees, on their self-reported level of cross-cultural adjustment.

2.2 Expatriation cycle

Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh (1999) in *"Globalizing people through international assignments"*, have shown that the successful completion of a global assignment is linked to the completion of five major steps: (1) selection for the assignment; (2) training; (3) cross-cultural adjustment; (4) repatriation, and (5) global leaders development.

The International Human Resources Management (IHRM) literature identifies three main reasons for the use of international assignments (Bonache, Brewster and Suutari, 2001; Harzing, 2001; Mayerhofer, Hartmann, Michelitsch-Riedl and Kollinger, 2004; Stahl and Cerdin, 2004): (1) subsidiary control and co-ordination; (2) skills and knowledge transfer, and (3) managers' development. To accomplish these purposes, international companies may pursue one of the following approaches to international recruitment and selection (Shen and Edwards, 2004):

(1) The ethnocentric approach, which leads to the selection of parent country nationals (PCN's) for the key international positions;

(2) The polycentric approach, which leads to the selection of host country nationals (HCN's) to local subsidiaries and PCN's to fill corporate positions;

(3) The geocentric approach, which uses the best people available to fill key positions, regardless of their nationality, and finally

(4) The regiocentric approach, which follows the principles of the geocentric approach, within the scope of a single region (e.g., Europe, Asia, South America etc.).

With regard to selection for the assignment, previous research (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh, 1999; Bonache, Brewster and Suutari, 2001; Suutari and Brewster, 2001) has shown that expatriates are selected predominantly based on their technical expertise and previous company knowledge. Criteria such as cross-cultural skills or family characteristics are often not considered. However, Arthur and Bennett (1995) have shown that the main factors expatriates' perceived to contribute to the success of the international

assignment are family related. Moreover, the main reasons for turning down an international assignment are known to be spouse and family related, such as double career issues, meeting family needs (e.g., education or social support) and concerns with older relatives (Black *et al.*, 1999).

Regarding assignment preparation, research has shown that most US companies do not provide in-depth cross-cultural training before the move. This practice persists though empirical data confirmed cross-cultural training programs enhance expatriates' adjustment and performance (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Harrison, 1994; Selmer, Torbiorn and Leon, 1998; Mendenhall and Stahl, 2000; Suutari and Burch, 2001; Peppas, 2004; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Selmer, 2005).

In relation to cross-cultural adjustment, it is perhaps the most researched topic. A poor adjustment at destination is assumed to have a detrimental impact into organizations and individual careers and to be the main reason for turnover. As a key objective of this research is to determine how organizational factors affect cross-cultural adjustment, the following sections will review the literature in more detail.

Finally, a successful repatriation is critical to develop international managers, as while expatriates were abroad, they developed new professional and interpersonal skills that organizations are not always able to profit from. A successful repatriation process aims to assure a smooth back-home transition from the expatriate and his/her family as the full commitment and integration in the organization. Research has shown that repatriation is often more difficult than expatriation, because individuals face new challenges, usually termed a reverse culture shock (Napier and Peterson, 1991; Black, 1992; Black and Gregersen, 1992, 1999; Linehan and Scullion, 2002; Shen and Edwards, 2004). As an international assignment is always, an organizational and individual investment, the way companies, and individuals, join efforts will much affect their success.

2.3 Cross-cultural adjustment

Three broad conceptualizations of cultural adjustment can be found in the literature (Ward and Kennedy, 1993; Cox, 2004). One is based on the literature dealing with stress and coping, and assumes cultural adaptation is a measure of the psychological health and psychological well-being associated with a move to a new cultural environment. Another conceptualization of cultural adaptation is based on the social learning theory (Bandura,

1977), which emphasizes the learning of the social skills and behaviors appropriate for the new cultural environment (Ward and Kennedy, 1993). Finally, a third conception of cultural adaptation is based on social cognition theories, which focus the importance of internal processes, such as perceptions, expectations and values. It uses attribution theory and social identification theory, derived from cognitive and social psychology, to explain how individuals adjust to a new cultural environment (Ward and Kennedy, 1993). In fact, researchers' interests for some antecedents and outcomes of adjustment, derive from their preference for one conceptualization or another. For example, the supporters of the stress and coping theory tend to measure cultural adjustment as the psychological well-being, while the supporters of the social learning theory, focus behavioral patterns and search the impact of modeling and observational learning on cross-cultural adjustment. Finally, social cognitive theorists focus more the expectations, attitudes, perceptions and cultural identification (Cox, 2004).

Overall, the two dominant research frameworks of expatriation adjustment derive from the combination of these three general conceptualizations of cultural adjustment (Shay and Baack, 2004). The first focus the *degree of adjustment*, while the second focus the *mode of adjustment*. The first, assumes adjustment is the degree of psychological comfort and familiarity with the various challenges of the host environment, and is based on cultural learning theory (Black, 1988, 1990; Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Black *et al.*, 1991). The second focuses on how expatriates and repatriates really adjust and is based on Nicholson's (1984) "work-role" transition theory.

To the purposes of this research, the focus is on expatriates and repatriates' *degree of adjustment*. One of the main premises of this approach, to explain the *degree of adjustment*, has been the uncertainty reduction theory (Black, 1988, 1992). According to this perspective, the entrance into a new environment causes uncertainty about what is appropriate and what is not. This uncertainty raises stress, which individuals tend to reduce, through the formation of expectations and through learning, by observation of the appropriate behaviors and trial and error efforts (Black, 1990, 1992; Black and Mendenhall, 1990). From this perspective derived much of the theory and research on cross-cultural adjustment, which attempted to identify the factors influencing adjustment and to explain the relationships among them.

Within the literature on cross-cultural adjustment, little has been done to determine the impact of organizational variables, such as organizational culture, on expatriates and

repatriates' adjustment. Therefore, one of the key objectives of this research is to determine the relationship between organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment. It also aims to explore the influence of organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment on general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, among expatriates and repatriates. For that, first it is presented the Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) model of cross-cultural adjustment and its more recent extensions. Second, the same model is used to explain repatriates' adjustment and related results. Third, the implications of the literature review for the influence of organizational culture dimensions on adjustment and adjustment outcomes, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, are drawn before summarizing the propositions of this research in the next chapter.

2.4 Expatriation adjustment

Scholars have focused their interest in this subject first because of the claimed expatriates' high failure rate and related costs (Black *et al.*, 1991; Black, Gregersen and Mendenhall, 1993; Stroh, Dennis and Cramer, 1994), and second, for the impact adjustment has on expatriates' performance (Shay and Baack, 2006; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, cross-cultural adjustment has been one of the most frequently studied determinants of international assignments success (Gabel, Dolan and Cerdin, 2005; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005). In this context, adjustment has been defined as the process individuals undergo to integrate a host country, including the ability to behave appropriately on a daily basis and the resulting satisfaction from the perception of being accepted (Black *et al.*, 1991). The literature on cross-cultural adjustment distinguishes *sociocultural* adjustment from *psychological* adjustment (Selmer, 2005; Takeuchi, Wang and Marinova, 2005). Socio-cultural adjustment refers to the ability to interact effectively with the members of a different community and to "fit in", while psychological adjustment refers to individuals' subjective well-being or satisfaction in the new situation (Selmer, 2005; Takeuchi, Wang and Marinova, 2005). The variables that enhance culture learning have been associated with socio-cultural adjustment, while individuals' emotions, cognitions and personal characteristics have been related to psychological adjustment. To the purpose of this research, the theoretical framework of Black *et al.* (1991) is used as reference, which incorporates the socio-cultural aspects of cross-cultural adjustment.

2.4.1 The adjustment model of Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)

Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) developed the first model of cross-cultural adjustment, which aimed to integrate the literature on domestic and international adjustment. The authors reviewed the literature in both fields and presented a comprehensive structure for cross-cultural adjustment, which has been the basis for the most relevant research since then. This model considers adjustment as a state (Haslberger and Brewster, 2005), or *the degree of psychological comfort or absence of stress, regarding a new situation* (Black, 1988; Black 1990; Black *et al.* 1991). It assumes adjustment is a multidimensional concept. They suggested, and empirically confirmed, three distinct forms or dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment:

(1) Work adjustment, which refers to the comfort, associated with the new job requirements abroad;

(2) Interaction adjustment, which refers to the adjustment associated with the socialization with host country nationals, both at work and outside, and

(3) General or cultural adjustment, which includes the adjustment to the non-work foreign living conditions, such as local food, cost of living, shopping, entertainment, transportation and health care facilities (Black, 1988; Black and Stephens, 1989; Black *et al.* 1991).

As international assignments require greater changes than domestic moves (they usually involve work and also social and non-work changes), international or cross-cultural adjustment is expected to be more difficult because involves a higher level of uncertainty.

The model from Figure 2 drew several research propositions, which guided the subsequent empirical research. The most important propositions relate with anticipatory adjustment and in-country adjustment.

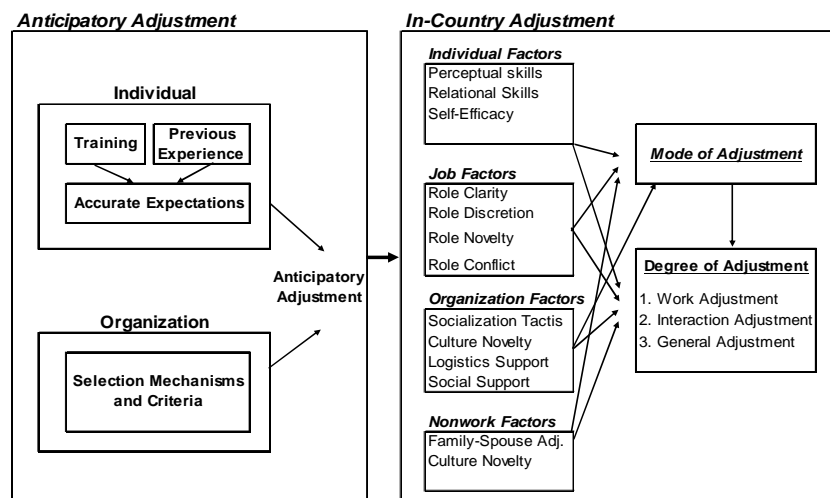


Figure 2 - The cross-cultural adjustment model proposed by Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991)

With regard to anticipatory adjustment, the basic assumption is that appropriate anticipatory adjustments ease in-country adjustment. Individual and organizational factors affect anticipatory adjustment. Individual factors include: (1) previous work-related experiences; (2) training and (3) accurate expectations. Organizational factors comprise expatriates' selection mechanisms and criteria. Previous experience and pre-departure cross-cultural training will contribute to the formation of accurate expectations and both will be positively related to anticipatory adjustment. Selection mechanisms and criteria are also relevant, as expatriates' selected from a large pool of candidates and based on several relevant criteria, will experience an easier and faster cross-cultural adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991).

With regard to in-country adjustment, four main categories of predictors are foreseen to affect the mode and the degree of adjustment. These categories are individual, job, organizational and non-work factors.

Individual factors - This category contains personal characteristics accepted to affect cross-cultural adjustment, as perceptual skills, relational skills, and self-efficacy. According to the model, perceptual skills are expected to help identify and understand the appropriate and inappropriate attitudes and behaviors at the destination country, which can reduce uncertainty and so ease adjustment. Similarly, relational skills, by providing the means to increase information about what is adequate and not, shall expectably decrease uncertainty and help adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991). The greater the relational skills the easier will be expatriates' interactions with host nationals and their cross-cultural adjustment. With regard to self-

efficacy, it is expected to affect both the mode and the degree of adjustment. The degree of adjustment is expected to be positively related with the level of self-efficacy individuals reveal. High levels of self-efficacy relates to learning ability and perseverance to use the new behaviors needed in new settings. Therefore, high levels of self-efficacy will likely reduce uncertainty and so will positively affect the degree of adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991).

Job factors - This category includes job-related variables as role clarity, role discretion, role novelty and role conflict. Role clarity and role discretion, by allowing individuals to use their usual work behaviors, are expected to be positively related with the degree of cross-cultural adjustment, especially work adjustment. On the contrary, role novelty and role conflict are expected to result in new or conflicting messages, which are likely to increase uncertainty and thus affect negatively international adjustment, especially work adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991).

Organizational factors - This category contains several adjustment antecedents related with organizational culture and organization socialization practices. As with role novelty, organizational culture novelty is expected to increase the uncertainty inherent to the move to a new work environment and thus affect negatively cross-cultural adjustment, especially work adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991). The greater the difference between organizational cultures (from home to host company) the greater the difficulty to adjust. In this context, a subsidiary organizational culture capable of providing social support from co-workers and supervisor is expected to reduce uncertainty and therefore eases cross-cultural adjustment, especially work adjustment. In the same way, logistical support from the organization would likely facilitate the move by decreasing uncertainty associated to the new work and non-work environments. Therefore, logistical support is expected to be positively associated with the degree of adjustment, especially interaction and general adjustment.

Non-work factors - Similarly to the described effects for role novelty and organizational culture novelty, national culture novelty is expected to affect negatively cross-cultural adjustment, as it also increases uncertainty. Greater cultural differences between home and host country cultures (e.g., culture novelty) imply increased interaction and general adjustment difficulties. The negative effect on work adjustment is likely to be diluted by the similarities of organizational policies and practices. Spouse adjustment is another non-work factor that most likely affects expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

Black and colleagues (Black *et al.*, 1991) derived the following assumptions from the domestic adjustment literature:

(1) The view that individuals make anticipatory adjustments before they face a new situation, and in that case, accurate expectations are important to ease adjustment;

(2) The importance of job factors (e.g., role clarity, role novelty and role conflict) as antecedents of the degree of adjustment;

(3) The value of organizational socialization tactics as antecedents of the mode of adjustment, and

(4) The relevance of organizational culture factors, such as: organizational culture novelty, and social support from co-workers and supervisor, as antecedents of the degree of adjustment.

From the international adjustment literature, the authors derived:

(1) The importance of three pre-departure adjustment variables, that is previous international experience, pre-departure training and expatriates' selection;

(2) The importance of individual characteristics (e.g., self-efficacy, perception and relational skills) and the influence of nonworking variables (e.g., culture novelty and spouse adjustment) as in-country adjustment factors (Black *et al.*, 1991).

They draw from domestic and international adjustment literatures the theory that unfamiliar settings disturb customary routines and originate psychological uncertainty, which individuals have a tendency to reduce. If individuals have access to information regarding the unacceptable behaviors in the new setting, they will make an anticipatory adjustment. In the location, adjustment progresses as individuals overcome uncertainty by adopting the appropriate attitudes and behaviors. Therefore, the factors affecting individuals' uncertainty are likely to be those affecting adjustment (Black *et al.*, 1991).

Besides the above mentioned premises, Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) based their model in four additional assumptions (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). The first is that the degree of cross-cultural adjustment is important because it affects expatriates psychological well-being and performance. The second assumption presupposes that the model is universally applicable to all expatriates. And the third is that work and non-work factors have a stronger influence in their restricted domain without a spill-over effect. That is, work factors affect work adjustment, while non-work inputs affect interaction and general adjustment. In the same vein, work adjustment is expected to be a much stronger predictor of work outcomes

(e.g., organizational commitment, intention to leave or turnover) than interaction and general adjustment. Finally, a fourth assumption is that cross-cultural adjustment progresses over time following a U-shape. According to this theory, expatriates adjustment follow a U trajectory during time, described by four sequential stages: a “honeymoon stage”, a “culture shock stage”, an “adjustment stage”, and finally, a “mastery stage”. Empirical evidence is scarce and have somewhat challenged these assumptions (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005).

In summary, current literature on expatriation adjustment found its foundation on Black *et al.* (1991) model. The more recent refinements are summarized in the next section and Figure 3.

2.4.2 Theoretical and empirical extensions to Black *et al.* (1991) model

Since the original work of Black *et al.* (1991), empirical evidence has come from partial analysis of the dimensions of adjustment. Lately the full model has been under scrutiny, with the work of Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley (1999) and the meta-analytic study of Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005).

Figure 3 depicts the extensions to Black *et al.* (1991) model until the moment. The meta-analytic evidence is included as well as recent empirical evidence. Major findings are summarized next, distinguishing adjustment antecedents, outcomes, and adjustment trajectory factors. For the purpose of this research, proposals related with the modes of adjustment (e.g., Haslberger and Brewster, 2005) will not be incorporated to avoid added complexity, unlikely to significantly explain the hypothesized results. Thus, this research focuses the degree of cross-cultural adjustment, its organizational antecedents, and it's outcomes.

2.4.2.1 Antecedents of Expatriate Adjustment

The main antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment identified next, consider the empirical support to the propositions of Black *et al.* (1991), the meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), as posterior empirical data. This review keeps the original classification for the antecedents into anticipatory and in-country adjustment factors.

Anticipatory Factors

Until now, five anticipatory factors of expatriate adjustment have been theoretically considered and empirically tested: (1) previous international experience; (2) host language ability; (3) realistic previews; and (4) cross-cultural training.

1) *Previous international experience (having lived and worked abroad)*

Literature reveals mixed results for this variable. For instance, Shaffer *et al.* (1999) found a positive relationship between previous international experience and interaction adjustment, and found that this variable moderates the impact of job, organizational and other individual factors on adjustment. Alike, other authors (Stroh *et al.*, 1994) did not find a significant relationship between previous international experience and expatriates' adjustment. For the moment, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) meta-analytic review showed a positive and significant relationship of previous international experience with work and interaction adjustment, though this factor explains only 1% of the variance of both forms of adjustment. This lack of a strong effect has been explained by the way international experience has been assessed (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Usually, it has been measured as the sum of total years abroad, while international experience is much more than time, including the diversity of experiences and knowledge acquisitions. That is why Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak (2005), aimed to determine the influence of assignment tenure and past international experience on expatriates cross-cultural adjustment by distinguishing two dimensions for previous international experience: domain (work and non-work) and cultural specificity (US and non-US). Using a sample of Japanese expatriates working in the US, their results indicated: (1) culture-specific past international experience (that is previous work and non-work experience in US, for Japanese expatriates), had a moderator role on the relationship between assignment tenure and general adjustment; (2) previous international work experience had a moderator role on the relationship between assignment tenure and work adjustment; (3) the measurement of past international experience based on the number of previous experiences produced weaker effects than when it is measured based on the length

of the experiences. These results are consistent with Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) arguments regarding the restricted influence of previous international experience on adjustment and highlight the importance of adopting a time perspective to study cross-cultural adjustment.

2) Language ability (fluency on the host country language)

A review of previous literature (Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Selmer, 2006b) shows a positive relationship between host language ability and interaction and general adjustment. However, no significant relationship was found between host language fluency and work adjustment. Shaffer *et al.* (1999) found that language fluency moderates the impact of job and individual factors on adjustment. The same study revealed language fluency is more important for the interaction adjustment of technical expatriates than for expatriates having a management position. It seems that at higher hierarchical levels the language fluency in the host country language is less needed to communicate effectively. Selmer (2006a), using Western business expatriates assigned to China, also found that language ability had a positive association with expatriates' socio-cultural adjustment. Not surprisingly, he found this positive association was stronger for interaction adjustment and was achieved despite the fact that the majority of respondents had managerial roles.

3) Realistic previews (having a clear and precise view about the destination environment and/or job)

Namely, a realistic job preview was found to relate to work adjustment explaining 4% of its variance after accounting for control variables as age, gender, time in host country and prior international assignment (Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar, 2006). Similarly, realistic living conditions preview accounted for 9% of the variance of general adjustment after accounting for the influence of the same control variables (Templer *et al.*, 2006).

4) Cross-cultural training (having a rigorous and integrated approach to convey behavioral, cognitive and affective cultural training, usually before and during an assignment)

The findings from several studies (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Black *et al.* 1991; Eschbach, Parker and Stoeberl, 2001; Waxin, 2004; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005), can be summarized in the following conclusions related with cross-cultural training influence: (1) cross-cultural training is associated with positive feelings of well-being and self-confidence; (2) helps develop appropriate behaviors at the destination country, and (3) improve the

relationships with locals. More specifically, Waxin and Panaccio (2005) found, in a sample consisting of 54 French, 53 German, 60 Korean and 57 Scandinavian managers expatriated in India, that: (1) cross-cultural training has a significantly positive influence on all three facets of adjustment; (2) experimental training that focus on the host country is the most effective type of cross-cultural training (and the one having a strongest effect on adjustment); (3) the effects of cross-cultural training are stronger for managers who have little or no prior international experience.

Other anticipatory factors, which were not found to be significant predictors of adjustment, are premove attitudes and selection mechanisms and criteria.

2.4.2.2 In Country Adjustment Factors

As originally classified by Black *et al.* (1991) these factors are grouped in four categories: (1) individual factors, (2) job factors, (3) non-work factors, and (4) organizational factors.

Individual factors

Overall seven individual factors have been examined in the literature: (1) self-efficacy, (2) relational skills, (3) emotional intelligence, (4) motivational cultural intelligence, (5) psychological workplace strain, (6) gender, and (7) tenure in the host country.

1) Self-efficacy (individuals' believe in their own ability to perform)

Self-efficacy was found to be positively and significantly associated with work and interaction adjustment and not with general adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Wang and Sangaland (2005) found that self-efficacy was positively correlated with work adjustment but not with job satisfaction. In addition, self-efficacy did not moderate the relationship between social support, work adjustment and job satisfaction. Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) explained the absence of a significant relationship between self-efficacy and general adjustment with the way the variable was conceptualized and measured as task-related.

2) Relational skills (individual skills that facilitate the formation of interpersonal ties)

Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) found a positive and strong association between relational skills and the three forms of adjustment. Yet, Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) failed to find support for a relationship between relational skills and expatriate performance.

3) Emotional intelligence (emotional and social skills underlying individuals' general ability to face environment demands)

In a preliminary study, using a sample of 69 senior managers assigned in several Latin-American countries, Gabel *et al.* (2005) found a positive correlation between some dimensions of emotional intelligence and work, interaction and general adjustment. Yet, they fail to confirm the influence of emotional intelligence on the success variables as job performance and satisfaction. The limited sample size impeded further analyses.

4) *Motivational cultural intelligence (ability to deal with cultural diversity)*

Cultural intelligence, as defined by Templer *et al.* (2006), comprises four dimensions: cognitive, metacognitive, motivational and behavioral. Motivational cultural intelligence can be defined as a natural orientation to engage and enjoy cross-cultural experiences, being usually associated to self-efficacy (Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar, 2006). Motivational cultural intelligence was found to be critical in the adjustment to new cultures and to be related with work, interaction and general adjustment. Moreover, it explains work adjustment and general adjustment after accounting for respectively: realistic job previews and realistic living conditions preview (Templer *et al.*, 2006).

5) *Psychological workplace strain (individuals' psychological responses to aversive stimulus of the work environment)*

With regard to cross-cultural adjustment, previous studies have not examined the impact of psychological workplace strain directly, with the exception of Takeuchi, Wang and Marinova (2005). Their study clearly illustrated that the absence of previous international experience, as the absence of spouse and the presence of children can act as psychological work strain factors. Moreover, they showed empirically, through a longitudinal assessment of job performance at time one and time two (one year later), that psychological work strain impact socio-cultural adjustment and job performance. More specifically, they found support for a negative relationship between psychological work strain (at time one) and expatriates' work and general adjustment (at time one), as for an inverted U-curve relationship between psychological work strain and job performance.

6) *Gender*

Selmer and Leung (2003a) found gender differences for work and interaction adjustment, in a comparative study with male and female expatriates in Hong Kong. On their study, female expatriates had higher levels of work and interaction adjustment than their male counterparts did. Contrary to authors' expectations, the two groups did not differ on the level of general adjustment. Similarly, Culpan and Wright (2002) studied women expatriates,

through the combined use of a qualitative and quantitative approach. In their research, two sets of data were collected: seventy women expatriate in US responded to a survey and fourteen agreed to participate in a phone interview. The results indicated that: (1) added job responsibility during the assignment increased women job satisfaction; (2) the balance between family and work demands, during the assignment, positively influenced job satisfaction; (3) host language fluency positively influenced women expatriates job satisfaction; and (4) a friendly and accepting work environment at destination positively influenced women job satisfaction.

Linehan (2002) found, with semi-structured interviews to fifty senior female international managers, that four specific difficulties affected women expatriates: (1) the gender biases associated with international appointments; (2) the negative influence of gender over an international career; (3) the difficulties in finding career alternatives for a male spouse and (4) the difficulties balancing an international career with family demands. Overall, this research indicated that women expatriates felt often excluded from an international career and from further career progression, because of gender discrimination. Related, Selmer and Leung (2003b) found studying Western business expatriates in Hong Kong, that female expatriates are younger, are fewer married and occupy lower hierarchical positions at destination than are their male colleagues. Given the before mentioned findings (Selmer and Leung, 2003a, 2003b; Culpan and Wright, 2002; Linehan, 2002) and the added difficulties married female expatriates face (Linehan, 2002), the low incidence of married female expatriates may be indicative of the selection strategies firms are pursuing.

7) Tenure in the host country

Some authors (Takeushi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001; Yavas and Bodur, 1999) found a positive and significant relationship between tenure in the host country and the three forms of adjustment.

Other individual factors whose influence was found to be significant on adjustment are expatriates age, which was found to be positively associated with work and interaction adjustment; and work experience, which was positively associated with work adjustment (Yavas and Bodur, 1999). However, more research is needed to determine the influence of some individual factors such as age, gender, tenure, ethnicity, relational skills and emotional intelligence. This is beyond the boundaries of this research, which aims to control the

influence of some demographic variables, such as expatriates and repatriates gender, age, marital status and educational background, on cross-cultural adjustment.

Job factors

Four job factors have been considered in the literature: (1) role clarity, (2) role discretion, (3) role novelty, and (4) role conflict.

1) Role clarity (understanding of job requirements)

Role clarity was positively and significantly associated with work adjustment and it is the strongest job factor determinant of work adjustment (Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). According to the meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), role clarity is also positively related with interaction and general adjustment.

2) Role discretion (decision-making autonomy)

Role discretion is positively and significantly associated with work adjustment according to Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005). It is also significantly and positively associated with interaction and general adjustment.

3) Role novelty (perceived differences between home and host positions)

Role novelty showed no significant relationship with adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), though Shaffer *et al.* (1999) have found a significant negative relationship with general adjustment.

4) Role conflict (incompatible job requirements)

Role conflict is moderately negatively associated with work and interaction adjustment. However, had no significant association with general adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005).

Another job factor whose influence was not found to be significant is years in assignment (Stroh *et al.*, 1994).

Non-work factors

Non-work factors usually include three variables: (1) spouse adjustment, (2) culture novelty, and (3) family adjustment.

1) Spouse adjustment (adaptation to the non-work challenges of the new environment)

Several studies (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black, 1990; Stroh *et al.*, 1994; Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi and Bross, 1998; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Takeushi, Yun and Tesluk, 2002) have found that spouse and expatriates' adjustment are highly correlated. For married expatriates,

spouse adjustment is the first factor explaining the variance of expatriates' general adjustment (Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). It is also positively and significantly associated with work and interaction adjustment (Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002). In a study of Mohr and Klein (2004), a third dimension for spouse adjustment emerged; they named it "*role adjustment*". The authors used quantitative data, in-depth interviews and group discussions, to focus American expatriate spouses' adjustment in Germany. Role adjustment refers to the change in role most spouses undergo as they go abroad and stop working. As found, spouses mentioned this change in role (from an active professional to a homemaker) as an important aspect of their international adjustment. Role adjustment was positively associated with spouses' age, with the length of the stay, with the length of spouses' previous international experience and the level of spouses' motivation for the assignment. For example, Waxin (2004) found that partner social support was positively related to interaction adjustment. Also, as more adjusted spouses were to social interactions upon return, the less willing they were to relocate again. Moreover, Takeuchi, Yun and Tesluk (2002) confirmed a bi-directional effect between spouses and expatriates general adjustment, that is, spouse general adjustment influenced positively expatriates' general adjustment as, reciprocally, expatriates' general adjustment influenced their spouses' general adjustment. Likewise, this reciprocal influence existed between spouse general adjustment and expatriates' work adjustment and the reverse. These results confirmed a spillover effect (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002; Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998) that is the influence of a non-work variable over a work variable, as a crossover effect, that is the influence of one individual over another (such as the spouse general adjustment influence on expatriate work adjustment). These results contradict one of Black *et al.* (1991) main presuppositions, that is work and non-work factors have a stronger influence in their restricted domain without a spillover effect.

More recently, Larson (2006) found, with an US sample, that spouses' willingness to repeat an international assignment can be predicted by the length of the assignment, by the spouse' general adjustment and children repatriation adjustment. In addition, spouse age was correlated negatively with the willingness to relocate again. This study was one of the first to examine the variables that affect spouses willingness to accept an assignment, assuming that spouses who are willing to relocate may influence positively expatriates' intentions to accept another assignment.

Some authors (Andreason, 2003; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002) explained spouse difficulties to adjust to their higher exposure to local stressors, as the local culture and the absence of local support, which usually exists at the corporate level. However, the opposite can be argued: expatriates, more than their spouses, are exposed to foreign cultural challenges accrued by new corporate and job requirements and to the need to interact and be effective with local co-workers. In any case, research supports the idea that spouses' general adjustment influences expatriates' adjustment and spouses' willingness to relocate again. As further empirical evidence is needed, this research examines the influence and the mutual interaction between spouse' adjustment and expatriates and repatriates adjustment.

2) *Culture novelty (perceived cultural differences between home and host countries)*

Culture novelty has also been named “*culture toughness*” (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985, 1986); “*cultural distance*” (Kogut and Singh, 1988; Shenkar, 2001) or “*country difficulty*” (Hofstede, 1980). The default assumption underlying expatriation adjustment has been the idea that adjustment is easier in familiar countries than in very different destinations. Empirically, this assumption has been tested (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), which confirmed national cultural differences are negatively and strongly associated with the three forms of adjustment: work, interaction and general adjustment. In addition, the perceived cultural distance was negatively related with spouses' general adjustment, in a study conducted by Mohr and Klein (2004). In this same study, the relationship between spouses' perceived cultural distance and spouses' interaction and role adjustment, though negative, was not significant.

However, some recent studies did not find support for this negative association between cultural differences and cross-cultural adjustment. For instance Jun and Gentry (2005) did not confirmed a negative association between cultural similarities and expatriates' cognitive uncertainty and satisfaction with the assignment. Contrary to the prediction, they found Korean business expatriates assigned to cultural distant countries revealed greater satisfaction than expatriates assigned to similar cultural countries. As these results were obtained with expatriates from a single country assigned to different cultural environments, further research should attempt to determine whether these results can be generalized to expatriates from other nationalities.

From the same background, Selmer (2006a) investigated the association between culture novelty and expatriate adjustment, using 165 Western expatriates assigned to China. This destination is specially challenging to Western expatriates because they need to adjust to a very different life-style and work context. Western expatriates answered a mail survey, which measured culture novelty with the scale suggested by Torbiorn (1982), later adapted by Black and Stephens (1989). Socio-cultural adjustment was assessed using the 14-item scale developed by Black and Stephens (1989). Results showed a high score for culture novelty and high scores (above the mid-point of the respective scales) for all three measures of adjustment. These findings indicate Western expatriates felt relatively adjusted, even if they perceived China as a host location high in cultural novelty. Moreover, regression analysis did not support the hypothesis of a negative association between culture novelty and socio-cultural adjustment. These results suggest that adjustment can be as difficult (or easy) in a low culturally different location as to one very different.

Another research from Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar (2007) found that the impact of cultural distance was asymmetric. In their study, cultural differences measurement followed Kogut and Singh (1988) methodology and used Hofstede (1980) cultural indices. Although the construct of cultural distance assumes cultural symmetry between any two selected countries, they found that German expatriates in the US were better adjusted than American expatriates in Germany. One possible explanation for this result may derive from the cultural distance construct itself (Shenkar, 2001). This measure, using Hofstede (1980) cultural indices, might disregard actual perceptions about national cultural differences. For instance, applying this concept to determine how culturally different is Portugal from Brazil and Chile would indicate a lower cultural distance between Portugal and Chile than among Portugal and Brazil. However, it is known that Brazil (and not Chile) is the first country of Portuguese foreign direct investment (Gago, Cardoso, Campos, Vicente, and Santos, 2004; Silva, Fernandes and Costa, 2003; Claro and Escária, 2003; Ribeiro, 2003) and that Portuguese managers often based foreign investment decisions on their perceptions of historical and cultural similarities (Costa, 2006, 2003; Silva, 2005). Certainly, cultural distance measurement does not explain these facts.

Following this reasoning, as previous criticism regarding the misuse of the cultural distance measure (Harzing, 2003), this research assesses culture novelty through respondents' perceptions of cultural differences. Following Shenkar (2001) suggestion, several

dimensions were added, not only culturally related, to establish what can be named a "socio-cultural" measure of culture novelty. Considering the mix empirical evidence mentioned before, one expects cultural differences between home and destination countries to influence negatively cross-cultural adjustment.

3) Family characteristics and family adjustment

Caligiuri *et al.* (1998), adopting a longitudinal design, collected supportive information for a positive relationship between family characteristics (e.g., family communication, family adaptability and family support) and family cross-cultural adjustment. Moreover, the authors found support for a spillover effect from family characteristics and family adjustment to expatriates' work adjustment.

Though the mutual influence of these different factors (e.g., work and non-work, individual and organizational factors) has not been extensively examined, many of the above mentioned results challenge Black and colleagues (1991) assumptions of the restrict influence of work and non-work factors over cross-cultural adjustment. Spillover effects do exist: work factors have an influence outside work and affect interaction and general adjustment, as non-work factors affect work adjustment. Takeuchi *et al.* (2002) were one of the few exploring these joint effects. For instance, they found a reciprocal influence between expatriates adjustment and spouse's adjustment as a spill over influence of non-work factors (such as general adjustment) on general and job satisfaction. The reverse, that is, the influence of work factors (as work adjustment) on general satisfaction was not supported (Takeuchi *et al.*; 2002), which demands further analysis. In line with this discussion, the present research aims to explore the role of organizational culture (a work factor) on adjustment (work, interaction and general) as on adjustment outcomes as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

Organizational factors

Six organizational factors have been examined in the literature: (1) co-workers social support, (2) logistical support, (3) supervisors social support, (4) perceived organizational support, (5) organizational characteristics, and (6) organizational culture novelty.

1) Co-workers social support (assistance with information about what is culturally acceptable and not at destination)

Co-workers social support is positively and significantly associated with the three forms of adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), though its effects need further empirical research. For instance, Wang and Sangalang (2005), using a sample of Filipino immigrants in

Canada, found that immigrant employees reported greater support from co-workers of the same cultural background than support from local-born co-workers and managers. Moreover, the perceived support from co-workers (immigrant co-workers and local born co-workers) correlated positively with work adjustment and job satisfaction. Yet, management support correlated strongly with job satisfaction but not with work adjustment.

2) *Logistical support (assistance with daily living, which includes financial support for housing and schools)*

Contrary to Black *et al.* (1991) assumptions, logistical support was found to be weakly related with general, interaction and work adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999).

3) *Supervisors social support (assistance with information about what is culturally acceptable and not at work)*

The relationship of supervisors social support with work adjustment was empirically tested (Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001) showing no significant effect on adjustment, which supported the results achieved by Wang and Sangaland (2005).

4) *Perceived organizational support (individuals' general belief that the organization cares about them and values their contribution)*

Perceived organizational support was found to be positively related with expatriates' adjustment (Kraimer *et al.*, 2001). More specifically, perceived organizational support from parent company was positively associated with general adjustment but not with work adjustment, while foreign company perceived organizational support was positively related with work and interaction adjustment, but not with general adjustment. The authors considered that these results revealed that expatriates are able to distinguish the organizational support received from the parent company and the foreign subsidiary, and this support influences their international adjustment. Apparently, parent company support influences general adjustment, because it provides a general support (e.g., logistical and financial) that helps the adjustment to the destination. Locally, perceived company support helps expatriate adjust to their day-to-day challenges, as expressed on ease work and interaction adjustment. More research is needed to clarify this influence. However, this finding together with the before mentioned positive influence of co-workers support, lead one to believe that a supportive organizational culture is likely to be positive for expatriates' adjustment. If the organizational culture is supportive and caring of its members, it is likely to promote voluntary support among its

members. As the success of an expatriates' assignment is likely to be an important organizational goal, given the resources the organization endows, then it is likely that organizational culture influences work adjustment. As discussed earlier, the influence of organizational culture is expected to exist, regardless of national cultural differences.

5) Organizational characteristics

Within the organizational characteristics studied, Yavas and Bodur (1999) found a positive association between work adjustment and the organization emphasis on the pursuit of long-term goals and strategies, the use of open-communication channels, consensual decision-making, teamwork and employees' orientation and the use of performance evaluations based on team efforts. The findings of this study suggest that organizations play an important role to enhance expatriates' work adjustment. Expatriates working for employee-oriented companies, which maintain open communication channels and encourage consensus decision making are likely to be better adjusted to work.

6) Organizational culture novelty (perceived differences between home and host organizational culture)

Black *et al.* (1991) initial proposition stated a negative relationship between organizational culture differences and adjustment. This determinant has not been tested empirically, based on the difficulty of distinguishing organizational culture novelty from cultural novelty in general (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). As mentioned, this is the main independent variable of this research, which is assessed through the dimensions of sociability and solidarity of Goffee and Jones' (1998) framework.

2.4.2.3 Outcomes of Expatriate Adjustment

The completion of an international assignment has been regarded as the most important criteria for determining the outcome of international assignments (Gabel *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, premature return has been the main indicator of international assignment failure, and the literature is full of references to the high expatriate failure rate. However, Harzing (1995) and Forster (1997) have questioned the empirical support of these references and the validity of using premature return as a single measure of failure. Instead, they suggested using a much broader definition of failure, including such indicators as underperformance during and after the assignment, assignment effects (on expatriates' career, personal and family lives) and repatriates' turnover.

To date, the main adjustment outcomes theoretically considered and empirically tested have been expatriates' satisfaction, expatriates' performance and withdrawal intentions and behaviors (e.g., turnover). Given the practical difficulty to obtain adequate information about expatriates and repatriates' actual performance and turnover, the focus of this research is on general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. The use of these attitudinal measures is based on previous research (e.g., Carmeli, 2005; Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Morgan, Nie and Young, 2004). Following is a brief review of the relevant literature.

1) *General satisfaction (or psychological well-being with one's life)*

According to Gabel *et al.* (2005), general satisfaction or psychological well-being corresponds to individuals' assessment of their lives, including life satisfaction and happiness with the absence of negative moods and emotions.

On the antecedents of expatriates and repatriates' satisfaction, Morgan *et al.* (2004), conducting a study with 82 alumni from an international management program, found that the use of standard practices at the home office, technical sophistication in the host work environment, individual's technical orientation, promotion with the assignment and increase in responsibility positively influence satisfaction with expatriation. These findings suggest that the consistent use of technology at home and abroad and the adoption of systematic practices contribute positively to expatriates' satisfaction.

On the determinants of satisfaction with repatriation, difficulty with finding an adequate position upon return is the most significant predictor of repatriates' satisfaction (Morgan *et al.*, 2004). An increase in responsibility and a promotion (upon return) also influence positively repatriates' satisfaction. A significant negative correlation was found between individual's technical orientation and repatriation difficulty. It seems that more technically oriented repatriates have less difficulties returning to the home company.

Job satisfaction was also found to be positively and significantly connected with work and interaction adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), even if Bonache (2005) has found that the level of general job satisfaction did not significantly differ between expatriates, repatriates and domestic employees. Takeuchi *et al.* (2002) found a significant spillover effect between work and non-work variables, such as a positive association between general adjustment and general and job satisfaction. Expectedly, job satisfaction was found to be positively associated with work adjustment. Nevertheless, the authors did not find support for the hypothesis of a positive association between work adjustment and general satisfaction,

which contradicts evidence found for non-expatriate samples (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002). Relative to early returns, Takeuchi *et al.* (2002) found that job and general satisfaction were negatively related to expatriates' intention to return early, which generally confirms previous research.

For example, Downes, Thomas and Rodger (2002), in a study with US expatriates from two sets of industries: computers/ electronics and petroleum/chemicals, aimed to identify the significant determinants of expatriates' job satisfaction. They found a positive and significant relationship between job satisfaction and organizational tenure, mentorship and training. In particular, the influence on satisfaction from these two late determinants was moderated by firms' internationalization stage: mentorship was more influential in the early stages of the firms' internationalization, while training influence was stronger with firms' international experience. The authors argued that the identification of the factors that enhance expatriates job satisfaction can potentially reduce the number of expatriates failures and early returns.

Arising from these findings, one would expect expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment to be an output of cross-cultural adjustment.

2) *Withdrawal intentions (thinking of quitting, intention to search and intention to quit)*

Withdrawal intentions have been separated into: (1) job withdrawal intentions; (2) organization withdrawal intentions and (3) occupation withdrawal intentions (Blau, 2000; Carmeli, 2005). Withdrawal intention from the job is defined as an employees' subjective assessment that he or she will be leaving his/her current job in the near future, though he or she might remain in the same organization (Carmeli, 2005). Individuals having withdrawal intentions to leave the organization anticipate they shall be leaving their companies' in the near future (Carmeli, 2005). The intention to leave an occupation is considered a more difficult decision than the previous, since it presupposes a completely different career orientation (Carmeli, 2005). The intention to leave the job is easier, because the individual may wish to leave the present job while staying in the same organization and occupation (Carmeli, 2005). Withdrawal intentions also differ from withdrawal behaviors (e.g., absenteeism and turnover) and usually anticipate them. Making this distinction between withdrawal intentions and withdrawal behaviors is helpful to understand the withdrawal process. Withdrawal intentions are the antecedents of withdrawal behaviors, such as absenteeism and turnover and turnover intention is the final cognitive variable before actual turnover, having an impact on it (Carmeli, 2005).

The establishment of a distinction between the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions is very important to the international management field. The implications of these differences are obvious. For instance, an international employee may ask his/her organization to leave the present assignment, wishing to work for the same employer elsewhere, or, on the contrary, he or she may wish to leave the organization while keeping the same occupation and even the same job, relocating definitively to the destination country. Due to the interest of this conceptual framework, this research adopts this multidimensional concept of withdrawal intentions (Blau, 2000; Carmeli, 2005).

Various studies indicated a significant and negative relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and expatriates' intention to return before the completion of the assignment (Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005). For instance, Black and Stephens (1989) found that expatriates and spouses' interaction and general adjustment correlated positively with expatriates' intentions to stay, whereas work adjustment did not. Similarly, Gregersen and Black (1990) results, based on data from expatriates in the Pacific Rim and Europe, confirmed that expatriates' interaction and general adjustment are positive predictors of expatriates' intention to stay in the assignment, whereas work adjustment was not related to intent to stay. In addition, Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak (2005) found a negative relationship between work and general adjustment and Japanese expatriates' intentions to return earlier from US.

Furthermore, the meta-analysis conducted by Bhaskar-Shrinivas and associates revealed: *"Poor adjustment manifests itself in job dissatisfaction as well as in intentions to prematurely quit an assignment"* (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005, p. 273). Their results suggest that lower levels of adjustment are related to withdrawal decisions, explicitly the non-work dimension of general adjustment. The authors suggested exploring the impact of cultural and environmental factors further, which is pursued in this research. Based on the reported findings, one expects expatriates cross-cultural adjustment to be negatively related with all three dimensions of withdrawal intentions.

Previous research has not systematically attempted to examine the relationship between expatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. The only exception is the work of Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), which revealed a negative correlation between expatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Based on this finding, one shall expect individuals less satisfied to be the ones having more intentions to withdraw.

Further arising from Carmeli (2005) work, according to whom organizational culture (e.g., job challenge) is negatively associated with domestic employees' withdrawal intentions; one shall expect organizational culture to influence international employees' withdrawal intentions. In particular, as sociability is a measure of the emotional and non-instrumental relationships among individuals, it is likely to expect that an organizational culture high in sociability will foster individuals' commitment to each other and therefore, will reduce their intentions to withdraw. This influence will be stronger among the members of the company where individuals actually are, so expatriates withdrawal intentions will be more affected by host company sociability, while repatriates withdrawal intentions will be more influenced by home company sociability. Chapter III will detail these hypotheses further.

3) *Expatriates' Performance*

The relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and performance has not been extensively researched. Even if it is reasonable to accept that individuals well adjusted are less uncertain about the new job challenges and more likely to perform, adjustment is not a guarantee of good performance in the assignment tasks. Recognizing the need for research in the area of expatriate success, Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005), attempted to test empirically the relationship between some personal characteristics, such as gender, previous international experience, relational ability, stress tolerance, communicational ability and performance, among Finnish expatriates. The authors found support for a positive association between communicational ability and performance, while the other personal characteristics were not significant predictors of expatriates' performance. Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) meta-analysis showed also adjustment was associated to expatriate performance. Task and relationship performance are positively associated with work, interaction and general adjustment, which confirms the generalized assumption that adjustment is a significant predictor of performance.

A more recent study by Shay and Baack (2006) explored the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and performance, with 153 general managers and 324 host subordinates from multinational hotel firms. Performance measures included expatriates' task and contextual performance assessed by expatriates' self-reports and subordinates' evaluations. The authors found a significant relationship between work adjustment and expatriate self-reports of task performance and a significant relationship between work adjustment and expatriates' contextual performance. These findings provide empirical

evidence for the importance of expatriates' work adjustment in order for the organizations to achieve the assignment business goals.

2.5 Repatriation adjustment

Shen and Edwards (2004) referencing the literature, noted that repatriation could be divided into four phases: "*preparation*", "*physical relocation*", "*transition*" and "*readjustment*" (Shen and Edwards, 2004, p. 821). The first phase - preparation - involves information gathering about the position and the organizational setting upon return. The second phase - physical relocation - involves the effective move of expatriates' and families, breaking the ties built at the destination. This stage is often followed by a transition phase, during which repatriates' and their families find house, schools and re-integrate home country habits. Finally, readjustment is the last stage, which involves repatriates' adjustment to new work and non-work demands, facing a reverse culture shock.

Repatriation adjustment, which has been defined as the degree of psychological comfort an individual feels upon return (Black, 1992; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Vidal, Sans Valle, Aragon and Brewster, 2007), has received a secondary attention, from practitioners and academics, until recently. However, research has indicated that many expatriates find repatriation adjustment more difficult than the initial expatriation adjustment (Napier and Peterson, 1991; Black, 1992; Black and Gregersen, 1992, 1999; Linehan and Scullion, 2002; Shen and Edwards, 2004). Also, The Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report indicated 23% of US repatriates left the company within one year after returning, and 20% left between the first and the second year (GMAC, 2006). These facts draw a picture that put the issue into the research agenda. As with expatriation, repatriation failure has severe costs for organizations, individuals and families.

The Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) model of expatriation adjustment has been applied to repatriation adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b, 1992; Suutari and Valimaa, 2002). Like the original model, the framework applied to repatriation (Black and Gregersen, 1991b, 1992) contains three dimensions of return adjustment: work, interaction, and general adjustment, and four categories of antecedent variables for return-adjustment (individual factors, job factors, organizational factors, and non-work factors). In addition, it distinguishes anticipatory repatriation adjustment from repatriation in-country adjustment. Adopting this categorization, the following sections revise key empirical findings.

2.5.1 Anticipatory repatriation adjustment

As with expatriation, several authors (Black, 1988; Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Black and Gregersen, 1991b; Black, 1992; Black and Gregersen, 1992; Forster, 2000) argue that re-entering home country can create a significant level of uncertainty, because individuals and home environment have changed during the assignment. This uncertainty can also cause distress, which is the origin of a "reverse culture shock". This perspective supports the view that anticipatory factors, such as pre-returning training and time back in the home country, can contribute to form more accurate expectations. These, in turn, would be positively associated with all facets of repatriation adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b, 1992). Conversely, the length of time away from home would negatively affect the formation of expectations, which in turn would affect repatriation adjustment. This relationship was moderated by the frequency of visits to the home country, during the assignment.

More recently, the uncertainty avoidance theory led to the assumptions, empirically confirmed, that returning accurate expectations help enhance organizational commitment (Stroh, Gregersen and Black, 1998, 2000), repatriates' adjustment and performance (Black, 1992; Hyder and Lovblad, 2007).

For instance, Black (1992) found that: (1) repatriates whose expectations were met reported higher levels of repatriation adjustment and performance; (2) overmet expectations regarding job demands were positively associated with repatriates work adjustment and performance, while the opposite was found for job constraint expectations; (3) overmet expectations regarding living and housing conditions were positively associated with repatriates general adjustment and job performance. Overall, this research highlights a spillover effect from job expectations to general adjustment and from general expectations (regarding living and housing conditions) to job performance.

In addition, Hammer, Hart and Rogan (1998) found empirical support for a positive association between positive re-entry expectations and repatriates' and spouses' adjustment and satisfaction.

In this regard, Jassawalla, Connolly and Slojkowski (2004) proposed a model of effective repatriation, derived from interviews to US repatriates. They found managers satisfied with the repatriation process reported high levels of clarity regarding the tasks to perform abroad and the way performance was assessed. In addition, they found more than half of the sample reported lack of clarity regarding the position upon return, which caused

them additional stress. Based on these findings, their model proposed that effective repatriation involves actions prior to departure, during the stay and after return, such as: (1) provide clarity regarding the motives and expected outcomes of the assignment for the company and the individual; (2) afford clarity regarding the expected position upon return; (3) assure clarity regarding expatriation and repatriation policies; (4) offer opportunities for frequent and effective communication with the home company, during the assignment; (5) provide an available sponsor to help reduce conflicts and solve problems, and (6) provide support upon return, so as to assure a return position that indicates the company values repatriates as much as expatriates.

Stroh, Gregersen and Black (1998) have before focused the importance of repatriates' expectations to help increase commitment and reduce repatriation turnover. In their study, with US repatriates, they found accurate and realistic expectations regarding the demands of host position and interpersonal relations with co-workers enhanced individuals' commitment to host and home companies. Similar effects were found regarding clarity about performance demands and job description.

These findings underscore the importance of closing the gap between repatriates expectations and home reality, as a way to keep high commitment and diminish repatriation turnover. Therefore, more research is needed to examine the role of organizational variables (such as organizational culture and return preparation) to form realistic expectations and influence repatriates' and families adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Overall, one would expect, based on the before mentioned findings, that home organizational culture influences repatriates adjustment and withdrawal intentions.

2.5.2 Repatriation adjustment

Return adjustment refers to adjustment made after repatriation (Black and Gregersen, 1992). It is affected by four categories of variables: individual variables, job variables, organizational variables and non-work variables (Black and Gregersen, 1991b, 1992). Next is a summary of the most relevant empirical evidence.

Job factors

Within the category of job factors, the original model (Black *et al.* 1991; Black and Gregersen 1992) predicted and empirically confirmed (Black and Gregersen, 1991b) a positive association between role clarity and role discretion and repatriation work adjustment. Role

discretion was also positively related with repatriates interaction and general adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b). It was predicted and empirically confirmed a negative influence (though not significant) from role conflict and repatriation work adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b). Further evidence (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Suutari and Valimaa, 2002) confirmed the positive relation of role discretion with repatriation work adjustment and the negative influence of role conflict on repatriation interaction and organization adjustment.

Under this category, subsequent research has considered the predictor role of length of time abroad, unrealistic expectations of job opportunities upon return, and reduced work status, on repatriation adjustment difficulties (Forster, 2000). The length of time back in the home country was found to be positively related with work repatriation adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b). Mixed results were obtained for the influence of length of time abroad: time abroad during the last assignment was found to be negatively related with repatriation work adjustment, while total time abroad related negatively with repatriation interaction and general adjustment, but not with work repatriation adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b). Reflecting a different result, Gregersen and Stroh (1997) did not find total years abroad to be a significant predictor of Finnish repatriates' adjustment.

Individual factors

Individual need for control, and self-efficacy, were predicted to be positively associated to all facets of repatriation adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b).

Age was found to be positively related to interaction and general repatriation adjustment (Cox, 2004; Black and Gregersen, 1991b), although Suutari and Valimaa (2002) found a negative association of repatriation adjustment with age.

Cox (2004), quoting several authors, suggested repatriation adjustment is also positively associated with other demographic characteristics, such as gender (male), family status (married), education level, previous transitions and home visits. Cox (2004) also found empirical support for a positive association between repatriation difficulty and younger age and single status. No significant relationships were found between gender, previous international experience and recency of return and repatriation adjustment.

In a study involving interviews to repatriate women, Linehan and Scullion (2002) found added repatriation difficulties associated with female gender; while Hammer *et al.* (1998), found no significant correlation between age and previous international experience and re-entry satisfaction and re-entry difficulties.

As previous results concerning the role of age, gender and marital status are mixed, this research aims to explore further the influence of these demographic variables.

Non-work factors

The first non-work factor considered in the Black *et al.* (1991) model was the novelty of the host culture, which was expected to be negatively related with interaction and general repatriation adjustment. Empirical data partially supports this prediction. Host culture novelty was found to be a significant predictor of repatriates' interaction adjustment and spouses' repatriation adjustment (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997), though Black and Gregersen (1991b) found culture novelty to be unrelated with all facets of repatriation adjustment.

Another non-work factor considered was a downward change in social status, which was found to be negatively related with repatriates' interaction adjustment and with spouses' interaction and general adjustment (Gregersen and Stroh, 1997). Overall, poor return housing conditions was also found to be negatively associated with repatriates' adjustment and spouse return interaction and general adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991b; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997).

Finally, the repatriation model (Black *et al.*, 1991; Black and Gregersen, 1992) predicted and empirically confirmed repatriates and spouses' adjustment are significantly inter-related, during the assignment and upon return (Black and Gregersen, 1991b; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997).

Organizational factors

Within the scope of organizational variables considered in the model (Black and Gregersen, 1992) were included the frequency of communication between home and host companies, the clarity of repatriation policies and procedures, training, and the existence of a sponsor. All these factors were expected to positively contribute to the formation of accurate return expectations, which in turn would enhance anticipatory return adjustment and work adjustment. However, Gregersen and Stroh (1997) did not find support for the hypothesis that clarity of the repatriation process relates to Finnish repatriation adjustment.

Under this category, subsequent research has included repatriation support practices, length of time for role decisions before the end of the international assignment and skills utilization, which were found to be positive predictors of repatriation adjustment (Suutari and Valimaa, 2002).

One exception to the lack of interest for organizational variables was the recent work from Vidal *et al.* (2007). In this research, the authors aimed to understand the influence of some organizational variables, such as return work autonomy and social status, on Spanish repatriates. Overall, 122 repatriates participated in the survey, which collected information regarding their perceived degree of repatriation work adjustment (after two and nine months upon return), satisfaction and turnover intentions. As expected, results indicated that: (1) perceived work adjustment after nine months was strongly influenced by perceived work adjustment after two months; (2) a positive relationship existed between self-efficacy, work autonomy and social status changes after return and repatriation work adjustment; (3) partial support to the hypotheses of a relationship between repatriation work adjustment, satisfaction, performance and turnover intentions. A positive association existed between repatriation work adjustment and performance, but only for work adjustment after two months upon return; while a positive association exists between work repatriation adjustment and satisfaction, but only for adjustment nine months after return. Similarly, repatriation work adjustment was negatively associated with turnover intentions, but only at nine months after return and not at two months after the repatriation. Overall, these results indicate: (1) perceived determinants of repatriation work adjustment depend on time; (2) return work difficulties decrease with time: perceived repatriation work adjustment difficulties after two months are higher than after nine months upon return; (3) the perception of adjustment difficulties at two months after return affects performance, while the persistence of work adjustment difficulties after nine months influence satisfaction and turnover intentions. Besides some research limitations associated with sample characteristics and the use of a cross-sectional design, the Vidal *et al.* (2007) study contributed to repatriation theory and practice by focusing the role organizations can have to enhance or hinder repatriation adjustment, performance and job satisfaction, namely by granting autonomy and social status after return. Their study has also shown the need to consider the time variable in any model of repatriation adjustment.

In light of these findings, one can expect organizational culture to influence repatriates cross-cultural adjustment, which in turn, would influence repatriates general satisfaction, and turnover intentions.

2.5.3 Repatriation adjustment outcomes

The repatriation model developed by Black and Gregersen (1992) includes two repatriation adjustment outcomes: repatriates' performance and turnover. According to the model, the adjustment dimensions closer to the outcomes are the ones with the strongest influence. That is, work return adjustment is the main predictor of work performance and repatriates' turnover. Similarly, Stroh (1995) in an exploratory study involving fifty-one US international human resources specialists found support for a negative association between a corporate culture that value international assignments and career development plans and repatriates turnover. In addition, Stroh (1995) found a positive association between repatriates' turnover and difficulties finding a suitable position upon return.

More recently, Lee and Liu (2006a, 2006b), using a cross-sectional design, empirically tested whether Taiwanese repatriates adjustment, job satisfaction and organizational commitment affected repatriates intentions to leave the organization. The results indicated repatriation adjustment alone accounted for 50 per cent of the variance of the intent to leave, followed by organizational commitment. Although job satisfaction was negatively associated with intent to leave, the regression analysis showed it was not a significant predictor.

In sum, repatriation research has focused mainly the factors that affect repatriation adjustment, especially at work, disregarding the role of organizational practices. Since the organization is the fundamental responsible for managing international assignments, one would expect organizational variables to influence repatriates adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

2.6 Organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment

As described, there is almost no empirical evidence for the influence of organizational culture on expatriates and repatriates cross-cultural adjustment. However, some authors (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Wang and Sangalang, 2005; Wang and Kanungo, 2004; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999) have indirectly approached the subject, studying the link between expatriates' network and social support and cross-cultural adjustment. Social support is often referred in the literature to the helping and friendly relationships of co-workers and supervisors at the destination country (Wang and Sangalang, 2005; Waxin, 2004; Wang and Kanungo, 2004; Andreason, 2003; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). For instance, Shaffer *et al.* (1999) confirmed empirically Black *et al.* (1991) presuppositions

relating co-workers and logistical support with interaction adjustment. Furthermore, they recommended firms should attempt to build a supportive organizational culture, both at home and abroad, to ease expatriates' adjustment. Waxin (2004) found empirical support for a positive relationship between supervisor and partner social support and interaction adjustment. Moreover, she found that when home and host companies are perceived to differ, interaction adjustment is negatively affected though this effect was not statistically significant. Additionally, she found that when home and host countries' culture differed (she named this the direct effect of culture-of-origin) interaction adjustment was negatively affected. Culture-of-origin accounted for 8% of interaction adjustment variance. Culture-of-origin had also a moderator effect on several antecedents of interaction adjustment (e.g., supervisory support, co-workers support, partner support, openness capacity, and social orientation). Furthermore, the antecedents that significantly influenced interaction adjustment were not the same for all countries-of-origin. For example, for Korean expatriates, supervisors' social support helped them adjust better to interacting with locals, while for the Scandinavians, which helped them adjust was partner social support (Waxin, 2004).

The theory of uncertainty avoidance might help explain the positive impact of social support on cross-cultural adjustment by the fact that social support provides expatriates with the information about the new environment they need to reduce uncertainty and facilitate their adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Andreason, 2003). However, more research is needed not only on the influence of organizational culture dissimilarity as on the influence of a supportive organizational culture on all facets of adjustment and adjustment outcomes.

CHAPTER III - THEORETICAL MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The previous chapter has reviewed the literature on culture and cross-cultural adjustment pertinent to the theoretical model underlining this work. Based on the before mentioned review, this research explores the relationship between organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

Therefore, the pertinent research questions are:

a) *What factors are perceived to influence international assignments selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and return, among expatriates and repatriates?*

b) *What are the effects of organizational culture (namely the dimensions of sociability and solidarity) on work, interaction and general adjustment, among expatriates and repatriates?*

c) *Does culture novelty moderate the influence of organizational culture? How is it related with cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction with the assignment and intentions to withdraw?*

d) *Is cross-cultural adjustment an antecedent of general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions among expatriates and repatriates?*

e) *Does organizational culture (namely the sociability and solidarity dimensions) influence international assignees' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?*

f) *To what extent does repatriation adjustment differ from expatriation adjustment?*

This chapter presents in detail the theoretical model of this research and describes the hypotheses.

3.1 Theoretical model

It was contended that there are, at least, four important gaps in the literature on cross-cultural adjustment. The first gap relates to the mode of adjustment that is, to the behaviors actually used by expatriates and repatriates to adjust as to the factors perceived to affect their adjustment along the different stages of an assignment cycle. Though it is beyond the scope of this research to detail the adjustment process as the coping skills used by international employees to deal with adjustment challenges, results from Study I, which contain qualitative data derived from the interviews to Portuguese international managers, may provide additional insights to this issue.

A second gap lies on the lack of evidence on the influence of a critical organizational factor, such as organizational culture, on expatriates and repatriates' degree and modes of adjustment. More specifically, there is no evidence of the influence of organizational culture on the degree of adjustment. In this respect, present research specifically tests this relationship, in particular the influence of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on cross-cultural adjustment and adjustment outcomes.

A third gap concerns the limited evidence of the relationships between adjustment and some outcomes, as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, which is also accounted for in this research.

Finally, a fourth gap relates to obtaining empirical evidence on cross-cultural adjustment for expatriates and repatriates from non-US samples (Suutari and Brewster, 1998; 2001; Scullion and Brewster, 2001; Bonache, Brewster and Suutari, 2001), which is also considered in this investigation. This research uses data collected from Portuguese international workers and expatriates and repatriates from several nationalities.

Overall, the literature revealed a persistent trend to understate the role organizations play on international employees' cross-cultural adjustment. Apparently, adjustment difficulties are to be blame on the individual lack of adequate skills, on the job, on the spouse or family lack of adjustment or on the difficulty of the destination culture. Organizations are seldom accountable for these setbacks, even if they pay a human and economic price.

Having examined the main antecedents and outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment and presented a framework of organizational culture, Figure 4 describes the theoretical model guiding this research.

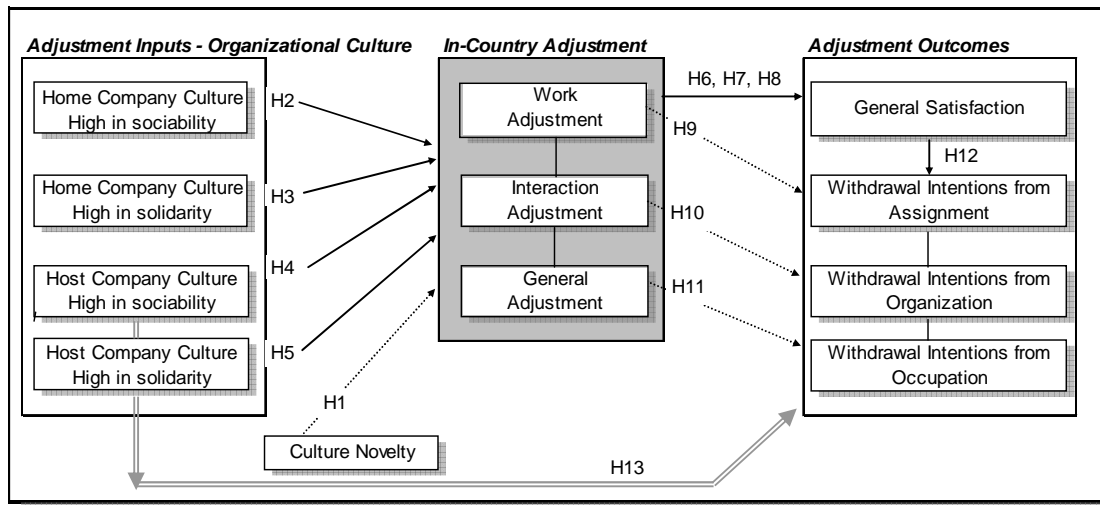


Figure 4 - Theoretical model: hypothesis and main variables

Different from the existing body of research on cross-cultural adjustment, this research investigates concurrently expatriation and repatriation adjustment. It does so, with two separated studies. Study I involved semi-structured interviews, with the aim to identify Portuguese expatriates and repatriates perceptions of their international assignments, and explore the factors perceived to affect cross-cultural adjustment. Study II quantitatively tested the influence of organizational culture dimensions of sociability, and solidarity and their interaction with the other research variables, using an international sample of expatriates and repatriates.

In this investigation, organizational culture is based on the work of Goffee and Jones (1998), while the international adjustment concepts are based on the work of Black *et al.* (1991). Withdrawal intentions are based on the work of Carmeli (2005).

Based on the framework of organizational culture developed by Goffee and Jones (1998), two dimensions characterize organizational cultures: sociability and solidarity, which combines to form four types of cultures: (1) communal, (2) networked, (3) fragmented, and (4) mercenary.

In relation to culture novelty, it is assessed as the perceived difference between home and host destination countries on some items, such as climate, shopping, general living conditions, language and religion. This measure adopts the dimensions used by other authors (Torbiorn, 1982; Black and Stephens, 1989; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Black and Gregersen, 1991a).

Based on the typology of Black and Stephens (1989) (see also Black *et al.*, 1991), there are three dimensions for cross-cultural adjustment: (1) work-adjustment, (2) interaction adjustment and (3) general or cultural adjustment.

Finally, adjustment outcomes include general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. General satisfaction assesses individuals' contentment regarding the assignment, while three dimensions compose withdrawal intentions: withdrawal intentions from the job/assignment, withdrawal intentions from the organization and withdrawal intentions from occupation (Blau, 2000; Carmeli, 2005).

3.2 Research hypotheses

The research model contains 13 hypotheses which are detailed next.

In line with the Black *et al.* (1991) model, the first hypothesis assumes a negative relationship between culture novelty (e.g., perceived national culture differences), and expatriates and repatriates' adjustment. This assumption was empirically tested and confirmed (e.g., Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), though some recent studies did not find support for this negative association (Selmer, 2007, 2006a; Jun and Gentry, 2005). With regard to repatriation, Black and Gregersen (1991b) found culture novelty to be unrelated with repatriation adjustment. Considering this mix empirical evidence, one expects cultural differences between home and destination countries to influence negatively expatriation and repatriation adjustment. Therefore, the hypotheses tested are:

H1E: *National culture novelty will be negatively associated with: (a) Expatriates' work adjustment; (b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment, and (c) Expatriates' general adjustment.*

H1R: *National culture novelty will be negatively associated with: (a) Repatriates' work adjustment; (b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment, and (c) Repatriates' general adjustment.*

The theoretical model also focuses the antecedents of adjustment, namely the relationship between organizational culture, and expatriates and repatriates' adjustment (H2 to H5).

Within the organizational antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment, "support" has been the variable most extensively examined. For instance, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) found a positive and significant association between co-workers social support and expatriation adjustment, and Kraimer *et al.* (2001) found a positive correlation between perceived

organizational support and expatriates adjustment. Regarding repatriation, research has specifically examined repatriation support practices, which were found to be positive predictors of repatriation adjustment (Suutari and Valimaa, 2002). With regard to the influence of organizational culture, a negative relationship between organizational culture novelty and adjustment was stated (Black *et al.*, 1991) but remains untested, based on the difficulty of distinguishing organizational culture novelty from cultural novelty in general (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). To this purpose, the organizational culture framework of Goffee and Jones (1998) might provide an adequate reference to determine whether organizational culture influences cross-cultural adjustment. According to this model, sociability is defined as a measure of friendliness among group members, while solidarity is defined as a measure of relatedness to achieve common interests. If, as referred, a supportive organizational culture eases cross-cultural adjustment (e.g. Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001), one shall expect that an organizational culture high in sociability to positively influence cross-cultural adjustment. This positive influence should persist, regardless of national cultural differences among home and destination countries. Therefore, high sociability at destination would positively influence expatriates adjustment. Conversely, high home sociability would positively influence repatriates cross-cultural adjustment. Moreover, if one accepts organizational and co-workers social support has a spillover effect, high sociability might have a positive influence not only on work adjustment, but also on expatriates and repatriates interaction and general adjustment. Therefore, a high sociability destination company should be positively related with expatriates' adjustment to work and non-work environments as to interacting with locals. Similarly, high sociability at home shall be positively related with repatriates work, interaction and general adjustment.

With regard to solidarity, it is contend it exists in work and non-work environments, and emerges whenever people share common interests and perceive the benefits of pursuing them collectively (Goffee and Jones, 1998). In the context of expatriation, one would expect solidarity to have a limited influence outside work, because expatriates and locals would hardly share common goals outside the work environment. Therefore, one expects a home and host organizational culture high in solidarity to be positively associated with expatriates and repatriates' work adjustment.

Therefore, the following hypotheses are stated for expatriates (E) and repatriates(R):

H2E: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with: (a) Expatriates' work adjustment; (b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment, and (c) Expatriates' general adjustment.*

H3E: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.*

H4E: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with: (a) Expatriates' work adjustment; (b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment, and (c) Expatriates' general adjustment.*

H5E: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.*

H2R: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with: (a) Repatriates' work adjustment; (b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment, and (c) Repatriates' general adjustment.*

H3R: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with repatriates' work adjustment.*

H4R: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with: (a) Repatriates' work adjustment; (b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment; (c) Repatriates' general adjustment.*

H5R: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with repatriates' work adjustment.*

Additionally, the theoretical model tests the outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment. It states that adjustment affects expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction (H6 to H8) and withdrawal intentions (H9 to H11).

Regarding general satisfaction, the literature indicates job satisfaction is a positive outcome of work and interaction adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) and is negatively related to expatriates' intention to return early (Takeushi *et al.*, 2002). Arising from these findings, one expects cross-cultural adjustment to have a positive influence on general satisfaction, that is, well-adjusted expatriates and repatriates are expected to be more satisfied with the assignment.

H6E: *Expatriates' work adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

H7E: *Expatriates' interaction adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

H8E: *Expatriates' general adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

H6R: *Repatriates' work adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

H7R: *Repatriates' interaction adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

H8R: *Repatriates' general adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

With regard to withdrawal intentions, several studies indicated a significant and negative relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and expatriates' intention to return before the completion of the assignment (Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005). For instance, Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak (2005) found a negative relationship between work and general adjustment and Japanese expatriates' intentions to return earlier from US, and the results from Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) suggest that lower levels of adjustment are related to withdrawal decisions, explicitly the non-work dimension of general adjustment. Therefore, well-adjusted international employees are expected to remain longer in the assignment or present job, in the organization and in their present occupation. The establishment of this distinction between the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions (Carmeli, 2005) is useful to determine the relationships between the research variables. Based on the reported findings, one expects cross-cultural adjustment to be negatively related with all three dimensions of withdrawal intentions, as follows:

H9E: *Expatriates' work adjustment will be negatively associated with: (a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and (c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

H10E: *Expatriates' interaction adjustment will be negatively associated with; (a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and (c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

H11E: Expatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

H9R: Repatriates' work adjustment will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

H10R: Repatriates' interaction adjustment will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

H11R: Repatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

The model also assumes a negative association between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions (H12), based on the work of Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), who found a negative correlation between general satisfaction and expatriates' intention to return early. Therefore, satisfied expatriates and repatriates are expected to reveal fewer intentions to withdraw from the assignment, the organization and the occupation, as follows:

H12E: Expatriates general satisfaction will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

H12R: Repatriates general satisfaction will be negatively associated with: **(a)** Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; **(b)** Withdrawal intentions from the organization, and **(c)** Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

Finally, sociability is expected to influence expatriates and repatriates withdrawal intentions (H13). Based on previous research from Carmeli (2005), who found that organizational culture (e.g., job challenge) was negatively associated with withdrawal intentions among domestic employees, it is expected that organizational culture influences withdrawal intentions, after accounting for the effects of the control variables, such as culture novelty, business and respondents demographic characteristics. Specifically, one expects a negative association between sociability and withdrawal intentions, because the existence of strong relationship ties between co-workers shall decrease individuals' intentions to withdraw. This influence will be stronger among the members of the company where individuals really

are, so expatriates will be more affected by host company sociability and repatriates will be more affected by home company sociability. Therefore, the following two hypotheses are proposed, for expatriates and repatriates:

H13E: *A host organizational culture high in sociability will be negatively associated with: (a) Expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (b) Expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the organization, and (c) Expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

H13R: *A home organizational culture high in sociability will be negatively associated with: (a) Repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (b) Repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the organization, and (c) Repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

Control variables

As discussed in Chapter II, empirical evidence showed demographic variables such as age, gender, marital status, level of education, years in the organization, job position, language fluency and previous international experience, influence cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Black *et al.*, 1991; Selmer and Leung, 2003a, 2003b; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Selmer, 2006b). Therefore, the effects of these demographic variables together with spouse adjustment, cross-cultural training and tenure will be controlled.

CHAPTER IV - METHODOLOGY

The preceding chapters reviewed the various theories related to the research questions and presented the research model and hypotheses. It is worth mentioning that many of the theories described were developed from US and Japanese multinationals, which confirms the paucity of research conducted with international workers from other countries. This thesis thus seeks to provide further insights about the factors influencing cross-cultural adjustment among Portuguese international workers, and empirically test the research hypotheses with an international sample of expatriates and repatriates. It proposes to test the relevance of the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity as antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Thus, the research model is tested through a qualitative and quantitative approach.

The adopted methodology is described and explained in this chapter. Overall, the chapter contains three sections: section 1 presents the triangulation methodology, its justification and limitations bearing in mind the research problem and literature review; while section 2 and section 3 describe administration procedures, subjects and data procedures for respectively Study I and Study II.

4.1 Triangulation

The use of different methodological approaches to research a question, with the purpose of extending and deepening the existing knowledge, has been named triangulation (Oppermannt, 2000; Shih, 1998; Denzin, 1978). Different triangulation approaches exist (Oppermannt, 2000), namely: (1) methodological triangulation, which refers to the use of more than one research method to measure the same phenomenon; (2) data triangulation, which refers to the use of the same approach for different data; and (3) researcher triangulation, which refers to the use of investigators with different backgrounds. Triangulation in social research has been used for two purposes: confirmation and completeness (Shih, 1998; Oppermannt, 2000). The use of triangulation for the purpose of confirmation, aims to overcome the fundamental bias associated with single-method or single theory studies. The use of different data or methods aims to combine their benefits and decrease their known limitations, to assert that *“once a proposition has been confirmed by two or more independent measurement processes, the uncertainty of its interpretation is greatly reduced”* (Webb,

Campbell, Schwartz, Sechrest and Grove, 1981, p. 35). In addition, triangulation can also be used for the purpose of completeness. In this case, data or methods combination aim to obtain an enlarged and enriched understanding of the phenomenon under research. For instance, multiple data often do not confirm each other, which is exactly what can generate new insights about a complex topic.

In this research, triangulation is used for the purpose of completeness. Having identified some gaps in the literature on cross-cultural adjustment, such as the lack of evidence on the influence of organizational culture on cross-cultural adjustment, and the limited evidence of the effects of adjustment on general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions; triangulation is used to enlarge and enrich the knowledge of these relationships.

This research uses data and method triangulation as qualitative and quantitative methods were used and data were gathered from Portuguese and international expatriates and repatriates. Two studies, described below, tested the theoretical model.

Study I, adopted a qualitative methodology to explore the hypothesized relationships. In this study, 15 Portuguese expatriates and 15 Portuguese repatriates were questioned about their international experiences. In addition to overall impressions, they were asked about the organizational culture of home and host companies, the cross-cultural adjustment during and after return, and their perceptions of the outcomes of their assignments. It was predicted that the organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity would emerge as determinants of cross-cultural adjustment.

Study II attempted to demonstrate, through a quantitative methodology, that organizational culture influences cross-cultural adjustment, which in turn affects general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Towards this purpose, an on-line survey collected data from 221 international workers, employed in 13 multinationals and assigned to 39 different countries.

The integrated use of qualitative and quantitative methods within a single research has been subject to debate. To the opponents of this integrated use (e.g., Lee, 1992) qualitative and quantitative methods derive from different ontological and epistemological assumptions that can hardly combine. Qualitative approaches are based on subjectivity and phenomenology, while quantitative approaches are based on objectivity and positivism. In addition, the aims of inquiry, the role of the researcher and the relationship with respondents diverge. Qualitative approaches entail a close relationship with respondents from an inside

researcher, while quantitative approaches involve a detached relationship with respondents from an outside researcher (Lee, 1992). Finally, research methods differ: to the qualitative approach, descriptions assure the subjectivity and the in depth meaning associated to human behavior; to quantitative approaches, statistics assure objectivity and universality. Therefore, qualitative and quantitative methodologies are mutually exclusive.

To the supporters of an integrative view (e.g., Das Hari, 1983; Lacity and Janson, 1994), qualitative and quantitative methodologies are not mutually exclusive and can actually be complementary. In fact, qualitative research designs can contribute to quantitative approaches, in several ways, such as:

- (1) Add a more holistic view of the phenomenon under investigation, as a holistic approach assumes the whole is different from the sum of the parts;
- (2) Allow the researcher to get closer to individuals and consequently to data;
- (3) Allow the assessment of the phenomenon from individuals' point of view, as they experience it along time;
- (4) May generate new data, which can explain quantitative results and form the basis for new hypothesis;
- (5) Can identify inter-relationships and add clarity into overly complex theoretical frameworks.

In addition, quantitative approaches can contribute to qualitative methodologies, through the prescription of more formalized evidence of validity. For instance, Lacity and Janson (1994) argue that qualitative text analysis can be approached by positivist, linguistic and interpretivist methods. A positivist text approach assumes: (1) language corresponds to an objective reality, that is, meaning is objective; (2) the understanding of the phenomenon derives from non-random variations in the text; (3) the researcher is an outsider capable of interpreting a text, and (4) validity checks can be made to a text. An example of this text positivist approach is thematic content analysis.

According to Lee (1992, p. 88), *"the selection of method implies some view of the situation being studied"*, and *"it is important that we, the researchers, be fully aware of the assumptions upon which our own perspective is based"* (Lee, 1992, p. 93). Therefore, is important to note that the assumptions underlying this research are positivist in nature. Moreover, it is believed the use of data and method triangulation is a promising approach to:

(1) Assess an objective reality, such as cross-cultural adjustment, its antecedents and outcomes;

(2) Understand the phenomenon of cross-cultural adjustment through the test of hypothesis and through the search of systematic references derived from thematic content analysis of semi-structured interviews;

(3) Enrich the understanding of the research questions, since it allows for new or deeper dimensions to emerge, and

(4) Lessen some methodological biases derived by the combination of a cross-sectional design and a single method.

The combination of multiple data and research methods can contribute to a better understanding of the phenomenon under research. The advantages of qualitative methods are usually reflected in an increase awareness of the phenomenon in its full complexity, even if generalizations beyond the used sample are limited. The benefits of quantitative methods are usually associated with increased objectivity, reliability and validity, allowing for enlarged generalizations from data. A multi-method approach, as it is used, is expected to uncover new or unexpected relationships, which might lead to new insights and explanations relating to antecedents and outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment. This, in turn, is expected to confer more confidence about the results (Oppermann, 2000).

This research, at best, aims to join these benefits without increasing the likelihood of their weaknesses. Therefore, the adopted multi-method, multi-data approach, aims to: (1) apply appropriate methods to explore the research questions; (2) obtain more in depth information about the research questions; (3) derive the benefits of qualitative and quantitative methods, and (4) overcome practical limitations (e.g., time and cost) associated to the contacts with an international sample.

Nevertheless, some added limitations deserve further explanation, because triangulation is not, necessarily, a guarantee of increased rigor. In fact, the combined use of qualitative and quantitative methods requires:

(1) Increased expertise from researchers about the use of the selected techniques;

(2) Increased time and money constraints, as multi-data collection methods are costly and time consuming,

(3) Increased complexity with regards to methods design, and especially data analysis and interpretation; and

(4) Finally, increased difficulties to interpret linked and opposing results.

To overcome these limitations, some authors (Shih, 1998; Mitchell, 1986) have recommended some strategies, which are followed in this research. First, they recommended the separate analysis of each type of data (qualitative and quantitative), in accordance with the principles of analysis pertinent to each approach. In line with this recommendation, chapters V and VI describe and discuss, separately, results from Study I and Study II. The second recommendation is to decide how to merge the two types of important variables, namely to use a statistical or a conceptual approach. This research adopts a conceptual approach, since it uses triangulation for the purpose of completeness, to obtain a comprehensive understanding of organizational culture as an antecedent of cross-cultural adjustment. Therefore, next sections describe separately the methodology followed in each study including the administration procedures, sample and measures used. Accordingly, chapters V and VI present the key findings from Study I and Study II, further discussed in chapter VII.

4.2 Study I

To explore the interactions between variables foreseen in the theoretical model, Study I uses a qualitative methodology based on thematic content analysis. This technique is useful to support inferences from raw data about the senders and the message. In this case, content analysis focuses the content of semi-structured interviews to Portuguese expatriates and repatriates.

4.2.1 Procedure

Due to the complexity of the subject under research, that is the large number of potentially relevant variables and relations between them, the interviews were designed along a pre-defined guide (see APPENDIX I - Interview guide of Study I), allowing participants to express their perspective on the topics and name neglected variables or relationships. The interview guide was designed to ensure completeness in covering the topics around the international assignment cycle and did not require answers in a predefined sequence. Subjects were selected based on theoretical and convenience criteria, not statistical, to allow for the emergence of differences related with their distinct characteristics (e.g., age, gender, previous international experience, etc.). The selection criteria were: (1) being a corporate

expatriate (e.g., working and living temporarily abroad, on behalf of a corporation); (2) being a corporate repatriate (e.g., having returned within the last 18 months) to help recall information on the last assignment; (3) having Portugal as home country, and (4) being available to participate in a semi-structured interview. Finally, to determine the number of subjects, a theoretical saturation rule was followed: individuals were included until the point where each new interview did not add relevant information to earlier data (Eisenhardt, 1989).

Interviews were conducted between September 2006 and January 2007. They had an average duration of 110 minutes, ranging from 50 to 150 minutes. They were all tape-recorded, transcribed and subsequently analyzed using the NVivo 7.0 software package.

In order to diminish the potential interviewer-induced bias in the collection of data, two actions were taken. The first was the execution of all interviews by the same interviewer and the second was the exclusive focus on Portuguese respondents. The selection of expatriates from other countries, assigned to Portugal, was considered and abandoned, after a pilot test. As checked, interviews would have had to be made in other languages and would be subject to stronger interviewer bias as, for instance, individuals felt less comfortable to discuss most disliked aspects related with the destination country.

4.2.2 Subjects

Subjects were 15 Portuguese expatriates and 15 Portuguese repatriates, aged from 28 to 57, who met the selection criteria and volunteered to participate in this research. With the exception of one expatriate, all possess college education and six people have an MBA. Five females (four repatriates and one expatriate) and twenty-five male compose the sample. The number of females in this sample (16.7%) is slightly above the usual representation of females in the international workforce (9% to 14% on average, according to some surveys (e.g., PriceWaterhouseCoopers, 2000), though below most recent data, which indicates a percentage around 23% (GMAC, 2006). Regarding civil status, twenty-one people were married and nine single. At the moment of the interview, they occupied positions ranging from professional and technical posts (7 people), line and middle management (2 people), senior management (13 people) and top management (8 people). The average assignment duration was 36.6 months, ranging from a minimum of ten months to a maximum of seven years. Participants worked for nine different companies: four multinationals operating in Portugal and five national (and private) companies. Even if all participants originated from Portugal, their

assignments were to ten host countries: Brazil (11 people), France (7 people), Germany (3 people), Canada (3 people), Angola, Czech Republic, Hungary, China, UK and UAE (1 person each). This diversity in destinations is larger than the foremost group of countries of direct foreign Portuguese investment (Gago *et al.*, 2004). Detailed demographic data is in APPENDIX II - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study I.

4.2.3 Measures

As the current study is mainly theory-driven, it aims to look for refinements to existing theory on the role of organizational factors on adjustment and search for explanations. Therefore, the interviews were designed along a pre-defined guide (see APPENDIX I - Interview guide of Study I), which contained 25 open questions. These questions followed the topics related with the assignment cycle, that is, selection, preparation, adjustment and return. Consistent with the aims of this investigation, all interviewees were asked about the factors perceived to affect (in any way) their cross-cultural adjustment. Further, they were also invited to describe home and host organizational cultures, to indicate the most liked and disliked aspects (which was an indication of their satisfaction), the reasons, which could lead them to leave the assignment earlier (which was an indication of their withdrawal intentions), and whether they would repeat and recommend an assignment to others.

All interviews were recorded, transcribed and subject to thematic content analyses. The rules and procedures used to apply this technique are further detailed in chapter V, namely in section 5.1. Overall, it was considered the presence and absence of themes (classified in categories) and the analysis of co-occurrences and differences related with respondents' demographic characteristics. Chapter V describes the most important results following from the application of this method.

4.3 Study II

The methodology used in Study II to test the theoretical model and hypotheses was quantitative and used the hierarchical multiple regression. This technique is used to determine the influence of multiple independent variables, in this case home and host organizational culture dimensions, culture novelty and demographic variables. In this model, the predictors of expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment were determined, as well as its outcomes, namely general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. The hierarchical multiple

regression approach is more appropriate than single correlation analyses to theory testing. Therefore, the purpose is to determine whether: (1) organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity are associated with and explain part of the variance of expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, and withdrawal intentions; (2) expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment is associated with and explain part of the variance of general satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions; (3) organizational culture dimensions are associated with and explain part of the variance of withdrawal intentions. To these purposes, statistical analyses were carried out using the SPSS statistical computer package, version 12.

4.3.1 Procedure

For Study II, several contacts with international companies were made. The sample was drawn from contacts with Human Resource Managers registered with the Society for Human Resource Management (SHRM), which includes more than 200,000 members worldwide. Although the directory did not list all Human Resource Professionals, many international and multinational companies have an HR professional registered there. This source was used as other directories are usually not available for information or research purposes and SHRM comprises a broad international scope. For this purpose, all registered international HR managers and HR vice-presidents from Europe, North America (USA and Canada) and Asia (Singapore, China, Japan, India) were e-mailed. Members from United Arab Emirates, South Africa and Brazil were also included. These countries were selected based on two criteria: (1) their international activity and the likelihood of finding companies employing international workers, and (2) the number of registered HR professionals at the SHRM. In total, 1509 personalized e-mail messages were sent out, between August and December 2006, asking for support to a research on "Expatriates and repatriates' adjustment" (see APPENDIX III - Administration procedure of Study II, for details). The e-mail contained a link to the on-line survey as three attachments: (1) a file containing a brief project presentation; (2) a letter presenting the research team, and (3) an illustration of the company report freely offered to those companies who engage a minimum of ten complete replies. From the 1509 messages sent, a total of 13 HR representatives agreed to engage their companies in this study, which yields an overall response rate of 8.62%. This percentage is smaller than other studies using the same database (e.g., SHRM 2006-2007 Workplace Forecast), although it is within the range of other cross-cultural mail surveys (Harzing, 1997;

2000b; Arthur and Bennett, 1995). From these international companies, three are based in the US, six are based in Europe, one is from South America and the remaining three are based in Asia. Altogether, they represent different industries, such as manufacturing (pharmaceuticals, automotive and electronic), telecommunications and services.

4.3.2 Subjects

As the human resource representatives from the 13 participating companies sent the questionnaire to a total of 445 international employees (e.g., expatriates and repatriates returned within the last 18 months), this procedure resulted in a total number of 222 completed questionnaires, yielding a response rate of 49.9%. The final sample comprises 221 individuals (a response rate of 49.7%), as one case was drop from the final sample, for representing someone definitively relocated to destination. This response rate is comparable to other studies on cross-cultural adjustment (Black and Gregersen, 1991a, 1991b; Black, 1992; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Stahl, Miller and Tung, 2002). Overall, 166 respondents were expatriates (yielding a response rate of 49.7%) and 55 were repatriates (yielding a response rate of 50.9%). Altogether, expatriates represented 75.1% of the research sample and repatriates 24.9%. The 221 respondents were from 29 different nationalities and were assigned to 39 countries. As company identification was optional, from this 221 replies, 69 individuals (31.2%) identified their company, while 152 (68.8%) omitted that information. Because these two sub-samples did not differ significantly on demographic characteristics' and the dependent variables (e.g., cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions), they formed one single research sample.

On the whole, 164 individuals were male (74.2%) and 57 were female (25.8%), the majority of whom were married (135 - 63.1%) or living with a partner (23 - 10.7%). The number of females in this study is slightly above the usual rate in the international workforce, which is usually 14% to 23% (e.g., GMAC, 2006). The average respondents' age was 40.97 years, ranging from 20 to 68 years. The female respondents reported an average age of 37.56 years, ranging from 25 to 62 years.

In general, respondents had obtained high levels of education, with 101 (47.4%) having earned a post graduate degree, 29 (13.6%) having earned some post graduation, 64 (30%) having a college degree and 13 (6.1%) having less than a college degree. The majority of these respondents originated from large organizations, with 144 (65.2%) indicating that their

home organization operated in more than 16 countries and 111 (50.2%) mentioning that the company employed more than 20,000 people. There was no relationship between gender, type of assignment and company identification and the dependent variables: cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Also, the two sub-samples, expatriates and repatriates, do not significantly differ based on age, gender, marital status, education, international experience, tenure in the organization, family situation, organization industry and organization size. Overall, the demographics of this sample are similar to those reported in other studies with expatriates and repatriates (Black and Gregersen, 1991a, 1991b; Black, 1992; Gregersen and Stroh, 1997; Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Selmer and Leung, 2003b). Further details on sample demographics are on APPENDIX IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II.

4.3.3 Measures

A survey instrument was designed to collect information on the dependent and independent variables. The language of the questionnaire was English since it is the business language spoken in most multinationals.

The questionnaire was pre-tested. The purpose of the piloting stage was to test the preliminary version on a small sample of potential respondents (expatriates and repatriates), people knowledgeable about the subject and people without knowledge of the subject (research colleagues). The pilot study involved the participation of 80 international workers who belonged to several Yahoo groups related with the issue of expatriation. They were asked to complete the questionnaire and provide written feedback. This feedback as comments from research colleagues proved to be very useful. Comments were beneficial in identifying where the questionnaire wording was difficult to understand, where the language was incorrect, where the answering process was felt to be unclear or boring and where questions invited multiple interpretations.

In this research, all measures were collected using a self-administered questionnaire (see details in APPENDIX III - Administration procedure of Study II). The questionnaire contains 35 questions organized in six sections.

Section 1 contains the measures of *organizational culture*, both at home (question 1) and destination companies (question 4). The respondents were asked to indicate how strongly did they agree or disagree with 23 statements relative to their companies, on a five-point Likert

scale from: (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. These items measured home and host sociability and solidarity, as suggested by Goffee and Jones (1998).

Section 2 assessed *national culture novelty*, adopting the original eight items measure proposed by Torbiorn (1982) and later adapted by Black and Stephens (1989) and Shaffer *et al.* (1999). In this measure, culture novelty corresponds to respondents' perceived cultural differences among home and destination countries, on eight items: (1) everyday customs, (2) general living conditions, (3) using health care facilities, (4) transportation systems, (5) general living costs, (6) available quality and type of food, (7) climate and (8) general housing conditions. To this original measure, eight items were added to increase scale reliability. The items are: (9) language(s), (10) education facilities and opportunities, (11) socializing on a day-to-day basis, (12) entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities, (13) work facilities and opportunities, (14) communication system(s), (15) political system(s) and (16) religion(s). Subjects responded using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) highly similar to (5) highly different.

Section 3 used Black and Stephens (1989) measures of *cross-cultural adjustment*, that is, work adjustment, interaction adjustment and general adjustment, which had been widely used (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black, 1990; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). This section includes 14 items to assess cross-cultural adjustment, on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from (1) highly unadjusted to (7) highly adjusted. Three items measured work adjustment: (1) performance standards and expectations, (2) specific job responsibilities' and (3) supervisory responsibilities. Four items measured interaction adjustment: (1) speaking with local nationals, (2) interacting with local nationals outside of work, (3) interacting with local nationals in general and (4) socializing with local nationals. Finally, seven items assessed general adjustment: (1) housing conditions, (2) shopping, (3) food, (4) cost of living, (5) living conditions in general, (6) health care facilities and (7) entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities.

A measure for *spouse' adjustment* was also included (question 5) as a moderator variable. Eleven items assessed spouse's adjustment, similar to the above mentioned for interaction and general adjustment. A seven-point Likert scale was used, as respondents were asked to rate their spouse's adjustment, ranging from (1) highly unadjusted to (7) highly adjusted.

Section 4 consists of *business demographic data*. Several organizational demographic variables were included in this study, as moderator variables. These variables are: company name (optional to preserve privacy), organization industry, organization size (defined by the worldwide company's revenues, total number of employees and expatriates), and organizational geographical dispersion (measured by home-office country, length of the foreign investment in the destination country and number of countries where the organization operates). In addition, respondents were asked to indicate their perceptions on the company stage of internationalization. This was a nominal variable, based on the previous work of Harzing (2000a) and Pinto (2005), which was coded in five levels: (1) national company, (2) export company, (3) multidomestic company, (4) global company, (5) transnational company, and (6) other.

Section 5 includes *individual demographic characteristics*. Several personal demographic variables were included in this study, as moderator variables. *Age* was reported according to the respondents' age. *Gender* was a dichotomous variable, coded (1) for male and (2) for female. *Marital status* was a nominal variable, coded (1) for single, (2) for married, (3) for living with a partner, (4) divorced, and (5) widow. *Education level* was a nominal variable, coded as follows: (1) less than high school, (2) high school graduate, (3) some college, undergraduate, (4) college graduate, (5) some post graduate and (6) post-graduate. Respondents were asked to identify their *present situation* (a nominal variable), which was coded: (1) expatriate, (2) repatriate, and (3) other. *Previous international experience* was assessed as the total number of years of previous international experience excluding the present assignment. *Organizational and position tenure* were measured by the total number of years an individual had been employed in the organization (including the present assignment) and the total number of years he or she had been occupying the present position. *Tenure in the present assignment* was also asked, if different from tenure in the present position. *Birth country, employer home country* (if different from birth country) and *destination country* were nominal variables reported according to respondents' answers. *Job positions* before, during and after the assignment were three nominal variables, coded: (1) clerical and administrative support, (2) sales and related occupations, (3) staff and specialty occupations, (4) professionals and technical, (5) junior management, (6) line and middle management, (7) senior management, and (8) top management. Respondents were asked to indicate whether they have received any *cross-cultural training* before the present assignment, which was a

dichotomous variable coded: (1) for no pre-leaving training and (2) for training provided. In this case, they were asked to indicate the number of hours received before leaving. Additionally, respondents were asked three dichotomous questions related with their *careers at the company*, namely if their last assignment included a promotion, if the reassignment to home country included a promotion and whether they had any difficulty in finding a suitable position within their companies' upon the assignment completion. These variables were coded (0) for not applicable, (1) yes, and (2) no. In relation to the *family*, respondents were asked if their spouse's and child were abroad with them, and had worked before and during the assignment, which were coded: (0) for not applicable, (1) yes, and (2) no. Respondents also rated their local *language proficiency*, on a four point-Likert scale, from (1) poor to (4) proficient.

Section 6 includes *withdrawal intentions* measures and *overall satisfaction* with the international assignment. Following the procedure suggested by Carmeli (2005), three dimensions of withdrawal intentions were studied: (1) withdrawal intentions from the job/assignment, (2) withdrawal intentions from the organization, and (3) withdrawal intentions from the occupation. Three items composed each variable and responses were made on a five-point Likert scale from: (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Sample items, used for withdrawal intentions from the present assignment, were: "*I think a lot of leaving the present assignment*"; "*I am actively searching for an alternative to the present assignment*"; and "*As soon as it is possible, I will leave the present assignment*". Similar items were created for withdrawal intentions from the organization and withdrawal intentions from the occupation. In relation to *overall satisfaction* with the international assignment, it was used a measure based on Bonache (2005). Five items herein compose overall satisfaction: "*I am satisfied with my international assignment*", "*I would take the same international assignment again*", "*I would recommend this international assignment to a friend*", "*This international assignment measures up to my expectations*", and "*My overall satisfaction with the present assignment is excellent*". To answer, respondents used a five-point Likert scale, ranging from (1) strongly disagrees to (5) strongly agrees.

The questionnaire takes approximately 20 minutes to fill and was made available through the link to a web site.

Having described the methodology followed, the next two chapters describe the main results.

CHAPTER V - RESULTS OF STUDY I

While chapter III identified the research questions and hypotheses underlining this thesis, chapter IV described the systematic approach used to investigate them. Namely, section 4.2 of chapter IV has described the qualitative methodology used in Study I, which aimed to answer the research questions through the perceptions of Portuguese expatriates and repatriates. In short, the questions investigated in Study I are:

- a) *What factors are perceived to influence international assignment selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and return?*
- b) *What factors are perceived to influence cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?*
- c) *What are the perceived effects of organizational culture on work, interaction and general adjustment? Does culture novelty moderate this relationship?*
- e) *Do repatriates face different adjustment challenges from expatriates?*

In this study, 30 Portuguese international workers were questioned about their international experience. All interviews were designed along a pre-defined guide (see details in APPENDIX I - Interview guide of Study I), and the 25 questions were grouped into five areas of inquiry: selection, preparation, in-country adjustment, assignment return and outcomes, as indicated in Table 1.

To better present the results from the content analysis, this chapter contains seven sections. Section 5.1 details the analytical method and the rules applied to content analysis. Sections 5.2 to 5.6 present the results for the content analysis according to the focused themes. Each section follows a similar structure: it describes the most mentioned categories, adds direct quotations as illustrative examples, specifies demographic differences whenever applicable, and ends by summarizing the key findings for each theme. Section 5.7 concludes by summarizing the key findings regarding expatriation and repatriation adjustment. In the end, chapter VII will discuss these results further within the context of the literature and the research questions.

Areas of Inquiry	Main Themes	Hierarchical Categories
Selection	Selection Process	
	Selection Criteria	
	Who invites	
	Reasons to accept	
Preparation	Previous International Experience	
	Preparation	
In-Country Adjustment	Adaptation process	
	Work adjustment	
	Interaction adjustment	
	General adjustment	
	Family adjustment	
	Culture novelty	
	Home company culture	
	Host company culture	
	Reasons to adjust at destination	
	Reasons to desadjust at destination	
Assignment Return	Return preparation	
	Return work adjustment	
	Return interaction adjustment	
	Return general adjustment	
	Reasons to adjust upon return	
	Reasons to desadjust upon return	
Assignment Outcomes	Most liked	
	Most disliked	
	Reasons for an earlier termination	
	Acceptance of another assignment	
	Changes in you	
	Recommendation of an assignment	
	Do different next time	

Table 1 - Hierarchical categories obtained from the content analysis

5.1 The analytical method – content analysis

Content analysis is a set of techniques to analyze communications. It supports inferences from raw data, about the message, the senders of message and ultimately the receptor(s) (Bardin, 2004; Lillis, 1999; White and Marsh, 2006). For the purpose of this study, thematic content analysis was used, following a mixed categorization procedure: from boxes (e.g., using thematic categories derived from literature) and analogy or built up (e.g., forming new thematic categories based on the grouping of similar text references).

Four steps were used to assure that data analysis was not subject to significant bias related with interpretation and classification. First step involved data preparation, to assure all cases are used in the analysis. At this stage, all cases were word transcript following the interview guide and were created using NVivo. Second step involved decisions related with the rules to apply to content analysis. This contained decisions about what and how to code,

that is, defining the units of context and the units of analysis. The paragraph was defined as the unit of context and the theme was defined as the unit of analysis. The third stage involved data coding. Data was categorized using a hierarchical coding scheme, which contained thematic categories derived from literature and categories built up from iterative reading, which identified similar concepts and patterns. At this stage, all raw data was coded, through coding procedures of NVivo, by grouping thematic text units into the corresponding categories. The hierarchical categories' structure (see Table 1) resulted from the codification of all texts relevant to the theme and the merge of some sub-categories into larger and more meaningful categories. Categories were managed to follow the recommended qualities of objectivity, relevance, homogeneity and productivity (White and Marsh, 2006; Bardin, 2004). This procedure aimed to enhance the full and least unbiased exploration of data. As a consequence of these procedures, some categories replicate the literature. For instance, solidarity was used to denominate interviewees' references to the degree of perceived commonality of business interests and goals among organizational members, and sociability was used to name interviewees' perceptions about the degree of friendliness and camaraderie between group members. Finally, the fourth step of the content analysis involved data interpretation, using quantitative and qualitative approaches.

The use of NVivo 7 supported the research in several ways. First, it assisted in the text codification and retrieval of references. Second, it helped the search of text segments and their assembly into categories. Third, it helped the search for co-occurrences, which aided the investigation of patterns and relationships. Finally, it helped counting the references, which assisted determining the most frequent themes (categories) likely to illustrate conceptual relationships.

Having presented the analytical method, the following sections describe its results.

5.2 Selection for an international assignment

Portuguese international employees were invited to start the interviews by describing the way they were selected to take up positions abroad and the procedures and criteria undertaken. The following sections describe the main findings regarding the selection process, criteria, and reasons to accept.

5.2.1 Selection process and criteria

CEO's or direct managers, who pursue an unsystematic process that included interviews and preliminary visits, mainly did expatriation selection. Even if the selection process was rarely described, one can infer its importance to companies by the active role CEO's played, as illustrated:

"The CEO knew that I was available and so asked me if I would like to go to England. We spoke and he sort of gave me a mini test, as I call it, and that was it... He gave me the profit and loss account and asked me what I thought and then asked me to say what I considered to be the basic, necessary requirements for the job of management control in England. There was a factory that had some problems and he wanted to make sure that he had the right person with the right capabilities to help them find the right way forward."

Technical competence was by far the most common selection criteria, followed by (decreasing order of reference): (1) availability (which meant being ready to go abroad or being nearer the destination place), (2) adaptability (which meant the ability to adapt to different environments), (3) host language ability, (4) trust, (5) career development, (6) cost and (7) previous international experience. The following statements illustrate each category.

Technical competence:

"I already knew the organization/company as well as about management control and knew what I had to do. I knew exactly what to do – it was nothing new. Yes, I think that it was technical competence that was the strongest factor."

Availability:

"It was a critical time for the company and they didn't have anyone who wanted to go there – to France, on the management side. I think that there wouldn't be many people willing to go..."

Adaptability:

"Going to a different country wouldn't involve any problem of adaptation or making oneself understood. I think they took this into account when they chose me."

Host language ability:

"The opportunity arose for me to go and work in a factory in Germany. As I was one of the few people who could speak German... well, to work there without knowing German would have been utterly impossible."

Trust:

"I think there's another important factor... and that is trust... In some types of organization... it could be trust (...). A company that wishes to branch out in Angola to sell kitchen units would only send someone there that they could feel confident with."

Career development:

"In this particular case, the job gave me a chance to do something different in life. Imagine then, in 2 years, setting up a factory in Brazil, especially with good conditions, and as the boss. You have the chance to experiment. It was a way of putting my abilities to the test, with something that is just beginning. I had to start slowly and look at all the possible directions to take and to make a start..."

Cost:

"This, from the company's perspective, is obviously in my opinion a matter of cost... a Portuguese worker is always less expensive."

Previous international experience:

"A selection criterion was my previous international experience."

Individual demographics co-occurred with selection criteria. Selection criteria differed for men and women participants. Men believed they were fundamentally chosen based on technical competence and availability while women perceived their selection based on availability and host language ability. In addition, only one person perceived previous international experience as an important selection criterion, which was unrelated with the assignment situation (e.g., expatriation vs. repatriation) and the perceptions of in-country adjustment.

5.2.2 Reasons to accept

When asked for the main reasons that led individuals to accept the international assignment, the references were mainly: *"the challenge"*, *"the career prospects"*, and *"the will to do it"*. The following statements illustrate each argument, by decreasing order of reference.

Challenge:

"It was the challenge, and the experience ... and the fact that it was all new.... It's about discovering what your are personally capable of doing, about adapting, living away from home and about constructing a life which is rather different from the one here."

Career prospects:

"I saw this clearly as a chance to develop... in my area - the industrial sector – I didn't see much chance there as I'd reached a kind of important stage of autonomy. So, now I saw this as an opportunity for promotion ... which eventually happened."

Motivation:

"Because I'd always wanted to do this: I always wanted an international experience. I accepted because it was what I wanted."

Other less common reasons (according to the literature) were herein mentioned, such as: the feeling of being compelled to accept (referred by 15 out of 30 respondents); professional dissatisfaction (mentioned by 9 out of 30 respondents); money and personal reasons (such as the desire to leave some problems behind, as referred by 6 interviewees). Following are some of the most illustrative statements.

Feel compelled:

"From the moment I said I'd go to Germany, for them to get to know me better I accepted the conditions. And I knew this. I could have said no... but it was a bit late. After that, it was a question of career development. If I'd turned it down, well, it wouldn't have been out of the question to be given other possibilities, but it would have put me in a certain position in the company in terms of my career prospects and personal development. Our decisions have their own consequences. We have to be aware of that."

"The alternative wasn't to be unemployed. In our conversation, they said to me – that I had several positions within the Group. There are 53 companies and I was able to find a position in several areas. But they wanted me to go to Angola. And at that moment it was clear to me that I either accepted and resolved the problem or else I turned it down and then became part of the problem myself. That is, I would become the problem instead of being the solution. That's how it was."

"Did I feel under pressure to accept? Yes, of course. I have no ideas (what would happen if I didn't accept). Look, when we reach maturity we can all make mistakes, but knowing we are making them... The wounds remain... But I wasn't forced into it! When things are put to you in a certain way... it's OK..."

Professional dissatisfaction:

"I have never felt that before, though it didn't happen suddenly. It just came about slowly. In the first years in the company, I was very involved with their projects. Only when

these projects began to get a bit monotonous and when nothing was going to surprise me anymore, did I slowly begin to realize that something was missing... What could happen to me was that I could turn into something – and this is not my expression – well, I could become like ‘moss’ in the company (laughter). I became a bit scared. I wanted ... I’m no adventurer, but I really wanted something different."

Money:

"What did I want at the end of my mission? That it ended at the said date and I received my bonus. Money is in third place for me in the reasons for going."

Personal reasons:

"I was rather fed up here. It’s also a very superficial sort of life. Very routine. Dinner, friends, children with our parents, dinner out with friends. I was getting fed up with all this. This isn’t how I wanted to spend my time. This isn’t how I wanted to spend my life, forever. Dinners, friends, I don’t know what. All of a sudden, I began to feel – that this was all completely futile. This opportunity, I think, was a way of seeing a whole new different life plan, and this was good."

Finally, some references were also made to the location, to host language ability and to the fact of it being a temporary assignment.

5.2.3 Key findings for selection

In summary, ten reasons were behind the acceptance of an international assignment. Some were related with the career itself, such as challenge, career prospects, professional dissatisfaction, host language ability or the will to do an international assignment, but others were less positive, such as the feeling of being compelled to accept, personal motivations (to leave some problems behind) or simply the location.

In fact, these reasons differed according to participants’ characteristics, such as gender, assignment situation (expatriation or repatriation), age and marital status. In general, repatriates made more frequent reference to the categories associated with their career (such as challenge, career prospects or the will to do an international assignment) while expatriates were more likely to refer to other reasons, such as: personal motives, feel compelled to accept or the temporary character of the assignment. Furthermore, women more than men, were less likely to accept for money, for professional dissatisfaction or for the temporary character of the assignment. As opposed to men, women accepted the post for the challenge, although they

believed they were selected more for their availability and host language ability, than technical competence. Older interviewees (older than 45 years) based their acceptance on such reasons as challenge and personal choice, or otherwise because they felt compelled to do so. This age group never mentioned money or host language ability as underlining reasons to accept an assignment. Understandingly, married respondents were more affected by their family and therefore, they often mentioned personal reasons and the feeling of being compelled to accept. Overall, reasons to accept did not co-occur with company provenience, which indicate the above reasons to accept were unrelated with the employing company.

5.3 Preparation

As with selection, pre-assignment preparation was found to be an unsystematic process through which Portuguese international workers aimed to get the information and clues they needed in order to adjust. Among interviewees, some (7 people, 9 references) admitted not having done any sort of previous preparation, as follows:

"The only preparation was to accept the job, and three or perhaps five days later, I got on a plane and went."

"(Preparation?) Nothing at all... It was a clean sheet. We sort of arrived at an agreement on Friday and on Tuesday I departed... It's also not my style to plan ahead much..."

Regarding specific preparation, the actions most often referred were to: (1) pre-assignment visit; (2) speaking with other expatriates about the location and the company; (3) speaking with locals and host family at the destination (before moving); (4) reading about the destination place (mainly through internet search), and (5) doing administrative preparation (such as obtaining travel permits, tax planning and vaccines).

Preparation differed with individuals' age. Apparently, younger interviewees did less preparation than older ones, except with regard to host language training. Expatriates did more pre-assignment visits than repatriates did. Repatriates have essentially prepared themselves through speaking with other expatriates. In addition, training for the assignment was barely mentioned (6 people out of 30). When training was done, it included exclusively training for the job and/or host language training. Only one interviewee received cross-cultural training. Regarding the relationship between assignment preparation and in-country

adjustment, the following statement reflects the single co-occurrence detected, revealing a positive association between previous preparation and family adjustment:

"I went alone, from January to August and my family only came in August 2004. This gave me time to find accommodation and a school. I did everything by myself. I went around all the schools. Well, it wasn't too demanding."

5.4 In-country adjustment

This section focuses on informants' references to the adjustment process, perceived degree of in-country adjustment and related difficulties, family adjustment, perceived cultural differences between home and destination countries (named culture novelty), perceived differences between home and host companies and finally, a summary of the reasons perceived to affect in-country adjustment.

As explained in chapter II, expatriation literature assumes adjustment has three distinct dimensions: work adjustment, interaction adjustment, and general or cultural adjustment (Black, 1988; Black and Stephens, 1989; Black *et al.* 1991). Thus, one of the key objectives of Study I was to determine whether these dimensions were familiar to Portuguese international employees and how they assessed their adjustment. Moreover, some interviewees made extensive references to another dimension, herein named family adjustment.

Work Adjustment:

"My adaptation to work was good, because I ... because the work wasn't completely different. It was an extension of what I was doing. I had other functions too, other types of activities but it was also what I was used to doing. It wasn't a sudden jump. I didn't suddenly change everything. It was quite easy. I also had the task of setting up a team, and that was easy, even given the factor that could have ruined everything – and that was the question of language."

Interaction Adjustment:

"In terms of work, my relationships were excellent. In terms of outside work, I think that, as France seems to me a very closed society, especially French people ... so the people I made friends with were the people who also went to France, not the French themselves..."

General Adjustment:

"This type of adaptation, bureaucratic things like opening bank accounts, was quite easy."

Family Adjustment:

"When they talked about us going we were newly-weds and available. When we had children, our priorities change and the change was particularly important for my wife. For her to go with a child, to a country with some safety risks was quite difficult at the beginning."

5.4.1 Adjustment process

Interviewees were asked to describe their in-country adjustment along time. The results from the content analysis indicate adjustment process is less standardized and uniform than foreseen. In this analysis, several different categories emerged, which represent different patterns along time, such as: (1) transition period (which relates with a transition stage during which expatriates commuted from home to host); (2) shock (upon arrival), (3) "honey moon" (from the beginning) and (4) never really adjusted. The following statements illustrate each perspective of the adjustment process.

Transition stage:

"I began there in January. But I started on the project before that, in July 2004. I began to do some work from here. I had a corporate function so in theory I devoted 50% to my work here and 50% to the project, which, after two months turned into 70-30. Then I began to go on business trips (...) Then, until the end of the year, it was like this. I was there for one week and back home for two. To organize documents and the first things."

Shock:

"It was a bit of a shock (laughter). The first five months are pretty bad... And I thought ... I was in a house which didn't even have a TV (...) But after that I thought: if I leave, what will I do? There are thousands of Portuguese as well as others of different nationality. I'm being too demanding or I'm rushing into an early assessment of the situation. And I said: I'll wait a bit longer and see what happens. And this is what I did."

Honeymoon:

"It was always like a honeymoon. I shall always remember my experience in Brazil as being very good. I like challenges, I like doing new things, overcoming difficulties. But being in places with no level of freedom to act, is not pleasant, and only generates discomfort and de-

motivation. Personally, I couldn't handle living in a place where I had only limited powers of intervention. Brazil gave me the opportunity."

Never adjusted:

"We haven't integrated, nor do we want to...no! I'm not interested and neither is my wife. My children – are flexible, right? If asked they'd go and integrate. But we don't really want them to ... They have friends inside the compound, they go to friends' houses, but we don't like having to take them there. There are some very unpleasant places..."

In summary, results indicate the adaptation process experienced by Portuguese international workers did not follow a U-curve, as many authors sustain (e.g., Torbiorn, 1982; Black and Mendenhall, 1991). Furthermore, females and males, over the 45 years old, were the ones more likely to feel the shock and still feel unadjusted after the first six months. From these differences, one may infer that adjustment evolves over time and the perception of its progress differs according to individuals' characteristics (e.g., gender and age) and initial expectations. Apparently, young men (expatriates and repatriates) were more receptive to changes than women and older individuals.

5.4.2 Work adjustment

According to the literature, adjustment antecedents can be classified in five categories: anticipatory factors (such as host language ability and previous international experience), individual factors (such as relational skills and self-efficacy), job factors (such as role novelty and role clarity), organizational factors (such as co-workers support) and non-work factors (such as spouse adjustment and culture novelty). Therefore, one attempted to determine whether this taxonomy would fit the data derived from the interviews. These categories were used in content analysis to group the references to the aspects perceived to influence each dimension of in-country adjustment.

For instance, in the case of work adjustment, when individuals were freely asked to describe their work adjustment and the reasons that influenced it, their answers were grouped into four categories: anticipatory factors, work factors, organizational factors and individual factors. Non-work factors were absent from the references regarding the antecedents of work adjustment. Further, there was no evidence of co-occurrences between the above-mentioned antecedents of work adjustment and individuals' demographics (such as age, gender or marital status). The following sections summarize the main findings.

5.4.2.1 Anticipatory factors perceived to influence work adjustment

This category included the references to the influence of host language ability on work adjustment, as illustrated:

"I ended up using, with New York's authorization, the funding for advanced English, to improve my English. I thought it was more useful to perfect my English than to learn Czech... I think this was a mistake, as, mainly in professional circles it caused barriers. Mainly with the interaction with the sales teams. In the office too, though less so. You see, in the interaction with sales teams we had to use a translator, which caused huge barriers in communication and feelings."

5.4.2.2 Work factors perceived to influence work adjustment

Included in this category, five job factors were perceived to affect the informants' work adjustment, such as assignment mission, leading people, role novelty and role clarity, and host management team, as illustrated below.

Assignment Mission:

"I went there with a job to do – which was to make permanent changes – to cause change, to create a certain amount of discomfort among people. So people react badly when they feel ... when they move from comfort to discomfort. The people that personalize this are people who bring about this transition, so it was a somewhat thankless task. It was the work, the job itself that was appealing, but it was really a thankless task, because it stirred up a lot of conflict. A lot of conflict ... it was necessary to change a lot of things."

Leading People:

"The most difficult thing is managing people – this was always the most difficult part. You had to go and do company work... and you had to go through with it, (and get) people on board, by understanding them in the first place."

Role Novelty:

"It was a new job – I was invited to set up a European structure for which there was no predecessor. Then set up a team of 60 people, scattered all over the various countries. I had to recruit 12 directors, one for each country, and for the first three months, this is what I did. Travel, interview people and manage the business, but more focused on the recruitment side."

Role Clarity:

"Now, the greatest difficulty was, without doubt, understanding and having to change the vision that the organization had of the job... management control has two functions: reporting and supporting. The function had been seen mostly as simply reporting, and I wanted to make it more like supporting, for the company, for the other departments, the Managing Director. I think I succeeded."

Host Management Team:

"My project director was not my boss in the factory. We had a central function. I had to persuade him that we should have a consultancy firm to do the recruitment for us. Because he would say: - no, you can do this yourself. We aren't going to spend money on hiring consultants. They are expensive ... this gave me lots of work, do the whole range of the job and have to justify and argue. And all this was very tiresome, though at the same time challenging because I had to adapt to a different way of working."

5.4.2.3 Organizational factors perceived to influence work adjustment

Organizational factors were also perceived to influence work adjustment, and were summarized in six categories: host work habits, home and host company solidarity, organizational culture and host company sociability, as illustrated below.

Organizational Culture:

"Another matter that was quite a big shock for me was in the company itself, which, being a multinational I was expecting to find a more or less common culture – but no. It is a... the most traditional of the whole group (...) it's a very conservative host company, extremely resistant... and as it is a company that has been bought, from the state system, from the regime... the old regime mentality is extremely strong in the sense that it means there is total mistrust between people, in the sense that there is a resistance to change, because they went through many years in a certain way. There's a lot of lack of initiative because they were never supposed to show initiative."

Home Company Solidarity:

"For example, this question of us feeling somewhat abandoned, well, it might not actually be abandoned, but that is how we felt. The Chairman, since he started three and a half years ago, went twice and with me went once. One of the other Board Members went there when I arrived. He then returned... maybe three times in two years. But there's no real relationship with the central office – nobody ever made the journey. It was me who had to

recruit staff for the maintenance area. They came here to train and for some recycling courses. But in fact this is the point I'm making: apart from the Chairman and the other Board Member I haven't seen anyone else take the slightest interest."

Host Company Solidarity:

"Because the problem I had was having nobody to back my opinions. I couldn't go to my boss ... I'm thinking of doing such and such ... if you think it's the best solution ... I don't know, I can't help you. I had no help at all! On many occasions. I went through all this insecurity. Well, I was used to working with a mature team, who could question our decisions and make us really think about them ... and then, all of a sudden I had no-one to do this... nobody to give me feedback on what I say or do."

Host Company Sociability:

"There I knew a lot more about my other colleagues' families (...) there was great team spirit in the company there. After work we'd all go out together. We met up together a lot. There were events. We had lunch together. Even me... And afterwards even after the social activities we'd hang out together. We'd leave at 5 P. M. and we'd agree to meet: let's go there...we'd socialize a lot – much more there than here."

Host Company Disorganization:

"It was hard for me to adapt professionally, in the sense that they were completely lost, I wasn't integrated and so it was difficult to find any way to help them. And during the first five or six months our professional relationship was very difficult."

Host Work Habits:

"Their way of working is so slow. They do things so slowly. The people I work with in the administrative area – some are qualified, others less so. There is a first rate worker who works his pants off and others who would do nothing if they could. But I think that this may be a general thing."

5.4.2.4 Individual factors perceived to influence work adjustment

A single category was identified, relative to the perceived influence of the country-of-origin, or the fact of "being Portuguese". The following statement illustrates this view.

"But I felt that the management was made up of seven people and I was the eighth. They were all French except one who came from the group that was in Finance, and was Argentinean or Italian or a mixture of both or something. The rest were French... and... on all levels... So it was a company with four hundred or so employees and there were exceptional

people on all levels. I think I was accepted... for my work, and not for my background, because if this had been the case I would obviously have had more difficulties (...). You hear some comments... for example, as everywhere else we have a lot of Portuguese people in the factory. I put it this way: if we had lots of Angolans working here, we probably wouldn't have any in management. They'd be all working on production. Or instead of Angolans, read Africans. If someone from Africa came to Management, then those in Management, when they wanted to make another joke... they'd associate the two things, wouldn't they? That's not to say that your place isn't here, or there... but there'd be connotations that would lead you to this conclusion... The factory there had some Portuguese workers. And me, during management meetings. I was sort of associated..."

5.4.2.5 No work adjustment difficulties:

Among interviewees, 16 people (22 references) mentioned not having had relevant work difficulties as follows.

"For this reason, I'm saying, for me it was no real effort. It was the company itself, the people... the many people I was working with, I knew them, also... from the past. They are colleagues in the area of marketing that I know. So for me it was very easy."

"I didn't have to make an effort. I hardly felt this shock: new colleagues, totally different, new realities. I didn't feel this. I could say that I was an expatriate with some... or at home. I didn't feel this shock. I practically never experienced it. Or rather I went through some difficulties in adaptation due to family rather than professional factors."

Even if it is not the purpose of this content analysis to highlight quantitative data, this study revealed that the number of individuals who were positive regarding work adjustment was higher than the number of interviewees who claimed to have experienced no interaction or general adjustment difficulties. Overall, results indicate demographic characteristics did not co-occur with these references, which indicated work adjustment was unrelated with individual variables.

5.4.2.6 Key findings for work adjustment

In summary, the factors perceived to influence work adjustment were mainly work related (such as assignment mission, leading people, role novelty, role clarity and host management team) and organizational related (through host company disorganization, host work habits, home and host organizational culture, namely the solidarity dimension). The

single anticipatory factor mentioned was host language fluency and the single individual factor was country-of-origin. Non-work factors were absent from the references of all interviewees.

These findings indicate anticipatory, individual and non-work factors were not much represented or even absent from the discourse of participants, while work and organizational factors were richly cited. Furthermore, most interviewees claimed a fairly easy and positive work adjustment, which was unrelated with individuals' demographic characteristics.

5.4.3 Interaction adjustment

This hierarchical category grouped all references concerning the relationships with locals, both at work and outside. The references to the factors perceived to influence interaction adjustment at destination, were grouped into four categories: anticipatory factors, work factors, organizational factors and non-work factors. Based on the content analysis, individual factors were omitted, as they were not perceived to influence interactions at destination. The following sections describe each category.

5.4.3.1 Anticipatory factors perceived to influence interaction adjustment

The sole anticipatory factor perceived to influence interaction adjustment was host language ability, whose influence was mentioned by nine people (11 references), as follows:

"In Hungary there is a problem, which I discovered later, and I was personally affected. Only 7% of the population there speak a foreign language, and out of this 7%, 50% of these speak, only speak German. Which is a language I don't speak (...) The younger generation is beginning to speak English a bit. But, even so, 7% of the population is very small. But the day to day work is done in English. 100%. I began to dream... I even dream in English today!"

Based on the analysis of co-occurrences, individuals' assessment of their degree of interaction adjustment was not related with this factor.

5.4.3.2 Work factors perceived to influence interaction adjustment

This was a single item category, which contained the references to the influence of the assignment mission. When the mission objective is to drive change, interactions at work are affected. The following reference represents this category:

"As a matter of fact, those that made friends most easily were always in situations with people they didn't affect, professionally... That is, when one had to make difficult decisions,

affecting people, it isn't so easy (...) the context I was in, the job I was doing...no, .. that didn't help (interact with locals)."

5.4.3.3 Organizational factors perceived to influence interaction adjustment

This hierarchical category included two factors related with the influence of host co-workers support and the absence of friends at work, as illustrated below. Nevertheless, none co-occurred with individuals' self-assessment of interaction adjustment.

Host co-workers support:

"I was really helped by some colleagues there in the factory, Brazilians, who were a great help. They took us out. They took the initiative and invited us, and then it became a habit. It helped with our adaptation. It was very difficult to live there alone, isolated. It's good to have a group of Portuguese people, all together, but it's good to have a group of Brazilian colleagues to help us adapt to the city and life..."

No friends at work:

"Where I worked I was on my own. The workspace was by definition... they were all French, and it wasn't a favorable environment to make friends."

5.4.3.4 Non-work factors perceived to influence interaction adjustment

This was the most quoted hierarchical category (20 people, 50 references), which included two broad categories: host socializing actions (such as actions people undertake to interact with locals) and host support outside the work environment (such as perceived support from locals, local friends and local expatriates). The following are some illustrative statements.

Host socializing actions:

"In terms of adaptation to people, well, it was a small place... you just need to go out to two or three places, at night, or accept... which I always did: whenever I received an invitation I always accepted. So... to socialize."

"The fact that we are away from home helps a lot and make us more open... because here everyone has their own life, but there we're more open to inviting people for dinner at our house or out."

Host support outside work:

"I had a local hairdresser. She didn't speak any language I knew. Whenever I went there my colleague was the one phoning for me to make an appointment and explain what I wanted."

"Dr X (another Portuguese expatriate) even came with me to buy bed-clothes – which must have been a strange sight: two men choosing sheets and pillows. But he did this extraordinarily well, and often on his own initiative...(...). It was also in his own interest as he really wanted to go back at that time."

The present study did find these two categories co-occurred with interviewees' assessment of their interaction adjustment, as illustrated on the following table.

Interaction Adjustment	Never really adjusted	No Interaction Difficulties
Host Socializing	<i>"We tried to get to know some Chinese people, to get on with them, but it's impossible – the Chinese are very reserved and don't let us get close."</i>	<i>"Contact with local people just developed naturally over time and began with knowing people in the factory in the various sections I was involved with, and also outside in Curitiba .. I got to know someone, or through my wife, and that person led to new acquaintances, like a sort of network(...)"</i>
Host Support outside work	<i>"What happens with the Chinese who are there and live there is that they don't know how to support you, what to do when... they just don't know. They just know a few little things that they do and nothing much else."</i>	<i>"The city itself is much smaller than Budapest, but it's a very welcoming place, very nice, a university town with lots of life, and it's near Switzerland as well as France and has lots of Italians – in fact it's a very international city, very open and used to having people from many countries. This makes things much easier."</i>

Table 2 - Co-occurrences between self-assessments of interaction adjustment and non-work factors.

As indicated in Table 2, non-work factors influenced interaction adjustment twofold: negatively when locals were unable to provide support outside the work environment or when they declined social interactions with expatriates; positively, when locals were receptive to building networks with expatriates and generally helpful and supportive outside work. Overall, there was no co-occurrence between these categories and individual demographic characteristics.

5.4.3.5 No interaction adjustment difficulties

In contrast with work adjustment, only six people (9 references) felt no interaction difficulties, while ten (15 references) admitted they were not integrated at destination. The

following statements describe these opposing views, which co-occurred with demographic variables, as older and married expatriates referred to the fact of often having had more interaction difficulties than younger colleagues (under 36 years old) and single repatriates.

"In terms of work, the relationship was excellent. (...) With people from a local plant, I can say that it was with the people there that most links were made. Even recently, three or four people were here, and the reception was such that... people were really surprised because (...) it was more than just work. The people were here and we went out to have dinner and... There is always... a special relationship, which I find exemplary."

"I never managed to integrate totally. It's like this....this is what happens when you mix with Czechs. They try, for example, at a restaurant.... those on my left or right or in front try to speak English. The rest on the sides, speak Czech... (...) But one feels set apart. Always. Whenever one tries to mix with people there you never feel like one of them."

5.4.3.6 Key findings for interaction adjustment

In summary, results from the content analysis showed individuals' descriptions of interaction adjustment and the reasons that influence it were grouped into four categories (by decreasing order of reference): non-work factors, organizational factors, anticipatory factors and finally work factors. Apparently, interaction adjustment was not much influenced by individual factors, as these factors were not mentioned. The most relevant categories, co-occurring with individuals' assessment of interaction adjustment, were host socializing actions and host support outside work. In addition, interaction adjustment seemed to be more difficult than work adjustment, as only six interviewees mentioned not having had interaction difficulties, compared to sixteen people who mentioned the same regarding work difficulties. In relation to demographic differences, there was evidence of co-occurrence between the assessment of interaction adjustment and individuals' age, marital status and assignment type. Younger respondents (below 36 years old), repatriates and singles reported fewer interaction difficulties than older and married expatriates did.

5.4.4 General adjustment

All references spontaneously made regarding in-country adjustment to local non-work aspects such as housing, food, climate, schools etc., were included under this hierarchical category. As before, whenever applicable, references were categorized according to the designations used in the literature. In case of general adjustment, the most cited categories

were: non-work and individual factors. Anticipatory factors and work factors were mentioned, though they were represented by a single factor, respectively: host language ability and work overload. Apparently, organizational factors were not perceived to influence general adjustment, as aspects related with the organizational influence on general adjustment were absent from interviewees statements. The following sections describe the main findings.

5.4.4.1 Anticipatory factors perceived to influence general adjustment

This category contained a single item, mentioned by six people (10 references), referring the influence of host language ability on general adjustment. The following statement illustrates this influence:

"The difficulty is the day to day interactions, little things, with language. Like for example using the petrol card in the gas station for the first time. When they say put in the code, it's written in Czech... Simple things, but the cause of an enormous problem and me with a queue of ten people behind me and me not knowing which button to press, there in the petrol station. And you begin to blush and sweat, ... and get very stressed out just putting petrol in your car...(...) I decided to get a coffee in a machine. One of the ways of getting coffee in those first few days. I later bought the machine. In one of those automatic machines in the gas station, the coffee comes out, it was bitter, there were some other little packets, and instead of sugar, I put salt in my coffee (laughter)... (...) It was very frustrating that I can't even drink a coffee here. Lots of problems. Little ones...(...) I had lots of incidents like this in the first months in my day-to-day life."

5.4.4.2 Work factors perceived to influence general adjustment

The single work factor mentioned was work overload, which negatively affected general adjustment, as cited by eight people (eleven references):

"In other matters it was like this: even though I was in Paris, in the first months, for a great deal of the time I ended up being stuck in the factories (...)... During the day I was working... even at night (...) So then at night I just went to bed and woke up the next day. Often there was no time for dinner (...) At the weekend I really tried not to work. That doesn't mean I never worked... but I tried to put it aside for my own mental stability".

5.4.4.3 Individual factors perceived to influence general adjustment

Included in this category were, in decreasing order of reference, six sub-categories: country-of-origin (being Portuguese), living alone, being foreigner, homesickness (*saudades*),

gender and age. Following are some insightful statements reflecting the perceived influence of each sub-category.

Country-of-origin (being Portuguese):

"There's a sort of ranking of countries and I think that it's subject to people's mentality. And I think that in Quebec this happened a bit: "There are some guys coming from Spain and Portugal. Countries light years away from ours"... What do they know? And I believe it's like this..."

"With human contact people end up recognizing and even enjoying having a positive relationship with us. But in institutional terms they are very negative towards the Portuguese culture."

Living alone:

"At the beginning you have to rebalance and redefine a whole series of rituals. Because a life in Porto is a life with people all around, and one which, from childhood, you get used to doing things: you have coffee there, buy a newspaper there, go there to talk to so and so. Eating, having lunch or dinner. You know that if you want to be with someone you just go to a certain place or pick up the phone to arrange something. There, you picked up the phone and arranged nothing. You didn't have anybody. I didn't do much ... (...). Time just went by and I got used to being alone. From the point of view of living alone..."

Being a foreigner:

"Once I was on the way to Meppen (Germany) and I went into a restaurant, asked for the menu, and the owner came up to me and threw me out. He had the cheek to say: "We don't serve foreigners here". I got up and left. I should have called the police and made a big scene. I don't think the Germans accept foreigners very well, in general. Whether it's immigration from the east, south or wherever. They tolerate the foreigners who work. The rest – they don't tolerate...(…) A foreigner is the enemy by definition."

Homesickness (saudades):

"I came back at a time of great difficulty. I was really fed up of being there. I needed to be at home, to spend a lot of time with the people I like most, mostly my family. I missed that. I was really needing that."

Gender:

"The way they treat women ... if you like, what we are talking about here is a sort of prejudice – they are extremely 'macho'. Enough to say that most women of my age with

children are at home, and not at work. That was what they all wanted to know: why I wasn't married and why I didn't have any children. They just couldn't understand that I had no intention of marrying and having children at that time. It's a very 'macho' society. And I happened to see the statistics – that barely 20% of women who are married with children go out to work. This was a complete shock to me...(…) Sometimes I had to really put on a hard expression and act almost rude and say "Either you people forget that there is a women here, or we'll have some problems that none of you expect". Because at times they tended not to hear what I had to say simply because I was a woman."

Age:

"My age – I wasn't so young – I was 27 (laughter). At the beginning it was more: the controllers there were all about 40. This was a shock for me, when we were asking them for things, and teaching them... this was a huge cultural shock to them."

5.4.4.4 Non-work factors perceived to influence general adjustment

Non-work factors comprised the most cited antecedents of general adjustment (30 people, 137 references). Included under this hierarchical category were 12 categories (in descending order of reference): (1) housing, (2) climate, (3) food, (4) leisure activities, (5) shopping, (6) driving, (7) safety, (8) relocation or settling in, (9) children's' schools, (10) administrative, (11) housekeeping and (12) health care. In accordance with the literature, this study identified five of the seven dimensions associated with general adjustment. The coinciding dimensions are housing, food, entertainment/recreational, shopping and health care. Since research has not previously identified the influence of such aspects as: relocation, climate, driving, safety, schools, administrative and housekeeping demands, they are illustrated below.

Relocation/settle-in:

"A complete disaster. It's because the company has a policy of allowing 100 kg of luggage for each person, and which must accompany us on the same plane. What for? So that when you arrive – the basic stuff – the kid's stuff, books – things you need on a day to day basis. Because you don't have time ... arrive with you. OK. And this was the first disaster by the company (...) So, when we arrived, our son's toys arrived two months later. Almost at Christmas. We had to go out and buy him some just for him to play with something. We didn't take toys in our luggage. Living two months like that. Our personal effects only arrived two

months later... (...). They saved a lot of money on us and only caused us a lot of frustration (...).”

Climate:

“The climate added some new, horrendous factors. I’d never imagined temperatures of -50C. In fact, they even announced on TV that you shouldn’t go out alone, because if someone gets dizzy and falls, they’d be dead within a minute. So, I had to re-think my own position and my out of work behaviors in a way I’d never before imagined.”

Driving:

“By car there are two solutions: one is to go by taxi but to do this you have some drawbacks – sometimes there just aren’t any. When it’s raining they pretend not to see you and only stop for the Chinese. I had made an agreement with the company to buy a car and have a driver, as no document was valid in China other than our passport. Not now, but at that time you could only get a Chinese driver’s license after a year’s residence, so after a year I got my Chinese license and started driving myself.”

Safety:

“The main problem I have to do is precisely adaptation – and the big problem we have is safety. It’s not at work it’s the day-to-day situation. We have to be constantly on the alert. If we are a bit careless in terms of our normal security arrangements, we could be potential victims of something. We might be kidnapped or get shot or robbed... It’s something that we always have at the back of our minds. We don’t have to go through that here.”

Schools:

“We were a little over-confident with regard to local conditions. One of the things that turned out to be very difficult was to find somewhere for my son to go to – a crèche or a nursery. We were over confident... that a country which was more culturally advanced than our own... and I always thought that this wouldn’t be difficult...(.) but it really is very difficult, because of supply and demand. It should be said that there is a different cultural concept. People there have a tradition of relying on nannies, and then there are different categories. This was for us, who had no idea of the situation, rather unpleasant. So, what we needed was a nursery. Finding somewhere that accepts infants up to 3 years of age (crèche) is almost impossible. (...) As far as our stay was concerned this was the main difficulty and really needs better preparation.”

Administrative demands:

"There are always agencies that take care of all the paperwork. You always need a Chinese person in the process to take care of whatever it is. Westerners who think they can deal with things ... simply can't, because things are set up so that Chinese can take care of everything."

Housekeeping demands:

"It took me a week to find the waste disposal bin in our building. A week... imagine the entrance hall of my building full of boxes since my arrival. I'd unpacked my belongings – CD's, books... I didn't take many things because the apartment was furnished, but you always have to take things..."

5.4.4.5 Key findings for general adjustment

In summary, the above mentioned results highlighted the main determinants of general adjustment, which comprised anticipatory, work, individual and non-work factors. Anticipatory factors influenced general adjustment through host language ability, as this aspect was perceived to invade day-to-day life. Work factors influenced general adjustment through workload, in a negative way.

General adjustment was also perceived to be affected by individual characteristics, such as age and gender, as young interviewees and women felt more difficulties due to these personal characteristics. Additionally, the fact of being foreigner and Portuguese were also perceived to negatively affect general adjustment. Furthermore, living alone and homesickness contributed also to delay general adjustment.

As indicated, non-work factors were perceived to impact general adjustment. In this case, non-work factors include the challenges to find and adapt to different housing, food, climate, driving, safety, schooling, housekeeping and administrative requirements. Furthermore, the influence of non-work and individual factors on general adjustment was perceived differently according to interviewees' demographic characteristics. Namely, women referred more frequently to the impact of age and gender as a conditioning factor than men did. Conversely, males, more than females, cited the influence of accommodation, safety, health care, children schools and country-of-origin (being Portuguese). Single people felt more the impact of homesickness than married respondents did, while the later were more affected by children schools, leisure activities and country-of-origin (being Portuguese).

Even if some researchers (e.g., Black *et al.*, 1991) have included the dimensions of cost of living and general living conditions to measure the degree of expatriates' general adjustment, these factors were not directly mentioned by the interviewees. Cost of living was completely absent from interviewees' references and general living conditions was substituted by its components, as the differences associated to food, climate, driving, safety etc. As the above results indicated, several un-researched factors were perceived to affect expatriates general adjustment, such as relocation or settling-in, climate, homesickness and country-of-origin.

5.4.5 Family adjustment

In this study, family adjustment appeared as a dimension of in-country adjustment, as illustrated below:

"I would say that with married people, it isn't the individual who is uprooted but the whole family. I think that if a company wants to send someone abroad to work, it should be an unmarried person. No ties, no links. Because both things aren't... For a married couple to be uprooted, if the wife doesn't have this aptitude, if there isn't a previously made decision: one of them is totally dedicated to the job he was contracted to do. For this you need stability and the stability is only possible because, it isn't the same as working in Portugal..."

Within the category of family adjustment were included all references to family issues, such as references to children adjustment, spouse and separated parents adjustment. The following sections describe the main findings from the content analysis.

5.4.5.1 Children adjustment

Children adjustment (referred to by 14 people, 26 references) posed several challenges to expatriates, either because they have remained at home or because they have resented the move. Regarding "separated children", the difficulties depended much on their age, being worse when they are young, as the following statements reflect:

"My daughter reacted very badly at the beginning. Very badly. She practically didn't want to come near me. Then she began to go on a few trips, which she found amusing. I took her there, every month, for a week, sometimes more. For one week per month, but never longer."

"On the other hand, I have a family situation that allows these kinds of decisions. My children are grown up and are almost independent. My wife – not so (laughter)... but she had

to put up with it. Anyway, I always thought I'd be coming back quite frequently and in fact this is what I'm doing. So my family life hasn't been too harmed by this arrangement."

In the same vein, "trailing children" face adjustment challenges, which are worst for teenagers than young children. The following comments illustrated these.

"In the case of my two children (adolescents), as you can imagine, they blamed me for the change and for all the things they lost: the school, friends, grandparents, what they missed... what's it going to be..."

"Just that my young daughter (...) I would say she had a complete block. Because, for good or bad, she discovered that there were people on this planet who spoke a language, which wasn't hers. And she found that really weird... So she didn't speak. It was hard for us to go through this complicated experience with her (...)."

Another challenge faced by some interviewees was the birth of a child during the assignment. This demanded an increased effort from spouses, as explained:

"My wife went there five months pregnant and our child was born there, which complicated the situation. It was an emotional moment. She knew she was going to have the baby there without the support of the family; she would have to go to the hospital alone, eventually without her husband, in case I was away on trips. This caused a certain amount of emotional instability..."

5.4.5.2 Spouse adjustment

Most interviewees (16 people, 32 references) admitted spouse adjustment was more difficult than children or expatriates' adjustment. Furthermore, spouse adjustment was difficult for trailing and separated spouses.

Among interviewees accompanied by their spouse, they perceived their spouses' in-country adjustment to be mainly affected by three factors: (1) the absence of an occupation and associated loss of income, (2) lack of family support and (3) difficulties with the host language. The following statements illustrate each factor.

"(...) but for the one who doesn't work, I understand that... (...) I wouldn't be able to either. If I wasn't working, if it were the other way around, if she was working abroad and I was stuck there doing nothing, I couldn't handle it... In this sense, it was difficult for her. It was difficult..."

“From the moment that we faced the economic shock, because she used to work here and had to give up her job, and so there was a big difference to our budget, from then on she looked at things, like I did, in a sort of poetical way...”

“The point is that here she had family members who could look after our son and she had some free time. But in France there was no support system.”

“She couldn’t speak the language very well – a lot less than I could. And so it was hard. Then, at the beginning, she got to know the language and also began to know more people. So she began to fill up her time a bit more.”

Among interviewees who were separated from spouses during the assignment, adjustment difficulties were also cited.

“Right now, my wife is alone at home. So my children’s fear was to leave their mother alone. But...they guarantee (about their father’s adaptation). They say that their father has a great capacity for adaptation. That’s what they think. For me it’s was all OK. The problem was their mother. How would their mother, all alone, react (...). She is organizing her life (laughter). My wife is full of abilities, and even if she shows some anxiety, she doesn’t let it show through. We give each other strength...”

5.4.5.3 Separated parents adjustment

Among interviewees referring to family as an important adjustment dimension, 12 people (13 references) mentioned the issue of being apart from parents (who have remained home). Separated parents caused distress when individuals moved alone, relocated to unsafe destinations or left at home senior parents who were in need of increased family support. The following are some illustrative references.

“And taking into consideration that my mother is from Trás-os-Montes (Northern interior region) who married quite young, and whose life meant being the house-keeper, and ... she was very catholic and conservative. For her, a woman who gets involved in these adventures, particularly in an Eastern (European) country... I can remember my mother – her only reaction was: “What on earth are you going to do there? They come over here and you’re going over there!”...(…). Whenever I phoned my mother she’d always ask:- Are you eating? Do you have food? If I had food, if I was safe...”

“My parents, at the beginning, reacted quite badly... they reacted badly when I said I was going to try something in Brazil. But later they accepted it. For reasons of safety... and

because they didn't want me to leave. But then they accepted it, and reacted well. Now they've got used to it..."

"I am an only child, and my wife is too. In the middle of the six years, more towards the end, my mother passed away and my father was feeling his age. My wife's mother too was getting on a bit, having lost her husband. So they are now both old people, almost in their 80's. In our mind something had to change and we even thought of taking them both over there because it would eventually come to this as neither had other children here... should someone be put into an institution and never get visits? There was a lot to consider about this, but... Well, our plan was always to come back..."

5.4.5.4 Key findings for family adjustment:

In summary, the above-mentioned results revealed the multidimensional character of family adjustment, composed of children, spouse and separated parents adjustment. All these dimensions were perceived to influence expatriates adjustment, especially when they are married. The main sources of distress came from spouse and children adjustment, even when they remained home. Separated parents were also a cause of distress, especially to unmarried expatriates.

Expectedly, demographics distinguished the importance attributed to each dimension of family adjustment. For single people, the adjustment of separated parents was the single cause for distress, while married people were affected by spouse, children and parents adjustment. Among interviewees, women were not distressed by spouse adjustment nor separated children as, in this sample; all women were living alone or moving with the family. Men and married expatriates from the age group of 36 to 45 years old were the most subject to family adjustment difficulties. Young and older expatriates, in this sample, either lived and moved alone or reorganized family life to keep family at home, which helped them reduce family distress.

Additionally, references to family adjustment co-occurred with interviewees perceptions of general adjustment. In contrast, perceptions of family adjustment were unrelated with interviewees' assessment of their degree of work and interaction adjustment. For instance, the following statements illustrate the negative influence a separated spouse can have on expatriates' general adjustment, as the positive influence a host born child can have to ease general adjustment:

"With regard to the family situation I didn't think it would be so difficult. I was convinced that my family would accompany me. But on making my decision my wife found herself committed to other projects. Leaving Portugal for her (...) wasn't so easy, nor was it possible."

"My son was born in Canada. It was a decision that at one stage I didn't know if it would be the best place to be born (...) Therefore we had two options: either remain there until he was born, or return home. And then in Canada I was later a bit doubtful and decided to go to the hospital, to the maternity section and see the conditions they had. And then I was more comfortable. (...) When he was born (...) we had a doctor and two nurses always present... It was VIP treatment (...) so, in this sense, it was a good decision..."

5.4.6 In-country adjustment and culture novelty

Culture novelty is used in the expatriation literature to express cultural differences between home and host countries. In this study, interviewees were asked about the most relevant differences between the two countries, which produced 137 references. In fact, only one person cited no relevant differences between home and host national cultures. The remaining references were coded into two categories: work related differences, herein named *"work novelty"*, and general differences, herein named *"general novelty"*. The following sections summarize these findings.

5.4.6.1 Work novelty

This hierarchical category includes the references to differences associated to: (1) work habits, (2) work values and (3) work ethics. The following statements illustrate each category.

Work habits:

"I believe that in terms of the organization, I think they are more organized. There 's a series of situations in which you notice that planning and objectives aren't really short term: they are long term."

Work values:

"People in Portugal that I know here in the north, people like working, they have a certain pride in their work. It's work that dignifies. I think that people go the extra mile because they also believe it when they say "I've got to go and work". If they are at home with the family

when they say this, the family accepts this easily. In France – no. They say: "Going to work? But why? It's Saturday?" And they are against this. I think this is the big difference."

Work ethics:

"There is also a less positive side to the Brazilian culture: things to do with being true and some basic values concerning transparency and honesty that seem to be different from our own. We have much more rigid ways."

5.4.6.2 General novelty

This hierarchical category included ten categories, which reflected the main dimensions through which interviewees described the general differences between home and host countries. By decreasing order of reference, these categories were: (1) sociability (that is the level of social interaction in the society), (2) life-style, (3) life perspective, (4) traffic, (5) leisure activities, (6) self-esteem, (7) family, (8) education, (9) country diversity, and (10) administrative differences. The following are illustrative statements for the most cited categories.

Sociability differences:

"Well, they are much less open than we are in a general way. We tend to... more easily... we mix better and make friends more easily, than they do. But all this is influenced by climate, we enjoy sun nearly the whole year and so the character of the people is different. There at four in the afternoon it's already night. All this impacts on the day-to-day life of the people."

Life-style differences:

"You notice just walking in the streets – luxury and ostentation, side by side with poverty, and real misery. The look of the houses and shops. Miserable (...) People don't have any food and live really badly. You just have to look around – and see the shanty towns. They are unfinished unpainted brick houses. The streets are full of rubbish and children play there."

Life perspective differences:

"They are different in the way they deal with life and life's responsibilities. In the objectives, they have, building a home and having a family. I used to say that the Germans at the weekend have three priorities: their house, car and wife. In that order."

Self-esteem differences:

"The French people that I met in the company ... the French are generally proud of themselves. The Portuguese are not very proud of being Portuguese. Proud of themselves, of

being French, of their language, of doing things their way. The French always seem to think they have their own special way of doing things."

5.4.6.3 Key findings for in-country adjustment and culture novelty

As indicated, the content analysis revealed cultural differences between home and destination countries were related with two dimensions: work differences and general differences. Work differences were found to include differences among work habits, work values and work ethics; while general differences included such aspects as sociability, life-style and self-esteem.

Overall, demographics were not relevantly related with the categories of culture novelty, except for the fact that married respondents were more perceptive of the differences related with work ethics, family, health care and education. In addition, culture novelty dimensions did not co-occur with adjustment, reasons for an early termination, and reasons to accept an assignment. Contrary to the literature, these results indicate interviewees were able to identify and characterize cultural differences between home and host countries but did not perceive an influence of those differences on cross-cultural adjustment and its outcomes.

5.4.7 In-country adjustment and organizational culture

Interviewees were invited to describe "the way of doing things" at home and host companies, namely establishing the main differences. This question aimed to determine whether Goffee and Jones (1998) organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity emerged from respondents' answers.

Among the references made to describe home and host organizational cultures, several were categorized into the sociability and solidarity dimensions, though other dimensions appeared, namely to describe host organizational culture. The following sections summarize the results obtained, distinguishing the categories used to describe home and host organizational cultures. In sum, home organizational cultures were described by six categories, related with high, low and negative sociability and solidarity, while host organizational culture were described against these dimensions, added by specific references to host management, host work habits, host formality, commitment and change orientation.

5.4.7.1 Home organizational culture characteristics

Even if people did not freely use sociability and solidarity designations, these categories were adequate to code the descriptive references to home company culture. Among interviewees, 17 people described their home company culture, producing 34 references. These references were coded into six categories, according to Goffee and Jones (1998) nomenclature: high solidarity, low solidarity, negative solidarity, high sociability, low sociability and negative sociability. The following statements illustrate each category.

High solidarity:

"The objectives are made public each month. Everyone knows. The company's objectives- principally on what we were working. Then afterwards the group and everyone else finds out about the objectives. Everyone works to achieve them. These are the practices we are implementing, as well as people's commitment to the company, and defending the company. This is a culture that we are trying to implement."

Low solidarity:

"Here you can find guidelines to objectives, right up to those who get a bonus for achieving objectives, but are not at the level of other job positions."

Negative solidarity:

"There's more competition here, there's a lot of energy but it's all competitive. There's an energy but it's not collective, though this is changing..."

High sociability:

"In our day-to-day life we give a lot of priority to team work. We have friendly relations in the factory. After work, we usually get together, sometimes in a group. There is the same as here. With the Brazilians, we are creating this spirit... (...) We go out together and have a beer or a meal (...). This really helps towards achieving our objectives – to work as a team. This factor goes a long way to explain people's willingness, right from the beginning, to accept an international posting."

Low sociability:

"It's not about us all going out to celebrate in the sense of us all going out to dinner... that doesn't exist (...) Perhaps it's our fault in a way, we all sort of see achieving our goals as the minimum of what we're supposed to be doing. Getting results. That's what we are there for. An only when something really extraordinary happens that we go and celebrate in some way."

Negative sociability:

"Do we have friends? Here in the factory we do! Here there's a tradition that if you get in you stay. No one is fired. Although it's a multinational company here it's a bit like a family company. And this is why people, let's say... that they are trying to get away from this in a positive way... but there used to be a lot of this idea of a family firm. So and so's son has to come through that door..."

5.4.7.2 Host organizational culture characteristics

When interviewees spoke about the host organizational culture, the first attempt was to identify the differences and similarities. Regarding similarities, interviewees were able to identify parallel features with particular regard to solidarity, sociability and organizational culture in general. The following are some illustrative statements.

Organizational culture:

"In terms of culture, I think the companies are similar. Those who work in the factory have been associated with the company for many years, so they live here. In this aspect companies are similar."

Solidarity:

"On one occasion I had a meeting with all the factory representatives and told them that our objective... we were going along at our monthly rhythm... that our objective was still far away... a lot further than should be the case. And so, every month our targets had to be really dramatic in a good sense. This would necessitate a special willingness and extra dedication. I was there, in the first place, whenever such a situation arose, and after a while, I'd call in whoever I need on a Saturday or a Sunday if I thought it was necessary. Even more than this: I then began, out of my own initiative to check that – and this didn't happen with other companies ... that people would show up."

Sociability:

"People have relationships outside work. There and here. I think this has a lot to do with first living in small places, and second because, they've been a long time with the company. And there's a type of management that the companies had had – not necessarily to do with having a fantastic social relationship or everyone be a buddy. I mean... there's a kind of culture of consideration among people, and when there's consideration there's respect, and then friendship comes about. Historically there haven't been any conflicts. At least as far as I know there haven't appeared any conflicts."

5.4.7.3 Home and host organizational cultural differences

Toward the comparisons between home and host organizational culture, respondents emphasized host differences regarding seven dimensions, such as (by decreasing order of reference): (1) sociability, (2) management, (3) work habits, (4) solidarity, (5) formality, (6) commitment and (7) host organizational change.

Sociability:

"Here, work is really work.. OK, I can have a friend or two that I go out with at the weekend or in the evening... But this isn't the general rule ..(..).. There, they create friendships that are tied up with day-to-day company work. This is another aspect that shocks me. But what I've tried to do is maintain a balance."

Management:

"The organization of a company in France is different from that in our companies. Because there, there's is a workers' commission, which we don't have, and lots of things go on as a result of the commission. So you've got to work with these people too. You can't ignore them. They have to be brought into the process"

Work habits:

"I think that the time they are working... they really are working. They work from 8.30 until 5, but at 5 they all go home. Which I think is basically right after all..."

Solidarity:

"There, we began to have a feeling of collective spirit, one of survival – much more than here. More energy, more collective spirit."

Formality:

"More informal – there. Perhaps... taking more risks. More democratic. Decisions are taken across the board rather than vertically. More participation from people of all levels, with the advantages and disadvantages that this brings. I think this was because the country manager was behind it. I believe that the company's culture is 90% determined by the country manager and 10% by other Board Directors or the executive committee..."

Commitment:

"We (here) have the feeling of belonging to something larger and important. Perhaps we give more... to something, we feel part. There – people don't feel this. Working for them is like working anywhere... Of course they work for personal and professional satisfaction, but mainly they work for money."

Organizational change:

“There – it’s easier to change in some ways than here. And why? Because there... the whole organization was keyed up for change. So, everyone was behind it: from the top... or from some of the people. It was necessary to change. Obviously, for quite some time, there were problems and reactions, but I always felt that there was support. From the top. But not always here.”

5.4.7.4 Key findings for in-country adjustment and organizational culture

In summary, most interviewees were able to describe home and host organizational cultures, identifying parallel things and establishing the main differences. To characterize home organizational culture, the sociability and solidarity dimensions were used, while the descriptions of host organization culture extended beyond these dimensions. In this case, respondents added host differences regarding work habits, formality, commitment and change orientation. These results found support for Goffee and Jones (1998) organizational culture framework, as sociability and solidarity emerged as dimensions to characterize organizational culture.

Overall, demographics were related with the perceptions of home organizational culture, as women were more positive toward their home companies than men were. When asked to describe the "way of doing things at home", women never referred to the categories of low and negative sociability or low and negative solidarity. In the same vein, repatriates (who had recently re-joined their home companies) were less positive in their descriptions of home company culture than expatriates, as they often referred to the categories of low sociability and low solidarity.

Also interesting to the aims of this research was the absence of co-occurrences between home organizational culture (namely the sociability and solidarity dimensions) and respondents’ perceptions of work, interaction, general and family adjustment. No occurrences related these categories. In addition, no co-occurrences related home culture categories, with reasons for an early termination, acceptance of another assignment and perceived reasons to adjust. The only exception was the co-occurrence between home low solidarity and work adjustment. These results indicate that a weak orientation to business goals (low solidarity) hindered international workers adjustment at work in the destination, as follows:

“I can give a concrete example. The company here sold 50 trucks to an Angolan company – but they sold here, based on our presence there and the support we would give

there ... And 50 trucks is quite a big order. And they sold a maintenance contract too. Anyway, getting trucks over there implies sending parts, mechanisms, tools. The sale went through last year, in January, with delivery time being 3 months – until March or April was the normal deadline for things to begin arriving there. In March, I began to sound the alarm bells, in March and again in April, and the first trucks began to arrive in August. And I only managed to get parts by air freight in September. This just doesn't make sense: if someone wants to invest in Angola and provide quality for such a service, you either set up the right people and necessary means to go ahead with the business, or else it just doesn't make any sense. I've had an order in since June and it still hasn't gone through. I just don't understand."

As with home organizational culture, demographics were related with the perceptions of host organizational culture. In accordance with previous findings, expatriates focused on the negative aspects of the host company culture (for instance lower sociability and solidarity), while repatriates emphasized more lower host commitment. To repatriates, all main differences between home and host organizational cultures were based on host lower commitment, while expatriates were able to describe other differences. Additionally, most host organizational culture categories did not co-occur with work, interaction general and family adjustment. The only exception was the co-occurrence between host low sociability and work adjustment, as follows:

"In Hungary all the directors screened calls through their secretaries, even internal ones. You only went into offices when shown the green light, with a code, and then you'd have to go through the secretary's office. Everywhere it was filing cabinets locked, door closed – all very claustrophobic, believe me...it really disturbed me. My reaction... at first, I thought no-one was working in their offices... they hadn't come to work (...). It was amazing... in the work environment itself!..."

Host organizational culture was perceived to influence negatively work adjustment, through low sociability. However, the dimensions of host organizational culture did not co-occur with the reasons for an early return, with the reasons to accept another assignment or with the reasons perceived to influence adjustment at destination.

In sum, the above-described findings indicate home and host organizational culture were perceived to influence negatively work adjustment: through low home solidarity and low host sociability. No further co-occurrences related organizational culture with satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

5.4.8 Reasons to adjust and failure to adjust at destination

At the end of the interview, individuals were asked to name what aspects have helped them adjust and fail to adjust at destination. The following table summarizes the reasons affecting in-country adjustment, mentioned by 27 people (212 references), distinguishing the answers from expatriates and repatriates.

Factors which enhance adjustment	Expatriates	Repatriates	Factors which hinder adjustment	Expatriates	Repatriates
Anticipatory Factors	11	7	Anticipatory Factors	0	0
Know the host language	6	3			
Previous international experience	5	2			
Know the destination company	1	3			
Know the destination country	1	3			
Previous cross-cultural training	0	1			
Individual Factors	8	9	Individual Factors	2	5
Attitude	5	6	First time in the destination country	1	0
Respect local culture	2	3	Homesickness - Saudades	1	4
Localize	2	2	Return regularly	0	1
Need to adjust	2	2			
Motivation	1	2			
Technical expertise	1	0			
Work Factors	7	8	Work Factors	13	5
Work hard - much to do	5	4	Specific role demands	7	0
Mission clarity	3	3	Too much work	5	3
Achieve performance	1	3	Frequent travel	1	3
Temporary assignment	1	0			
Organizational Factors	12	9	Organizational Factors	11	5
Know the corporate culture	8	4	No corporate support	6	0
Home solidarity	3	3	Greenfield project	4	0
Work climate	3	3	Host work habits	1	2
Host co-workers support	2	3	No host company support	0	3
Non-Work Factors	12	13	Non-Work Factors	14	8
Host support from other expatriates	7	5	Be without the family	5	1
Host sociability	3	6	Safety	4	0
Host support from Portuguese	0	3	Host sociability	3	1
Spouse finding occupation	3	4	Quality of living	2	0
Spouse finding friends	2	4	Climate	1	0
Spouse focus on family	3	2	Cultural differences	1	0
Spouse adjustment to housing	2	1	Schools	0	2
Spouse learning host language	1	1	Spouse desadjustment	0	5
Have family at destination	2	4			
Visits from family and friends	3	3			
Be alone	2	3			
Speak daily with the family	4	0			
Children adjustment	3	0			
Return regularly	6	2			
Leisure activities	2	0			
Climate	1	0			
Life standard	1	0			
Location	0	1			
Shopping	0	1			

Table 3 - Factors perceived to influence in-country adjustment, according to assignment type, number of respondents (bold) and number of references.

As Table 3 indicates, factors perceived to ease adjustment are different from the factors, which hindered it. The broad categories of anticipatory, individual, work, organizational

and non-work factors were applicable, though each was perceived to contribute differently to in-country adjustment.

Anticipatory factors were perceived to influence in-country adjustment through host language ability, previous international experience and previous knowledge of the destination country and company. Cross-cultural training had a positive influence, though only one interviewee benefited. No anticipatory factors, however, were perceived to hinder in-country adjustment.

Individual factors were perceived to affect positively in-country adjustment, through attitude, respect for the local culture, drive and motivation to adjust and technical expertise. In addition, individual factors hindered in-country adjustment, especially when it was the first time the person was abroad, when expatriates did not come home regularly and when he or she was overcome by homesickness.

Work factors were perceived to influence in-country adjustment. Mission clarity, performance and the temporary character of the assignment were the main work-related factors of cross-cultural adjustment. Among the factors perceived to contribute to adjustment, work overload had a dual effect. Some interviewees admitted it helped them cope with the new job demands while others referred to the fact that too much work delayed in-country general adjustment. Admittedly, specific role demands (such as leading organizational change) and frequent travel were recognized as work factors that negatively influenced in-country adjustment.

As expected, organizational factors were perceived to influence, both positively and negatively, in-country adjustment. A negative influence was detected when home organizational culture was low in solidarity and host organizational culture was low in sociability. Similarly, organizations were perceived to affect negatively in-country adjustment through the absence of corporate and host support, through some host work habits and through the implementation of Greenfield projects. This type of project highlights the absence of local structures and support, which, in turn, increase adjustment difficulties. Inversely, a positive contribution derived from a positive work climate and a previous knowledge of the corporate culture.

Finally, non-work factors were profusely identified as antecedents of in-country adjustment. Among the positive influences were: host support (from other expatriates, from the local community or from expatriates of the same country-of-origin); spouse influence

(when spouse learnt the language, found an occupation and friends, focused on family needs and coped with housing); family influence (which comes from family presence, children's positive adjustment, and frequent home visits) and the effect of climate, life standard, location, leisure activities and shopping. Regarding the negative influence of non-work factors, similar categories were mentioned, such as family and spouse lack of adjustment, added by the reference to host country insecurity.

As this analysis was guided by the purpose of completeness, quantitative differences among expatriates and repatriates cannot be used to support the hypothesis of differences between expatriates and repatriates' perceptions regarding in-country adjustment. To the specific purpose to add knowledge to what is known regarding repatriation adjustment, repatriates (and not expatriates, as they hadn't the experience, yet) were asked about their return experience and about the factors which had affected return adjustment. These factors are summarized in the following sections and contrast with the factors perceived to affect expatriation adjustment.

5.5 Assignment return

This section includes references that expatriates and repatriates made regarding return preparation. It also incorporates repatriates' statements regarding return adjustment, namely the factors perceived to have affected repatriation adjustment.

5.5.1 Return preparation

Expatriates and repatriates were asked to mention how they were preparing, or have prepared, according to the situation, their return. In total, 26 people answered this question, producing 66 references. As with the preparation for the assignment, seven people (9 references) admitted not being concerned or not having done any return preparation, as follows:

"I have no idea what I am going to do next. It's still too early. Fortunately I'm in a company with lots of opportunities, so I'm depending on my own good luck!"

Among interviewees who had or who were preparing their return, most individuals took an active role to positioning themselves back home. These preparation actions included (by decreasing order of reference): (1) networking, (2) announcing the return, (3) searching a return position, (4) looking for a successor, (5) forcing the definition of a return position, and

(6) taking an opportunity as it appears. Less forceful actions included plan family return, keep performing, do extra training, and stay longer until something changed. The following are some illustrative examples of these active and passive return preparation actions.

Networking:

"There are several possibilities after I go back. Nothing has yet been agreed. It doesn't really worry me. I'm not someone who... I've had conversations about this. I've been preparing... I've even used my own initiative to clarify what might happen. I'm not too worried about the future. There are things you can do..."

Force the definition of a return position:

"Obviously solutions don't just appear on their own - they've either got to be worked out or you've got to be attentive to opportunities as they arise. I was fully aware that I had to know what I was going to give priority to: to come back or the job itself. Because... let's say, the experience I had gathered there would allow me, whether I continue in the company or outside it, to take on responsibilities that I wouldn't have here. I didn't consider this, because my personal objective was to return and not stay. When someone follows a certain path, you leave another behind. And then it is shut. I thought about it carefully and had family support."

Keep performing while looking for a successor:

"In the first place, to guarantee that over the next six months I fulfill the planned objectives. My successor will have to depend a bit on the model adopted. I don't know the future but it could be a person associated with the company, but it could be a format... I've already said that Brazil is a good country to commute to..."

In summary, the above-mentioned references bring some light to the question of the impact of the lack of a position upon return. Based on the above statements, expatriates and repatriates not only perceived the likelihood of not having a position upon return as the need to play an active role in the preparation of their return. Such preparation included forceful actions such as announcing the return (even if companies were supposed to have had that information registered since the departure date), looking for a successor themselves, searching for a new position or even forcing the definition of a new job. Furthermore, these preparation actions differed with demographic characteristics. Younger participants were more likely to announce their return and search for a return position than older workers. Repatriates referred more frequently to some actions, such as networking, announcing the return, or taking advantage of an opportunity when it happened; while expatriates trusted more in

keeping performing as a way to guarantee an effective return. In addition, men more than women, used networking. Finally, the absence of preparation co-occurred with the perceived reasons to fail to adjust upon return, because the lack of time for preparation caused additional stress, as follows:

"Of course it worries me that in September or October I could be going back suddenly. I don't think ... I don't think there's any chance of a new deal. I think that this isn't really a question of company, because the company has its own particularities in this respect, but we know that wherever you are, things change or can change very quickly."

5.5.2 Return work adjustment

Only repatriates were inquired about repatriation adjustment, namely work adjustment. The absence of work difficulties upon return was mentioned by four people (8 references), while seven people described some work and organizational difficulties, such as: (1) having no job opportunities, (2) having to re-learn work habits, (3) having to build a new job, and (4) having less autonomy and income than abroad. The following comments express the dominant views.

No job opportunities:

"Difficult... I think has to be all according to the context. I found difficult situations more in my professional than personal life. As for the professional side, it depends on the conditions. More specifically, you know my company in Portugal – either remained stable or even reduced its scope - and all in all had to make the move to return to somewhere here would probably be less action than where I'd just come from, and also I was unlucky enough to be one of the last to return..."

Build a new job:

"In the first place – the difficulties – I return to do a job that didn't exist. So, the job required space... (...) but here (habits) are deeply rooted. There, I had the power to go and make changes, so that anyone not towing the line should either leave or pull their socks up. Here – no... there's a huge difference. There I had a job that came from above, to run the change... but here, it's one person against another...not a mission to dismantle things. It's a mission to take up space and to generate discomfort."

“Professionally speaking we became outsiders, and to restore confidence is extremely difficult because we missed connections and now it’s us who have to re-connect. This, together with all that went on, created a great deal in instability in my company image...”

In summary, the above-mentioned references indicate return work adjustment was negatively influenced by the lack of professional opportunities and the need to re-integrate into a home company, which had largely changed. Furthermore, some work difficulties were associated with demographics. The age group from 36 to 45 years old was the only one mentioning the lack of job opportunities. This indicates younger and older repatriates found work alternatives easier than repatriates in the middle of their careers. Conversely, married male repatriates mentioned more than unmarried and female repatriates, the absence of work difficulties. Finally, the lack of opportunities upon return co-occurred with the perceived reasons to fail to adjust, as illustrated:

“Because before me many people came back. I think I had to mentally prepare myself for the difficult moments ahead and I had to find the most correct way to act with the company. I don’t think I have anything to say more about the company – I think they acted correctly in the way they received me. But looking objectively, I don’t think they had any real alternative ... (...) And in a way. ...what I felt... was that I came to have a much more limited function. I was used to another rhythm, another set of responsibilities, and time scale for solving problems, and interacting with people.”

5.5.3 Return interaction adjustment

When asked about repatriation adjustment to the interaction with others, eight repatriates (10 references) made comments entirely associated with non-work factors, such as: impact of the assignment on family, perceived differences related with home sociability and driving differences. The following excerpts convey these perceptions.

“There was one difficulty that I would say is still not resolved... caused by all this time being absent. I clearly felt when I arrived that my personal relationship... that I didn’t feel integrated. This was reciprocal... I had learned to be alone, to be a bit independent: if I have to do something, I do it. Of course, it’s not like that here. But more than this, it was the relationship with my wife and my son. With my son, it was more or less logical that this would happen, but it happened with my wife too. It wasn’t exactly ‘now I’m back’ after being away for a weekend. This is a situation that a year and a half later I’m still trying to get over it...”

"And here... I was rather surprised myself... because older people who have more experience, are usually the most difficult to accept us, and I was pleasantly surprised in this respect. In their facility to communicate, both to speak and listen. And in this aspect I was positively impressed."

"Driving here... I think the Portuguese are better. They don't drive so fast. At first, I felt a great difference. They overtook me on all sides, and no one respects anyone else. But I've got used to it again..."

In summary, the above statements indicate international assignments can have a pervasive effect on families and personal lives, much beyond the length of the assignment, as summarized:

"I think that we always lose things on the way. And something we notice we have lost, even if we go back... you know we say 'out of sight out of mind'. And when we come back, even though we might have family that were dear to us when we left, well, now, they have become more distant."

Married male repatriates mostly referred to these negative consequences. Moreover, the negative impact of the assignment on family co-occurred not only with return interaction adjustment as with general return adjustment and perceived reasons to fail to adjust upon return. In addition, interaction and general repatriation adjustment categories co-occurred, which corroborates the perceived relationship among these dimensions.

5.5.4 Return general adjustment

About return general adjustment, ten repatriates gave their opinion, which accounted for seventeen references. These references were divided in two categories: "home sweet home" and "home is not home, anymore". Most repatriates (8 people, 14 references) felt they had returned home, while some (3 people, 3 references) admitted home had changed. The following statements express these opposing views:

"OK so it was a question of packing a suitcase and putting it in the car. I came by car because I'd bought a car there (...) it was just pack, decide and come down and begin. It wasn't at all difficult to adapt... not at all. It was a matter of arriving Sunday and going to work on Monday (laughter)."

"I went back to my family home. They say that people change with the passing years, right? When you return, people aren't the same. Time had passed. People change. ...And

there, there were some... how can I say it? ... it doesn't mean that it was easy for me to adapt, but with people, family, with my friends – it was relatively easy to return... despite the fact that being alone, away from home, creates a sense of independence. It isn't just an independence of being alone in the house, it's different... I can't explain... it's a... it's seeing things... from afar... and returning, is like feeling that I am... An example of this: in Paris I'd go out in the morning, I might not have planned anything, but I'd always get home at night and always have lots to do. I'd go out on foot...but here things are... I leave the house, I go out by car, my life is ... different. It's a lot smaller!"

The current study also indicated repatriation general adjustment differed according to demographic characteristics. Married male repatriates from the age group 36 to 45 years old were the ones who complained more about repatriation general adjustment.

5.5.5 Reasons to adjust and fail to adjust upon return

As with in-country adjustment (see Table 3 – page 145), repatriation adjustment was perceived to be influenced by different factors, which in turn influenced different adjustment dimensions. The following table summarizes the main findings.

Factors which enhance return adjustment	Repatriates	Factors which hinder return adjustment	Repatriates
Anticipatory Factors	5		
Stay connected	2	No return preparation	2
Corporate planning	2		
Previous return experience	1		
Work Factors	6		
Have a position upon return	3	No return position	5
Job transition	2		
Be promoted	1		
Non-Work Factors	3		
Plan family return	3	Personal reasons	3

Table 4 – Factors perceived to influence return adjustment. Data refer to the number of repatriates who mentioned each category.

As indicated in Table 4, repatriation adjustment was positively influenced by anticipatory, work and non-work factors. Anticipatory factors contained references to the advantages of having previous international experience, preparing the return in advance and staying connected, as follows:

"It wasn't at all difficult to adapt... I've already done this six or seven time in my life. When we were kids we would change city every year. It was always like this. I'd pack my bag and get in the car and we'd go to another city..."

"Surprising, no it was not surprising to me because I imagined that it would be like this. Even in company "Fora" I didn't lose touch completely. It wasn't the same thing as going to Australia and come back seven years later. I kept some relationships with people here."

Work factors included the reference to the advantage of having a position upon return as the benefits of being promoted or going through a transition period on return:

"Professionally speaking my return ended up being easy. Because a Professional opportunity arose."

"In professional terms I'd say that there weren't really any problems. I came back in February and began to give quite a bit of support to France. There was in fact a period in which I gave support from a distance. There was almost a transition period. Only after a few months did I take on the new job...(...) And so it was like this. I think it helped in terms of re-integration."

The non-work factors perceived to affect positively repatriation adjustment are related with family return preparation, as illustrated:

"I think (family adjustment) was related with return preparation and with the fact of the people around us, the people close to us, have helped us to re-establish and prepare the ground for us to return.(...)"

Finally, the factors perceived to hinder repatriation adjustment were, by decreasing order of reference: (1) the absence of a return position, (2) personal reasons and (3) the lack of return preparation. The following excerpts illustrate these factors:

"Many returned here all at the same time. Because international expansion happened all at once, then comes a point when many were returning at the same time. An all from the same areas and so there were no positions for them on their return. And it's difficult to cater for this."

"I knew that there would be some problems of adaptation. Even in terms of my relationship with my wife... she wasn't... well some cracks opened up. She wanted me to return much earlier. A lot earlier than in fact I did. And because of this, new cracks opened up. So I knew that when I came I couldn't just put my bags down and that's that.... here I am and it's just as it always was. There had to be a huge effort on all sides to try to recover that 'lost time'."

"I don't think the companies really prepare for the return of employees. Although I do understand that it must be very difficult. For example an organization like ours, which is in

perpetual change.. I can't promise that in three years there will be a job for that person. So many things change that I can't... (promise anything). And more than this, I don't know how that person will develop, what will happen to them, so I can't prepare this path from such a distance. But perhaps, given six months or a year...maybe it'll be possible..."

The perception of repatriation difficulties differed with repatriates' demographic characteristics: married, male repatriates from the age group of 36 to 45 years old were the most affected by the absence of a position upon return. As expected, the lack of a position upon return co-occurred with repatriation work adjustment, while personal motives co-occurred with return interaction adjustment.

5.5.6 Key findings for repatriates' return adjustment

While expatriation challenges were clearly identified according to their main dimensions: work, interaction, general and family adjustment, repatriates were less clear in separating these dimensions. Interaction and general adjustment were perceived as inter-related. In line with the literature, the lack of a position upon return was perceived to affect negatively return adjustment, having a pervasive influence in all facets of repatriation adjustment. Further, this study also indicated that personal motives and poor preparation, influenced repatriation adjustment.

Overall, a comparison between the factors perceived to influence expatriation and repatriation adjustment (Table 3 – page 145 and Table 4 – page 152), reveals:

(1) Previous international experience is the single anticipatory factor perceived to influence positively expatriation and repatriation adjustment.

(2) Individual factors were perceived to influence in-country adjustment, not having been referred by repatriates regarding repatriation adjustment.

(3) Among work factors, having a clear position at destination and upon return is the single common work factor related to expatriation and repatriation adjustment. As expected, this clarity has a positive influence on expatriates and repatriates adjustment.

(4) Organizational factors, such as organizational culture, work climate and organizational support, were perceived to influence expatriation but not repatriation adjustment.

(5) Several non-work factors were identified as affecting expatriation adjustment, mainly related with host support, spouse and family influence and local characteristics, such

as climate, leisure activities or safety. Regarding repatriation, it was perceived to be affected mainly by family return preparation and personal motives.

In sum, the above mentioned findings indicate that repatriation challenges differ from expatriation. Repatriation is not easy or difficult: just different. Therefore, further research is needed to explore these differences.

5.6 Assignment outcomes

This section summarizes interviewees' references to the aspects most liked and disliked (general satisfaction), perceived reasons for an earlier termination (withdrawal intentions), acceptance and recommendation of an assignment and changes associated with an international experience, and what they would do differently next time.

5.6.1 Aspects most liked

Interviewees were asked about the aspects most liked during the international assignment. They referred, predominantly, to work-related aspects, individual and general factors. Within work related factors, the most mentioned were professional achievement (10 people and 11 references) and the opportunity to learn (5 people, 6 references), as the following excerpts illustrate:

“For the rest of my life, because everything there (at destination company) came through my hands – in terms of decision making. It isn’t done by me, of course. I don’t do anything but I had power at a certain time, to have influence – both for good as well as for bad. I am responsible, of course, for all the errors made there. In decision making – but what made me pleased, of course, was having the power to say: no, we are not going to do it like this...”

“(...) In professional terms I feel that I have learned quite a lot too. I think I was quite privileged to be able to participate in a project – a pilot project, and we are carrying on with projects like these, not exactly as pilot projects. It was in fact quite a new thing at the time.”

Within individual and general factors, references were included to cultural development and the opportunity to meet other people, family involvement, freedom, leisure activities and the positive characteristics of the destination country, as follows:

“From a cultural point of view, I benefited greatly from the opportunity, from the exhibitions and museums I visited. I think I began to have a greater acceptance of differences,

for example as far as religion is concerned. I had two Muslim colleagues and the discussions we have about Ramadan are quite natural."

"And living in another country, getting to know another culture. I liked that a lot."

"The way my children responded to the challenge and adapted."

"The freedom that being alone gives us. Liberty and responsibility... one doesn't exist without the other... but I like this very much."

"The country is fantastic, the city is fantastic. Therefore, I think it was... an experience I have good memories about."

Finally, some interviewees also emphasized the fact that an international assignment is an integrated experience, as illustrated:

"I have no doubt that there are both good and bad things. All in all the experience is always rewarding, there's no doubt about that. A life project – changing your life – when you weigh it all up, it's positive."

Demographics co-occurred with some of the most appreciated benefits of an international assignment. For instance, younger (less than 36 years old) international workers gave more relevance to the opportunities for cultural development and professional learning, as well as to leisure activities, than older workers did. In addition, expatriates gave more value to the professional achievement aspect while repatriates stressed the assignment as an integrated experience. Men and women differed according to the importance women attributed to freedom. Finally, it is worth mentioning that the most liked aspects did not co-occur with adjustment, with the reasons to terminate early or with the reasons to accept another assignment, which indicate that the most liked aspects (satisfaction) are unrelated with cross-cultural adjustment, withdrawal intentions and the motivation to repeat an assignment.

5.6.2 Aspects most disliked

Similarly as above, respondents were asked about the most disliked aspects associated with their international experience. Among interviewees, 27 people answered this question and produced 66 references. These references were categorized into the following categories (by decreasing order of reference): general factors, work factors, organizational and individual factors. Overall, four people declared that nothing relevant displeased them.

General factors:

This category included references to: destination place, safety, ethics, climate and local poverty, administrative, life style and traffic. The following reflect some examples.

"I will always remember the first impact of poverty and the inequality of the distribution of wealth in that society. For example, I was very shocked on the many days it just rained and rained to see people going barefoot and with no money to buy an umbrella. The way the rich and the poor mingle and think it's normal is for me a bit shocking."

"I'm talking about safety and health. I got quite bad food poisoning after one week of being there."

"Another thing is the factor of being conditioned. My life is conditioned by the lack of liberty, or rather – I have very little, because of local insecurity."

"(...) corruption is a difficult issue."

Work factors:

The most disappointing work aspects were poor pre-assignment preparation, interface with locals, absence of professional challenge and the lack of a position upon return. The following are some examples of these disappointing aspects:

"Not knowing much about the contract at the beginning, nor being aware of the job I was going to do. They hid a lot from me and weren't very helpful."

"A couple of times I came upon situations when I saw that were people who were deceitful. There is also a Brazil, which likes to please by dissimulation – and this I didn't like. I always tried to identify it and get rid of it."

"I didn't learn anything at all. It was a big disappointment in terms of the professional challenge that I was expecting."

"During the 10 years that I've been with the company until now I've never had any ghetto-type problems whether in terms of my job or my salary. I always fitted in. But my return has really been traumatic. (...)The only comment I can make is that on return this situation should not really exist. In the same way that the company, if it invites someone to go to (abroad) – it's because it recognizes that he or she is someone of confidence – and so companies should create mechanisms for this (difficult return) not to happen again."

Organizational factors:

Even if organizational factors were not mentioned within the range of most liked, they played their role as dissatisfying features. Specifically, organizations can have a negative

impact through the way they define the assignment contract, through organizational culture and through the absence of resources at destination.

"First the way the firm contracts us to go to a high risk place."

"I really believe that we are complicated. I think we tend to create difficulties where they don't exist... we Portuguese... with an upgrade for my company. Situations become more complicated when we could go about it... more stress goes into it... when with a bit of calm things could be resolved in another way(...) I believe this style might be a bit of a shock at times, for those there... I mean the way things are handled in home company."

"The company sent me to war without equipment. I only had a gun, so I needed to kill with the first shot."

"It was the lack of company resources to achieve what the company wanted. The lack of local resources, for change. Because at the beginning I believed it was possible to change. To change people and in time they would understand. But this was a more painful process than I had anticipated."

Individual factors:

Finally, individual reasons included the negative impact of the assignment on family and the need for extensive travelling.

"Variables that affected the family. It's the fact that I feel that this wasn't really an achievement. There were a few positive factors but when I weigh it all up... I always said I'd go with the family. If that question had been excluded, I would never have accepted. This was without doubt the biggest disadvantage."

Overall, demographics influenced the perceptions of the most negative aspects of an international assignment. Younger workers emphasized factors that are more general while the older respondents focused on work and organizational related aspects, such as the lack of resources at destination and interface with locals. Repatriates, differently from expatriates, were more affected negatively by the interface with locals, climate and the absence of a position upon return. Finally, single respondents were more affected negatively by the assignment contract and lack of pre-assignment preparation. Ultimately, interface with locals co-occurred with general adjustment, as the negative impact of the assignment on family co-occurred with the perceived reasons to fail to adjust at destination. In contrast with the absence of influence from the most liked aspects, the disliked factors were perceived to influence negatively cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., general adjustment).

5.6.3 Motives for an earlier termination

Respondents were asked to mention what motives would prompt an early termination. In fact, two people had already had that experience, due to work, health or family problems, as expressed:

“I have resigned before the end of the assignment. I have decided to leave the organization, as the company didn’t offer me an interesting alternative to my assignment in UAE.”

“The projects only really began in January 2004 and my wife had already gone there. Then I found that when my wife was there I had to start travelling. I’d only be at home at weekends. Along with the problem of finding a crèche we came to the conclusion that it would be easier if she went back home..(..) And so at the time I proposed returning at the end of 2004 (earlier) in order not to jeopardize the first big start, which was the most sensible thing to do (...).”

Among the interviewees without a direct experience of an early return, the main reasons that would make them decide to withdraw were individual and work related, as follows.

Individual motives:

These motives are family related, followed by safety and health concerns, as illustrated:

“Another problem was if I had a serious safety issue... involving guns or kidnapping. I don’t think I would want to stay there.”

“My family not being there or difficulties in adaptation.”

“A matter of health – mine or my family’s.”

Work factors:

This category included five motives such as: under performance, management decision, lack of support and trust, early mission fulfillment and new work opportunities. The following are some illustrative examples:

“Lack of success in the job would make me return. Finding difficulties... wouldn’t make me return early. I would expect to find difficulties. But I’d say that to feel I’d failed, before the end of the 3 years, would make me return or would have made someone else make me come back (laughter). That is also a possibility...”

“At a certain time I ended up in a position of quite a high level of confidence in what I was doing. If this mechanism of confidence was suddenly broken for I don’t think I’d be able to stay and would ask to return.”

“You know that...if you leave a company it’s got to do with the challenges that are made available. There are other challenges. If on return... When I got back I was fully aware that I hadn’t made a side step but a step backwards. At that moment, any company... and there aren’t many..., but if they were solid and could offer me a challenge for me to go up in my career, I would have been receptive.”

However, three people mentioned that nothing would make them return earlier, as follows:

“Although I didn’t know everything as completely as I later did when I was there, I was quite well informed about what I would face in Canada and so, nothing would make me return... nothing would get in my way. Not the climate, my adaptability to the country – nothing – because my conviction was that the factory had to be made to function.”

Finally, motives for an early termination differed with demographics factors. For instance, family distress, destination country safety and underperformance were motives more frequently mentioned by married, men expatriates; while single men often mentioned that nothing would make them return earlier.

5.6.4 Acceptance and recommendation of another assignment

When interviewees were asked about their intentions to accept another international assignment, four people (out of 30) definitively said no, while 25 people acknowledged they would accept. For interviewees refusing another assignment, family reasons were added as justification:

“For family reasons it’s difficult. Not for professional reasons, but for family ones. It would cause a big change. At least in the next few years.”

“It would be unlikely that I would accept another posting. Because of the distance...(...) my wife is expecting... it wasn’t part of our plans, and the baby is due next summer. I can’t see my wife accepting this type of life.”

Those interviewees more reluctant to move again, as illustrated, also referred to family reasons and assignment contract:

“Yes, very different. As a family. I personally don’t really consider this type of yo-yo life. For me it’s no problem to pick up my children and go anywhere for a time. For me this is a something absolutely certain: Porto is my base... (...) And even.. in terms of society – apart from the great inequality – people are genuine. It’s getting less common but it still exists. This joy and way of being, which in France doesn’t exist. In the context of having a family and growing up – we think this is fundamental. And so, in my genetic code – this is Porto. We can imagine leaving here together, but only a little while...”

“I would accept but first I’d have another look at my contract.”

“I won’t say no. Now that I’ve been an expatriate I won’t be deceived again...”

In summary, the family factor has the strongest influence on the likelihood to accept another international assignment, though family reasons were absent from the references to the reasons to accept the first assignment (see section 5.2.2). These findings indicate that family was not the main reason to accept an international assignment but was the strongest motive to refuse it. Overall, family influence co-occurred with demographic characteristics. An example of this, show that married, male expatriates, were the group less receptive to accept another assignment. Furthermore, adjustment categories did not co-occur with the likelihood to accept another assignment, which indicates the decision to accept or refuse another mission is unrelated with previous international adjustment experiences.

To the question of whether respondents would recommend an assignment to others, 22 people answered, producing 25 references. All respondents generally recommended an assignment, though with some cautionary notes, such as: *“it is not easy”, “it is an experience more suitable for young people” and “it is important to look for the associated challenge and family implications”*. The following excerpts illustrate this dominant view.

“From my point of view of seeing life and the world I recommend (an international assignment). But it should be An experience can’t only be just going to another country. It has to have another reason. It must be related to a challenge or a professional stimulus. It shouldn’t just be going.... I have an opportunity to go abroad so I’ll go. No, it can’t be for... no good reason. Going abroad without a professional challenge... has little reward. The world – especially the western world isn’t that different, really. You don’t get much from being here or there. It’s really just more of the same...”

“I’d frankly recommend it. I’d highly recommend it to a young graduate if they had the change to work abroad – it’s icing on the cake. To go as a family – you need perfect

understanding and care of your children – the age you do it. I think these are the main factors to consider.”

“There’s a risk that, when you return there’s nothing for you to do, and at 50 it’s very frustrating. Unless the return is well planned. But to go and then come back in a year and a half and have to talk again about what to do, it’s a big risk. In my case I felt that if I didn’t come back to the same company I would go somewhere else...”

In summary, even if many respondents mentioned adjustment difficulties, and negative aspects associated with the international experience, most would accept another offer and would recommend the experience to others. These findings indicate the end game is positive as benefits surpass the disadvantages. Overall, recommendations differed with respondents demographics. Among the interviewees most likely to recommend (regardless of the potential disadvantages) were women and repatriates. This result suggests they might have a more detached view of the international experience, which allows them to recommend, regardless of potential risks. Inversely, married expatriates were more prudent, recognizing the threat of negative family and/or career outcomes and stressing the need to look for an explicit professional challenge. Finally, recommendations did not co-occur with any other category, namely the perceptions of adjustment, which indicates assignment recommendation was un-related with the categories of adjustment, satisfaction and intentions to withdraw.

5.6.5 Changes associated with the assignment

When asked about the impact the international assignment had had, many interviewees (12 people, 16 references) emphasized the fact it was an integrated experience, while others referred to personal or work related changes.

Integrated experience:

“I think it’s a life experience. It opens up new horizons.”

Personal changes:

“I think I’m more mature. I grew as a person. I listen more, I am more prudent.”

Work related changes:

“I learned a lot in Germany, for which I am most grateful. One thing I learned was to get to work before 9 and work steadily all day without lots of coffee breaks. To be productive – that’s what I learned from them.”

"I also think that in professional terms it was the best experience I have ever had. Without any doubt. I think that if I hadn't gone there I wouldn't have developed as I have... in many respects. You never know what might have happened, but at this level it was excellent."

In summary, personal changes were at the top of the advantages of an international assignment, being followed by a professional impact. Demographics were associated with these perceived outcomes: repatriates often revealed the perception of increased maturity, self-confidence, multiculturalism and change in their work habits, while expatriates, by the fact of still being away, expressed an increased appreciation of home, as expressed:

"I always say that there is no better way to give value to the good things we have than to go through a different experience. I have learned to value the good things that Portugal has to offer after having lived abroad. For example – the sea, people's willingness, their hospitality, the food we have, the sea, the weather. So many great things. Initiative. The way we work."

Overall, no co-occurrences existed between expatriation and repatriation adjustment, most liked and disliked aspects, reasons to accept or recommend an assignment and perceived outcomes of an assignment. These findings indicate the perceived personal and professional advantages of an international assignment are un-related with adjustment and, furthermore, are not an antecedent to accept or recommend an international experience.

5.6.6 What to do different next time?

When asked about what respondents would do differently based on their international experience, two (out of 27) stated they would not change anything relevant. However, pre-assignment preparation was by far the aspect most people would do differently. Namely, they would make better planning arrangements, carry out better contract negotiation or even change the pre-assignment visit. A better preparation would also include better housing, finding a job for the spouse and speak with locals before moving. Other aspects to change next time, by decreasing order of reference were: individual factors (such as bringing the family and integrating more with locals), work factors (such as doing a different job and having different work schedules) and organizational factors (such as knowing in advance the destination company). The following statements illustrate these dimensions.

Preparation:

"I would review my contract in terms of the financial arrangements, and prepare my departure better."

"I would never leave again without visiting the place first, and without preparing very well the relocation and the first few days. Otherwise, it can be too disappointing to start with..."

"I would never leave again unless I had an alternative for my wife. For her to have something to do. Because to have her at home, alone is really very bad. Either she finds a job somewhere in the area or we pre-arrange and negotiate something like that. I think that a balanced family life is essential for professional success. "

Individual factors:

"Perhaps I would have done ... all the things related to family matters. From the professional point of views, it is OK. Perhaps the decision to go to Germany in these circumstances was a leap in the dark. We didn't know how we would adapt or react and we left everything half done. That is, my family is half here and half there. We didn't foresee things. Everyone from one side to the other. Perhaps if I had taken a clear-cut decision. Or we all go or I don't go. This would have been the only thing... probably I wouldn't have gone."

"If I could turn the clock back I would have done everything differently (silence). I'd have stuck up more for my rights (...) Even in terms of my relationship with them. I remember once when I was with a full shopping cart and the girl on the check-out didn't register me and then she served a German. It was hard, very hard. I should have gone back and said: -"What you did was not very professional". But I didn't. Perhaps I was too shy. (...) I should have called a police agent and made a fuss."

"If I'd found out all this before going I wouldn't have been quite so arrogant about things. I wouldn't have made the assumption that we are good, we are the best – that we know everything and have all the answers – I would have had a little more respect for people who in fact know quite a lot, but know in a different way. We are not taught this, we learn by experience. This is a western way of seeing things – we are different, it's different. As long as you can explain things to them, most Chinese people will not get angry if you have a different opinion or if you think something is bad and he thinks it's good."

Work factors:

"But I think there are things I would have done different, which has to do with my maturity as a person and not with the difference in country. But it would be – listening a bit more, at the outset and perhaps doing things a little slower at the beginning, in order to make up for it later instead of rushing straight away and then having to take everything on later... Perhaps a bit of this. But things went well."

"I don't know, I'd like to work in a different area."

"To have decent working hours (which I have here), although naturally there are peak periods".

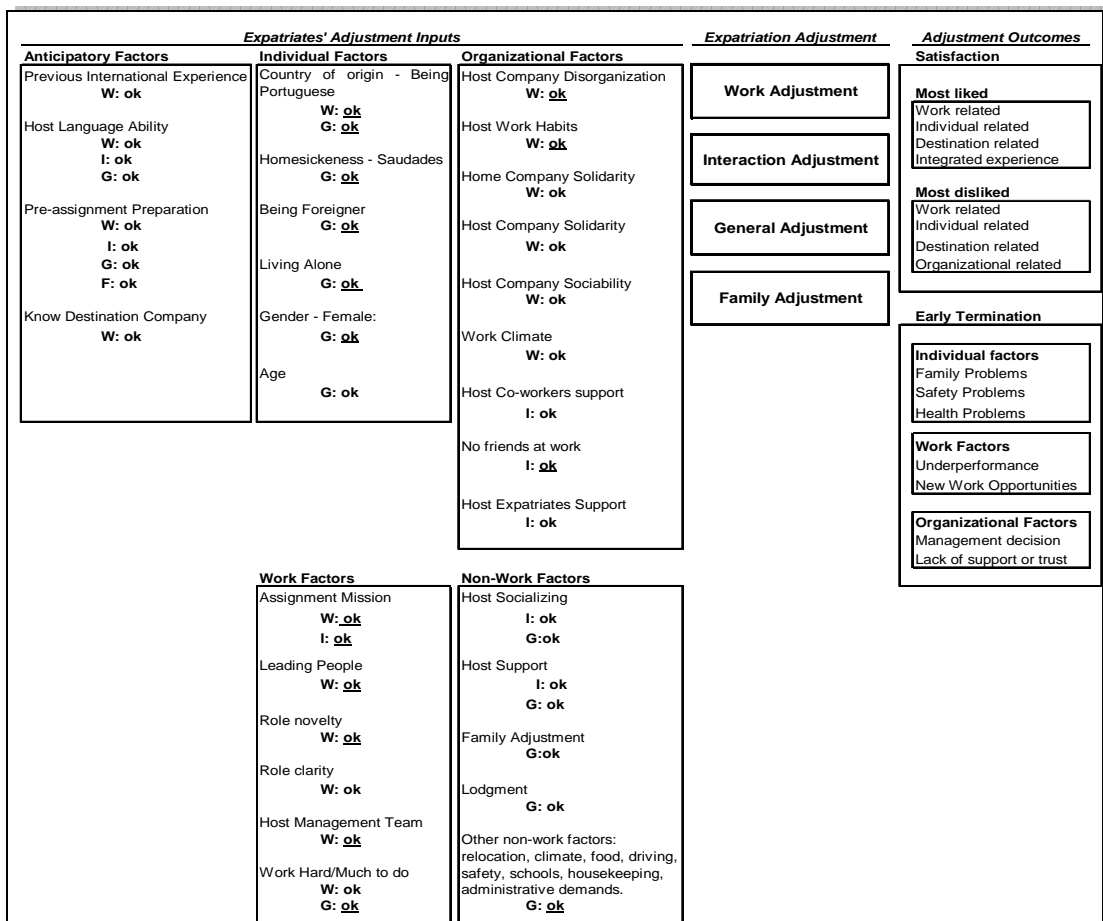
Organizational factors:

"Look, I would demand ...the achieving of objectives, that is well defined aims, well defined budgets and obviously the achieving of these budgets and commitments. Because, how can I put this: I think that the important thing here is timing (...). Which seems to me that we have to go ahead and define something that gives a message to the outside that we are there to stay."

These results indicated, even if respondents did a positive assessment of their international experience, that most would make several changes next time, starting from a better preparation and an increased demand toward home company involvement. Overall, demographic characteristics co-occurred with some categories, as for instance older individuals often referred to the fact that they would make the most of the experience, while younger people would change their contract, their decision-making or bring the family. Expatriates were more concerned with the assignment contract as they often said they would negotiate it better. Women respondents seemed less confident about their experience as they mentioned, more often than men; that they would do everything different and would not accept to stay longer. Inversely, single men were happier with the learning experience, as they often referred to the fact they would not change anything at all. Finally, married respondents emphasized the need to bring the family, make better initial planning and a better pre-assignment visit.

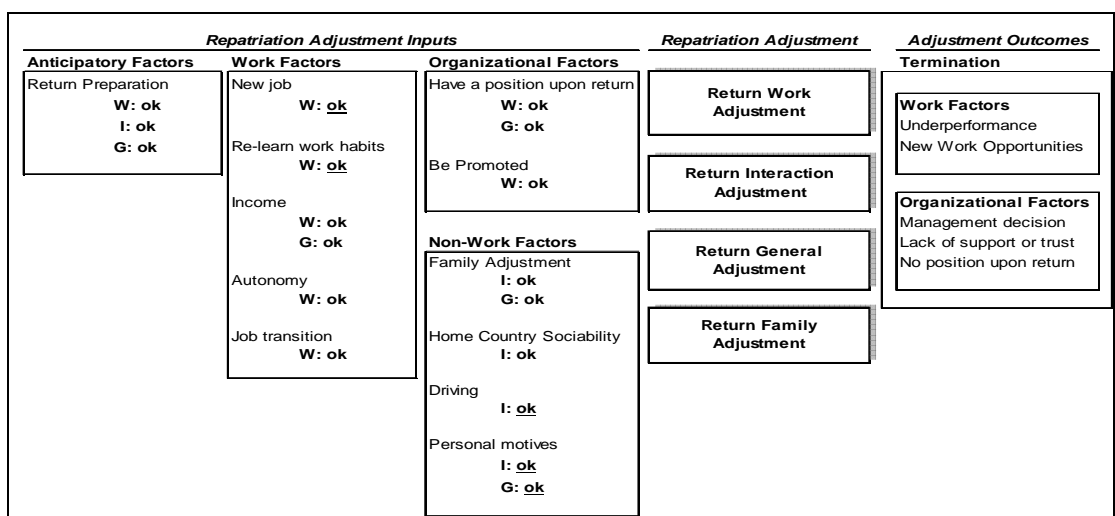
5.7 Summary of key findings

This study informs about broad questions concerning Portuguese expatriates' and repatriates' perceptions of international assignments. Previous sections have presented the results from the content analysis, along the main themes. Therefore, this section summarizes main findings, regarding expatriation and repatriation adjustment, which are portrayed in Figure 5 and Figure 6. Each figure summarizes main findings for Portuguese expatriation and repatriation adjustment. An examination of both illustrations reveals expatriation and repatriation adjustment has different antecedents and outcomes, which will be discussed further in chapter VII.



Legend - **W**: Work adjustment; **I**: Interaction adjustment; **G**: General adjustment; **F**: Family adjustment; **ok** - perceived positive relationship; **ok** - perceived negative relationship.

Figure 5 - Model of Expatriation Adjustment - Summary of Study I findings.



Legend - **W**: Work adjustment; **I**: Interaction adjustment; **G**: General adjustment; **F**: Family adjustment; **ok** - perceived positive relationship; **ok** - perceived negative relationship.

Figure 6 - Model of Repatriation Adjustment - Summary of Study I findings.

CHAPTER VI - RESULTS OF STUDY II

Until this point, the introduction and chapter II presented the theoretical foundations for this research. The chapter III identified the research questions and hypotheses, while chapter IV addressed the methodology followed. Chapter V presented the main findings from Study I. As this dissertation seeks to provide further information to the discussion of the factors influencing expatriation and repatriation adjustment, previous chapter presented data derived from a thematic content analysis, to the interviewees of 30 Portuguese international workers. Study I detailed some complex interactions between the main research variables and added completeness to the research field. Differently from Study I, Study II followed a quantitative approach to test the relevance of the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity as antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Study II tested the research hypotheses using an on-line survey, directed to an international sample of expatriates and repatriates. Therefore, this chapter reports the results of the statistical analyses conducted to test hypotheses. Overall, this chapter describes data analyses and contains four sections: factor analyses, correlation analyses, comparison of mean differences and regression analyses. Regression analyses separated results for the expatriate and repatriate samples to better assess the impact of the independent variables. Finally, the following chapter (chapter VII) will discuss the results from Study I and Study II within the context of the literature.

6.1 Data analyses

All statistical analyses were carried out using the SPSS statistical computer package, version 12.

Responses to the items measuring organizational culture, culture novelty, international adjustment, and withdrawal intentions were factor analyzed and factor scores obtained were used for subsequent data analysis. For all factor analysis, principal components method of extraction was used as the variables did not followed a normal distribution. A minimum value of 0.50 was used as the criterion to determine the factor loading for each item. Correlations between the major variables of the study were calculated. ANOVA and several t-tests were also used to compare the mean factor differences and compare expatriate and repatriate samples on the factor scores derived from the factor analyses. Regression analyses

were used to examine the extent to which respondent's adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions can be predicted from organizational culture variables. Regression analysis was also used to investigate the influence of individual and organizational demographic variables (age, gender, position, tenure in the company, type of industry, internationalization stage, etc.) and other moderator variables (such as spouse's adjustment and previous cross-cultural training). The moderating effect of the perception of national culture novelty on the relationships was also examined by including interactions with culture novelty in the regression equations.

6.2 Factor analyses

Normality tests, reliability statistics and factor analyses were conducted for the variables of organizational culture, cross-cultural adjustment, culture novelty and withdrawal intentions. APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II, presents further details on the procedures employed.

6.2.1 Organizational culture

Factor analyses of the organizational culture items (for home and host companies) yielded two factors that can readily be interpreted in terms of the original concepts of sociability and solidarity (Goffee and Jones, 1998). However, four items showed consistently poor results, both with data for home and host organizational culture, and as such were removed from the scales (see APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II for details). The resulting factors altogether explained 43.61% of the total variance in the data for home organizational culture and 44.53% of the variance in the data for host organizational culture.

The sociability factor is most strongly defined by nine items: (1) People genuinely like one another, (2) People often socialize outside of work; (3) People do favors for each other because they like one another; (4) People make friends for the sake of friendship – there is no other agenda; (5) People often confide in one another about personal matters, (6) People build close long-term relationships – someday they may be of benefit; (7) People know a lot about each other's families; (8) When people leave, co-workers stay in contact to see how they are doing, and (9) People protect each other.

The solidarity factor is most strongly defined by ten items: (1) people know business objectives clearly; (2) people follow clear guidelines and instructions about work; (3) poor

performance is dealt with quickly and firmly, (4) the group really wants to win; (5) when opportunities for competitive advantage arise people move decisively to capitalize them; (6) strategic goals are shared; (7) reward and punishment are clear; (8) the group is determined to beat clearly defined enemies; (9) projects that are started are completed; and (10) at the company, it is clear where one person's job ends and another person's begins.

To assess the internal consistency of these 19 organizational culture items, coefficients alphas were computed. The coefficients range from 0.807 to 0.844. which indicates a good internal consistency (cf. Pestana and Gageiro, 2003) and supports the decision to remove the four items that were poorly correlated with each factor.

To determine whether certain types of organizational cultures were related with the dependent variables, the profile of home and host organizational culture of the respondents was determined (Goffee and Jones, 1998). This procedure seemed valuable as a complement of searching for differences related with the separate dimensions of sociability and solidarity. Based on Goffee and Jones (1998) procedure, Table 5 shows the resulting profiles, distinguishing home and destination organizational culture, for the total sample and for expatriates and repatriates separately.

Organizational Culture						
Type	Total Sample (N = 221)		Expatriates Sample (N=166)		Repatriates Sample (N=55)	
	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage	Frequency	Percentage
Home Organizational Culture						
Communal	123	55.70%	92	55.40%	31	56.40%
Networked	31	14.00%	23	13.90%	8	14.50%
Fragmented	34	15.40%	25	15.10%	9	16.40%
Mercenary	33	14.90%	26	15.70%	7	12.70%
Host Organizational Culture						
Communal	127	57.50%	95	57.20%	32	58.20%
Networked	51	23.10%	38	22.90%	13	23.60%
Fragmented	25	11.30%	18	10.80%	7	12.70%
Mercenary	18	8.10%	15	9.00%	3	5.50%

Table 5 - Home and host organizational culture profiles.

The results showed that over 50% of the respondents perceived their home and host companies as having a communal culture type (e.g., having high sociability and solidarity), which challenges Goffee and Jones (1998) view, regarding the dominance of this culture type

among small and new companies. In this study, more than 50% of the total respondents worked for organizations operating in more than 16 different countries and employing more than 20,000 employees, which clearly indicates they were employed in large corporations. Nevertheless, most companies were perceived as having a communal culture, which indicates individuals not only share strong and common business goals as build strong long-term personal relationships based on trust and friendship.

6.2.2 Cross-cultural adjustment

Factor analysis of the 14 items commonly used to assess international adjustment suggested that three factors could be extracted, which confirms other authors analyses (Black, 1988; Black and Stephens, 1989; Black *et al.* 1991). These factors collectively accounted for 66.38% of data variance (see APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II for further details). Factor 1 can be easily interpreted as general adjustment and explained 42.81% of data variance. Factor 2 can be identified as interaction adjustment and explained 12.91% of data variance. Finally, factor 3 included the three items of work adjustment, which explained an additional 10.66% of data variance. To assess the internal consistency of these three adjustment dimensions, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were computed. The coefficients varied from 0.806 for work adjustment, to 0.864 for interaction adjustment and 0.877 for general adjustment, which indicate an adequate internal consistency (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003).

In addition, the 11 items of the spouse's adjustment were also factor analyzed (see further details in APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II). These 11 items resulted in two factors with eigenvalues greater than one. The first factor included seven items that measured general adjustment. The second factor consisted of four items that loaded above 0.5 and were designed to measure interaction adjustment. Both factors accounted for 91.93% of data variance and Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from 0.981 to 0.984 for spouse general and interaction adjustment, which indicate scales have a very good internal reliability (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003).

6.2.3 Culture novelty

The internal consistency obtained for the 16 items scale of culture novelty was 0.865. which is far above the range obtained before. The eight items measure of culture novelty derived from literature (Torbiorn, 1982; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Black and Stephens, 1989; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999), usually revealed low internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha

coefficients below 0.70), which supported the addition of eight items, as done in this research. However, five items showed a poor inter-scale correlation (lower than 0.5), which lead to the scale revision (see details in APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II). A new measure of culture novelty, formed with nine items, was tested. It revealed a Cronbach's alpha coefficient high and almost unchanged (cronbach alpha =0.828). Also, a principal components factor analysis, using Varimax rotation, suggested that one single factor can be extracted. This factor, alone, explained 42.66% of data variance. Based in these results, the new nine items scale was adopted. The culture novelty factor is most strongly defined by the differences between home and destination countries in the following items: (1) everyday customs, (2) general living conditions, (3) transportation systems, (4) available quality and types of food, (5) general housing conditions, (6) education facilities and opportunities, (7) entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities, (8) political system, (9) religion.

6.2.4 Withdrawal intentions

As obtained by Carmeli (2005), three factors with eigenvalues grater than one, emerged from a principal components factor analysis, using Oblimin procedure. These factors collectively accounted for 84.86% of data variance. After examining the loadings, the three factors can be labeled as withdrawal intentions from the organization (factor 1), withdrawal intentions from the job/assignment (factor 2) and withdrawal intentions from the occupation (factor 3). The scales internal consistencies, computed by Cronbach's alpha coefficients were high for separated scales as for the nine items scale, ranging from 0.858 to 0.945.

6.2.5 Variables descriptive and internal consistency

Table 6 summarizes the descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha for the model variables.

General Variable	Specific Variables	Based on	Scale Statistics				Scale Cronbach's Alpha
			Number of items	Mean	SD	Range	
Home Organizational Culture	Sociability	<i>Goffee & Jones (1998)</i>	9 items	28.87	5.98	9-45	0.807
	Solidarity		10 items	32.90	6.53	10-50	0.830
Host Organizational Culture	Sociability	<i>Goffee & Jones (1998)</i>	9 items	27.10	6.54	9-45	0.835
	Solidarity		10 items	31.39	7.21	10-50	0.844
Adjustment	Work	<i>Black et al. (1991); Black & Stephens (1989)</i>	3 items	5.15	1.31	1-7	0.806
	Interaction		4 items	4.37	1.53	1-7	0.864
	General		7 items	4.89	1.28	1-7	0.877
Spouse Adjustment	Interaction	<i>Black & Stephens (1989)</i>	4 items	2.99	2.54	1-7	0.984
	General		7 items	3.38	2.58	1-7	0.981
Culture Novelty	Culture differences	<i>Torbiorn (1982)</i>	9 items	3.61	0.79	1-5	0.828
Satisfaction	General Satisfaction	<i>Bonache (2005)</i>	5 items	3.60	0.96	1-5	0.905
Withdrawal Intentions	Assignment	<i>Carmeli et al. (2005)</i>	3 items	2.38	1.19	1-5	0.858
	Occupation		3 items	2.13	1.23	1-5	0.903
	Organization		3 items	2.09	1.16	1-5	0.945

Table 6 - Descriptive statistics and Cronbach's alpha for the model variables

A review of Table 6 reveals that:

(1) The mean scores for sociability and solidarity are above the mid-level point of the respective scales, which is 22 for sociability and 25 for solidarity;

(2) The mean scores for the three adjustment variables are above the mid-level point of the scale ranging from (1) highly unadjusted to (7) highly adjusted. Interaction adjustment has a lower mean than the other two dimensions of adjustment, which is consistent with other research findings (Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar, 2007; Selmer, 2007, 2006, 2005; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Selmer and Leung, 2003a; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Black and Stephens, 1989).

(3) The mean scores for spouse adjustment are below the mid-level point of the scale, and lower than expatriation adjustment, which indicates that respondents perceived their spouse's adjustment as being more difficult than their own;

(4) The mean score for general satisfaction is above the mid-point of the respective scale, which indicates respondents are generally satisfied with their assignments.

(5) The mean scores for withdrawal intentions are below the mid-level of the respective scales, which indicates respondents generally do not intend to leave their assignments, organizations and occupations prematurely.

(6) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation have a lower mean than withdrawal intentions from the organization and the assignment, which is consistent with previous research findings (Carmeli, 2005).

(7) Finally, all scales revealed a satisfactory internal consistency (above 0.80), similar to comparable studies (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black and Gregersen, 1991b).

6.3 Correlation analyses

Table 7 shows the correlations among the main variables and demographics of the study for the entire sample. All adjustment variables are significantly inter-correlated, as all withdrawal intentions measures.

In general, main correlations are modest (lower than 0.50). The strongest correlations are between the three withdrawal intentions variables and between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the assignment ($r = -0.516$). Table 7 indicates near zero correlations between home sociability and solidarity, between work and interaction adjustment, between host culture sociability and solidarity, and between interaction and general adjustment. Correlations are small but statistically significant between home sociability and general adjustment ($r = 0.194$; $p < 0.01$); and between host solidarity and work adjustment ($r = 0.173$; $p < 0.05$).

Regarding demographic variables (Table 7), relatively low correlations of less than 0.30 are found among them and the other main variables of the study. Age is positively and significantly related with previous international experience ($r = 0.55$; $p < 0.01$), with tenure in the company ($r = 0.49$; $p < 0.01$) and tenure in the position ($r = 0.38$; $p < 0.01$). Gender (female) is negatively and significantly correlated with spouse interaction ($r = -0.20$; $p < 0.01$) and general adjustment ($r = -0.17$; $p < 0.05$), which indicates spouse's of female expatriates and repatriates' have more difficulties adjusting than spouses' of male international workers. Moreover, spouse adjustment is positively and significantly correlated with expatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment and with expatriates' general satisfaction. In addition, spouse adjustment is negatively and significantly correlated with withdrawal intentions. Measures of spouse adjustment are positively and significantly correlated ($r = 0.88$; $p < 0.01$). Host language fluency is positively correlated with interaction adjustment and spouse interaction adjustment. Additionally, company experience abroad is negatively correlated with

the three forms of withdrawal intentions and unrelated with adjustment. Company experience abroad is positively and significantly correlated with hours of training.

Table 8 and Table 9 present the descriptive and correlations for the main variables, respectively for the expatriate and repatriates' samples.

General Variable	Specific Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	
Home Organizational Culture	1 Home Sociability		0.47**	-0.72**	0.11	0.21**	-0.08	-0.01	0.06	0.19**	-0.05	0.07	-0.02	-0.03	-0.03	-0.20**	0.08	-0.06	-0.05	-0.20**	-0.04	-0.07	-0.25**	-0.05	-0.01	0.01	-0.08	-0.01	-0.01	0.00	0.06	
	2 Home Solidarity	0.47**		-0.35**	0.21**	0.37**	-0.17*	0.08	-0.03	0.05	0.01	0.09	-0.19**	-0.25**	-0.28**	-0.02	-0.02	-0.03	0.05	0.04	0.11	0.06	-0.04	-0.02	0.04	0.07	-0.05	0.01	0.05	-0.01	0.17*	
	3 Home Culture Type	-0.72**	-0.35**		0.02	-0.13	0.05	0.04	-0.04	-0.10	0.01	0.01	0.03	0.02	0.01	0.18**	-0.07	0.04	0.10	0.21**	0.08	0.05	0.22**	0.03	0.02	0.00	0.12	0.01	-0.02	0.00	-0.04	
Host Organizational Culture	4 Host Sociability	0.11	0.21**	0.02		0.38**	-0.70**	0.14*	0.10	0.03	-0.09	0.32**	-0.18**	-0.15*	-0.08	-0.03	0.02	-0.16*	0.06	-0.03	0.19*	0.01	-0.07	0.08	0.08	0.05	0.14	0.04	0.11	0.04	0.02	
	5 Host Solidarity	0.21**	0.37**	-0.13	0.38**		-0.42**	0.17*	0.01	0.12	-0.12	0.39**	-0.31**	-0.26**	-0.20**	-0.10	-0.04	-0.18**	-0.06	-0.15*	0.10	0.04	-0.15	0.12	0.15*	0.14*	-0.02	0.08	0.14*	0.08	0.08	
	6 Host Culture Type	-0.08	-0.17*	0.05	-0.70**	-0.42**		-0.08	-0.05	0.05	0.10	-0.30**	0.17**	0.13	0.04	0.00	0.05	0.13	0.01	-0.01	-0.17*	-0.06	0.04	-0.10	-0.12	-0.18**	-0.03	-0.02	-0.14*	0.04	0.03	
Adjustment	7 Work Adjustment	-0.01	0.08	0.04	0.14*	0.17*	-0.08		0.35**	0.47**	0.10	0.35**	-0.24**	-0.09	-0.08	0.06	-0.05	0.04	0.04	0.09	0.02	0.07	0.08	0.25**	0.27**	-0.06	0.06	0.11	-0.03	-0.04	0.07	
	8 Interaction Adjustment	0.06	-0.03	-0.04	0.10	0.01	-0.05	0.35**		0.47**	0.05	0.26**	-0.13	-0.04	0.03	0.06	-0.16*	0.04	-0.06	0.13	0.06	0.07	0.04	0.38**	0.22**	-0.02	0.03	0.29**	0.06	-0.10	0.04	
	9 General Adjustment	0.19**	0.05	-0.10	0.03	0.12	0.05	0.47**	0.47**		0.03	0.33**	-0.21**	-0.07	-0.02	-0.10	0.02	0.00	-0.02	-0.03	0.04	0.04	-0.08	0.16*	0.27**	0.08	0.06	0.06	0.01	-0.16*	0.11	
Cultural Differences	10 Culture Novelty	-0.05	0.01	0.01	-0.09	-0.12	0.10	0.10	0.05	0.03		-0.15*	0.14*	0.13	0.08	0.17*	-0.17*	0.03	0.10	0.14*	-0.03	0.12	0.11	0.07	0.09	0.10	0.08	-0.19**	-0.16*	0.00	-0.06	
Satisfaction	11 General Satisfaction	0.07	0.09	0.01	0.32**	0.39**	-0.30**	0.35**	0.26**	0.33**	-0.15*		-0.52**	-0.44**	-0.30**	0.06	-0.01	-0.08	-0.01	0.01	0.18*	0.08	0.00	0.26**	0.28**	0.12	0.10	0.03	0.06	-0.01	0.05	
Withdrawal Intentions	12 Assignment Withdrawal	-0.02	-0.19**	0.03	-0.18**	-0.31**	0.17**	-0.24**	-0.13	-0.21**	0.14*		-0.52**	0.75**	0.68**	-0.10	0.07	0.00	-0.03	0.00	-0.18*	-0.01	0.05	-0.16*	-0.21**	-0.18**	-0.07	0.00	-0.03	-0.08	-0.16*	
	13 Organization Withdrawal	-0.03	-0.25**	0.02	-0.15*	-0.26**	0.13	-0.09	-0.04	-0.07	0.13	-0.44**	0.75**		0.78**	-0.03	0.05	-0.02	-0.02	0.02	-0.17*	0.03	-0.02	-0.15*	-0.17**	-0.16**	-0.11	-0.09	-0.07	-0.13	-0.18*	
	14 Occupation Withdrawal	-0.03	-0.28**	0.01	-0.08	-0.20**	0.04	-0.08	0.03	-0.02	0.08	-0.30**	0.68**	0.78**		-0.13	0.07	-0.07	-0.09	-0.12	-0.19**	-0.08	-0.17	-0.10	-0.15*	-0.08	-0.10	-0.02	-0.09	-0.04	-0.16*	
Individual Control Variables	15 Age	-0.20**	-0.02	0.18**	-0.03	-0.10	0.00	0.06	0.06	-0.10	0.17*	0.06	-0.10	-0.03	-0.13		-0.16*	0.24**	0.17*	0.55**	0.49**	0.38**	0.41**	0.15*	0.17*	-0.01	0.10	-0.08	0.08	0.05	0.03	
	16 Gender	0.08	-0.02	-0.07	0.02	-0.04	0.05	-0.05	-0.16*	0.02	-0.17*	-0.01	0.07	0.05	0.07	-0.16*		0.02	0.04	-0.14*	-0.19*	-0.14	-0.08	-0.20**	-0.17*	-0.06	-0.08	-0.07	0.03	0.07	0.01	
	17 Marital Status	-0.06	-0.03	0.04	-0.16*	-0.18**	0.13	0.04	0.04	0.00	0.03	-0.08	0.00	-0.02	-0.07	0.24**	0.02		0.07	0.25**	0.06	0.06	0.21*	0.07	0.10	-0.02	0.00	0.06	-0.08	-0.01	-0.03	
	18 Educational Level	-0.05	0.05	0.10	0.06	-0.06	0.01	0.04	-0.06	-0.02	0.10	-0.01	-0.03	-0.02	-0.09	0.17*	0.04	0.07		0.09	0.10	-0.05	0.10	0.01	-0.01	-0.01	0.09	0.03	-0.04	-0.03	0.16*	
	19 Previous Intern. Experience	-0.20**	0.04	0.21**	-0.03	-0.15*	-0.01	0.09	0.13	-0.03	0.14*	0.01	0.00	0.02	-0.12	0.55**	-0.14*	0.25**	0.09		0.27**	0.20**	0.55**	0.13	0.12	0.07	0.10	0.08	-0.06	-0.05	0.06	
	20 Tenure in the company	-0.04	0.11	0.08	0.19*	0.10	-0.17*	0.02	0.06	0.04	-0.03	0.18*	-0.18*	-0.17*	-0.19**	0.49**	-0.19*	0.06	0.10	0.27**		0.42**	0.44**	0.16*	0.17*	0.04	0.00	-0.02	0.11	0.00	0.07	
	21 Tenure in the position	-0.07	0.06	0.05	0.01	0.04	-0.06	0.07	0.07	0.04	0.12	0.08	-0.01	0.03	-0.08	0.38**	-0.14	0.06	-0.05	0.20**	0.42**		0.58**	0.09	0.13	0.02	-0.03	-0.05	-0.11	-0.02	-0.06	
	22 Tenure in the assignment	-0.25*	-0.04	0.22**	-0.07	-0.15	0.04	0.08	0.04	-0.08	0.11	0.00	0.05	-0.02	-0.17	0.41**	-0.08	0.21*	0.10	0.55**	0.44**	0.58**		-0.06	-0.07	-0.07	0.10	-0.04	-0.07	-0.13	0.08	
	23 Spouse Interaction Adjustment	-0.05	-0.02	0.03	0.08	0.12	-0.10	0.25**	0.38**	0.16*	0.07	0.26**	-0.16*	-0.15*	-0.10	0.15*	-0.20**	0.07	0.01	0.13	0.16*	0.09	-0.06		0.88**	0.03	0.12	0.21**	0.08	0.00	0.03	
	24 Spouse General Adjustment	-0.01	0.04	0.02	0.08	0.15*	-0.12	0.27**	0.22**	0.27**	0.09	0.28**	-0.21**	-0.17**	-0.15*	0.17*	-0.17*	0.10	-0.01	0.12	0.17*	0.13	-0.07	0.88**		0.05	0.11	0.16*	0.07	-0.03	0.03	
	25 Cross-Cultural training	0.01	0.07	0.00	0.05	0.14*	-0.18**	-0.06	-0.02	0.08	0.10	0.12	-0.18**	-0.16*	-0.08	-0.01	-0.06	-0.02	-0.01	0.07	0.04	0.02	-0.07	0.03	0.05		0.21**	0.00	0.04	0.06	0.22**	
26 Hours Training	-0.08	-0.05	0.12	0.14	-0.02	-0.03	0.06	0.03	0.06	0.08	0.10	-0.07	-0.11	-0.10	0.03	-0.08	0.00	0.09	0.10	0.00	-0.03	0.10	0.12	0.11	0.21**		0.11	0.04	0.07	0.04		
27 Host Language Fluency	-0.01	0.01	0.04	0.08	-0.02	0.11	0.29**	0.06	-0.19**	0.03	0.00	-0.09	-0.02	-0.08	-0.07	0.06	0.03	0.08	-0.02	-0.05	-0.04	0.21**	0.16*	0.00	0.11		0.04	0.01		0.01	-0.12	-0.04
Company Control Variables	28 Industry	-0.01	0.05	-0.02	0.11	0.14*	-0.14*	-0.03	0.06	0.01	-0.16*	0.06	-0.03	-0.07	-0.09	0.08	0.03	-0.08	-0.04	-0.06	0.11	-0.11	-0.07	0.08	0.07	0.04	0.04	0.01		-0.10	-0.06	
	29 Stage of Internationalization	0.00	-0.01	0.00	0.04	0.08	0.04	-0.04	-0.10	-0.16*	0.00	-0.01	-0.08	-0.13	-0.04	0.05	0.07	-0.01	-0.03	-0.05	0.00	-0.02	-0.13	0.00	-0.03	0.06	0.07	-0.12	-0.10		0.02	
	30 Experience abroad	0.06	0.17*	-0.04	0.02	0.08	0.03	0.07	0.04	0.11	-0.06	0.05	-0.16*	-0.18*	-0.16*	0.03	0.01	-0.03	0.16*	0.06	0.07	-0.06	0.08	0.03	0.03	0.22**	0.03	-0.04	-0.06	0.02		

Table 7 - Correlations among the main variables and demographics for the entire sample

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tail).
 **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tail).

General Variable	Specific Variables	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Home Organizational Culture	1 Home Sociability	166	28.83	6.04		0.47**	-0.73**	0.14	0.24**	-0.10	0.06	0.12	0.25**	-0.03	0.12	0.06	0.04	0.05
	2 Home Solidarity	166	33.23	6.30	0.47**		-0.37**	0.20**	0.38**	-0.15	0.16*	0.05	0.17*	0.05	0.15	-0.12	-0.20**	-0.22**
	3 Home Culture Type	166	1.91	1.15	-0.73**	-0.37**		-0.04	-0.15*	0.07	-0.03	-0.06	-0.13	0.04	-0.02	-0.04	0.00	0.01
Host Organizational Culture	4 Host Sociability	166	26.92	6.40	0.14	0.20**	-0.04		0.35**	-0.69**	0.13	0.18*	0.04	-0.06	0.30**	-0.14	-0.12	0.00
	5 Host Solidarity	166	31.39	7.02	0.24**	0.38**	-0.15*	0.35**		-0.38**	0.19*	0.07	0.17*	-0.11	0.39**	-0.24**	-0.18*	-0.10
	6 Host Culture Type	166	1.72	0.98	-0.10	-0.15	0.07	-0.69**	-0.38**		-0.06	-0.10	0.06	0.05	-0.29**	0.13	0.12	-0.03
Adjustment	7 Work Adjustment	166	5.11	1.33	0.06	0.16*	-0.03	0.13	0.19*	-0.06		0.35**	0.49**	0.10	0.35**	-0.27**	-0.12	-0.10
	8 Interaction Adjustment	166	4.26	1.47	0.12	0.05	-0.06	0.18*	0.07	-0.10	0.35**		0.42**	0.05	0.26**	-0.18*	-0.11	-0.03
	9 General Adjustment	166	4.88	1.25	0.25*	0.17*	-0.13	0.04	0.17*	0.06	0.49**	0.42**		0.02	0.35**	-0.21**	-0.08	-0.03
Cultural Differences	10 Culture Novelty	166	3.60	0.77	-0.03	0.05	0.04	-0.06	-0.11	0.05	0.10	0.05	0.02		-0.12	0.12	0.08	0.03
Satisfaction	11 General Satisfaction	166	3.56	0.98	0.12	0.15	-0.02	0.30**	0.39**	-0.29**	0.35**	0.26**	0.35**	-0.12		-0.56**	-0.45**	-0.31**
Withdrawal Intentions	12 Assignment Withdrawal	166	2.31	1.19	0.06	-0.12	-0.04	-0.14	-0.24**	0.13	-0.27**	-0.18*	-0.21**	0.12	-0.56**		0.72**	0.63**
	13 Organization Withdrawal	166	2.09	1.23	0.04	-0.20**	0.00	-0.12	-0.18*	0.12	-0.12	-0.11	-0.08	0.08	-0.45**	0.72**		0.74**
	14 Occupation Withdrawal	166	2.05	1.12	0.05	-0.22**	0.01	0.00	-0.10	-0.03	-0.10	-0.03	-0.03	0.03	-0.31**	0.63**	0.74**	

Table 8 - Descriptive and correlations among the main variables for the expatriates' sample

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tail).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tail).

General Variable	Specific Variables	N	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Home Organizational Culture	1 Home Sociability	55	29.00	5.83		0.49**	-0.68**	0.02	0.13	-0.03	-0.23	-0.11	0.02	-0.12	-0.12	-0.28*	-0.26	-0.23
	2 Home Solidarity	55	31.93	7.16	0.49**		-0.31*	0.26	0.33*	-0.26	-0.13	-0.20	-0.23	-0.08	-0.07	-0.33*	-0.37**	-0.40**
	3 Home Culture Type	55	1.85	1.11	-0.68**	-0.31*		0.19	-0.07	-0.01	0.28*	0.01	0.00	-0.05	0.10	0.23	0.10	0.03
Host Organizational Culture	4 Host Sociability	55	27.65	6.98	0.02	0.26	0.19		0.45**	-0.71**	0.18	-0.13	0.02	-0.17	0.38**	-0.30**	-0.26	-0.29*
	5 Host Solidarity	55	31.40	7.83	0.13	0.33*	-0.07	0.45**		-0.53**	0.12	-0.12	0.00	-0.14	0.39**	-0.53**	-0.46**	-0.44**
	6 Host Culture Type	55	1.65	0.91	-0.03	-0.26	-0.01	-0.71**	-0.53**		-0.14	0.10	0.03	0.24	-0.30*	0.34*	0.17	0.27*
Adjustment	7 Work Adjustment	55	5.27	1.26	-0.23	-0.13	0.28*	0.18	0.12	-0.14		0.35**	0.39**	0.09	0.35**	-0.15	-0.03	-0.02
	8 Interaction Adjustment	55	4.71	1.64	-0.11	-0.20	0.01	-0.13	-0.12	0.10	0.35**		0.62**	0.06	0.24	-0.04	0.12	0.15
	9 General Adjustment	55	4.93	1.37	0.02	-0.23	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.39**	0.62**		0.03	0.31*	-0.23	-0.05	0.00
Cultural Differences	10 Culture Novelty	55	3.62	0.85	-0.12	-0.08	-0.05	-0.17	-0.14	0.24	0.09	0.06	0.03		-0.25	0.16	0.25	0.21
Satisfaction	11 General Satisfaction	55	3.73	0.91	-0.12	-0.07	0.10	0.38**	0.39**	-0.30*	0.35**	0.24	0.31*	-0.25		-0.42**	-0.44**	-0.29*
Withdrawal Intentions	12 Assignment Withdrawal	55	2.59	1.21	-0.28*	-0.33*	0.23	-0.30*	-0.53**	0.34*	-0.15	-0.04	-0.23	0.16	-0.42**		0.84**	0.80**
	13 Organization Withdrawal	55	2.23	1.23	-0.26	-0.37**	0.10	-0.26	-0.46**	0.17	-0.03	0.12	-0.05	0.25	-0.44**	0.84**		0.90**
	14 Occupation Withdrawal	55	2.21	1.29	-0.23	-0.40**	0.03	-0.29*	-0.44**	0.27*	-0.02	0.15	0.00	0.21	-0.29*	0.80**	0.90**	

Table 9 - Descriptive and correlations among the main variables for the repatriates' sample

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tail).

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tail).

The results of the correlation analyses revealed the following:

(1) *Correlations* are modest for all variables (lower than 0.50), except between the measures of adjustment and the measures of withdrawal intentions, which are moderately inter-correlated.

(2) *Culture novelty* is not significantly correlated with expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, which contradicts previous empirical findings and do not support hypothesis H1E and H1R. For the entire sample, culture novelty correlated significantly and negatively with general satisfaction ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.05$), that is the higher the cultural differences between home and host countries the lower the general satisfaction. It also correlates significantly and positively with assignment withdrawal ($r=0.14$; $p<0.05$), that is the higher the cultural differences the higher the withdrawal intentions from the assignment.

(3) *Sociability and solidarity* dimensions of home and host organizational culture are positively and significantly correlated with cross-cultural adjustment, but only for the expatriates' sample. Repatriates adjustment is not significantly related with organizational culture, with the exception of home culture type and work adjustment.

(4) For the *expatriates sample*, home sociability is positively and significantly correlated with general adjustment ($r=0.25$; $p<0.01$), but not with work and interaction adjustment, which supports hypothesis H2Ec), but not hypotheses H2Ea) and H2Eb). For the same sample, home solidarity is positively correlated with work adjustment ($r=0.16$; $p<0.05$), which supports hypothesis H3E. Further, home solidarity is positively and significantly correlated with general adjustment ($r=0.17$; $p<0.05$).

(5) *Host organizational culture dimensions* are differently related with expatriates' adjustment: host sociability is positively correlated with interaction adjustment ($r=0.18$; $p<0.05$), which supports hypothesis H4Eb), while host solidarity is positively correlated with work adjustment (0.19 ; $p<0.05$), which supports hypothesis H5E. Further, host solidarity is positively correlated with expatriates general adjustment ($r=0.17$; $p<0.05$).

(6) *Cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction* are positively and significantly correlated for both expatriates and repatriates, except in the case of repatriates interaction adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.24$; $p>0.05$). These results generally support hypothesis H6E, H7E and H8E and H6R, and H8R.

(7) Expatriates cross-cultural adjustment is negatively and significantly correlated with assignment *withdrawal intentions* (r ranges from -0.27 to -0.18) but not with organization and occupation withdrawal intentions. These results support hypothesis H9Ea); H10Ea) and H11Ea), but not hypothesis H9Eb)c) H10Eb) and c), and H11Eb) and c).

(8) *Repatriates cross-cultural adjustment* is not significantly correlated with the measures of withdrawal intentions, which do not support hypothesis H9R, H10R and H11R.

(9) Expatriates and repatriates' *general satisfaction* is negatively and significantly correlated with the three withdrawal intentions measures, which gave support to hypothesis H12E and H12R.

(10) Home organizational culture is negatively and significantly correlated with *withdrawal intentions* both for expatriates and repatriates samples. Namely, home solidarity is negatively correlated with expatriates and repatriates organizational and occupational withdrawal intentions. Home solidarity is also negatively and significantly correlated with repatriates' assignment withdrawal. The home sociability dimension is significantly and negatively correlated with repatriates' assignment withdrawal, which supports hypothesis H13Ra)

(11) *Host organizational culture* is also negatively correlated with expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, especially for host solidarity and repatriates intentions to withdrawal from assignment, organization and occupation. For the expatriates' sample, host solidarity correlates negatively and significantly with assignment and organization withdrawal. Host sociability is significantly and negatively related with repatriates assignment withdrawal ($r=-0.30$; $p<0.05$) and organizational withdrawal ($r=-0.29$; $p<0.05$).

(12) *Host organizational culture* dimensions of sociability and solidarity correlate positively and significantly with expatriates and repatriates general satisfaction, which was not hypothesized in this research.

6.4 Comparison of mean differences

At this stage, the empirical study consisted of determining whether differences existed between the mean scores of the dependent variables and the organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity of home and host companies, comparing the expatriates and repatriates samples. To this end, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) and t-tests were used (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for

details). Table 10 compares the mean factor scores for the expatriates and repatriates samples. Following, detailed comparisons are made for cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, according to organizational culture dimensions and culture novelty. Further, mean score differences are presented for general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, according to cross-cultural adjustment.

6.4.1 Comparison of expatriates and repatriates samples

A comparison of factor scores, defined from the above factor analyses, between the expatriate and repatriate samples was done using a series of t-test. Table 10 summarizes the results of these analyses.

Variables		Descriptive statistics			t-Tests for Equality of Means		
		N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)
Home Sociability	Expatriates	166	28.83	6.043	-0.187	219	0.852
	Repatriates	55	29.00	5.831			
Home Solidarity	Expatriates	166	33.23	6.301	1.283	219	0.201
	Repatriates	55	31.93	7.157			
Host Sociability	Expatriates	166	26.92	6.403	-0.719	219	0.473
	Repatriates	55	27.65	6.979			
Host Solidarity	Expatriates	166	31.39	7.016	-0.008	219	0.994
	Repatriates	55	31.40	7.833			
Work Adjustment	Expatriates	166	5.11	1.334	-0.812	219	0.417
	Repatriates	55	5.27	1.259			
Interaction Adjustment	Expatriates	166	4.26	1.474	-1.894	219	0.060
	Repatriates	55	4.71	1.643			
General Adjustment	Expatriates	166	4.88	1.249	-0.231	219	0.818
	Repatriates	55	4.93	1.374			
Culture Novelty	Expatriates	166	3.60	0.772	-0.139	219	0.890
	Repatriates	55	3.62	0.853			
General Satisfaction	Expatriates	166	3.56	0.981	-1.146	219	0.253
	Repatriates	55	3.73	0.908			
Assignment Withdrawal	Expatriates	166	2.31	1.187	-1.481	219	0.140
	Repatriates	55	2.59	1.207			
Organization Withdrawal	Expatriates	166	2.09	1.233	-0.719	219	0.473
	Repatriates	55	2.23	1.233			
Occupation Withdrawal	Expatriates	166	2.05	1.118	-0.872	219	0.384
	Repatriates	55	2.21	1.290			

Table 10 - A comparison of mean factor scores for the expatriates and repatriates samples, for the main research variables

Generally, the repatriate sample scored high on adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. However, there are no statistically significant differences between the two samples for the 12 main variables. Additionally, the two samples do not differ significantly on the demographic variables, except for some characteristics related with their company of origin. Specifically, expatriate and repatriates' samples differed on their companies' type of industry, home base and internationalization stage: expatriates perceived their companies as being more "global" than repatriates did. In addition, repatriates mentioned often having difficulties in finding a position upon return and not having been promoted upon return, which is something expatriates still have not direct experience (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for a comparison of demographic mean factor scores for the expatriates and repatriates samples).

6.4.2 Comparison of mean score differences of the dependent variables

The next sections contain the results for the one-way analyses (ANOVA), which determined the mean score differences for the dependent variables (cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions) according to the variables of organizational culture and culture novelty. It also contains the comparison of mean score differences for general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions according to cross-cultural adjustment.

6.4.2.1 Organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment

Based on correlation results, the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variable of cross-cultural adjustment (see Table 7 – page 175). Besides, all correlations were modest.

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for these dependent variables (e.g., work, interaction and general adjustment) differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for cross-cultural adjustment according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that:

(1) Expatriates' general adjustment is higher when home and host organizational cultures are perceived as having high sociability (respectively $F=1.743$; $p<0.05$ and $F=1.588$; $p<0.05$);

(2) Repatriates' work adjustment is higher when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability ($F=3.355$; $p<0.01$).

These findings support hypotheses H2Ec) and H4Ec), which assume a positive association between home and host sociability and expatriates' general adjustment. Further, hypothesis H4Ra), which assumes a positive association between host sociability and repatriates' work adjustment is supported.

To determine whether cross-cultural adjustment differs according to organizational culture profile, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were conducted, which revealed no significant differences for cross-cultural adjustment according to home and host organizational culture profiles (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for further details).

Based on the results of ANOVA analyses, the hypothesis of the existence of a better organizational culture to ease expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment is not supported.

6.4.2.2 Organizational culture and general satisfaction

Based on correlation results, the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variable of general satisfaction (see Table 7– page 175). Significant positive correlations were found between host sociability and solidarity and general satisfaction (respectively $r=0.32$; $p<0.01$; $r=0.39$; $p<0.01$). Moreover, host culture type correlated negatively and significantly with general satisfaction ($r=-0.30$; $p<0.01$)

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for general satisfaction according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that:

(1) Expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is higher when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability ($F=1.812$; $p<0.05$) and high solidarity ($F=1.997$; $p<0.01$);

(2) Repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment does not differ significantly according to organizational culture dimensions.

To determine whether general satisfaction with the assignment differed according to home and host organizational culture profiles, one-way analyses were conducted (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II).

In summary, one-way analyses of variances (ANOVA) revealed that:

(1) There are no significant differences on expatriates' satisfaction related with home organizational culture type.

(2) Expatriates' general satisfaction is higher when host culture is communal (e.g., high sociability and solidarity) and lower when host organizational culture is perceived as fragmented (e.g., low sociability and low solidarity).

(3) There are no significant differences on repatriates' satisfaction related with home and host organizational culture type.

The results showed that expatriates and repatriates general satisfaction with the assignment varied with host organizational culture profiles, being higher when the host company is perceived as having a communal culture type. The mean scores differences were statistically significant for expatriates ($F=8.687$; $p<0.001$) but not for repatriates ($F=2.316$; $p=0.8$) (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for further details). These findings, together with the absence of differences in expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment according to organizational culture, are unexpected. The literature would have foreseen that high sociability would have led to a high level of support and therefore, increased cross-cultural adjustment. Therefore, communal and networked cultures would be expected to promote cross-cultural adjustment, which was not confirmed in this research. On the other hand, a positive association exist between the communal organizational culture profile (e.g., high in sociability and solidarity) and expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. It seems that organizational culture dimensions, regardless of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, influence expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. This finding will be explored further, in chapter VII.

6.4.2.3 Organizational culture and withdrawal intentions

Correlation results indicated that the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variables of withdrawal intentions (see Table 7 – page 175). For instance, significant negative correlations were detected between home and host solidarity and all three forms of withdrawal intentions.

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for withdrawal intentions according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that:

(1) Expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions are lower when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability ($F=1.824$; $p<0.05$);

(2) Expatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions are lower when home and host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability (respectively $F=1.616$; $p<0.05$ and $F=1.530$; $p=0.054$);

(3) Expatriates withdrawal intentions (in the three dimensions) are lower when host culture is high in solidarity (respectively $F=1.817$; $p<0.05$; $F=1.581$; $p<0.05$ and $F=1.559$; $p<0.05$);

(4) Repatriates withdrawal intentions from the occupation are lower when host culture is high in solidarity ($F=1.956$; $p<0.05$).

To determine whether differences existed between the mean scores of assignment, organization and occupation withdrawal intentions, according to home and host organizational culture profiles, several one-way analyses of variance were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) revealed that:

(1) No significant differences exist on expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions according to home organizational culture types;

(2) Expatriates withdrawal intentions are higher when host culture is networked. With the exception of expatriates occupational withdrawal intentions ($F=1.639$; $p= 0.183$), all mean score differences are statistically significant.

(3) Repatriates withdrawal intentions are higher when host culture is fragmented, and all mean score differences are statistically significant.

Although it was not predicted in this research, except for the negative influence of sociability on withdrawal intentions (hypothesis H13E and H13R), these findings reveal that organizational culture types are differently associated with expatriates and repatriates withdrawal intentions. Moreover, one can conclude that even if certain organizational culture

types do not influence cross-cultural adjustment they have an influence on general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions.

Results indicate that a communal destination culture promotes expatriates' general satisfaction, while a networked destination culture can increase expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the organization (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for further details). Conversely, a communal destination culture is also positively associated with repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment (though the differences were not statistically significant); while a fragmented destination culture can increase repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation.

6.4.2.4 Comparison of mean score differences of dependent variables according to culture novelty

Zero-order correlations revealed that with the exception of general satisfaction and assignment withdrawal intentions, all other dependent variables are not significantly correlated with culture novelty (see Table 7 – page 175). General satisfaction correlated negatively with culture novelty ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.05$), while withdrawal intentions from the assignment correlated positively with culture novelty ($r=0.14$; $p<0.05$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for the dependent variables (e.g., cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions) differed according to culture novelty, several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) revealed that:

- (1) Expatriates and repatriates dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment do not significantly differ according to culture novelty;
- (2) There are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, related with culture novelty;
- (3) There are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, related with culture novelty, even if withdrawal intentions are generally lower when culture novelty is low.

These findings do not support hypothesis H1E and H1R, which assume a negative association between culture novelty and (a) work adjustment, (b) interaction adjustment, and (c) general adjustment. The literature would have foreseen that high cultural differences

between home and host countries would lead to high difficulties to adjust. The results obtained for work, interaction and general adjustment were not statistically significant and correlations were close to zero (see Table 7, Table 8 and Table 9).

6.4.2.5 Cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction

Based on correlation results, general satisfaction with the assignment correlated positively and significantly with work, interaction and general adjustment (see Table 7 – page 175). Significant positive correlations were found between work adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$) between interaction adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.26$; $p<0.01$), and between general adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.33$; $p<0.01$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for general satisfaction differed according to each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) revealed that:

(1) The level of general satisfaction with the assignment is significantly different (and higher) with work adjustment, for both samples (respectively $F=3.179$; $p<0.001$; $F=3.396$; $p<0.01$)

(2) Even if general satisfaction is higher with interaction adjustment, these differences are not statistically significant, both for expatriates and for repatriates.

(3) The level of expatriates' general satisfaction is significantly different (and higher) with general adjustment ($F=2.386$; $p<0.01$). However, for repatriates, the existing differences are not statistically significant.

These findings, together with correlation analyses, which revealed a positive and significant association between expatriates work adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$) and between general adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$), support hypotheses H6E and H8E. These hypotheses assumed a positive association between work adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction (H6E), and between general adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction (H8E). While zero-order correlations revealed a positive and significant association between interaction adjustment and general expatriates' satisfaction ($r=0.26$; $p<0.01$), one-way analyses (ANOVA) do not support hypothesis H7E, which assumed a positive relationship between expatriates' interaction adjustment and general satisfaction.

Regarding repatriates, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) only confirmed significant differences on repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, related with work adjustment. Therefore, only hypothesis H6R, which assumes a positive association between work adjustment and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, is supported. Hypothesis H7R and H8R, which state a positive and significant association between interaction and general adjustment and repatriates satisfaction are not supported by the one-way analyses.

6.4.2.6 Cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions

Based on correlation results, withdrawal intentions correlated negatively and modestly with the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment (see Table 7 – page 175). Significant negative correlations were found between work and general adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the assignment (respectively $r=-0.24$; $p<0.01$ and $r=-0.21$; $p<0.01$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for withdrawal intentions differed according to each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment, several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II, for details).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) revealed that only expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions differ significantly with work and general adjustment (respectively $F=2.597$; $p<0.01$; $F=1.816$; $p<0.01$). No significant differences exist for organization and occupation withdrawal intentions related with expatriates and repatriates' level of cross-cultural adjustment.

These findings, together with zero-order correlations, which revealed a significant and negative correlation between expatriates' assignment withdrawal and work adjustment ($r=-0.27$; $p<0.01$) and between assignment withdrawal and general adjustment ($r=-0.21$; $p<0.01$), support hypothesis H9Ea) and H11Ea). Hypotheses H9Eb) and c) and H11Eb) and c) which assume a negative correlation between expatriates' work and general adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the organization and the occupation are not supported. Hypotheses H9R, H10R and H11R, which assume a negative association between repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and repatriates' withdrawal intentions are not supported either.

6.4.2.7 General satisfaction and withdrawal intentions

Based on correlation results, general satisfaction with the assignment correlated negatively and significantly with the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions (see Table 7 – page 175). Significant negative correlations were found between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the assignment ($r=-0.52$; $p<0.01$); between general satisfaction and organization withdrawal intentions ($r=-0.44$; $p<0.01$), and between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the occupation ($r=-0.30$; $p<0.01$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for withdrawal intentions differed according to general satisfaction, several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II).

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) revealed that:

(1) Expatriates intentions to withdraw from the assignment, the organization and occupation are significantly lower when general satisfaction with the assignment is high (respectively $F=5.072$; $p<0.01$; $F=3.120$; $p<0.01$ and $F=2.339$; $p<0.01$);

(2) Repatriates intentions to withdraw from the assignment and the organization are lower when repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is high ($F=1.995$; $p<0.05$ and $F=2.183$; $p<0.05$).

Similar to correlation data, which revealed moderate negative correlations between the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions and expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction (see Table 8 and Table 9), these findings support hypotheses H12E, H12Ra) and b). Hypothesis H12Rc) which states a negative association between repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions from the occupation is not supported by one-way (ANOVA) analysis.

6.5 Regression analyses

In this section, hierarchical regression analyses were used to investigate the prediction of cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions based on organizational culture variables. With the hierarchical regression procedure, the effects of the controlling variables on adjustment can be removed before assessing the impact of the independent variables (organizational culture dimensions). Moreover, the hierarchical regression analysis determines the incremental amounts of variance of the dependent variable accounted by each set of independent variables, which is represented in each table.

Separate regression analyses for expatriates and repatriates were conducted, following a similar procedure, as described next. At the *first step*, were entered the respondents' demographic variables, as: age, gender, marital status, education level, previous international experience, tenure in the company, tenure in the position and in the assignment, birth and destination country, home and host position, cross-cultural training, hours of pre-assignment training, promotion with the assignment, difficulties in finding a return position and host language fluency. At the *second step*, company demographics variables, such as type of industry, length of company investment at the destination (company experience abroad) and stage of internationalization, were introduced. At the *third step* were entered the variables of spouse interaction and general adjustment, and at the *fourth step*, the moderator variable of culture novelty. Finally, at the *fifth step*, were introduced the independent variables related with hypotheses testing, such as home and host organizational culture sociability and solidarity variables, home and host organizational culture type or cross-cultural adjustment variables.

For simplicity purposes, separated results for the expatriate and repatriate samples are presented.

6.5.1 Regression analyses for expatriates

This section reports the results of the hierarchical regression statistical analyses conducted to test the study's hypotheses for expatriates. It presents the results for the effects of organizational culture on expatriate cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions and the results for the effects of cross-cultural adjustment on expatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Finally, the last part presents the effects of expatriates' general satisfaction on expatriates' withdrawal intentions.

6.5.1.1 Organizational culture influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test hypotheses H2E to H5E. At the *fifth step*, all four organizational culture dimensions were entered together with home and host culture profiles to test the overall influence of organizational culture on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (general model of Table 11). Following, to test the independent influence of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions, separate regression analysis were conducted (model 1 and model 2 of Table 11). As predicted, the separated dimensions of

home and host solidarity produced relevant results. In the general model, host solidarity predicts work adjustment (Adj. R²=0.175; F=5.397; p<0.01; df=49) and home solidarity predicts general adjustment (Adj. R²=0.493; F=10.519; p<0.001; df=49). Interaction adjustment is not predicted by organizational culture.

Independent Variables		HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE														
		General Model					Model 1 - HOME CULTURE INFLUENCE					Model 2 - HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE				
		β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Work Adjustment	Host Position	0.232	0.122	0.107	1.089	0.028	0.197	0.122	0.107	1.089	0.007	0.232	0.097	0.078	1.035	0.028
	Home Solidarity						0.049	0.204	0.175	1.046	0.020					
	Host Solidarity	0.045	0.204	0.175	1.046	0.027						0.045	0.187	0.152	0.993	0.027
		Adj R ² = 0.175; F= 5.397; p<0.01; df = 49					Adj R ² =0.175; F=7.162; p<0.01; df = 58					Adj R ² = 0.152; F=5.397; p<0.01; df = 49				
Interaction Adjustment	Host Language Fluency	0.443	0.183	0.166	1.266	0.002						0.400	0.153	0.136	1.292	0.005
	Gender	-1.196	0.301	0.271	1.184	0.007	-0.937	0.077	0.061	1.360	0.032	-0.937	0.228	0.196	1.246	0.036
			Adj R ² = 0.271; F=10.129; p<0.001; df = 49					Adj R ² =0.061; F=4.831; p<0.05; df = 59					Adj R ² =0.196; F = 7.089; p<0.01; df = 50			
General Adjustment	Gender											-0.690	0.108	0.089	1.060	0.020
	Age	-0.085	0.105	0.087	1.063	0.022	-0.069	0.097	0.082	1.111	0.016	-0.072	0.205	0.171	1.011	0.021
	Previous International Experience	0.103	0.257	0.226	0.978	0.003	0.081	0.213	0.185	1.047	0.006	0.099	0.308	0.263	0.954	0.012
	Type of Industry	0.101	0.350	0.307	0.926	0.014						0.094	0.381	0.326	0.912	0.026
	Spouse General Adjustment	0.119	0.428	0.377	0.878	0.017	0.109	0.270	0.230	1.018	0.044	0.239	0.451	0.388	0.869	0.023
	Spouse Interaction Adjustment											-0.210	0.508	0.440	0.832	0.030
	Home Solidarity	0.063	0.544	0.493	0.792	0.002										
		Adj R ² = 0.493; F= 10.519; p<0.001; df = 49					Adj R ² =0.230; F= 6.768; p<0.01; df = 58					Adj R ² =0.479; F = 7.432; p<0.001; df = 49				

Table 11 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on expatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment

Home sociability influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

Separated one-way analyses of cross-cultural adjustment according to home sociability (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II) revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates' work, and interaction adjustment, according to home sociability. However, expatriates' general adjustment differed significantly, according to home sociability, being higher when home company culture was perceived to have high sociability. This was in line with zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176), which provided some support to the hypothesis H2Ec), that is: home sociability is positively correlated with general adjustment (r=0.25;p<0.01). Nevertheless, the results from the regression analysis do not support this hypothesis (H2Ec)). As indicated in Table 11, home sociability is not a significant predictor of cross-cultural adjustment, which do not support hypothesis H2E a),b) and c).

These findings were unexpected, as the literature would have foreseen that home sociability would have led to a high level of corporate support, which in turn would ease expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

Home solidarity influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

Zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176), provided some support to the hypothesis H3E, that is: home solidarity is positively correlated with expatriates' work adjustment ($r=0.16$; $p<0.05$). Also, zero-order correlations showed a small but significant positive correlation between home solidarity and general adjustment ($r=0.17$; $p<0.05$). Nevertheless, one-way analyses of variance have revealed no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment according to home culture solidarity.

As indicated in Table 11, the regression analyses indicate that home solidarity predicts work adjustment (Adj. $R^2=0,175$; $F=7.162$; $p<0.01$; $df=58$), only when the single influence of home culture is determined (model 1). Therefore, the hypothesis H3E is supported:

H3E: *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.*

Further, home solidarity is also positively associated with expatriates general adjustment and explains part of its variance, in the general model (Adj. $R^2=0,493$; $F=10.519$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$). This result was not predicted as a positive association between home sociability and general adjustment was expected (H2Ec), instead.

Host sociability influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

Zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176), provided some support to hypothesis H4Eb), that is: host sociability is positively correlated with interaction adjustment ($r=0.18$; $p<0.05$). Also, separated one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) of cross-cultural adjustment according to host sociability, provided some support to hypothesis H4Ec), by revealing that expatriates' general adjustment differed significantly with host sociability, being significantly higher when host company was perceived as having high sociability (see APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II).

As indicated in Table 11, these results are not supported by the regression analyses, which indicate home sociability is not a significant predictor of cross-cultural adjustment.

Therefore, hypotheses H4E, which presuppose a positive relationship between host sociability and (a) work adjustment, (b) interaction adjustment, and (c) general adjustment, are not supported by the regression analyses.

Host solidarity influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

As indicated in Table 11, the organizational culture dimension of host solidarity showed a small but positive association with work adjustment, both in the general model as in model 2. Host solidarity explains part of the variance of work adjustment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.175$; $F = 5.397$; $p < 0.01$; $df = 49$) in the general model, and in model 2 (Adj. $R^2 = 0.152$; $F = 5.397$; $p < 0.01$; $df = 49$). Therefore, the hypothesis H5E is supported:

***H5E:** After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment*

Finally, host solidarity is positively associated with expatriates general adjustment, (Adj. $R^2 = 0.479$; $F = 7.432$; $p < 0.001$; $df = 49$), when the single influence of host culture is determined (model 2). This result was not predicted. Instead, a positive association between host sociability and general adjustment was expected (H4Ec)).

Control variables influence on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

As indicated in Table 11, host position has a moderating role on the relationship between host solidarity and work adjustment, explaining by itself 10.7% of the variance of expatriates' work adjustment. According to this result, the highest the level of host position, the better the work adjustment is.

For interaction adjustment, only individual demographic variables are significant predictors of expatriates' interaction adjustment. Host language fluency is positively associated with interaction adjustment, and alone explains 16.6% of its variance. Gender (female) is negatively associated and explains part of the variance of interaction adjustment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.271$; $F = 10.129$; $p < 0.001$; $df = 49$).

As indicated in Table 11, several variables moderate the relationship between home and host solidarity, and general adjustment. Individual demographic variables all together explain 22.6% of the variance of expatriates' general adjustment. Gender (female), and age are negatively associated with general adjustment. Previous international experience is positively associated, explaining part of the variance of general adjustment (general model),

similar to company type of industry. The level of expatriates' general adjustment is higher for certain industries such as health and care, oil and gas, electronic, pulp and paper, and food and beverage. Automotive industry, services and pharmaceuticals have the lowest general adjustment mean scores. Spouse general adjustment also predicts expatriates' general adjustment. Spouse interaction adjustment influences negatively expatriates' general adjustment, but only in model 2.

Finally, it is worth noticing that contrary to research hypothesis (H1E), national culture novelty is not a predictor of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. While the literature has showed national cultural differences to be negatively and strongly associated with the three forms of adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), the present results, instead, revealed a near-zero correlation, that is expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment is unrelated with national cultural differences.

Hierarchical regression of organizational culture dimensions on expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

In summary, the regression analysis revealed that only the solidarity dimension explains expatriates adjustment. Home solidarity explains unique variance in expatriates' work adjustment, when the single influence of home culture is determined. Home solidarity also explains the variance of general adjustment, in the general model. Host solidarity explains the variance of expatriates' work adjustment, in the full model, and explains the variance of expatriates' general adjustment, when the single influence of host culture is considered. Thus, hypotheses H3E and H5E are supported, while hypotheses H2E and H4E, are not supported by the regression analyses.

The literature would have predicted that high sociability (at home and at destination) would influence work adjustment (due to improved work relationships), and interaction and general adjustment (due to the establishment of strong and enduring friendship ties with co-workers and co-workers support). However, almost the opposite was confirmed: sociability revealed no significant influence on cross-cultural adjustment, while solidarity influenced expatriates' work and general adjustment.

6.5.1.2 Cross-cultural adjustment influence on expatriates' general satisfaction

In order to test the independent influence of expatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment, on expatriates' general satisfaction (hypotheses H6E, H7E and H8E) these

dimensions entered the hierarchical equations. In this case, the *fifth step* included altogether the dimensions of work, interaction and general adjustment. Table 12 presents the main results. Separate regression analyses for each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment were computed but because they produced similar results, are not indicated.

CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT INFLUENCE ON EXPATRIATES' GENERAL SATISFACTION						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
General Satisfaction	Gender	-1.328	0.164	0.147	0.798	0.004
	Birth Country	-0.045	0.285	0.254	0.746	0.008
	Destination Country	-0.034	0.350	0.306	0.719	0.040
	Host Language Fluency	-0.281	0.443	0.393	0.673	0.009
	Hours Training	0.001	0.522	0.467	0.631	0.011
	Spouse General Adjustment	0.083	0.577	0.517	0.600	0.024
		Adj R ² = 0.517; F=9.564; p<0.001; df = 48				

Table 12 - Hierarchical regression analysis of cross-cultural adjustment dimensions on expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment.

While zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176) provided support to the hypotheses of a positive association between cross-cultural adjustment dimensions and general satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$ for work adjustment; $r=0.26$; $p<0.01$ for interaction adjustment, and $r=0.35$. $p<0.01$ for general adjustment), these relationships are not supported by the regression analyses. Therefore, hypotheses H6E, H7E and H8E, which presuppose a positive relationship between general satisfaction and respectively work, interaction and general adjustment, are not supported. These findings are unexpected and counterintuitive as they indicate expatriates' adjustment dimensions are not predictors of expatriates' level of satisfaction with the assignment.

As to the prediction of expatriates' general satisfaction, individual and organizational variables are significant determinants. Altogether, they explain 51,7% of the variance of expatriates' general satisfaction (Adj. R²= 0.517; F=9.564; $p<0.001$; df=48). Gender (female), birth country, destination country and host language fluency are negatively associated with general satisfaction with the assignment. Female are less satisfied with their international assignment than male, as respondents born in Spain, Switzerland and Austria. In addition, expatriates assigned to UK, Nigeria, Japan, France and Denmark are the least satisfied. Hours of pre-assignment training are positively associated with expatriates' general

satisfaction. Finally, spouse general adjustment is positively associated with expatriates' general satisfaction, explaining part of its variance.

6.5.1.3 Cross-cultural adjustment influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test the influence of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment on expatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypotheses H9E, H10E and H11E), the dimensions of work, interaction and general adjustment were computed into the hierarchical equation. At the *first* and *second* steps, individual and company demographic control variables were entered. At the *third step* were entered the variables of spouse general and interaction adjustment and at the *fourth step* culture novelty. Finally, at the *fifth step* were introduced the variables of work, interaction and general adjustment. General model included simultaneously the three dimensions of adjustment and separated regression analyses were run for each adjustment dimension. Table 13 presents the results for the general model and model 3, which determined the single influence of general adjustment. As the other models did not provide different results from general model, they were not included.

An examination of Table 13 reveals that different dimensions of withdrawal intentions have different antecedents, and work and general adjustment influences withdrawal intentions. Following, a detailed results presentation is made for each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment.

CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS											
Independent Variables		General Model					Model 3 - GENERAL ADJUSTMENT				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Assignment Withdrawal	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.427	0.097	0.079	0.975	0.027	-0.427	0.097	0.079	0.975	0.027
	Host Language Fluency	0.286	0.169	0.134	0.945	0.050	0.286	0.169	0.134	0.945	0.050
	Host Position	-0.105	0.242	0.193	0.912	0.041	-0.105	0.242	0.193	0.912	0.041
	Company experience at destination	-0.007	0.310	0.249	0.880	0.040	-0.007	0.310	0.249	0.880	0.040
	Work Adjustment	-0.294	0.395	0.326	0.834	0.017					
	General Adjustment						-0.246	0.382	0.311	0.842	0.029
		Adj R2=0.326; F=5.737; p<0.001; df=49					Adj R2=0.311; F=5.431; p<0.01; df=49				
Organization Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.296	0.094	0.075	0.895	0.030					
	Internationalization Stage	-0.236	0.183	0.148	0.859	0.028					
	Type of Industry	-0.119	0.255	0.206	0.829	0.041					
		Adj R2=0.206; F= 5.243; p<0.01; df= 49									
Occupation Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.340	0.165	0.148	0.853	0.003	-0.417	0.165	0.148	0.853	0.003
	Work Adjustment	-0.259	0.258	0.226	0.813	0.019					
	General Adjustment						-0.245	0.248	0.216	0.819	0.028
		Adj R2= 0.226; F=8.159; p<0.01; df=49					Adj R2=0.216; F=7.741; p<0.01; df=49				

Table 13 - Hierarchical regression analysis of cross-cultural adjustment dimensions on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

Work adjustment influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

As indicated in Table 13, work adjustment is negatively and significantly associated with assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions.

Work adjustment predicts assignment withdrawal intentions (Adj. R²= 0.326; F=5.737; p<0.001; df=49), and predicts occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. R²= 0.226; F=8.159; p<0.01; df=49), when all three measures of adjustment enter the equation (model 1).

These findings support hypotheses H9Ea) and c), which are:

H9E: *Expatriates work adjustment will be negatively associated with: (a) withdrawal intentions from the assignment, and (c) withdrawal intentions from the occupation*

Work adjustment is not a predictor of organization withdrawal intentions, which does not support hypothesis H9Eb).

Interaction adjustment influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

While zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176), supported the hypothesis H10Ea), that is expatriates' interaction adjustment will be negatively associated with

withdrawal intentions from the assignment ($r = -0.18$; $p < 0.05$), this hypothesis is not supported by the regression analyses. Even when the single influence of interaction adjustment was determined, expatriates' interaction adjustment did not appear as a significant predictor of any dimension of withdrawal intentions. Therefore, hypotheses H10Ea), b) and c) are not supported by the regression analyses.

General adjustment influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

Zero-order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176), provided some support to the hypothesis H11Ea), that is expatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with withdrawal intentions from the assignment ($r = -0.21$; $p < 0.01$). This hypothesis is further supported by the regression analyses, especially when the single influence of general adjustment is determined (model 3 - Table 13). In this model, general adjustment is negatively associated with withdrawal intentions from the assignment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.311$; $F = 5.431$; $p < 0.01$; $df = 49$) and the occupation (Adj. $R^2 = 0.216$; $F = 7.741$; $p < 0.01$; $df = 49$). Therefore, the following hypotheses are supported:

H11E: *Expatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with: (a) withdrawal intentions from the assignment, and (c) with withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

General adjustment is not significantly related with organization withdrawal intentions, which does not support hypothesis H11Eb).

As indicated in Table 13, expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment has a small but significant influence on expatriates' assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions, namely through work and general adjustment. General adjustment is a significant predictor of assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions, only when its single influence is determined, mostly because work and general adjustment are significantly correlated ($r = 0.47$; $p < 0.01$).

Hierarchical regression of cross-cultural adjustment on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

In summary, the regression analyses revealed that work and general adjustment predicts expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation. Therefore, hypotheses H9Ea) and c), and hypotheses H11Ea) and c) are supported, while hypotheses

H9Eb) and H11Eb), which assume a negative association between work and general adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the organization, are not supported.

In relation to organization withdrawal intentions, they are unrelated to expatriates' adjustment. Expatriates' intentions to leave the organization are better predicted by expatriates' education level and the characteristics of the organization itself, such as industry and internationalization stage, and not by expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. High education level respondents revealed lower organizational withdrawal intentions, as expatriates working for global and transnational companies or from pharmaceutical, oil and gas, and electronic industries. Further, hypotheses H10Ea) b) and c), relative to the negative influence of interaction adjustment on withdrawal intentions, are not supported.

6.5.1.4 General satisfaction influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test the independent influence of expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment on expatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypothesis H12E), this dimension was added into the hierarchical equations. In this case, steps one and two included the individual and company demographic variables, step three included the controlling variables of spouse interaction and general adjustment, step four culture novelty and step five the variable of general satisfaction. Table 14 presents the main results.

GENERAL SATISFACTION INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Assignment Withdrawal	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.280	0.097	0.079	0.975	0.027
	Host Language Fluency	0.207	0.169	0.134	0.945	0.050
	Host Position	-0.080	0.242	0.193	0.912	0.041
	Company experience at destination	-0.005	0.310	0.249	0.880	0.040
	General Satisfaction	-0.549	0.479	0.420	0.773	0.000
Adj R2=0.420; F=8.101; p<0.001; df=49						
Organization Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.279	0.094	0.075	0.895	0.030
	Internationalization Stage	-0.201	0.183	0.148	0.859	0.028
	Type of Industry	-0.090	0.255	0.206	0.829	0.041
	General Satisfaction	-0.391	0.378	0.323	0.766	0.005
Adj R2=0.323; F=6.837; p<0.001; df=49						
Occupation Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.341	0.165	0.148	0.853	0.003
	General Satisfaction	-0.563	0.436	0.412	0.709	0.000
Adj R2=0.412; F=18.1598; p<0.001; df=49						

Table 14 - Hierarchical regression analysis of expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

An examination of Table 14 reveals that general satisfaction with the assignment is negatively and significantly associated to expatriates' withdrawal intentions. General satisfaction explains the variance of assignment withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2= 0.420$; $F=8.101$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$), organization withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2= 0.323$; $F=6.837$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$), and the variance of occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2= 0.412$; $F=18.1598$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$).

These findings support hypotheses H12Ea) b) and c), as follows:

H12E: *Expatriates general satisfaction will be negatively associated with: (a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization; and (c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

6.5.1.5 Organizational culture influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test hypothesis H13E that is the direct influence of organizational culture on withdrawal intentions, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Table 15 presents the results for the general model, obtained when the combined influence of home and host organizational culture dimensions and profiles entered the equation, as the separate influence of home (model 1) and host sociability and solidarity dimensions (model 2).

Home organizational culture influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

Zero order correlations (see Table 8 - page 176) provided some support for a negative influence of home solidarity on organization withdrawal ($r = -0.20$; $p<0.01$) and occupation withdrawal intentions ($r = -0.22$; $p<0.01$). In addition, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) indicated significant score mean differences for expatriates' occupation withdrawal, which differed significantly with home company sociability. However, these results are not supported by the regression analyses, as indicated in Table 15.

HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS																
Independent Variables		General Model					Model 1 - HOME CULTURE INFLUENCE					Model 2 - HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Assignment Withdrawal	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.469	0.118	0.099	0.959	0.016										
	Host Language Fluency						0.278	0.083	0.064	0.982	0.043	0.278	0.083	0.064	0.982	0.043
	Company experience at destination	-0.007	0.193	0.158	0.926	0.043	-0.010	0.159	0.124	0.950	0.044	-0.010	0.159	0.124	0.950	0.044
		Adj R2=0.158; F=5.514; p<0.01; df=48					Adj R2=0.124; F=4.453; p<0.05; df=49					Adj R2=0.124; F=4.453; p<0.05; df=49				
Organization Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.296	0.094	0.075	0.895	0.030	-0.276	0.093	0.075	0.888	0.029	-0.276	0.093	0.075	0.888	0.029
	Internationalization Stage	-0.236	0.183	0.148	0.859	0.028	-0.231	0.181	0.147	0.853	0.028	-0.231	0.181	0.147	0.853	0.028
	Type of Industry	-0.119	0.255	0.206	0.829	0.041										
		Adj R2=0.206; F=5.243; p<0.01; df=49					Adj R2=0.147; F=5.305; p<0.01; df=50					Adj R2=0.147; F=5.305; p<0.01; df=50				
Occupation Withdrawal	Education Level	-0.465	0.188	0.171	0.842	0.002	-0.323	0.177	0.160	0.743	0.003	-0.435	0.188	0.171	0.835	0.002
	Gender (female)						0.624	0.275	0.244	0.705	0.016					
	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.285	0.263	0.231	0.811	0.036										
	Host Solidarity	-0.043	0.371	0.329	0.758	0.008						-0.040	0.284	0.253	0.793	0.015
	Adj R2=0.329; F=8.832; p<0.001; df=48					Adj R2=0.244; F=8.743; p<0.01; df=48					Adj R2=0.253; F=9.317; p<0.001; df=49					

Table 15 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on expatriates' withdrawal intentions.

Host organizational culture influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

Regarding the influence of host organizational culture, the separated one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) have already revealed that withdrawal intentions differed significantly according to host sociability and solidarity, and with host organizational culture profile. First, the highest the host sociability, the lowest the occupation and assignment withdrawal; second the highest the host solidarity, the lowest the withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II). Third, assignment and organization withdrawal were higher when host company was perceived as having a networked organizational culture and lower when host company culture was perceived as communal (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II).

As shown in Table 15, host solidarity is the single dimension of organizational culture that predicts withdrawal intentions, namely withdrawal intentions from the occupation. Host solidarity influences negatively occupational withdrawal intentions, and explains part of its variance (Adj. R2=0.329; F=8.832; p<0.001; df=48). This finding indicates that host organization clarity regarding business objectives and goals may decrease expatriates' intentions to leave their occupation, having however, no significant influence on their

intentions to leave the assignment and the organization. Regarding sociability, regression analyses do not support hypothesis H13E, as no significant influence was found between host organizational culture sociability and: (a) assignment withdrawal intentions, (b) organization withdrawal intentions, and (c) occupation withdrawal intentions.

Control variables influence on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

Assignment withdrawal intentions are mostly influenced by the perception of difficulties in finding a position upon return. Having no difficulties finding a return position is negatively associated with assignment withdrawal intentions, explaining by itself 9.9% of the variance (general model). It indicates that expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions are influenced by their perceptions of the professional alternatives they have back home. When professional alternatives exist within home company, expatriates' intentions to leave prematurely the assignment are lower. Assignment withdrawal intentions are also negatively influenced by the length of time the company has been investing at the destination (company experience abroad). The longer the company has been established at the destination, the lesser the intentions to leave the assignment prematurely. Based on this result, one can speculate that longer establishments provide the most adequate conditions for expatriates to carry the assignment until the end. This idea is further corroborated as the internationalization stage of the organization was found to be negatively associated with organization withdrawal intentions (see Table 15). This finding indicates that companies at the earliest stages of internationalization are the one that have the highest expatriates' organizational withdrawal intentions. In addition, some industries appeared less attractive to expatriates than others did, as the type of industry also explained part of the variance of organization withdrawal intentions.

Regarding expatriates' intentions to leave the organization, one-way analyses of variance have revealed significant differences according to host solidarity. Expatriates' intentions to leave the organization were lower when host organizational culture was perceived as having high solidarity. However, present regression analyses do not support a negative influence of host culture (e.g., solidarity) on expatriates' organization withdrawal intentions. Only individual and organizational variables explain the variance of organization withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.206$; $F=5.243$; $p<0.01$; $df=49$).

Finally, education level influences negatively withdrawal intentions, and alone, explains 17.1% of the variance of occupation withdrawal intentions and 7.5% of organization withdrawal intentions.

Hierarchical regression of organizational culture on expatriates' withdrawal intentions

In summary, the regression analyses revealed that only host solidarity predicts expatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions. When the host company was perceived as having shared and defined business goals (high solidarity), expatriates' revealed lower intentions to withdraw from their selected occupations. The other organizational culture dimensions do not influence expatriates' withdrawal intentions. Thus, hypothesis H13E, which assumed a negative association between host sociability and withdrawal intentions, is not supported.

In this research, the main predictors of withdrawal intentions are individual and company demographic variables, which is in line with literature. However, these findings open up new avenues for research, as they also support previous findings (e.g., Carmeli; 2005) that found a negative association between dimensions of organizational culture and withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

6.5.1.6 Organizational culture influence on expatriates' general satisfaction

The research model did not include any prediction relative to organizational culture influence on general satisfaction with the assignment. However, zero-order correlations revealed a significant association between destination organizational culture and expatriates' satisfaction (see Table 8 - page 176), further supported by one-way analyses of variance (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II). Therefore, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to determine the influence of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on expatriates' general satisfaction.

Table 16 presents the results for the general model, which contains the combined influence of home and host organizational culture dimensions and organizational culture profile, and model 1 and model 2, which respectively tested the separate influence of home culture and host culture dimensions.

HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE ON EXPATRIATES' GENERAL SATISFACTION																
Independent Variables		General Model					Model 1 - HOME CULTURE INFLUENCE					Model 2 - HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE				
		β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
General Satisfaction	Gender	-1.095	0.103	0.085	0.836	0.023	-0.650	0.068	0.052	0.858	0.045	-1.095	0.103	0.085	0.836	0.023
	Birth Country	-0.042	0.191	0.156	0.802	0.029	-0.028	0.142	0.111	0.831	0.033	-0.042	0.191	0.156	0.802	0.029
	Host Language Fluency	-0.280	0.260	0.211	0.776	0.044	-0.208	0.211	0.168	0.804	0.033	-0.280	0.260	0.211	0.776	0.044
	Destination Country	-0.030	0.370	0.314	0.724	0.007						-0.030	0.370	0.314	0.724	0.007
	Hours Training	0.001	0.451	0.388	0.683	0.015						0.001	0.451	0.388	0.683	0.015
	Host Solidarity	0.033	0.522	0.455	0.645	0.015						0.033	0.522	0.455	0.645	0.015
	Spouse General Adjustment						0.095	0.283	0.230	0.774	0.024					
		Adj R ² = 0.455; F=7.815; p<0.001; df = 4					Adj R ² = 0.230; F=5.321; p<0.01; df = 58					Adj R ² =0.455; F= 7.815; p<0.001; df = 49				

Table 16 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment

As indicated in Table 16, host solidarity influences positively expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment (Adj. R²=0.455; F=7.815; p<0.001; df=49). This finding is obtained when home and host organizational culture dimensions entered into the equation (general model), as when the single influence of host culture dimensions are determined. As showed in Table 16, several variables moderate the influence of host solidarity on expatriates' general satisfaction. Gender (female) is negatively associated with expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, and explains alone, 8.5% of the variance. According to this result, female expatriates are less satisfied than her male counterparts are. Birth country is also negatively associated with general satisfaction with the assignment, explaining an additional variance. Respondents born in China, Germany, France, Australia, Denmark, Japan and UK are the most satisfied. Destination countries and host language fluency are negatively associated with expatriates' general satisfaction. Respondents assigned to India, Malaysia, Panama, Norway, Mexico and UAE are the most satisfied. Hours of pre-assignment training and spouse general adjustment also influence positively general satisfaction with the assignment.

As mentioned, these findings were not specifically predicted. However, separate one-way analyses have revealed before that expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment differ significantly with host sociability and solidarity dimensions. Expatriates' general satisfaction was significantly higher when host company culture was perceived as having high sociability and high solidarity (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II). In addition, expatriates' general satisfaction was significantly higher when host company was perceived as having a communal culture type. The present hierarchical regression analyses corroborate the positive influence of organizational culture on expatriates'

general satisfaction with the assignment, through the host solidarity dimension. This finding indicates that host company involvement around common and clear business goals influences positively expatriates' general satisfaction.

6.5.2 Hypotheses' tests for the expatriate sample

Based on the theoretical research model (see Figure 4 - page 87), previous sections have presented the main results for expatriates. Firstly, factor analyses were presented for the variables of organizational culture, cross-cultural adjustment, culture novelty and withdrawal intentions. Secondly, correlation analyses between the main variables were presented. Thirdly, ANOVA and several t-tests were also used to compare mean factor score differences and compare expatriate and repatriate samples on the factor scores derived from the factor analyses. Finally, the last section presented regression analyses for the expatriate sample to support test of hypothesis. Table 17 summarizes the main findings for the expatriate sample while the following sections present regression results for the repatriate sample.

Summary of hypotheses' tests for the <u>Expatriate</u> sample	Correlational analyses	ANOVA analyses	Regression analyses
H1E National culture novelty will be negatively associated with a) Expatriates' work adjustment b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment c) Expatriates' general adjustment	<i>no</i> <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>reverse relation</i> <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>no</i> <i>no</i> <i>no</i>
H2E After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with a) Expatriates' work adjustment b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment c) Expatriates' general adjustment	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> √	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> √	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H3E After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.	√	<i>ns</i>	√
H4E After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with a) Expatriates' work adjustment b) Expatriates' interaction adjustment c) Expatriates' general adjustment	<i>ns</i> √ <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> √	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H5E After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.	√	<i>ns</i>	√
H6E Expatriates' work adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	√	√	<i>ns</i>
H7E Expatriates' interaction adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	√	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
H8E Expatriates' general adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	√	√	<i>ns</i>
H9E Expatriates' work adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	√ <i>ns</i> √
H10E Expatriates' interaction adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H11E Expatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	√ <i>ns</i> √
H12E Expatriates' general satisfaction will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ √ √	√ √ √	√ √ √
H13E A host organizational culture high in sociability will be negatively associated with: a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>no</i>	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
Hypotheses not predicted but supported:			
▶ After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity is positively associated with expatriates' general adjustment.	√	<i>ns</i>	√
▶ After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity is positively associated with expatriates' general adjustment.	√	<i>ns</i>	√
▶ A host organizational culture high in solidarity is positively associated with Expatriates' general satisfaction	√	√	√
▶ A host organizational culture high in solidarity is negatively associated with withdrawal intentions from the occupation	<i>ns</i>	√	√

no - not observed; *ns* - not significant (for a significance level of 0,05 or lower); √ - supported (for a significance level of 0,05 or lower)

Table 17 - Summary of hypotheses' tests for the expatriate sample

6.5.3 Regression analyses for repatriates

This section reports the results of the hierarchical regression statistical analyses conducted to test hypotheses for repatriates. It presents the results for the effects of organizational culture on repatriate cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions and the results for the effects of cross-cultural adjustment on repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Finally, the last section presents the effects of repatriates' general satisfaction on repatriates' withdrawal intentions.

6.5.3.1 Organizational culture influence on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to test hypotheses H2R to H5R. At the *first step*, were entered the respondents' demographic variables, similar to the one considered for the expatriate sample, added by the variables: return position and promotion with return. At the *second step*, company demographics, such as type of industry, length of company investment at the destination (company experience abroad), and company stage of internationalization, were introduced. At the *third step* were entered the variables of spouse interaction and general adjustment, and at the *fourth step* the controlling variable of culture novelty. At the *fifth step*, all four organizational culture dimensions were entered together with home and host culture profiles to test the overall influence of organizational culture on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (general model of Table 18). To test the independent influence of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions, separate regression analysis were conducted, which did not provide additional results.

HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Work Adjustment	Previous International experience	-0.146	0.323	0.267	0.773	0.034
	Adj R2=0.267; F=5.733; p<0.05; df = 13					
Interaction Adjustment	Home Sociability	0.163	0.341	0.286	1.141	0.028
	Adj R2=0.286; F=6.215; p<0.05; df =13					
General Adjustment		No variable is a significant predictor of repatriates' general adjustment				

Table 18 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment

Contrary to predictions, only home sociability appeared as a predictor of repatriates' interaction adjustment. Home sociability explains 28.6% of the variance of repatriates' interaction adjustment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.286$; $F=6.215$; $p<0.05$; $df=13$) having no influence on work and general adjustment. Therefore, the hypothesis H2Rb) is supported:

H2Rb): *After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with repatriates' interaction adjustment.*

Further, regression analyses do not support hypotheses H2Ra) and c) which assumes a positive association between home sociability and repatriates' work and general adjustment, and hypotheses H3R, which presuppose a positive association between home solidarity and repatriates' work adjustment. Hypotheses H4R and H5R are not supported either, as regression analyses did not show any influence of host organization culture on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

As indicated in Table 18, the single predictor of work adjustment was previous international experience, which explains 26.7% of the variance of work adjustment (Adj. $R^2=0.267$; $F=5.733$; $p<0.05$; $df=13$). The regression analyses did not provide any significant predictor for repatriates' general adjustment, which is consistent with the near zero correlations obtained between repatriates' general adjustment and the main research variables (see Table 9 - page 177).

Hierarchical regression of organizational culture dimensions on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment

In summary, the regression analysis revealed that only the dimension of home sociability explains repatriates' interaction adjustment. Home sociability explains unique variance in repatriates' interaction adjustment, when the single influence of home culture is determined as when the influence of home and host organizational culture entered the equation (general model). Thus, hypothesis H2Eb) is supported by the regression analyses, which states a positive association between home sociability and repatriates' interaction adjustment.

Though one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) has revealed significant differences on repatriates' work adjustment according to host sociability, this influence was not corroborated by the results of the regression analyses. In addition, solidarity (both at home and at destination) revealed no influence on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

6.5.3.2 Cross-cultural adjustment influence on repatriates' general satisfaction

In order to test the independent influence of repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment, on repatriates' general satisfaction (hypotheses H6R, H7R and H8R) these dimensions entered the hierarchical equations. In this case, the *fifth step* included altogether the dimensions of work, interaction and general adjustment.

Table 19 presents the main results. Separate regression analyses for each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment were computed but because they produced similar results to the general model, are not indicated.

CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT INFLUENCE ON REPATRIATES' GENERAL SATISFACTION						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
General Satisfaction	Previous international experience	-0.101	0.414	0.365	0.746	0.013
	No difficulties finding a return position	0.558	0.597	0.523	0.646	0.047
	Marital status	-0.448	0.747	0.671	0.537	0.035
	Promotion with the assignment	0.749	0.850	0.783	0.436	0.035
	Work adjustment	0.335	0.910	0.854	0.358	0.049
		Adj R ² =0.854; F=16.199; p<0.01; df=13				

Table 19 - Hierarchical regression analysis of cross-cultural adjustment dimensions on repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment.

While zero-order correlations (see Table 9 - page 177) supported the hypotheses of a positive association between cross-cultural adjustment dimensions and general satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$ for work adjustment; and $r=0.31$, $p<0.05$ for general adjustment), these relationships are only partially supported by the regression analyses. As indicated in Table 19, only work adjustment is positively related with general satisfaction (Adj. $R^2=0.854$; $F=16.199$; $p<0.01$; $df =13$).

Therefore, hypothesis H6R is supported:

H6R: *Repatriates' work adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment.*

Hypotheses H7R and H8R, which presuppose a positive relationship between interaction adjustment and repatriates' satisfaction and between general adjustment and repatriates general satisfaction, are not supported. These findings indicate only repatriates' work adjustment is a predictor of repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment.

Individual and organizational variables moderate the relationship between work adjustment and general satisfaction. Previous international experience alone, explains 36.5% of the variance of repatriates' satisfaction. Single repatriates and repatriates having less international experience are the most satisfied with the international assignment. Regarding organizational variables, having no difficulties finding a position upon return and being promoted, explain an additional variance of repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment.

6.5.3.3 Cross-cultural adjustment influence on repatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test the influence of repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment on repatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypotheses H9R, H10R and H11R), the dimensions of work, interaction and general adjustment were computed into the hierarchical equation.

Table 20 presents the results for the general model, which included simultaneously the three dimensions of adjustment. Separated regression analyses were run for each adjustment dimension, which were omitted from Table 20 as they provided similar results.

CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Assignment Withdrawal	Tenure in the company	-0.128	0.308	0.250	1.079	0.039
	Birth country	0.102	0.537	0.452	0.922	0.040
	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.977	0.795	0.733	0.643	0.005
	Destination country	0.031	0.894	0.847	0.487	0.017
Adj R2=0.846; F=19.021; p<0.001; df=13						
Organization Withdrawal	Previous International experience	0.165	0.376	0.324	0.817	0.020
	Birth country	0.055	0.580	0.504	0.700	0.041
Adj R2=0.504; F=7.610; p<0.01; df=13						
Occupation Withdrawal	Birth country	0.104	0.609	0.576	0.731	0.001
	Work adjustment	-0.443	0.735	0.687	0.628	0.043
Adj R2= 0.687; F=15.280; p<0.01; df=13						

Table 20 - Hierarchical regression analysis of cross-cultural adjustment dimensions on repatriates' withdrawal intentions.

As indicated in Table 20, repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment has no influence on repatriates' intentions to withdraw from the job and the organization. Only work adjustment

has a negative influence on repatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. R2 = 0.687; F=15.280; p<0,01; df=13).

Therefore, hypothesis H9Rc) is supported:

H9Rc): *Repatriates' work adjustment will be negatively associated with withdrawal intentions from the occupation.*

The hypotheses H9Ra) and b) which assume a negative association between work adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the job and the organization are not supported. Similarly, hypotheses H10R and H11R, which presuppose a negative association between interaction and general adjustment and repatriates' withdrawal intentions are not supported either.

These are unexpected and counterintuitive findings, as literature would lead to the expectation of a negative association between repatriates cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions, especially withdrawal intentions from the job.

6.5.3.4 General satisfaction influence on repatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test the independent influence of repatriates' general satisfaction on repatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypothesis H12R), this dimension was added into the hierarchical equations. In this case, steps one and two included the individual and company demographic variables, step three included the controlling variables of spouse interaction and general adjustment, step four culture novelty and step five the variable of general satisfaction.

GENERAL SATISFACTION INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS						
Independent Variables		General Model				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Job/Assignment Withdrawal	Tenure in the company	-0.128	0.308	0.250	1.079	0.039
	Birth country	0.102	0.537	0.452	0.922	0.040
	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.977	0.795	0.733	0.643	0.005
	Destination country	0.031	0.894	0.847	0.487	0.017
Adj R2=0.847; F=19.021; p<0.001; df=13						
Organization Withdrawal	Previous International experience	0.165	0.376	0.324	0.817	0.020
	Birth country	0.055	0.580	0.504	0.700	0.041
Adj R2=0.504; F=7.610; p<0.01; df=13						
Occupation Withdrawal	Birth country	0.104	0.609	0.576	0.731	0.001
Adj R2= 0.576; F=18.692; p<0.01; df=13						

Table 21 - Hierarchical regression analysis of repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment on repatriates' withdrawal intentions

Thus, regression analyses does not support hypothesis H12R, which assume a negative association between repatriates' general satisfaction and: (a) withdrawal intentions from the job, (b) withdrawal intentions from the organization and (c) withdrawal intentions from the occupation.

These are unexpected findings as previous research (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) revealed poor adjustment, especially general adjustment, is associated to job dissatisfaction as well as to intentions to leave prematurely an assignment. Their results lead to the expectation that repatriates' lower levels of adjustment would be related to lower satisfaction and to higher withdrawal decisions. These results instead indicate that repatriates' poor adjustment was unrelated to general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions, with the exception for work adjustment. Poor work adjustment was found to affect negatively repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment and to determine repatriates' intentions to withdraw from occupation. Repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment was not found to influence withdrawal intentions.

6.5.3.5 Organizational culture influence on repatriates' withdrawal intentions

In order to test the direct influence of organizational culture on repatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypothesis H13R), hierarchical regression analyses were conducted. Table 22 presents the results for the general model, obtained when the combined influence of home and host organizational culture dimensions and profiles were determined, as the separate influence of home sociability and solidarity dimensions (model 1). Model 2, which assessed the single influence of host organizational culture dimensions, was omitted, as revealed similar results to the general model.

As indicated in Table 22, only repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the occupation are influenced by organizational culture. Namely, host sociability is negatively associated with occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.693$; $F=15.672$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$), in the general model. Home solidarity is also negatively related with occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj $R^2=0.686$; $F=15.174$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$), but only when the single influence of home organizational culture is determined (model 1).

Therefore, hypotheses H13R, which states a negative association between home sociability and repatriates' withdrawal intentions from: (a) the job, (b) the organization and (c) the occupation, are not supported.

HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE ON WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS											
Independent Variables		General Model					Model 1 - HOME CULTURE INFLUENCE				
		β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R ²	Adj R ²	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
Assignment Withdrawal	Tenure in the company	-0.128	0.308	0.250	1.079	0.039	-0.128	0.308	0.250	1.079	0.039
	Birth country	0.102	0.537	0.452	0.922	0.040	0.102	0.537	0.452	0.922	0.040
	No difficulties finding a return position	-0.977	0.795	0.733	0.643	0.005	-0.977	0.795	0.733	0.643	0.005
	Destination country	0.031	0.894	0.847	0.487	0.017	0.031	0.894	0.847	0.487	0.017
		Adj R ² =0.847; F=19.021; p<0.001; df=13					Adj R ² =0.847; F=19.021; p<0.001; df=13				
Organization Withdrawal	Previous International experience	0.165	0.376	0.324	0.817	0.020	0.165	0.376	0.324	0.817	0.020
	Birth country	0.055	0.580	0.504	0.700	0.041	0.055	0.580	0.504	0.700	0.041
		Adj R ² =0.504; F=7.610; p<0.01; df=13					Adj R ² =0.504; F=7.610; p<0.01; df=13				
Occupation Withdrawal	Birth country	0.096	0.609	0.576	0.731	0.001	0.055	0.609	0.576	0.731	0.001
	Host sociability	-0.050	0.740	0.693	0.623	0.038					
	Home solidarity						-0.097	0.734	0.686	0.630	0.044
		Adj R ² =0.693; F=15.672; p<0.01; df=13					Adj R ² =0.686; F=15.174; p<0.01; df=13				

Table 22 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on repatriates' withdrawal intentions.

Control variables influence on repatriates' withdrawal intentions

Repatriates' withdrawal intentions from the job are negatively influenced by the perception of having no difficulties finding a position upon return and by the tenure in the company. Tenure in the company, alone, explains 25% of the variance of assignment withdrawal intentions. Having no difficulties finding a return position explains an additional variance. It seems that longer investments in a company as the perception of having a return position, lower repatriates' intentions to leave the job. Individual demographic variables such as birth and destination countries also influence repatriates' withdrawal intentions. Namely, repatriates from Canada, Italy, Austria and Norway, and repatriates who were assigned to Philippines, Malaysia, Nigeria and China are the ones revealing higher job withdrawal intentions.

Regarding organization withdrawal intentions, previous international experience influences positively repatriates' intentions to leave their organizations. This variable, alone, explains 32.4% of the variance of organization withdrawal intentions. Apparently, repatriates more internationally exposed are more confident in finding professional alternatives outside their companies. Birth country also explains part of the variance of organizational withdrawal and 57.6% of the variance of occupation withdrawal intentions. In this case, repatriates from

Japan, India, France, Germany and UK, are the ones revealing lower intentions to leave their organizations and their occupations.

6.5.3.6 Organizational culture influence on repatriates' general satisfaction

As zero-order correlations revealed significant associations between host organizational culture and repatriates' satisfaction (see Table 9 - page 177), hierarchical regression analyses were conducted to determine the influence of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on repatriates' general satisfaction. Table 23 presents the results for the general model, which contains the combined influence of home and host organizational culture dimensions and organizational culture profile. Model 1 tests the separate influence of home culture dimensions, while Model 2, which considered the single influence of host organizational culture dimensions, was omitted as it revealed similar results to general model.

HOME AND HOST CULTURE INFLUENCE ON REPATRIATES' GENERAL SATISFACTION											
Independent Variables		General Model					Model 1 - HOME CULTURE INFLUENCE				
		β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change	β	R2	Adj R2	Std. Error	Sig. F Change
General Satisfaction	Previous international experience	-0.223	0.414	0.365	0.746	0.013	-0.108	0.414	0.365	0.746	0.013
	No difficulties finding a return position	0.520	0.597	0.523	0.646	0.047	0.733	0.597	0.523	0.646	0.047
	Marital status	-0.753	0.747	0.671	0.537	0.035	-0.617	0.747	0.671	0.537	0.035
	Promotion with the assignment	0.607	0.850	0.783	0.436	0.035	1.236	0.850	0.783	0.436	0.035
	Destination culture type	0.527	0.922	0.873	0.333	0.026					
	Home culture type						0.322	0.920	0.869	0.338	0.030
Adj R2 = 0.873; F=18.947; p<0.001; df = 13						Adj R2=0.869; F=18.319; p<0.001; df=13					

Table 23 - Hierarchical regression analysis of home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions on repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment.

As indicated in Table 23, destination culture type predicts repatriates' general satisfaction (Adj. R²= 0.873; F=18.947; p<0.001; df = 13). When the single influence of home organizational culture is determined, home culture type predicts repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment (Adj. R²= 0.869; F=18.319; p<0.001; df = 13).

These findings are consistent with previous one-way analyses (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II), which indicate repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is high when home organizational culture is mercenary (e.g., high solidarity and low sociability) and when host organizational culture is communal. These findings suggest home solidarity and host sociability are fundamental to repatriates' general satisfaction.

Control variables influence on repatriates' general satisfaction

Repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is mostly influenced by individual and work variables. The main predictor of repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is previous international experience, which alone explains 36.5% of the variance. As indicated, repatriates' having more years of international experience are also the one least satisfied with their international assignments. Single repatriates are more satisfied than married or widow repatriates.

Another determinant of repatriates' satisfaction is the perception of having no difficulties in finding a return position. This variable explains part of the variance of general satisfaction. A promotion while abroad also influences positively repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment.

Hierarchical regression of organizational culture on repatriates' general satisfaction

In summary, the regression analyses revealed that home and destination culture types explain repatriates' general satisfaction. Altogether, the model explains 87,3% of the variance of repatriates general satisfaction (Adj. $R^2= 0.873$; $F_{18,947}$; $p<0,001$; $df=13$). Repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is higher when home organizational culture is mercenary and host organizational culture is communal. Thus, hypothesis H13R, which assumed a negative association between home sociability and withdrawal intentions, is not supported.

6.5.4 Hypotheses' tests for the repatriate sample

Based on the theoretical research model (see Figure 4 - page 87), several separated hypotheses for the repatriate sample were tested. Previous sections have presented the results of the hierarchical regression analyses for the repatriate sample. Table 24 summarizes the main findings, including previous correlation and one-way (ANOVA) results. The following chapter discusses further the implications of these findings.

Summary of hypotheses' tests for the Repatriate sample		Correlational analyses	ANOVA analyses	Regression analyses
H1R	National culture novelty will be negatively associated with a) Repatriates' work adjustment b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment c) Repatriates' general adjustment	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H2R	After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with a) Repatriates' work adjustment b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment c) Repatriates' general adjustment	<i>no</i> <i>no</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> √ <i>ns</i>
H3R	After controlling for national culture novelty, a home organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with repatriates' work adjustment.	<i>no</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
H4R	After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in sociability will be positively associated with a) Repatriates' work adjustment b) Repatriates' interaction adjustment c) Repatriates' general adjustment	<i>ns</i> <i>no</i> <i>ns</i>	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H5R	After controlling for national culture novelty, a host organizational culture high in solidarity will be positively associated with repatriates' work adjustment.	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
H6R	Repatriates' work adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	√	√	√
H7R	Repatriates' interaction adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
H8R	Repatriates' general adjustment will be positively associated with general satisfaction with the international assignment	√	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>
H9R	Repatriates' work adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> √
H10R	Repatriates' interaction adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	<i>ns</i> <i>no</i> <i>no</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H11R	Repatriates' general adjustment will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>no</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H12R	Repatriates' general satisfaction will be negatively associated with a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ √ √	√ √ <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
H13R	A home organizational culture high in sociability will be negatively associated with: a) Withdrawal intentions from the assignment b) Withdrawal intentions from the organization c) Withdrawal intentions from the occupation	√ <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i> <i>ns</i> <i>ns</i>
Hypotheses not predicted but supported:				
▶	A mercenary home organizational culture is positively associated with repatriates' general satisfaction	<i>ns</i>	<i>ns</i>	√
▶	A communal host organizational culture is positively associated with repatriates' general satisfaction	√	√	√
▶	A home organizational culture high in solidarity is negatively associated with repatriates occupation withdrawal intentions	√	√	√
▶	A host organizational culture high in sociability is negatively associated with repatriates occupation withdrawal intentions	√	√	√

no - not observed; *ns* - not significant (for a significance level of 0,05 or lower); √ - supported (for a significance level of 0,05 or lower)

Table 24 - Summary of hypotheses' tests for the repatriate sampl

CHAPTER VII – DISCUSSION

Until this point, it was presented the research objectives, the methodology adopted and the main results. This chapter further explores, compares and discusses these findings.

Overall, the purpose of this investigation was to address the following questions:

a) *What are the factors perceived to influence international assignments selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and return, namely among Portuguese expatriates and repatriates?*

b) *What are the effects of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity, on work, interaction and general adjustment, among expatriates and repatriates?*

c) *Does culture novelty moderate the influence of organizational culture? How culture novelty relates with cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?*

d) *Is cross-cultural adjustment an antecedent of general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions among expatriates and repatriates? And organizational culture?*

e) *Do sociability and solidarity dimensions influence expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?*

f) *To what extent does repatriation adjustment differ from expatriation?*

Specifically, two studies were carried out to address these research questions. Study I adopted a qualitative methodology to obtain in-depth information on the factors Portuguese international workers perceived to influence cross-cultural adjustment. Overall, Study I aimed to detail complex interactions between the main variables. In addition, Study II involved a quantitative approach, to test the hypothesis of an association between organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment, through the survey of 221 international workers. In particular, Study II aimed to determine whether organizational culture was a predictor of expatriation and repatriation adjustment and whether it influences adjustment outcomes, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

In line with the methodology adopted and the results presented in previous chapters, the following sections discuss the results from Study I and Study II. Whenever applicable, results similarities and discrepancies are highlighted and compared with extant literature.

7.1 Key findings from Study I

This research provides empirical clarification for the factors perceived to influence international assignments. Study I provides information regarding the factors influencing expatriates and repatriates' selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and repatriation. In particular, 30 Portuguese international managers, both expatriates and repatriates, were inquired about these topics.

7.1.1 International assignments' selection, acceptance and preparation

Regarding selection, results from Study I indicate CEO's play an active and direct role in the selection for an international assignment. Consistent with previous research with other European samples (e.g., Bonache, Brewster and Suutari, 2001; Suutari and Brewster, 2001), Portuguese international workers are often invited by the company CEO and selected through informal mechanisms mainly based on their technical skills and past performance.

Training and development programs for expatriates are more common in Europe than in the US (Bonache *et al.*, 2001), but this is not the case for Portuguese expatriates. Most Portuguese international workers expressed dissatisfaction with their pre-departure preparation and training, something they like to see changed in a future assignment.

Portuguese international workers seem to accept assignments for personal interest and career related reasons, such as: (1) the aim to have an international experience, (2) the personal challenge, and (3) the opportunity for professional development. These findings generally confirm previous research (e.g., Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Suutari, 2003, Stahl *et al.*, 2002), and suggest that expatriates attribute an intrinsic value to the challenge posed by living and working abroad, and the related professional development. Despite this agreement with previous research, there is a noteworthy difference regarding the motives that lead Portuguese expatriates to accept an international assignment. Half of the interviewees admitted they have accepted because they felt compelled to do so. Similar result was found in a research conducted by Stahl *et al.* (2002). The authors inquired German expatriates about their motives to accept an expatriation and found that even if they have accepted mainly for the personal challenge, they were aware of serious negative consequences in case they had refused the assignment. Portuguese participants clearly reported the pressure to conform, such as one expatriate referred: *“Knowing this company as I do, an invitation to visit is already an invitation to go and relocate”*.

The impact of this pressure needs to be accounted for as motives for accepting an international assignment are likely to represent the basis for expatriates' expectations (Hyder and Lovblad, 2007) and in-country adjustment. For example, a person who has taken an assignment because he or she felt compelled by the employing company to do so, may be less willing to adjust to the international environment (Selmer, 2000) and may have higher expectations regarding the company offerings. It is possible that instrumental motives to accept (such as being compelled by the employing company), increase expatriates' unwillingness to adjust and to repeat an assignment in the future. As collected data was insufficient to assess these propositions, future research should investigate them further.

7.1.2 In-country adjustment

Data analysis revealed Portuguese international managers were able to discern the factors that influence negatively their in-country adjustment from the ones that contribute positively to ease adjustment. As shown in Table 3 - page 145, adjustment antecedents can be readily categorized into five categories, according to the literature: anticipatory factors, work and non-work factors, individual and organizational factors. Anticipatory and non-work factors are the two categories most referred to, which somewhat questions the interest in the literature for individual variables.

The findings of Study I generally confirmed the multidimensional facet of cross-cultural adjustment. Further, they suggest an expatriation involves expatriates' adjustment (to new work demands; to interacting with locals and to new local conditions) and family adjustment. Data also indicates work adjustment is the easiest form of adjustment at destination, followed by general and interaction adjustment, which generally confirms the findings of other researchers (Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar, 2007; Selmer; 2007, 2006, 2005, 2001; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Selmer and Leung, 2003a; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Black and Stephens, 1989)

The dominant literature presents the adjustment progress over time following a U-shape (e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991), though empirical evidence is still scarce. The inquiry to Portuguese international managers revealed there is no common pattern, and more specifically, the adjustment process differs with age and gender. It is admitted these results might come from sample idiosyncrasies. Only a longitudinal research, surveying expatriates at different stages of the assignment, would confirm that.

About work adjustment, results from Study I generally indicate work factors are the ones perceived to have the strongest influence, followed by organizational factors. Interestingly, non-work factors were absent from expatriates' references, and host language fluency and country-of-origin were the main anticipatory and individual factors mentioned by the interviewees. These results generally support the initial presuppositions of Black *et al.* (1991) model, about the restrict domain influence between non-work and work factors. Further, results also indicate that work adjustment is strongly influenced by organizational variables, such as organizational culture and sociability and solidarity dimensions, which is consistent with the research model. Another important finding relates with the influence attributed to the assignment mission. Though previous research has attempted to explore the functions of expatriation to organizations (e.g., Torbiorn, 1994; Stroh, 1999; Bonache and Brewster, 2001; Harzing, 2001; Riusala and Suutari, 2004; Hocking, Brown and Harzing, 2004; Minbaeva and Michailova, 2004), no attempt was found to systematically examine the influence of those functions on expatriates' own adjustment. In fact, some assignment missions may have a negative influence on expatriates' adjustment. For example, whenever expatriates are assigned for the purposes of subsidiary control and change, which often involves headcount reductions, they are likely to face increased work adjustment difficulties. Further, as they receive less support from the local subsidiary, they tend to be less adjusted to interacting with locals (both at work and outside) and be less adjusted to the general environment. Brewster (1995b) named this process, whereby expatriates transfer corporate knowledge and adjust their behavior to local cultural norms, the "*paradox of expatriate adjustment*". Results from Study I provided evidence for the negative impact of certain assignment missions on expatriates' adjustment, highlighting the need to follow this line of investigation in the future.

Contrary to work adjustment, interaction adjustment is less affected by work and organizational variables, according to the results of Study I. Conversely, host socializing actions and host support outside work appear as important positive antecedents of interaction adjustment. These results are consistent with the findings from Black and Gregersen (1991a), who found that interactions with host nationals were a positive predictor of interaction adjustment, but not a predictor of work and general adjustment. These results from Study I indicate organizational culture can hardly extend its influence on interaction adjustment, with the exception of host co-workers support. A host company that values cooperation and

support was perceived to affect positively interaction adjustment, which is consistent with hypothesis H4Eb) of the research model.

General adjustment is the expatriation adjustment dimension more influenced by non-work factors linked with the characteristics of the destination country. In addition, general adjustment is positively affected by host language fluency, pre-assignment preparation, and host socialization and support (mainly outside work). Gender and age are related with general adjustment, more specifically, young women are the ones who feel more adjustment difficulties. These results contradict previous findings with other samples (e.g., Selmer and Leung, 2003a). A possible explanation lies in sample idiosyncrasies. However, the moderator role of age and gender is still not entirely clear.

Study I also highlights the influence of country-of-origin, that apart from Mamman (1995) and Jassawalla, Truglia and Garvey (2004), has not been accounted for in the literature. In this study, Portuguese expatriates admit their nationality often affect negatively their work and general adjustment.

Finally, family adjustment emerged as a fundamental component of in-country adjustment, which affects accompanied and separated expatriates. Results indicate family adjustment involves three dimensions: spouse adjustment, children adjustment and separated parents adjustment. In addition, family adjustment is positively inter-related with expatriates' work and general adjustment. These results support the findings of Richardson (2004), who found that families represent a "significant stakeholder" in the decisions to move, stay and return.

Regarding culture novelty and in-country adjustment, qualitative data does not sustain the idea of a negative association between national cultural differences and in-country adjustment. Portuguese international workers do recognize cultural differences between home and destination countries and often regret some differences (such as those related with different work habits and ethics, security, climate or food), though they do not express the idea that their in-country adjustment is affected by cultural differences. In addition, national cultural differences are unrelated with Portuguese expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment and Portuguese intentions to repeat the assignment, in the future. These results are close to the findings obtained with other expatriate samples (e.g., Selmer, 2006a, 2006b; Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar, 2007) and are not consistent with hypotheses H1E/R.

Interesting to the aims of this research is to investigate whether Portuguese expatriates recognize any role for their organizations, as entities able to influence their in-country adjustment. As expected, expatriates and repatriates identify and attribute a positive influence from organizational factors, such as host co-workers and expatriates' support. This result is consistent with the findings from Wang and Sangalang (2005), who found that the perceived support from co-workers correlated positively with work adjustment and job satisfaction, among Filipino expatriates. In addition, other organizational factors, such as host company disorganization, work climate and some work habits can affect negatively work adjustment.

The relationship between organizational culture and in-country adjustment is also acknowledged. Overall, Portuguese expatriates and repatriates were able to characterize and distinguish home and host organizational cultures. Also, the sociability and solidarity dimensions were productive and relevant to categorize the descriptive data. However, these dimensions are unrelated with in-country adjustment, with the exception of home low solidarity and host low sociability. Both dimensions affect negatively expatriates' work adjustment, which is supportive of hypotheses H3E and hypothesis H4Ea). These results also help to understand why home solidarity and host sociability matters. As explained by interviewees, home solidarity builds the corporate framework, which decreases the uncertainty regarding business and assignment goals, while host sociability creates the supportive and friendly environment that assists work adjustment. This explanation is consistent with the findings from Kraimer *et al.* (2001) who found that perceived organizational support from the parent company was positively related with general adjustment and perceived organizational support from the host company was positively associated with work and interaction adjustment. Section 7.3.2 discusses this issue further, together with the results from Study II.

7.1.3 Return: preparation and adjustment

The number of Portuguese interviewees who have returned home prior to the end of the assignment, voluntarily or involuntarily, is low (2 out of 30). This finding is consistent with previous analysis (Harzing, 1995; Forster, 1997; Harzing and Christensen, 2004) and empirical data (Shen and Edwards, 2004; Bonache and Brewster, 2001) and suggests early return rates are relatively low.

According to repatriates from Study I, the main difficulties experienced in the re-entry period are career and personal related, as follows:

- (1) Having no previous return planning or preparation;
- (2) Having no job opportunities;
- (3) Having to re-learn work habits and build a new job;
- (4) Having less autonomy and income than abroad;
- (5) Having to adjust to new family routines.

These results are consistent with previous research (e.g., Stroh, 1995; Riusala and Suutari, 2000; Linehan, 2002; Linehan and Scullion, 2002; Suutari and Brewster, 2003; Stahl and Cerdin, 2004). Overall, they indicate companies do not have effective repatriation planning practices. Moreover, Study I also indicates that most successful repatriates have anticipated and managed their re-entry difficulties, through active searching for a new position, looking for a successor and announcing their return. These findings suggest repatriates have recognized the need to manage their own repatriation process and consequently used networking, during the assignment and before return, to influence their successful acceptance and reintegration. However, this noteworthy finding may not apply to other samples, because individuals may have different expectations' regarding the demand for international expertise in their home labor markets. For example, in a comparative study, Stahl and Cerdin (2004) noticed French expatriates were more concerned about career advancement within their companies than German expatriates were, because most likely they were expecting less career opportunities outside their own companies than German expatriates'. The same explanation may apply to Portuguese repatriates. They may expect career difficulties in the Portuguese labor market, which may have accounted for their initiative in looking for career alternatives inside their own companies. The results from this study indicate that future research should explore the impact of labor market characteristics on the motivations to accept an international assignment and on the repatriates' willingness to remain in their home companies.

7.1.4 International assignments' outcomes

The key themes about international assignments' outcomes were general satisfaction (most liked and disliked aspects), termination (withdrawal intentions), repetition and recommendation to others.

General satisfaction with the assignment is individual and work related. In particular, it involves aspects related with the learning experience and professional development during and after the assignment. Less frequent topics linked to the destination country characteristics, such as leisure activities and cultural development, were also mentioned.

Regarding the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction, the results from Study I revealed a sole association between dissatisfaction with the interface with locals and general adjustment. In general, individuals dissatisfied with their interface with locals were also less adjusted to the host environment. Overall, the results show most liked and disliked aspects are unrelated with individuals' perceptions of their level of cross-cultural adjustment. These findings indicate that the general satisfaction of Portuguese expatriates and repatriates' is unrelated with their perceived level of adjustment, which is consistent with quantitative results from Study II. Therefore, these findings are not consistent with hypotheses H6E, H7E, H8E. One possible explanation for these results may rely on the classic distinction between hygienic and motivator factors (Herzberg, 1959). Hygiene factors are job factors that can cause dissatisfaction if missing, but do not necessarily motivate employees if increased. They have mostly to do with the job environment and are important when they are lacking. Based on this approach, most factors associated with expatriation and repatriation adjustment can be considered essentially hygienic, i.e., their presence does not enhance cross-cultural adjustment, though their absence may decrease adjustment. The same would apply to general satisfaction. For example, the perception of inadequate or insufficient local interactions would increase uncertainty and anxiety, which in turn would affect negatively adjustment and general satisfaction, while an effective interface with locals would not necessarily increase expatriates' adjustment and satisfaction. Overall, section 7.3.3 explores further these explanations together with the results from Study II.

Regarding the relationship between adjustment and withdrawal intentions, the results from Study I indicate cross-cultural adjustment is unrelated with individuals' intentions to leave the assignment early and with their motivation to repeat the assignment again, which is not consistent with hypotheses H9E, H10E and H11E. To most Portuguese expatriates, only relevant health, safety or family problems would make them return early. Motives related with lack of trust and support from the company, under-performance and new opportunities could also motivate an early return. These findings are generally consistent with previous studies (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989; Riusala and Suutari, 2000; Suutari, 2003), which indicate

that family lack of adjustment is a more common motive for an early return than expatriates' adjustment itself.

Results from Study I also indicate individuals' perceptions of liked and disliked factors are unrelated with their assignment withdrawal intentions.

A possible explanation for this lack of association between cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions, may rely on the expectations regarding the international experience. For instance, expatriates may feel that within certain limits the adjustment difficulties they face, and the disliked factors, are acceptable for an expatriation, and consequently, do not affect their general satisfaction with the assignment and their withdrawal intentions. In the present study, the following statements best describe the relationship between expatriates' adjustment and early termination:

"Nothing would make me return... nothing would get in my way. Neither the climate, nor my adaptability to the country – nothing – because my conviction was that the factory had to be made to function."

"Finding difficulties...wouldn't make me return early. I would expect to find difficulties."

These results also suggest that Portuguese expatriates and repatriates value the international assignment *per se*, which supports previous research with other European samples (Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Stahl *et al.*, 2002). In this research, Portuguese expatriates and repatriates' view the international assignment as an integrated life experience that enriches their professional and personal lives. Overall, they consider that the positive aspects overcome the negatives, which would lead them accept another experience (with no doubt for 12 out of 30 respondents) and recommend an assignment to others. These findings generally confirm previous research (e.g., Riusala and Suutari, 2000; Suutari, 2003), except the fact that one out of two respondents felt compelled to accept the assignment.

The learning experience may explain this apparent contradiction. Even an unexpected assignment can lead to a successful integration, as this study indicates. These results suggest that individuals can be unwilling to adopt the norms of the destination country and, nevertheless, be fairly adjusted. This achievement might give expatriates' the conviction that they are capable of overcoming similar or even more difficult challenges in the future, which in turn would increase their self-confidence and motivation to accept another offer in future.

The second explanation relates with career prospects and bargain power. As indicated, some people accepted an assignment because they had no better career prospects

or because their companies needed them to accept. Under these circumstances, the assignment is to be accepted (and perhaps repeated), even at the cost of some personal and family disruption. As was recognized, even an unintended international assignment can endorse positive outcomes, such as job security, at least during the assignment, professional and personal opportunities for development and the chance to escape from personal problems. Moreover, an unplanned assignment may also increase individuals' bargain power, because the accomplishment of an international mission on companies' behalf, may entitle international employees to added compensation and corporate recognition. Both explanations account for the above-mentioned fact that most Portuguese international managers would accept another assignment and recommend it to others, regardless of having accepted because they felt compelled to do so. As these alternatives are not mutually exclusive, future research should explore these issues further.

The overall picture one gets from Portuguese expatriates' and repatriates' is similar to the one reported by Suutari (2003) with Finnish international managers. In the current research, Portuguese international workers are generally well adjusted, both to work and to non-work challenges. They seem satisfied with the assignment, and would repeat it again and recommend it to others. Though they recognize the problems associated to cross-cultural adjustment and the risks of an international career, they do not acknowledge increased difficulties related with culture novelty. Family issues assume a central role to determine individuals' acceptance of a new assignment, in-country and return adjustment. Regarding repatriates, career challenges are core for an effective repatriation.

Thus, based on these findings one conclude the literature may have over-emphasized the cross-cultural difficulties and related negative outcomes, instead of exploring the positive effects of international assignments.

7.2 Key findings from Study II

Study II tested the influence of organizational culture on cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, with an international sample of 166 expatriates and 55 repatriates. The key findings are covered next, following the research model and hypotheses presented on Figure 4 - page 87. Separate sections discuss the results for expatriates and repatriates.

7.2.1 Expatriation

Factor analyses empirically confirmed the tridimensional nature of cross-cultural adjustment, which is consistent with previous studies (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black, 1990; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Further, it confirmed the adequacy of the organizational culture scale adapted from Goffee and Jones (1998) to measure the sociability and solidarity dimensions, and the adequacy of the scale adapted from Carmeli (2005) to measure expatriates' withdrawal intentions. The adjustment and organizational culture dimensions also emerged from content analysis run on data from Study I. These results, altogether confirm the adequacy of the measures used for the independent and the dependent variables.

7.2.1.1 Organizational antecedents of expatriates' adjustment: hypotheses H1E to H5E

Interesting to the aims of this research, is the effect of culture novelty. As described, culture novelty does not significantly correlate with expatriates' adjustment. Besides, one-way analyses confirmed no significant differences in adjustment, according to national cultural differences, which is consistent with results from Study I. These results do not support hypotheses H1Ea)b)c). Even if this result is counter intuitive, it supports findings from Selmer, (2007, 2006a) who found no significant association between culture novelty and sociocultural adjustment among Western expatriates assigned to China and American expatriates assigned to Canada and Germany. These results suggest cross-cultural adjustment can be as difficult (or easy) to similar cultural countries as to more culturally dissimilar destinations. Possible explanations for this result are further discussed in section 7.3.2.

Hypotheses H2E and H4E tested the effect of home and host sociability on expatriates cross-cultural adjustment. It was assumed that an organizational culture that promotes friendship ties in the work environment would increase the support needed during an assignment, which in turn would enhance expatriates work, interaction and general adjustment. As reported in Table 11 - page 110, home and host sociability are not significant predictors of expatriates' adjustment, even if previous ANOVA have indicated that expatriates general adjustment is higher when home and host organizational culture is high in sociability. Thus, results from the regression analyses do not support hypotheses H2Ea)b)c) and H4Ea)b)c), which assume a positive relationship between home and host sociability and expatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment.

Regarding solidarity, hypotheses H3E and H5E tested the effect of home and host solidarity on expatriates work adjustment. It was assumed that having an organizational culture that promotes collective business goals, would help decrease the uncertainty involved with an assignment, which in turn would enhance expatriates work adjustment. No spill over influence was expected for the other dimensions of adjustment. As shown in Table 11 - page 190, home solidarity is positively associated with expatriates' adjustment, respectively work adjustment (Adj. $R^2= 0.175$; $\beta= 0.049$; $F=7.162$; $p<0.01$; $df=58$) and general adjustment (Adj. $R^2=0.493$; $\beta=0.063$; $F=10.519$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$). These results support hypothesis H3E, which assumed a positive association between home solidarity and expatriates work adjustment. Further, host solidarity is also a significant predictor of work adjustment (Adj. $R^2= 0.175$; $\beta= 0.045$; $F=5.397$; $p<0.01$; $df=49$) and general adjustment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.479$; $\beta= 0.039$; $F=7.432$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$). These results support hypothesis H5E, which assume a positive association between host solidarity and work adjustment.

These findings were unexpected and are counter intuitive. The literature would have predicted that high sociability would have led to a higher level of support, which in turn would decrease expatriates uncertainty and promote adjustment. In addition, data from Study I generally suggested a positive association between host support (from co-workers, other expatriates and locals) and expatriates' adjustment. Surprisingly, data from Study II reveals that home and host sociability are not predictors of expatriates' adjustment, while home and host solidarity explains part of the variance of work and general adjustment. Section 7.3.2 discusses these results further.

The question as to whether there is a better combination of these dimensions (that is a better organizational culture) to ease expatriates adjustment, several one-way analyses were run (APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II). The results revealed no significant adjustment differences according to organizational culture profiles. Altogether, these results indicate sociability and organizational culture types are not significant predictors of expatriates' adjustment, but home and host solidarity can be used to predict expatriates' work and general adjustment.

7.2.1.2 Expatriates' adjustment outcomes: hypotheses H6E to H12E

Hypotheses H6E, H7E and H8E tested the effect of work, interaction and general adjustment on expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. It was assumed that general satisfaction would be an output of expatriates' adjustment. As indicated in Table 12 -

page 194, expatriates adjustment is not a significant predictor of expatriates' general satisfaction; even if one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) have indicated that the level of general satisfaction was significantly higher with work and general adjustment.

Overall, the results do not support hypotheses H6E, H7E and H8E. These findings are consistent with the findings from Study I, which indicated that the satisfaction with the assignment among Portuguese international workers was not related with their perceived level of adjustment.

These are unexpected results because previous studies found job satisfaction to be positively and significantly correlated with work and interaction adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) and general adjustment (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002). Intuitively, one would expect adjustment to be positively associated with general satisfaction, as it is difficult to understand how poor adjustment can be unrelated with general satisfaction. Therefore, section 7.3.3 explores this question further.

Hypotheses H9E, H10E and H11E tested the effect of work, interaction and general adjustment on expatriates' withdrawal intentions. It was assumed that withdrawal intentions would be an output of expatriates' adjustment. As indicated in Table 13 - page 196, assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions can be predicted by work and general adjustment, which supports hypotheses H9Ea) and c) and H11Ea) and c). Interaction adjustment is not a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions, which does not support hypothesis H10E. Overall, work adjustment predicts assignment withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.326$; $\beta=-0.294$; $F= 5.737$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$) and occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.226$; $\beta=-0.259$; $F=8.159$; $p<0.01$; $df=49$). General adjustment also predicts assignment withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.311$; $\beta=-0.246$; $F=5.431$; $p<0.01$; $df=49$) and occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=-0.216$; $\beta=-0.245$; $F=7.741$; $p<0.01$; $df=49$). Finally, withdrawal intentions from the organization are not predicted by expatriates' adjustment.

These findings partially support previous research (Black and Stephens, 1989; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), which indicated a negative and significant relationship between expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and expatriates' intentions to return earlier. This research extends these findings by distinguishing the dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment that influence each dimension of the intentions to withdraw. Overall, the results reveal that expatriates work and general adjustment are significant predictors of assignment and occupation withdrawal

intentions, but cannot predict expatriates intentions to withdraw from the organization. As indicated in Table 13 - page 196, expatriates intentions to leave the organization are not determined by their cross-cultural adjustment, but by other variables such as expatriates' education level, company type of industry and company internationalization stage.

Hypothesis H12E tested the relationship between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. It assumes a negative and significant relationship between general satisfaction and all three forms of withdrawal intentions, which is supported by regression analyses. As indicated in Table 14 - page 198, general satisfaction is a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation. Overall, general satisfaction predicts assignment withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.420$; $\beta=-0.549$; $F=8.101$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$), organization withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.323$; $\beta=-0.391$; $F=6.837$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$) and occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.412$; $\beta=-0.563$; $F=18.1598$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$). These findings are consistent with previous research from Takeushi *et al.* (2002), who found that job satisfaction was negatively related to expatriates' intention to return earlier. However, the present research extends the investigation to the effects of expatriates' general satisfaction on each dimension of withdrawal intentions.

7.2.1.3 Organizational antecedents of expatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions: hypothesis H13E

Hypothesis H13E tested the relationship between host organizational culture and expatriates withdrawal intentions. Based on the work of Carmeli (2005), it was hypothesized that a host organizational culture high in sociability would foster individuals' commitment to each other, thus reducing expatriates intentions to withdraw. As indicated in Table 15 - page 200, host sociability is not a significant predictor of expatriates' withdrawal intentions, which does not support hypothesis H13E. In fact, only host solidarity predicts expatriates occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.329$; $\beta=-0.043$; $F=8.832$; $p<0.001$; $df=48$). However, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) revealed significant score mean differences for withdrawal intentions, according to host sociability and solidarity and destination culture type. These analyses (see details in APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II) indicated that the highest the host sociability, the lowest the assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions. Similarly, the higher the host solidarity, the lower the withdrawal intentions. Further, organizational withdrawal intentions were higher when the host company has a networked organizational culture.

These results indicate that when the host company has an organizational culture that promotes common business goals among its members; it can diminish expatriates' withdrawal intentions. These findings are unexpected because one assumed sociability, instead of solidarity, would contribute positively to reduce expatriates withdrawal intentions. These findings, however, are consistent with Carmeli's (2005) work, who found a negative association between the organizational dimension of job challenge and withdrawal intentions. Further, Hofstede (1993) has already argued that a results oriented culture is highly correlated with low absenteeism. Section 7.3.2 discusses possible explanations for these findings. In any case, these results not only extend empirical evidence to show that organizational culture can influence expatriates' withdrawal intentions, as reveal that this influence is stronger through solidarity.

With reference to organizational culture influence on expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, the regression analyses indicate home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions predict expatriates general satisfaction. As shown in Table 16 - page 203, host solidarity is a significant predictor of expatriates general satisfaction (Adj. $R^2=0.455$; $\beta=0.033$; $F=7.815$; $p<0.001$; $df=49$). Though not hypothesized, this finding shows host solidarity positively influences expatriates general satisfaction with the assignment. These results do not support the view of an earlier study conducted by Lund (2003), who found higher levels of job satisfaction among American marketing professionals in the Clan culture, in which individuals share a strong sense of camaraderie, teamwork and pride. The present study indicates that expatriates' general satisfaction is more determined by the clarity and commonality of business interests than by host friendship ties. These relationships are explored further in section 7.3.3.

7.2.1.4 Moderating relationships of individual and organizational characteristics

Several interesting findings surfaced relating to the moderating variables selected, which are summarized next.

Age - Previous studies (e.g., Feldman and Tompson, 1993) suggested that younger expatriates without extensive family responsibilities' and commitments adjust easier than older expatriates. Feldman and Tompson (1993), referencing the literature, noted that middle-aged managers may be the age group with increased adjustment difficulties, because they are not young enough to have few family responsibilities nor senior enough to be free from parenting and to have the status associated to a long and prestigious career. Overall, results from Study

I are consistent with this view. Results from Study I and Study II show that age moderates the relationship between organizational culture and expatriates' general adjustment. Interestingly, the evidence is mixed: data from Study I indicates that older expatriates have more interaction adjustment difficulties than young expatriates, but less general adjustment difficulties; while results from Study II (see Table 11 – page 190) indicate older expatriates have more general adjustment difficulties. These diverging results may derive from Study I sample idiosyncrasies, as age was associated with gender, being "young women" the group that mentioned more general adjustment difficulties. In any case, further research is required to clarify the moderating role of age on expatriates' adjustment.

Gender - Previous studies have found gender differences among expatriates (Selmer and Leung, 2003b) and gender differences regarding expatriation adjustment (Selmer and Leung, 2003a; Culpán and Wright, 2002; Linehan, 2002). For instance, Selmer and Leung (2003a) found that female expatriates adjusted easier to work and interacting with others than male expatriates, while no significant differences were found for general adjustment. In the current study, data from Study I indicates Portuguese women had more adjustment difficulties than men did, and data from Study II shows gender moderates the relationships between organizational culture and expatriates' adjustment, and the relationship between organizational culture and general satisfaction. More specifically, gender (female) is negatively associated with expatriates' general adjustment and general satisfaction, which supports the conclusions that female expatriates face more adjustment difficulties and are less satisfied with the assignment than men are. These results contradict previous research (e.g., Selmer and Leung, 2003a; Adler, 1995), though are generally consistent with the findings of Culpán and Wright (2002), on the negative effects of a discriminative work environment on women's' job satisfaction. Women's' increased general adjustment difficulties may derive, not only from local gender discrimination, as illustrated by Portuguese women expatriates, but also from adjustment difficulties of spouses and children. Previous research has highlighted the spillover effect of spouse adjustment on expatriates' adjustment (Black and Stephens, 1989; Stroh *et al.*, 1994; Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002; Mohr and Klein, 2004; Waxin, 2004). In the case of women expatriates', they have increased adjustment problems derived from their domestic responsibilities and from their husbands difficulties to find a job at destination (Linehan, 2002). Difficulties finding job at destination not only affects negatively the adjustment of male spouses, as the efforts from women expatriates to adjust. In

this situation, their satisfaction with the assignment is also affected. Correlation analysis from Study II indicates significant negative correlations between gender (female), spouse interaction, and general adjustment, which generally support this argument. Future research should explore this issue, further.

Country-of-origin - Previous studies that consider the influence of this variable are scarce. With the exception of a qualitative study with 13 US expatriates, from Jassawalla, Truglia and Garvey (2004), and a conceptual paper from Mamman (1995) on the effects of sociobiological factors in expatriates' effectiveness, no other references were found. According to Jassawalla, Truglia and Garvey (2004) and Mamman (1995), expatriates' nationality can affect intercultural interactions. Host perceptions are often affected by stereotypes, previous interaction experiences with individuals from the same nationality and ultimately the international relations between home and destination countries. In this research, the country-of-origin appeared as a significant category in Study I to explain work and general adjustment. Portuguese expatriates perceived nationality as a restraining adjustment factor. Results from Study II (see Table 12 - page 194) also indicate birth country moderates the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction. In this study, expatriates born in Spain, Switzerland and Austria are the least satisfied. Therefore, it is reasonable to accept that nationality may moderate the relationship between adjustment antecedents and outcomes, so this variable should be considered in future studies.

Destination country - Results from Study I indicate that perceptions of general adjustment are generally associated with the characteristics of the destination country. In addition, results from Study II indicate destination country is a significant predictor of expatriates' general satisfaction (see Table 12 - page 194). In this study, expatriates assigned to the UK, Nigeria, Japan, France and Denmark are the least satisfied. Even if these results may result from sample idiosyncrasies, it is admitted that expatriates adjustment and satisfaction may vary, to a certain extent, with the destination country. Therefore, future studies should include this moderating variable in their analysis.

Educational level and host position - Results from Study II indicate that educational level is a significant predictor of withdrawal intentions from the organization and the occupation (see Table 13 - page 196). Apparently, individuals with a higher educational level are the ones revealing fewer intentions to withdraw from the organization and the current occupation. This result is consistent with the explanation that is the more educated

professionals who perceive increased disadvantages in leaving their present employer and current career choice. In addition, this is consistent with the moderating role of host position. According to results from Study II, host position (management) is positively related with work adjustment (see Table 11 - page 190), and negatively with assignment withdrawal intentions. These results indicate that top managers adjust better to their work at the destination and persevere longer. This result, however, contradicts previous findings, for example from Gregersen and Black (1990), who found that position in the company was inversely related to expatriates' intent to stay. Future research may attempt to explore the impact of these variables.

Host language fluency - Results from Study I and Study II (see Table 11- page 190) indicate host language fluency is the main predictor of interaction adjustment, which is consistent with the findings from Selmer (2006a), obtained with Western business expatriates assigned to China. Host language fluency also predicts expatriates general satisfaction (see Table 12- page 194) and assignment withdrawal intentions (see Table 13 - 196). Interestingly, these results indicate people fluent in the host language are better adjusted to interaction with locals, but they are also less satisfied and reveal more intentions to withdraw from the assignment. Future research should explore these issues further.

Previous international experience - In this research, previous international experience only predicts expatriates general adjustment (see Table 11 - page 190). This result does not provide much insight into a field already full of mixed evidence. In any case, results indicate previous international experience is not a strong predictor of expatriates' work and interaction adjustment.

Pre-assignment training - Results from Study I indicate that preparation and pre-assignment training is scarce among Portuguese expatriates, though it is perceived as beneficial to cross-cultural adjustment. Further, results from Study II show that training does not moderate the relationship between organizational culture and expatriates adjustment, although it predicts expatriates' general satisfaction (see Table 12 - page 194). This result supports previous research (Black and Mendenhall, 1990; Black *et al.*, 1991), which found a positive association between cross-cultural training and expatriates' feelings of well-being and self-confidence.

Company characteristics - Results from Study II indicate that company characteristics, such as type of industry, stage of internationalization and company experience at destination,

are significant predictors. The industry sector is associated with expatriates' general adjustment, being higher for sectors, such as health-care, oil and gas, electronics, pulp and paper, and food and beverage. These sectors also relate with lower expatriates' assignment and organization withdrawal intentions. Company experience abroad also predicts expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions. Expatriates working for experienced companies abroad usually reveal fewer intentions to withdraw from the assignment. Similarly, company stage of internationalization predicts expatriates organization withdrawal intentions. Overall, expatriates working for global and transnational companies reveal fewer intentions to withdraw from the organization than expatriates employed in national or multinational companies do. These findings indicate organizational variables have a wider influence on expatriation than is usually assumed in the literature.

Return position – Findings from Study I and Study II corroborate the importance of having a return position. According to data from Study II, having no difficulties to find a return position is a significant predictor of expatriates' assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions. Clearly, these findings indicate that the perception of having a return position decreases expatriates withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation. This result is consistent with previous findings, for example from Stroh *et al.* (1994), who found that expatriates who work for organizations that provide a position upon return are better adjusted than expatriates who work for organizations that do not assure a return position.

Spouse adjustment - In line with previous studies (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989; Stroh *et al.*, 1994), results from Study I and Study II indicate spouse adjustment explains part of the variance of expatriates' general adjustment and satisfaction. Overall, spouse interaction and general adjustment predict expatriates' general adjustment. Spouse general adjustment also predicts expatriates' general satisfaction. These results are consistent with previous findings, although do not support Takeuchi and colleagues conclusion (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002) that spouse adjustment have a cross-over effect on expatriates' work adjustment. Future research should explore these relationships further.

7.2.2 Repatriation

Results herein reported relay on a sample of 15 Portuguese repatriates from Study I and a sample of 55 international repatriates from Study II. Because of samples size, the conclusions derived from these findings are mainly exploratory.

7.2.2.1 Organizational antecedents of repatriates' adjustment: hypotheses H1R to H5R

Hypothesis H1R tested the influence of national culture novelty on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. As with expatriation, results indicate culture novelty does not correlate significantly with repatriates' adjustment. Overall, these findings do not support hypothesis H1R and suggest that repatriates adjustment can be difficult even when repatriates return from culturally close countries.

Hypotheses H2R and H4R tested the effect of home and host sociability on repatriates cross-cultural adjustment. It was assumed that having an organizational culture that promotes friendship ties in the work environment, would increase the support needed during the repatriation, which in turn would enhance repatriates work, interaction and general adjustment. As shown in Table 18 - page 206, home sociability is a significant predictor of repatriates' interaction adjustment (Adj. $R^2 = 0.286$; $\beta = 0.163$; $F = 6.215$; $p < 0.05$). This supports hypothesis H2Rb), which states a positive and significant association between home sociability and repatriates interaction adjustment. Hypothesis H2a)c) and H4a)b)c), which assume a positive association between home and host sociability and repatriates adjustment, are not supported. In addition, solidarity (both at home and at destination) revealed no influence on repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, which do not support hypothesis H5R.

The literature would have predicted that high home and host sociability would influence not only repatriates' work adjustment (due to improved work relationships) but also interaction and general adjustment (due to the establishment of strong and enduring friendship ties with co-workers and co-workers support). This is partially confirmed, as home sociability revealed a significant influence on repatriates' interaction adjustment. However, home sociability do not affect repatriates work and general adjustment, nor host sociability. One can argue that these counterintuitive findings might reflect the characteristics of the repatriates' sample, such as its small size. The number of repatriates was small, and therefore insufficient to draw conclusions about the expected effects. However, results from Study I corroborate the absence of effects and centre the organizational influence in the practices related with career planning. Future research should explore the research questions further, especially with other groups of repatriates.

7.2.2.2 Repatriates adjustment outcomes: hypotheses H6R to H12R

Hypotheses H6R, H7R and H8R tested the effect of work, interaction and general adjustment on repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. It was assumed that general satisfaction would be an output of repatriates' adjustment. As indicated in Table 19 - page 208, repatriates' work adjustment is a significant predictor of repatriates' general satisfaction, which supports H6R. Repatriates' work adjustment predicts repatriates' general satisfaction (Adj. $R^2=0.854$; $\beta=0.335$; $F=16.199$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$). Hypotheses H7R and H8R, which assume repatriates' general satisfaction is positively associated with interaction and general adjustment, are not supported.

These findings are consistent with the findings from Study I, indicating that general satisfaction among Portuguese repatriates is unrelated with repatriates' perceived level of cross-cultural adjustment. In addition, general satisfaction among Portuguese repatriates is work related (for instance depends on having a position upon return), which corroborates the salience of work factors to repatriates' general satisfaction. According to Table 19 - page 208, previous international experience, marital status, having no difficulties finding a return position, and being promoted during the assignment, moderate the relationship between work adjustment and repatriates general satisfaction. This is in line with earlier evidence on the determinants of satisfaction with repatriation. Previous studies found that difficulty with finding an adequate position upon return and a promotion are significant predictors of repatriates' satisfaction (Stroh, 1995; Morgan *et al.*, 2004).

Hypotheses H9R, H10R and H11R tested the effect of work, interaction and general adjustment on repatriates' withdrawal intentions. It was assumed that withdrawal intentions would be an output of repatriates' adjustment. As shown in Table 20 - page 209, only work adjustment predicts repatriates occupation withdrawal intentions (Adj. $R^2=0.687$; $\beta=-0.443$; $F=15.280$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$). This finding supports hypothesis H9Rc), while hypotheses H9Ra), b), H10R and H11R are not supported. This indicates that repatriates' intentions to withdraw from the job and the organization is unrelated with cross-cultural adjustment. These results contradict the findings from Lee and Liu (2006a, 2006b) who found that repatriation adjustment alone accounted for 50 per cent of the variance of the intention to leave. These results revealed, instead, that the "easier" decisions to leave an assignment and the organization are unaffected by cross-cultural adjustment, at least for the surveyed repatriates. It seems that a poor adjustment is judged as "part of the game" of going abroad, which means

that repatriates intentions to leave an assignment and the organization are unaffected by cross-cultural adjustment. Inversely, the "difficult decision" of intending to leave an occupation is negatively affected by work adjustment. It seems that what can seriously lead repatriates to reconsider their occupation is work poor adjustment upon return. Future research should focus on other repatriate groups, after controlling for the effect of different labor markets.

Hypothesis H12R tested the relationship between repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. It assumes a negative and significant relationship between general satisfaction and all three forms of withdrawal intentions, which is not supported by regression analyses. As indicated in Table 21 - page 210, general satisfaction with the assignment is not a significant predictor of repatriates' withdrawal intentions. These findings support the results of Lee and Liu (2006a, 2006b) who found that though Taiwanese repatriates' job satisfaction was negatively associated with intent to leave; the regression analysis showed it was not a significant predictor. Although exploratory, the current research adds to the literature, by providing evidence for the relationship between repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment and each dimension of withdrawal intentions.

7.2.2.3 Organizational antecedents of repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions: hypothesis H13R

Hypothesis H13R tested the relationship between home organizational culture and repatriates withdrawal intentions. Based on the work of Carmeli (2005), it was hypothesized that a home organizational culture high in sociability would foster repatriates' commitment to home co-workers, which would reduce their intentions to withdraw, after repatriation.

As indicated in Table 22 - page 212, home sociability is not a significant predictor of repatriates' withdrawal intentions, which does not support hypothesis H13R. In addition, host sociability and home solidarity predict repatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions (respectively Adj. $R^2=0.693$; $\beta=-0.050$; $F=15.672$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$; and Adj. $R^2=0.686$; $\beta=-0.097$; $F=15.174$; $p<0.01$; $df=13$). These exploratory findings reveal that home solidarity and host sociability can contribute to reduce repatriates' intentions to leave their present occupation.

Although not hypothesized, a hierarchical regression analysis tested whether organization culture and more specifically, home and host sociability and solidarity dimensions, predict repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. As showed in Table 23 - page 213, home and destination culture types emerged as significant predictors of

repatriates' general satisfaction. Specifically, destination culture type predicts repatriates general satisfaction (Adj. $R^2=0.873$; $\beta=0.527$; $F=18.947$; $p<0.001$; $df=13$), while home culture type predicts repatriates' general satisfaction when the single influence of home organizational culture is determined (Adj. $R^2=0.869$; $\beta=0.322$; $F=18.319$; $p<0.001$; $df=13$). As indicated, repatriates' general satisfaction is higher when home organizational culture is mercenary (e.g., low sociability and high solidarity) and host organizational culture is communal (high sociability and solidarity). Apparently, a home organizational culture that emphasizes results and business goals is a positive determinant of repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment. Also, a destination company whose organizational culture emphasizes friendliness and sociability ties without disregarding business goals and results positively influences repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment. Section 7.3.5 explores these findings further.

7.2.2.4 Moderating relationships of individual and organizational characteristics

Several interesting findings emerged regarding the moderating variables, such as previous international experience, marital status, birth country, tenure in the company, promotion with the assignment, no difficulties finding a return position and destination country.

Previous international experience - As with expatriation, previous international experience predicts cross-cultural adjustment. It is the main predictor of repatriates' work adjustment; explaining 26.7% of its variance (see Table 18 - page 206). In this respect, previous research (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005) has showed a positive and significant relationship between previous international experience with work and interaction, though this factor explains only 1% of the variance of both forms of adjustment. In this research, however, a significant and negative relationship was detected between previous international experience and repatriates work adjustment. Apparently, more internationally experienced repatriates are the ones who have more difficulties adjusting to work upon return. Similarly, previous international experience is negatively associated with repatriates' general satisfaction, explaining 36.5% of its variance. It is also positively related with organization withdrawal intentions, explaining 32.4% of its variance. Actually, more internationally experienced repatriates are less adjusted to work, are less satisfied with the assignment, and have more intentions to withdraw from the organization. Contrary to expatriation, previous international experience is the main predictor of repatriates' work adjustment, general satisfaction and organization withdrawal intentions. Future research should explore these

relationships further, since current results indicate previous international experience has a stronger moderating role for repatriates than for expatriates.

Marital status - In Study II, marital status moderates the relationship between organizational culture and general satisfaction and between cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction. In each case, single repatriates are generally more satisfied with the assignment than married repatriates. Similarly, results from Study I indicate single participants were generally dissatisfied with the assignment contract and the lack of pre-assignment preparation, though less concerned with other factors affecting family adjustment.

Birth country - Results from Study II indicate that birth country is a significant predictor of repatriates' withdrawal intentions. Birth country explains part of the variance of job withdrawal intentions, of organization withdrawal intentions, and of occupation withdrawal intentions. Overall, the repatriates from Japan, India, France, Germany and the UK reveal lower withdrawal intentions. One possible explanation for these findings might be the perception of increased difficulties in finding alternative (and equivalent) jobs in these countries, which might reduce repatriates' intentions to leave the job, the organization and present occupation. Future research should look at the influence of different labor markets on withdrawal intentions.

Tenure in the company - Although previous research (Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun and Lepak, 2005; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001; Yavas and Bodur, 1999) found a positive and significant relationship between tenure in the host country and the three forms of adjustment, this is not supported in this research. Overall, tenure in the assignment correlates poorly with adjustment. However, data from Study II indicates tenure in the company is negatively and significantly related with withdrawal intentions, being a significant predictor of the repatriates' intentions to withdraw from the job. This means repatriates employed longer in the company, reveal fewer intentions to leave their jobs voluntarily.

Promotion with the assignment - Results from Study II indicate promotion with the assignment does predict repatriates' general satisfaction. It explains part of the variance of repatriates' general satisfaction, which further corroborates the influence of work variables on repatriates' general satisfaction.

No difficulties finding a return position - Having no difficulties finding a position upon return is a significant predictor of repatriates' general satisfaction and job withdrawal

intentions. Overall, results from Study I and Study II indicate that having a return position enhances repatriates general satisfaction and decreases their intentions to leave the job.

Destination country - Results from Study II indicate destination country moderates the relationship between general satisfaction and repatriates' job withdrawal intentions. Destination country explains part of the variance of job withdrawal intentions with repatriates who were assigned to Senegal, Russia, Nigeria, Australia and Denmark revealing higher job withdrawal intentions. As with expatriation, it is reasonable to accept that repatriates' adjustment, satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions may vary, to a certain extent, with the destination country, so future studies should attempt to contemplate this moderating variable.

7.3 Key findings to the research questions

Based on results from Study I and Study II, the overall picture shows that expatriates and repatriates are fairly adjusted to their assignments and with the exception of work adjustment, general satisfaction can hardly be predicted by expatriates and repatriates adjustment. Still, general satisfaction is a significant predictor of expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions. These findings question the centrality and criticality attributed to expatriation and repatriation adjustment, as cross-cultural adjustment is poorly related with general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

The following sections examine each research question and the contributions of this study to these issues.

7.3.1 What factors are perceived to influence international assignments?

The first research question was "*What are the factors perceived to influence international assignments selection, preparation, in-country adjustment and return, namely among Portuguese expatriates and repatriates?*" The results of Study I mainly answer this question. One of the strengths of theory building from cases is the potential to generate new insights, which in turn contributes to reframe old theories or generate new ones (Eisenhardt, 1989). Therefore, Study I, which involved the qualitative analysis to the content of 30 semi-structured interviews to Portuguese international managers, provide further insights to this research question.

Overall, the findings of this empirical research are in line with the existing literature. For example, data from Portuguese expatriates and repatriates supports the view that cross-cultural adjustment is a multidimensional concept, which evolves along time, even if this process differs with age and gender. In general, young women reveal more adjustment difficulties than their male counterparts do. Study I also indicates that interaction adjustment is the hardest form of adjustment, followed by general and work adjustment. Different factors influence cross-cultural adjustment and can be grouped into five distinct categories: anticipatory factors, individual factors, work and non-work factors, and organizational factors. As expected, factors have a strongest influence in its specific domain, that is work factors have the strongest influence on work adjustment, while non-work factors have the strongest influence on general adjustment. Finally, data from Study I confirms that most Portuguese and international companies do not have effective expatriation planning and preparation practices, which undermines expatriates and repatriates' efforts to adjust.

With regard to the literature, this study provides new evidence, showing that employing companies' are using Portuguese expatriates under different staffing policies. Portuguese companies seem to adopt an ethnocentric approach to expatriation, while international companies appear to adopt a regiocentric approach.

On the other hand, findings reveal that once invited, candidates have little choice to refuse an assignment. The selection process is more casual than formal, and often the CEO is personally committed to the "invitation" process. The overall picture from this finding is the perception that if expatriates fail to achieve the assignment objectives, the CEO and the parent company also fails. With the exception of Shen and Edwards (2004) study, based on qualitative data from ten Chinese multinationals and their subsidiaries in the UK, no research was found in the available literature reporting similar findings. Results from Study I also indicate that many international employees accept an assignment just because they feel compelled to accept it by their employing companies. This is noteworthy and opens up new avenues of research about the motives and the outcomes of expatriation and repatriation.

Another difference with early studies refers to family adjustment, which is an essential dimension of expatriates and repatriates cross-cultural adjustment. Study I adds to the existing body of literature on spouse adjustment in two ways. Firstly, reposition spouse adjustment as one of the dimensions of family adjustment, which also includes children and parents adjustment. Secondly, results indicate that even when the family does not accompany

expatriates, there are family adjustment issues that influence expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment during the assignment and frequently upon return. Overall, Study I reveals that an international assignment is mostly a family distressing event, even when family remains at home. In case of separated families (e.g., not accompanying families), the negative setbacks can extend much beyond the assignment duration.

Another contribution of Study I relates to the influence of organizational variables on cross-cultural adjustment. Organizational influence goes beyond the established references to logistic and co-workers support, and embrace home and host organizational cultures. Findings from Study I indicate that Portuguese international managers identify this influence and find organizational culture relevant to ease or hinder their cross-cultural adjustment. In particular, they find solidarity, that is, the collective sharing of common business interests and goals, a basic condition to guide their actions during the assignment.

An additional contribution from Study I, relates with the impact of cultural differences between home and destination countries. Although Portuguese international managers were able to recognize the cultural differences between the two countries, they did not acknowledge that those differences undermine their adjustment, satisfaction or withdrawal intentions. In fact, adjustment and satisfaction can be negatively affected even when both countries are culturally close.

Another contribution from Study I, is that general satisfaction with the assignment is mostly unrelated with cross-cultural adjustment, and satisfaction does not condition withdrawal intentions. Portuguese expatriates and repatriates admit they can be well adjusted and dissatisfied or be poorly adjusted although fairly satisfied with the assignment. Moreover, being dissatisfied is not a required condition to terminate the assignment earlier. As these results suggest, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions are not consequences of cross-cultural adjustment. Overall, general satisfaction depends on many other variables, such as being able to perform and fulfil the assignment mission, even if it drags a certain amount of maladjustment. Furthermore, an early termination depends also on other variables, such as personal or family health or security problems, and ultimately, on poor performance or lack of trust from the company side. In any case, the results obtained with this sample indicate turnover is low and satisfaction is high, despite some adjustment difficulties.

Finally, Study I identified some coping strategies used by Portuguese repatriates to overcome career difficulties upon return. This study confirmed previous findings regarding the

lack of effective repatriation planning and preparation practices in most companies. According to the results from Study I, poor corporate planning and preparation is overcome by active individual actions that help repatriates find a position upon return. These actions include taking the initiative to find a successor, announcing the return, planning family return in advance, networking, and even searching for an alternative position back home. These coping strategies were effective to increase the satisfaction with the assignment of Portuguese repatriates and decrease voluntary terminations.

Ultimately, Study I also contributed to the identification and discussion of the moderating role of variables neglected in previous literature, such as age, gender, and country-of-origin. More specifically, results indicate that being young, female, foreign and Portuguese can hinder cross-cultural adjustment. The influence of these factors should be explored in the future in a more systematic way.

7.3.2 Does organizational culture predict cross-cultural adjustment?

The second research question asked: *What are the effects of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity, on work, interaction and general adjustment, among expatriates and repatriates? Does culture novelty moderate the influence of organizational culture?*

This investigation makes two major contributions to this issue. It provides empirical evidence of the relationship between culture novelty and the adjustment variables and, it provides considerable support for the relationship between organizational culture, and cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions.

Regarding culture novelty, hypotheses 1E/1R posits that national cultural differences would be negatively associated with expatriation and repatriation adjustment. As shown in Figure 5 and Figure 6 (page 166), the findings from Study I are not consistent with these hypotheses. In this study, Portuguese respondents identified substantial cultural differences between Portugal and several destination countries; though their general perception was that those differences did not substantially affect their level of adjustment. Furthermore, their comments aid the identification of two facets of cultural novelty: work and general cultural differences, which can be further explored in future. Similarly, findings from Study II, as shown in Table 7 - page 175, reveal there is no significant correlation between culture novelty and the dependent variables of cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal

intentions, which does not support hypotheses 1E/1R. Further, results indicate that the perception of cultural differences between home and destination countries is unrelated with individuals' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction with the assignment, and intentions to withdraw.

Findings from Study I also indicate the absence of a perceived relationship between culture novelty and cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Thus, even if one expected that cultural dissimilarities would increase uncertainty, which in turn would affect cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions; that is not the case for Portuguese nor for the international expatriates and repatriates surveyed. Since these results were obtained with different samples and using different data collection procedures, it is unlikely that the absence of a significant association between culture novelty and the dependent variables is to be blamed on measurement or on sample characteristics.

Another possible explanation relies on the concept of culture novelty itself. Perhaps more important than the impact of cultural differences, which is something expatriates expect when they go abroad, is the influence of some particular cultural differences between home and destination countries. As Shenkar (2001) pointed out, not every cultural gap is an obstacle and produces lack of "fit". For example, Portuguese expatriates emphasize the influence of some cultural differences, such as differences related with work habits, support and socializing practices, climate and food (see Figure 5 - page 166). These specific cultural differences affect different facets of Portuguese cross-cultural adjustment and some (e.g., leisure activities at destination) also contribute to expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment. Nevertheless, none of these cultural differences among home and destination countries influenced Portuguese expatriates' withdrawal intentions. Perhaps more than the influence of a particular cultural difference may be the contrast with individuals' expectations. Previous research on the influence of expectations on repatriates' adjustment (Hyder and Lovblad, 2007; Stroh *et al.*, 2000, 1998; Hammer *et al.*, 1998; Black, 1992), indicate that accurate expectations help enhance organizational commitment, repatriation adjustment, performance, and satisfaction. According to this approach, one may speculate it is the gap between expected and effective cultural differences, which significantly influence expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction. According to the uncertainty avoidance theory, accurate expectations regarding cultural differences between home and destination country would decrease uncertainty and ease adjustment, while inaccurate expectations would increase the

uncertainty and hinder adjustment. Therefore, perceived cultural similarities can generate expectations of easy adjustment that if not accomplished, may lead to anxiety, frustration and dissatisfaction. Expectations of cultural dissimilarities can lead to increased and effective efforts to adjust. As one Portuguese expatriate assigned to Brazil explained:

"I don't like to be there. I think I trusted Brazil was similar to Portugal. That's what I thought about Brazil. I thought they were our "brothers", a similar culture... I thought at least I could speak the same language and find a good coffee.(...) When I arrived there, I had a shock. It is still a shock, because they are really quite different..."

In relation to organizational culture, the literature would have predicted that high sociability (at home and at destination) would influence work adjustment (due to improved work relationships), interaction, and general adjustment (due to the establishment of strong and enduring friendship ties with co-workers and co-workers support). However, almost the opposite was confirmed: sociability revealed no significant influence on expatriation adjustment, while solidarity influences expatriates' work and general adjustment. Thus, hypotheses H2E and H4E are not supported, while hypotheses H3E and H5E, which assumed a positive relationship between home and host solidarity with work adjustment are supported based on the results of Study II. Further, home and host solidarity positively influences general adjustment, though this was not initially hypothesized. Similarly, data from Study I indicates a positive association between home and host solidarity and Portuguese expatriates' work adjustment. Data also indicate that home sociability positively influences Portuguese expatriates work adjustment. These contradictory and unexpected findings raise questions about the reasons why solidarity matters and sociability do not.

Regarding home organizational culture influence, one explanation may relate to the benefits of home sociability, which might be difficult to notice when people are abroad, while home solidarity might have extended advantages beyond home company borders. International more than domestic assignments are mostly driven by the need organizations have to achieve certain business goals. To that purpose, the organization invites the best person to fulfill the mission, which is, by definition, limited in scope and duration. In such a scenario, individual interests (perform successfully the assignment) coincide with corporate goals. As solidarity does not need continuous interfaces to sustain itself, it arises when is needed (Goffee and Jones, 1998), it can provide the necessary clarity regarding meanings and resources to support expatriates' mission. Consequently, solidarity fosters clarity and

structure, which in turn reduces the uncertainty associated to the move and ease work and general adjustment. Inversely, as home sociability demands time and proximity to nourish strong relationship ties, its effects get lost when expatriates are abroad. Therefore, home sociability would be irrelevant to influence expatriation adjustment. The words of a Portuguese expatriate manager provide insight into these relationships:

"There is a job to do and the company needs us. Therefore, without it implying a large personal discomfort for us, I think we should go. The company's objective is also our objective.(...) One of the things that is agreed is that it isn't me that is uprooted, it is the entire mother company. So whenever there are things I need – some assistance, there is corporate collaboration.(...) For this reason I have complete confidence in the 'machine' behind me."

Further, this explanation is also consistent with the finding that home sociability is a significant predictor of repatriates' interaction adjustment. In this context, previous networks are re-built, which increases repatriates' confidence and eases adjustment.

Regarding host organizational culture, a somewhat different explanation may clarify why host solidarity is a significant predictor of expatriates work and general adjustment. Host sociability is positively associated with Portuguese and international expatriates work adjustment but is not a predictor of adjustment. Based on the literature, high sociability at destination was expected to positively influence expatriation adjustment through the establishment of strong and enduring friendship ties and the reduction of uncertainty. However, regression analyses did not confirm this prediction. Instead, it is host solidarity, which is a significant predictor of expatriates work and general adjustment. Such a relationship may be due to the fact that international assignments are often a direct consequence of business opportunities, which benefit from the enforcement of business priorities and goals throughout the organization. But, high solidarity organizational cultures are characterized by the ability to respond quickly and cohesively, in face of business opportunities. In such a context, a high solidarity culture at destination provides the ideal environment to generate strategic focus and foster action, which direct expatriates efforts to attain their goals. Such an environment contributes to decrease expatriates uncertainty and therefore eases adjustment. The following excerpts illustrate this point:

"I went there with a job to do – which was to make permanent changes – to cause change, to create a certain amount of discomfort among people. So people react badly... it's only when we began to create 'a group of our own people' ... that's when 'our people' no

longer had that connotation. They now had a new dynamic of change. They were people hired to accomplish a job and with a mindset uncluttered by previous experiences. This is what I mean by 'our people'. It's a local team that has been created according to one set of references, one culture and with one goal."

Even when high solidarity turns negative, as happens when an excessive focus on "winning" or "beating the enemy" turns into disputes and lowers cooperation, the effects on expatriates are limited as it is something most expatriates expect from their mission. Therefore, even under such a potentially harmful organizational culture, as conflict is expected and even prepared, uncertainty is reduced.

Thus, the above-mentioned arguments help explain the reasons why host solidarity matters. The arguments are, however, insufficient to explain why host sociability, contrary to predictions, does not significantly influence expatriation adjustment. Both Goffee and Jones (1996, 1998) theory of organizational culture and the uncertainty-avoidance theory (Black, 1988, 1992) can help explain these findings.

According to Goffee and Jones framework of organizational culture (Goffee and Jones, 1996, 1998) sociability is the measure of emotional and non-instrumental ties among individuals. To build sociability in an organizational context, time and frequent social interactions, usually face-to face, are required to cement reciprocal relationships. When relationships are nurtured, positive business outcomes may occur, such as morale and "*spirit de corps*", commitment, creativity, enjoyment and often behaviors that go beyond role requirements. However, high sociability, according to Goffee and Jones (1996, 1998) may also generate business negative outcomes, such as less clear roles and responsibilities, tolerance for low performance, exaggerated concern for consensus and sometimes negative networks, when there is a differential treatment between in-group and out-group members. Consequently, people may be recruited, assessed and promoted without the required skills, simply because they are well connected, and business decisions might be made out and before the adequate organizational context. Making an international move to a company that reveals these characteristics, may be more painful than moving to a high solidarity company. High sociability environments, at least to a newcomer who have not yet been accepted as a member of the in-group, can be more uncertain and fearful, than moving to a less friendly environment but where, at least, roles, responsibilities and goals are clear and commonly

shared. Thus, a host culture high in sociability may be perceived, in fact, as more uncertain and stressful, than a low sociability culture.

Another explanation for the absence of a relationship between sociability and adjustment is derived from the Double S Cube itself. In Study II, more than half of the companies were perceived to have a communal organizational culture. That is, more than half have an organizational culture high in sociability and high in solidarity. This is somewhat surprising, especially because most companies are large multinationals and global companies. As the survey did not differentiate the positive from the negative form, one can speculate whether some companies characterized as communal, were, in fact, negative communal. Negative communal culture balances from too much sociability to too much solidarity, displaying behaviors that, overall, are not beneficial to the organization. If sociability is too high, individuals might feel pressured to leave everything behind (including their personal lives) and devote entirely to the organization. If instead, solidarity is excessive, individuals may be convinced themselves that the company (and its products and services) are so good that everybody (including customers) needs to be educated to understand that. In any case, with such an organizational culture, cross-cultural adjustment, involving the acceptance and integration of difference (different roles, languages, work habits and cultural environments, just to name a few), might be more painful than otherwise. Therefore, a communal organizational culture would not be the most adequate to ease cross-cultural adjustment. However, as research has not attempted to determine whether organization culture was functional or dysfunctional, further investigation is required to shed more light on this issue.

It is worth noting that sociability does not affect cross-cultural adjustment by itself or when it is combined with high solidarity to form a communal organizational culture type. A communal organizational culture has clear business strategy and goals, which results from high solidarity. It also encompasses emotional and non-instrumental relationships among individuals, derived from high sociability. Given these characteristics, the communal organizational culture type is often perceived as the "ideal". Nevertheless, with the exception of expatriates' assignment and occupation withdrawal intentions and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, this culture type was unrelated with the research variables, namely with cross-cultural adjustment and expatriates' general satisfaction. One possible explanation for this might be found in the words of Goffee and Jones (1996): "*communal*

culture may be an inappropriate and unattainable ideal in many business contexts. (...) there may be a built-in tension between relationships of sociability and solidarity that makes the communal business enterprise an inherently unstable form" (Goffee and Jones, 1996, p. 145). Such cultural environment might increase expatriates and repatriates' uncertainty and therefore, hinder cross-cultural adjustment. The following excerpt from a Portuguese expatriate illustrates this view:

"Another thing that is or was hard for me has to do with cultural differences, as there... (...). In the local company, there is no distinction between personal and professional life. So they want to be a friend to everyone, because if people are friends they think they won't be hurt and they will benefit. And so there is a great demand from the local people in relation to this. But then I had a personal frontier here which was much more clear-cut – work and home, but there I have this difficulty... (...) this has to be well organized. I didn't have any cases when it was more difficult to take decisions (because of the greater confidence) but had the clear sensation of this. (...) So it's about trying to get personal gain from people and connections."

As pointed above, an international assignment is, for the most part, a business driven experience that benefits from clarity of purpose, and directedness regarding home and host company goals. In such a context, a strong drive to achieve organizational goals (solidarity) is likely to decrease uncertainty and ease expatriates' work and general adjustment. Work adjustment would be easier due to commonality of purposes while general adjustment would be easier due to the commonality of means.

Regarding expatriates' interaction adjustment, this research indicates: (1) It is the difficult form of cross-cultural adjustment (see Table 6 - page 172), as detected in previous studies; (2) It is neither influenced by expatriates' country-of-origin or destination, nor by culture novelty; (3) It is not predicted by sociability and solidarity organizational culture dimensions. A possible explanation for these findings relies on the concept of interaction adjustment. Interaction adjustment refers to the comfort associated with the socialization with host country nationals both at work and out of work. Most likely, an important part of the interaction challenges come from daily interface with locals, especially outside work. For that reason, interaction adjustment would be the hardest form of adjustment, being unrelated with expatriates provenience and destination. In this context, organizational culture would have a small influence on interaction adjustment. Instead, host language fluency would play a vital role, as indicated by research findings.

Future research should explore the influence of home and host organizational culture on cross-cultural adjustment, namely with other groups, in more detail.

The second research question also embraces the effects of organizational culture and culture novelty on repatriation adjustment. As mentioned in chapter II, the same theoretical model has been used in the research with repatriates. However, results from Study I and Study II indicate that repatriation adjustment is not subject to the influence of the same factors, including the influence of organizational variables.

Regarding the influence of organizational culture, only hypothesis H2Rb) is supported, which indicates that a home organizational culture high in sociability influences positively repatriates' interaction adjustment. Apparently, return interaction adjustment is easier when the home company fosters social interactions and noninstrumental relationships among its members. However, this organizational characteristic has no effect over repatriates work and general adjustment. Host and home solidarity do not predict repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. In particular, returning to a home company in which the organizational culture is high in solidarity, does not influence repatriates' work adjustment.

These are somewhat unexpected findings, which cannot lead to the conclusion that sociability and solidarity dimensions have no influence on repatriation, bearing in mind that the repatriates' sample size is too small. Moreover, data from Study I do not provide much insight to this question either. Therefore, future research should explore these relationships further, especially with other samples.

7.3.3 Does cross-cultural adjustment predict general satisfaction?

The third research question asked whether cross-cultural adjustment predicts expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment.

The results of Study I indicate that Portuguese expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is unrelated with their perceived level of adjustment. Similarly, results from Study II do not support hypotheses H6E, H7E/R and H8E/R, which assume a positive and significant relationship between work, interaction and general adjustment, and general satisfaction.

The sole exception refers to the predictive role of work adjustment for repatriates' general satisfaction. As indicated in Table 19 - page 208, work adjustment predicts repatriates general satisfaction. This result corroborates the importance of work related issues to

repatriates. According to results from Study I, the main reasons for adjustment and poor adjustment upon return are work related and the main factor is having (or not) a return position. Also, in Study II, the main predictor of repatriates' satisfaction, besides previous international experience, is having no difficulties finding a return position. Therefore, based on these results, having a return position is a prerequisite of repatriates' work adjustment and general satisfaction, thus supporting similar findings from Morgan *et al.* (2004).

Although these findings diverge from the initial expectation, two conclusions can be drawn from them. First, cross-cultural adjustment is not a predictor of expatriates' general satisfaction, as expatriates' satisfaction depends on many other variables, such as individual characteristics, family adjustment and the destination country. Second, work adjustment is a predictor of repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment, as it presupposes having an adequate return position, which is essential to repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment.

7.3.4 Does cross-cultural adjustment predict withdrawal intentions?

The third set of research questions also includes the quest of knowing whether cross-cultural adjustment predicts withdrawal intentions among expatriates and repatriates.

According to results from Study I, cross-cultural adjustment is unrelated with individuals' intentions to leave the assignment early on and with their motivation to repeat the assignment again. Only relevant personal and family problems (affecting health or security), and serious work problems (related with lack of trust and support from the company and under-performance) appear to motivate Portuguese international managers to return prematurely. These results are further supported by findings from Study II, which show that only expatriates' work and general adjustment predicts withdrawal intentions from the assignment and occupation. Interestingly, cross-cultural adjustment does not predict expatriates' intentions to leave the employing organization, which supports Carmeli (2005) argument that one can leave the present job (or assignment) without leaving the organization. It is less clear why adjustment affects withdrawal intentions from the occupation, though not the organization, which is considered a much more difficult and definitive decision. One can speculate whether the company and the characteristics of the labor market are more relevant to influence organizational withdrawal intentions than adjustment. For instance, this would explain why a poor work and general adjustment lead to assignment and even occupation withdrawal intentions but not to organization withdrawal intentions. In some contexts,

individuals may find another job or occupation easier within the same employer than another job with a different employer. This feature is relevant, as the main predictors of organization withdrawal intentions are individual and company related, as shown in Table 13 and Table 20 (respectively page 196 and page 209). As indicated, the intention to leave the company is related with the industry sector and the internationalization stage, being lower for global and transnational companies or for pharmaceutical, oil and gas, and electronic industries. In addition, individual educational level also predicts expatriates organizational withdrawal intentions. One can speculate whether this result indicates that less educated individuals are more likely to find another equivalent or better professional alternative to their present organization than high-qualified managers are. Future research should take these issues further.

Whatever the case might be, these findings are a valuable contribution to the expatriation literature because they question the disproportionate interest for cross-cultural adjustment instead of other expatriation variables, such as general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions.

7.3.5 Does organizational culture predict general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions?

Finally, the fourth set of research questions reflect on the influence of organizational culture on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

With regard to the downward effects of organizational culture, it was hypothesized that sociability would decrease expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions (hypotheses H13E/R), and no hypothesis was formulated for the influence of organizational culture on satisfaction. It was assumed, following from Carmeli's (2005) work, who showed that organizational culture (e.g., job challenge) was negatively associated with domestic employees' withdrawal intentions, that an organizational culture high in sociability would foster individuals' commitment to each other, therefore reducing their intention to withdraw. Interestingly, data from Study I and Study II do not sustain these hypotheses.

With regard to withdrawal intentions, Study I indicates that family difficulties and poor performance, and consequently lack of trust from the company, are the key motives to terminate an assignment earlier, among Portuguese international managers. Findings from Study II add to this picture, showing that expatriates and repatriates have different motives to

withdraw. In case of expatriates, it is not hosting sociability, which decreases their withdrawal intentions but host solidarity. Overall, host solidarity is a significant predictor of expatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions, having no significant influence on the other withdrawal targets. For repatriates, with the exception of occupation withdrawal intentions, no effects were found for the other dimensions of withdrawal intentions. In this case, host sociability and home solidarity, can negatively predict repatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions. Based on these results, one may conclude that:

1) Organizational culture does influence expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, which is consistent with Carmeli's (2005) work;

2) The influence of organizational culture is stronger on occupation withdrawal intentions. Withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the organization are predicted by individual and company characteristics (such as education level, having (or not) a position upon return, company stage of internationalization), but not by organizational culture;

3) Organizational culture influences occupation withdrawal intentions, through solidarity. When solidarity is high, that is, when company culture emphasizes mutual interests and shared goals, individuals build trust and loyalty to shared professional goals and purposes, which decreases their intentions to abandon their present career.

Regarding general satisfaction, data from Study II show that expatriates and repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment depends on organizational culture. Overall, expatriates' satisfaction is higher when the culture of the host organization is high in solidarity. This result indicates that when expatriates' interests are in line with host organization objectives, their satisfaction with the assignment is higher. Expatriates' satisfaction is also higher when host organizational culture is communal (e.g., high sociability and high solidarity) and lower when home organizational culture is perceived as fragmented (e.g., low sociability and low solidarity).

These findings, though unpredicted, are also unexpected. Based on the literature, it would have been foreseen that high sociability would have led to a high level of support and therefore, increased cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction. Therefore, communal and networked cultures (both high in sociability) would be expected to promote expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and general satisfaction. These relationships are not confirmed in this research. Instead, solidarity emerged as a significant predictor of expatriates work and general adjustment, occupation withdrawal intentions and general satisfaction with the assignment.

Overall, these findings lead to the conclusion that expatriates' adjustment and general satisfaction with the assignment are driven by clear defined goals, structured and common work tasks, direct and open approach to problem solving and instrumental professional relationships, which characterize high solidarity companies.

Correspondingly, repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment is higher when home culture is perceived as mercenary (e.g., low sociability and low solidarity) and host culture is communal (e.g., high sociability and high solidarity). In this case, home and host organizational culture types emerged as significant predictors of repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment (see Table 23 - page 213). Overall, these findings parallel the above-mentioned results for expatriates' satisfaction. In this case, repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment may result from having left a communal company and returning to a home company, which has clear defined goals, and structured and common work tasks. Thus, the evidence suggests solidarity is important to reduce the uncertainty inherent to a new environment, which enhances adjustment and general satisfaction. Probably, sample size accounted for a small variance regarding repatriates' adjustment, which justifies the lack of association between organizational culture and repatriates' work and general adjustment.

Overall, future research should attempt to explore further the effects of solidarity on expatriation and repatriation.

7.3.6 To what extent repatriation adjustment differs from expatriation?

As described in Chapter II, the repatriation adjustment framework (e.g., Black and Gregersen, 1992) that underlines most empirical research on return adjustment derived from the expatriation model proposed by Black *et al.* (1991). Similarly, expatriation and repatriation adjustment was assumed to involve anticipatory and in-country adjustment and to represent a multidimensional concept. Expatriation and repatriation adjustment comprised three dimensions: adjustment to work demands, adjustment to interacting with others, and adjustment to the general environment. In addition, four categories of variables were used to group expatriation and repatriation adjustment antecedents: job, individual, organizational, and non-work variables. Expatriation and repatriation adjustment outcomes essentially focused on job performance and turnover.

Admittedly, the interest for repatriation adjustment derived from the conviction that expatriates often face more adjustment difficulties upon return, than adjusting to a new cultural

environment abroad (Napier and Peterson, 1991; Black, 1992; Black and Gregersen, 1992, 1999; Linehan and Scullion, 2002; Shen and Edwards, 2004). In addition, Black and Gregersen (1992) highlighted the fact that *"some variables that are proposed to benefit the repatriation process may well inhibit the expatriation process and vice versa"* (Black and Gregersen, 1992, p. 761). They argued, *"the degree of expatriation adjustment coupled with the novelty of the culture and situation to which managers adjust may ultimately make repatriation adjustment more difficult"* (Black and Gregersen, 1992, p. 761).

Interestingly, this research questions these assumptions. In fact, according to results from Study II, adjustment levels for expatriates and repatriates were quite high, and above the mid-level of the respective scales. Moreover, expatriation and repatriation adjustment were un-related with culture novelty. Study I also found that Portuguese repatriates faced some adjustment challenges upon return, most often career and personally related, although they did not pose substantially added difficulties. Instead, Portuguese repatriates faced challenges of a different nature from expatriation, predominantly professional and career related. Similarly, Suutari and Brewster (2003), obtained comparable results from a longitudinal study with Finnish repatriates. Overall, they found: (1) the level of satisfaction with the international assignment among Finnish repatriates was high; (2) the majority would recommend an international assignment to others; and (3) would be ready to accept another offer again. Also, they found no differences of opinion between those remaining with the same employer and those who have left after return. In general, Suutari and Brewster (2003) found that even if Finnish repatriates changed jobs or were thinking about doing it, they were generally satisfied with the career benefits allowed by an international assignment. The parallelism of these findings with the results of Study I is remarkable and certainly cannot be explained by sample idiosyncrasies. Therefore, one may conclude that an international experience is beneficial for individuals themselves, even if their employing firms do not entirely benefit from their added experience and skills. This conclusion further extends the need to assist organizations manage international assignments, including repatriation.

The present research also highlights the importance of anticipatory adjustment factors, such as preparation. Previous planning and preparation was found to influence expatriation and repatriation adjustment, in Study I. And hours of pre-assignment training was also a predictor of expatriates' general satisfaction in Study II. The key issue, however, is not the reasons why preparation positively affects cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction, but

rather why organizations persistently fail to plan for international assignments. Portuguese managers voiced some possible explanations already mentioned in literature (Jassawalla, Connolly and Slojkowski, 2004; Suutari and Brewster, 2003), which mainly affect repatriates, such as:

- (1) The stage of the firms' internationalization and the weak involvement with foreign markets;
- (2) The exclusive use of home country expatriates (e.g., the ethnocentric approach), which increases the pressure to effectively re-integrate them;
- (3) The corporate headcount reductions;
- (4) The perceived impact of business turbulence, on firm' capacity to plan with three to five years in advance.

It is believed future research should explore further this issue, to help organizations overcome this persistent limitation. In addition, the results from the current research, specifically data derived from Study I, generally support the view of Hyder and Lovblad (2007) regarding the outcomes of the repatriation process. According to their model, a repatriate can be adjusted to the home environment but dissatisfied with the way he or she was treated by the organization, and therefore less motivated to remain. Inversely, a repatriate satisfied with the repatriation experience, will try harder to remain in the company, even if he or she faces return adjustment difficulties in the beginning. Even if these assumptions need further empirical support, data derived from Study I, illustrate this view, as follows:

"I think that repatriation has to be seen in context. I came across a difficult situation. (...) I think I had to mentally prepare myself for the difficult moments ahead and I had to find the most correct way to act with the company. I don't think I have anything to say more about the company – I think they acted correctly in the way they repatriated me and received me. But looking objectively, I don't think they had any real alternative. I even had a waiting period. (...) In fact, there came a time when it came into my mind what they would say to me. The most they told me was that the company was going through some difficult times. There are probably special areas in which we can make use of your skills but perhaps not to the full use that you would like. (...) There must have been about twenty examples of something like this.(...) and... to receive them all back in Portugal, in the posts that they would want to have... It's difficult. The others are also not doing jobs with as much scope or which have as much responsibility as they (repatriates) were doing before... (...)."

In sum, the results from this research indicate expatriation and repatriation adjustment are subject to different antecedents and have different outcomes, which is a step forward to distinguish repatriation from expatriation adjustment. It remains to be explored how repatriation adjustment is influenced by expatriates' experience and how organizational practices constrain cross-cultural adjustment.

CHAPTER VIII – CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

"I think that we shall have to get accustomed to the idea that we must not look upon science as a "body of knowledge", but rather as a system of hypotheses, or as a system of guesses or anticipations that in principle cannot be justified, but with which we work as long as they stand up to tests, and of which we are never justified in saying that we know they are "true" .

Karl R. Popper (1902-1994), *The Logic of Scientific Discovery*

The research model of this investigation fits into two bodies of knowledge: one emerging from the influence of culture, namely the influence of organizational culture, and the other, from the expatriation adjustment literature. Chapter II has presented the theoretical foundations from which the research model emerged and following chapters described the methodology and the main research findings.

This last chapter presents the conclusions, the theoretical and practical implications, and the research limitations. It ends presenting some implications and suggestions for further research.

8.1 Conclusions

This investigation extended the current research on the influence of organizational culture, providing empirical support to Goffee and Jones (1998) organizational culture framework and examining the influence of organizational culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity on expatriation and repatriation adjustment. It also extended the current knowledge of the antecedents, and outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. The following sections summarize the research conclusions, proposing separate models for expatriation and repatriation.

8.1.1 Expatriation adjustment

Figure 7 - Expatriation Model, summarizes the relationships empirically supported between organizational culture dimensions and expatriates' adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

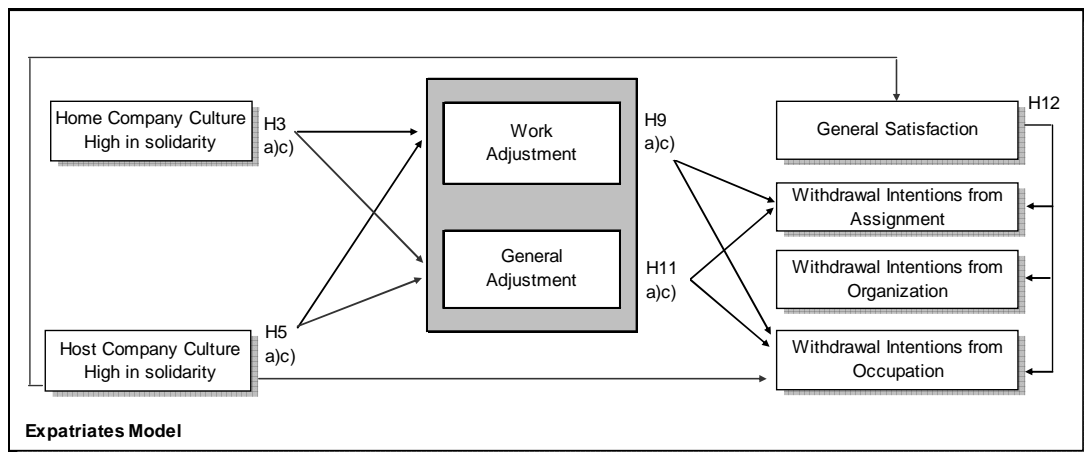


Figure 7 - Expatriation Model

Overall, home and host solidarity influence work and general adjustment, general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions from the occupation. Expatriates general satisfaction with the assignment is related with expatriates' withdrawal intentions but not with cross-cultural adjustment. Contrary to expectations, no association was detected between expatriates' adjustment and general satisfaction, although expatriates withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation can be predicted by work and general adjustment.

The findings also indicate that some variables moderate these relationships, such as age, gender, country-of-origin, education level, host language fluency, previous international experience, pre-assignment training, spouse adjustment, destination country, host and return position, company type of industry, company experience abroad and company stage of internationalization.

8.1.2 Repatriation adjustment

As a conclusion, Figure 8 - Repatriation Model summarizes all the relationships empirically supported between organizational culture dimensions and repatriates' adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

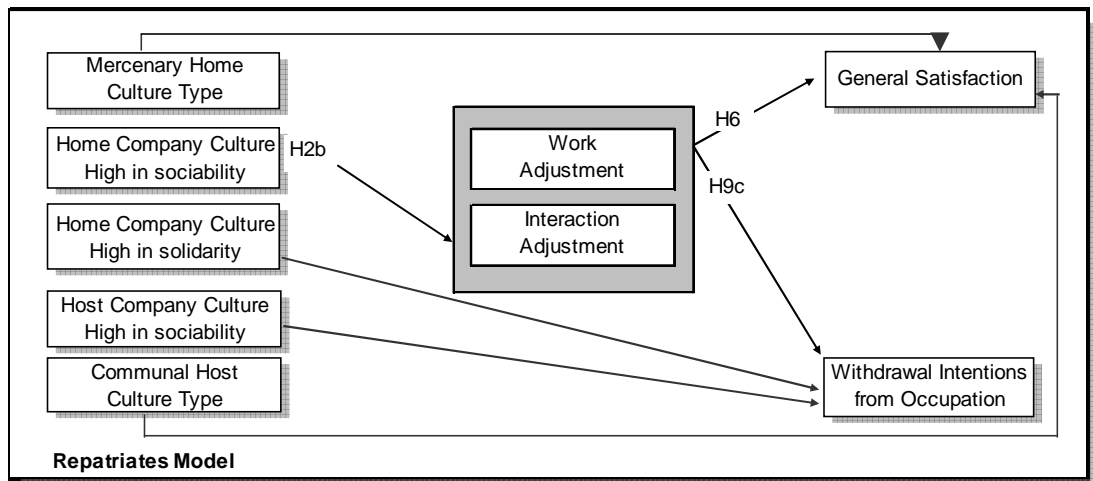


Figure 8 - Repatriation Model

The limitations in the repatriation sample, both in terms of a single country-of-origin in Study I and the sample size in Study II, recommend caution in these conclusions. Overall, the results supported the view that repatriation adjustment is a multifaceted phenomenon, differently determined from expatriation.

The findings show that organizational culture influences interaction repatriation adjustment, through home sociability. Further, repatriates general satisfaction with the assignment is positively influenced by work adjustment and by a mercenary culture at the home company, while occupational withdrawal intentions are negatively influenced by work adjustment and home solidarity.

Expatriation general satisfaction with the assignment was found to be related with withdrawal intentions. Contrary to expectations, such association did not appear for repatriates. Instead, repatriates' withdrawal intentions are unrelated with repatriates' satisfaction with the assignment. Moreover, the results suggest an association between repatriation work adjustment and repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, and occupational withdrawal intentions. Data did not support the hypotheses that work adjustment would be negatively related with withdrawal intentions from the job and the organization. It should be taken into account that repatriates were generally well adjusted to work (mean 5.27 on a seven-point scale, in Study II) and satisfied (mean 3.73 on a five-point scale, in Study II), and thus the variation in scores was small. This makes the relationship between satisfaction and withdrawal intentions difficult to statistically test. Additionally, Study I was focused on the influence of work factors (such as having or not a position upon return) and repatriation work

adjustment, which did not provide much insight either. Therefore, the relationship between repatriates' satisfaction and withdrawal intentions deserves further examination in the future.

Regarding repatriation, several moderating variables were identified, based on the results from Study I and Study II, namely personal and organizational characteristics. Personal characteristics include origin and destination country, marital status, and previous international experience. Organizational characteristics include tenure in the company, promotion with the assignment, and position upon return.

Even if these results need to be considered with caution, bearing in mind the above mentioned limitations, they reiterate the need to use a separate repatriation adjustment model. Otherwise, meaningful information may be lost in the analysis.

8.1.3 What constitutes international assignments' success?

Traditionally, expatriation success has been conceptualized as the reverse of "*expatriate failure*", which encompasses adjustment problems, low performance, withdrawal intentions and early returns. Implicit is the idea that an expatriation succeeds when individuals complete the entire assignment and fail when individuals return before that (Holopainen and Bjorkman, 2005). As described in chapter II, the relevance of a premature return to account for expatriation failure has been questioned (Harzing, 1995; Harzing and Christensen, 2004) because several reasons may account for an early return, such as the earlier accomplishment of the assignment goals, a new career opportunity, and a merger, among other factors. Moreover, assignment completion as a single measure of expatriation success does not account for those individuals who remain in the assignment until the end, showing a poor performance.

Another underlying assumption about expatriation success is that it presupposes individuals' psychological and sociocultural adjustment (Holopainen and Bjorkman, 2005). A poor adjustment has been claimed to be the cause for expatriation failure, either by promoting an early return or by impacting performance. As a result, considerable attention has been devoted to identifying the factors affecting expatriates' adjustment. Chapter II has revised the empirical evidence available in the literature. It was clear from that review that: (1) an excessive emphasis was attributed to the degree of adjustment, instead of the adjustment process itself; (2) organizational antecedents of cross-cultural adjustment were under-researched; (3) limited empirical evidence existed on the outcomes of cross-cultural

adjustment, namely regarding the relationship between adjustment, satisfaction, performance and withdrawal intentions; and finally (4) repatriation research was subordinated to theoretical and empirical developments about expatriation.

Consequently, this dissertation attempted to overcome these limitations, by comparing expatriates and repatriates regarding: (1) the factors perceived to influence cross-cultural adjustment, (2) the influence of organizational culture on cross-cultural adjustment; and (3) the outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

The expatriation and repatriation models derived from the findings of this research (see Figure 7 and Figure 8) are far from being conclusive about what constitutes expatriation and repatriation success, especially because this study did not account for the relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and performance. However, the two models convey some new insights.

With regard to expatriation, Figure 7 indicates that expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment is unrelated with expatriates' general satisfaction, which in turn, is a strong predictor of withdrawal intentions. In fact, these findings together with the arguments of Portuguese interviewees, lead to the conclusion that to a certain extent a poor adjustment is expected, acceptable and not detrimental to individuals' general satisfaction with the assignment. This conclusion is particularly adequate to interaction adjustment, which is not a significant predictor of expatriates general satisfaction and expatriates' withdrawal intentions.

With regard to the relationship between adjustment and withdrawal intentions, this study indicates that expatriates' adjustment to work and general environment predict withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation. This means withdrawal intentions from the organization are not predicted by expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment. This is a finding well worth noting, as it reiterates the preceding conclusion. Overall, these findings support, at least to a certain extent, the following conclusions:

(1) Expatriates' do not base their general satisfaction with the assignment on their perceived level of adjustment at destination. Moreover, expatriates satisfaction with the assignment and intentions to withdraw do not depend on their interaction adjustment.

(2) Expatriates base their decisions to withdraw on their general satisfaction with the assignment.

(3) Expatriates base their intentions to leave prematurely the assignment and the current occupation on their perceived level of work and general environment adjustment.

(4) Expatriates do not base their intentions to leave the organization on their poor adjustment at destination. Only general satisfaction matters, together with individuals' educational level and organizational characteristics, such as industry sector and internationalization stage.

These conclusions suggest a different approach to expatriation success. Although the existing literature on expatriation indicates, cross-cultural adjustment is synonymous with effectiveness and therefore, critical to expatriation success, the results from this research indicate that difficulties to adjust are acceptable and have no influence on expatriates general satisfaction and intentions to withdraw from the organization.

A cautionary note, however, is required with regard to the influence of expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment over performance. Expatriates' adjustment may not be a predictor of general satisfaction, and withdrawal intentions from the organization, but it is still an important variable. As other authors indicated (e.g., Shay and Baack, 2006; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), it can have a direct impact on expatriates' performance. However, this assumption was not tested in this research. Therefore, the results of this study should not lead researchers to ignore the contribution of cross-cultural adjustment, but solely to refocus their efforts to other variables, such as expatriates performance, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, which are important components of expatriation success. Harzing and Christensen (2004) have already made a somewhat similar recommendation: *"In defining expatriate failure, it is important to realize that the perspective (organization or expatriate) and expectations play a crucial role. Starting from a new generic definition: "the inability to the expatriate or repatriate to perform according to the expectations of the organization", we argued that it might be time to abandon the concept of expatriate failure altogether and instead focus on its main constituent elements: performance (management) and turnover"* (Harzing and Christensen; 2004, p. 625).

In terms of repatriation, Figure 8 indicates repatriates' work adjustment predicts repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment and withdrawal intentions from the occupation. In fact, these findings together with the Portuguese repatriates' arguments, lead to the conclusion that repatriation adjustment is different from expatriation. Overall, the findings from this research regarding repatriation support at least to a certain extent, the following conclusions:

(1) Repatriates do not base their general satisfaction with the assignment on their perceived level of adjustment upon return, except on work adjustment. Instead, repatriates satisfaction with the assignment is predicted by individual and work-related variables, such as previous international experience, marital status, promotion with the assignment, and return job opportunities.

(2) Repatriates do not base their withdrawal intentions from the job and the organization neither on their repatriation adjustment, nor on their satisfaction with the assignment. Instead, decisions regarding the abandonment of current situation and organization are based on individual and work-related variables, such as previous international experience, origin and destination country, tenure in the company and return job opportunities.

Again, these conclusions reiterate the need to change the approach to repatriation success. The existing literature on repatriation indicates repatriation cross-cultural adjustment can be even more difficult than expatriation, leading to increased repatriates' turnover. However, the results from this research indicate it is not poor repatriation adjustment that promotes withdrawal intentions (and consequently turnover) but individual and work factors, related to repatriates' careers. The centrality of career issues has to be put into the repatriation research agenda.

8.2 Theoretical and practical implications

Being in the confluence of two areas - organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment - this research attempts to advance the research on cross-cultural adjustment by taking into account organizational variables, mainly the influence of organizational culture.

This research draws upon previous conceptual and methodological limitations to highlight the importance of organizations on expatriation and repatriation. According to the previous discussion, the literature on culture reveals several conceptual and methodological limitations related with the definition of culture and the empirical test of its influence. Similarly, the literature on cross-cultural adjustment reveals some important gaps, such as a limited interest for the mode of adjustment and the factors expatriates and repatriates perceive to affect their adjustment, along with the different stages of an assignment cycle. A second gap lies on the lack of evidence on the influence of a critical organizational factor, such as organizational culture, on expatriates and repatriates' degree and modes of adjustment.

Another gap concerns the limited evidence about the relationship between degree of adjustment and adjustment outcomes, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, and finally, a fourth gap relates with the scarcity of empirical evidence from non-US samples.

Overall, this investigation attempts to address these research gaps to extend the existing body of knowledge in several ways.

First, with regard to *culture influence*, it aims to find out the impact of organizational culture, as it is perceived by international workers. To this purpose, the findings from this research indicate that expatriates and repatriates are not only capable of distinguishing national from organizational cultures, as they are able to discern their specific contribution to cross-cultural adjustment. As the results show, organizational culture influences positively expatriates' work and general adjustment, through home and host solidarity. Host organizational culture also influences positively expatriates' general satisfaction, through host solidarity, also contributing to decrease expatriates' intentions to withdraw from the present occupation.

With regard to *culture operationalization*, this research supports the view that national and organizational culture are different and independent variables that can be operationalized and measured at least at the most superficial level of visible behaviors and attitudes.

In terms of *cross-cultural adjustment*, it was beyond the scope of this research to detail the adjustment process and the coping skills expatriates use in each stage of the assignment. However, Study I specifically provides new insights about the factors Portuguese expatriates and repatriates' believed to enhance and hinder cross-cultural adjustment, some of them were further tested in Study II. Furthermore, this research is one of the few empirical attempts to assess the influence of organizational culture on expatriates and repatriates adjustment, namely through distinct methodological approaches. Study I explores the issue through the eyes of Portuguese expatriates and repatriates, while Study II tests the hypotheses with a multicultural sample.

Regarding the limited evidence of some *adjustment outcomes*, such as general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, results from both studies consistently show that general satisfaction is not an outcome of cross-cultural adjustment. Contrary to the literature, this research also shows that expatriates and repatriates' intentions to withdraw from the organization do not depend on their level of adjustment. Moreover, the results from both studies are consistent, which further supports the confidence on the research findings.

Most empirical evidence available in the literature on cross-cultural adjustment was obtained with *US international assignees*. No research addressing the issue of expatriation and repatriation from the perspective of Portuguese international workers could be found. Therefore, this investigation extends previous research, by using a Portuguese and an international diverse sample.

Another major contribution of this study is the use of a *triangulation methodology*, which is still scarce in the context of international human resources management (Kießling and Harvey, 2005). As Werner (2002) recognized, qualitative methodologies and joint method (qualitative and quantitative) are not frequently used, although their use facilitate theory building. Therefore, this investigation represents a step forward because the use of different data and methods enabled a deeper understanding of the main variables and, more important, of their interrelationships.

Another implication refers to the dominant paradigm of expatriation adjustment. This research clearly indicates that expatriation and repatriation encompass different challenges and thereafter are influenced by different antecedents, which questions the applicability of the dominant paradigm of *expatriation adjustment to repatriation*.

With reference to *expatriation success*, this study questions the centrality and criticality of expatriation adjustment. Although this research has not explored the relationship between adjustment and performance, it shows that adjustment is not a requirement for satisfaction and for low intentions to withdraw from the organization. In fact, expatriates' can be well adjusted and, nevertheless, feel dissatisfied with the assignment and be determined to leave the employing firm. Previous research has predominantly focused on cross-cultural adjustment as a precursor of expatriation success. This research suggests general satisfaction with the assignment is just as important.

There are several *implications to practice* that can be drawn from this study, to both the intervention of organizations and individuals. This research has ultimately two practical implications for international companies. First, it provides information regarding the profile of individuals likely to be better adjusted, more satisfied and to remain in the assignment and the organization during and after return. Second, it provides some useful guidance about the measures organizations can adopt to assist expatriation and repatriation.

With regard to individuals' profile, the results suggest that young male and unmarried expatriates, fluent in the host language, are better adjusted. In the same vein, repatriates who

have no difficulties in finding a return position are the ones better adjusted to work, more satisfied with the assignment and less open to leave their job and organization. This information may help organizations manage their selection and preparation processes, concerning international assignments.

Finally, organizations can influence expatriation and repatriation through some *organizational practices*, such as the definition of the assignment goals, the selection process and selection criteria, the pre-assignment preparation, home and host organizational culture and support, repatriation realistic preview and career planning.

Expatriation can be best managed if organizations:

(1) Provide clear goals for the assignment, making it easier for expatriates' adjustment.

(2) Consider family characteristics within the selection criteria, knowing that accompanying and separated family (spouse, children and parents) influence expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction with the assignment and, ultimately, can cause an early assignment termination. As families have a central role along the expatriation cycle, companies have all the benefits in considering them allies who stand to gain from the expatriation as much as the expatriates' themselves.

(3) Assure expatriation planning and pre-assignment preparation, including job, language and cross-cultural training.

(4) Offer an unambiguous assignment contract that previews differences in cost of living and special provisions about security, health care and family support.

(5) Promote an organizational culture high in solidarity, both at home and at destination, that is, promote the alignment between individual and organizational business goals.

(6) Provide local support, mainly through co-workers and the local expatriate community.

(7) Provide a realistic repatriation preview, because it helps decrease expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation and promotes expatriates' involvement in their effective repatriation.

Repatriation can be best managed if organizations:

(1) Provide expatriation planning and return preparation, including clear guidelines regarding the decisions affecting the return position.

(2) Assure a suitable position upon return, which can be achieved with an active involvement of repatriates, while they are still assigned.

(3) Promote repatriates work adjustment, which positively influences general satisfaction.

(4) Endorse a home organizational culture high in solidarity, thus promoting the alignment between individual and organizational business goals.

Portuguese interviewees were asked to report what they would do differently next time, based on their own experience. This is an indirect way to advise new expatriates. Their advice is consistent with recommendations from the literature and is further confirmed by results from Study II.

The most relevant recommendations to international employees are:

(1) Better pre-assignment planning and preparation, including a well planned pre-assignment visit to the destination country and company (e.g., realistic previews) and pre-assignment training.

(2) Attention to family needs, whether they move abroad or stay at home. Ensure family (e.g., parents, spouse and children) motivation and preparation regarding future changes.

(3) Have a positive attitude toward the challenges faced during the assignment and be open-minded to accept host support and to be involved in host socializing activities.

(4) Be mindful that some personal characteristics (such as gender, age, and nationality) can influence the way expatriates are perceived and accepted in the destination country, which in turn affect cross-cultural adjustment.

(5) Invest in host language training, if possible beforehand, even if the company has another corporate working language.

(6) Know well home and host organizational culture, namely corporate objectives and goals regarding the destination company, in order to know what is expected from the assignment and obtain corporate support.

(7) Trust that in-country adjustment is not significantly easier in case the move is to a cultural close country as it is not more difficult when the move is to a more culturally distant country.

(8) Work hard to achieve work performance but not too hard to void the time needed to interact with locals and profit from local advantages.

(9) Return home regularly to diminish homesickness and preserve home network.

(10) Plan and prepare repatriation far in advance, by giving priority to family needs (e.g., fit family return with school calendar), by looking for a successor and networking to assure a (suitable) position upon return.

Finally, as one expatriate has mentioned, trust that once accepted, the benefits of an international assignment will far exceed its difficulties: *“I have no doubt that there are both good and bad things. All in all the experience is always rewarding, there’s no doubt about that. A life project – changing your life – when you weigh it all up, it’s positive.”*

8.3 Research limitations

This research has several theoretical and methodological limitations.

A theoretical limitation is related with the *culture model adopted*. Often, cultural studies are under attack for the way culture is operationalized and measured. There is some agreement in the definition of culture but less agreement exists about its measurement (O’Reilly *et al.*, 1991). Overall, culture can be assessed through qualitative methods or quantitatively. A quantitative methodology requires the identification of the relevant behaviors or values and the assessment of their consensus among group members. Quantitative measures are based on central behaviors or values shared by the members of a social group and a strong culture is said to exist when group members share and worth their core values (O’Reilly *et al.*, 1991). Culture can also be assessed through qualitative methods for two main reasons (Xenikou and Furnham, 1996): the unconscious characteristic of culture and its distinctiveness. Perhaps the most appropriate method depends on the elements of culture one decides to study. Observable elements (e.g., explicit values and behaviors) are more accessible through quantitative measures, while the more profound levels of culture (e.g., basic assumptions) are more accessible through a qualitative approach (Xenikou and Furnham, 1996). Therefore, the relevant question is not the character of the methodology selected, but its adequacy to the level of cultural analysis chosen. In this study, it was decided to circumscribe the assessment of culture, both national culture (e.g., culture novelty) and organizational culture, to the level of explicit behavioral norms – the way people behave. Therefore, the use of a self-administered questionnaire, in Study II, is a valid option. Moreover, the self-assessment questionnaire of organizational culture from Goffee and Jones (1998), revealed acceptable psychometric characteristics, and the content analyses from

Study I confirmed the adequacy of the sociability and solidarity categories to describe individuals perceptions of organizational culture. Another source of criticism relates with the measure of culture novelty. For example, Haslberger (2005) has argued the items used to measure culture novelty (Torbiorn, 1982; Black and Stephens, 1989) are similar to the ones used for measuring general adjustment, which may explain why both measures correlate. To overcome this limitation, the measure of culture novelty, used in Study II, was composed of different items, thus increasing scale reliability. In addition, the correlation between culture novelty and general adjustment is non-significant, which does not support Haslberger (2005) criticism. In any case, further research might attempt to replicate results using other measures of culture novelty, notably incorporating the results from Study I. Findings from Study I suggest culture novelty is a multidimensional construct that can be measured by two dimensions: work related differences (work novelty) and general differences (general novelty).

A second theoretical limitation of this research is related with the *theoretical model of adjustment used* (Figure 4 - page 87). The research theoretical model was built on the understanding that organizational culture contributes to cross-cultural adjustment, though assuming it has a static nature. This means that the model does not explicitly examine retroactive effects for the studied variables. For example, Study II does not test the retroactive effects that satisfaction and withdrawal intentions might have on adjustment, and Study I explores the relationships between variables, but qualitative data was still subject to a positivist analysis.

Another research limitation is related with the methodology used. As reflected in chapter IV, the adoption of a multi-method, multi-data approach, that used semi-structured interviews and questionnaires was aimed to: (1) apply appropriate methods to explore the research questions; (2) obtain more in depth information about the research questions; (3) derive the benefits of qualitative and quantitative methods, and (4) overcome some practical limitations, as time and cost. However, a multi-method approach is not exempt of limitations (Shih, 1998; Mitchell, 1986). It often increases complexity about method design and especially data analysis and interpretation, creating increased difficulties to interpret results. To overcome the limitations usually associated with *triangulation*, some authors (Shih, 1998; Mitchell, 1986) have recommended some strategies that were followed in this research. The first, was the separate analysis for each type of data (qualitative and quantitative). In line with this recommendation, chapters V and VI described separately, the analytical methods and

results from Study I and Study II. To merge the two types of outputs, this study adopted a conceptual approach, using triangulation for the purpose of completeness. It is assumed qualitative and quantitative approaches are not mutually exclusive (Das Hari, 1983; Lacity and Janson, 1994), and their combination provide not only more in-depth information regarding relationships among variables, as more confidence on the results. Nevertheless, each study separately also had some methodological limitations.

A limitation is the use of self-report data, which may be under the influence of *common method variance*. This is a contention applicable to both studies, as no other combined measures were used (such as spouses' perceptions of family adjustment or supervisors' perceptions regarding organizational culture). The use of these measures were pondered and abandoned, because they were difficult to obtain and would have limited the final samples. In any case, it is worth noticing that what individuals perceive as real, is real in its consequences (Waxin, 2004), and therefore, perceptions are, in fact, what is relevant for the purposes of this research. In order to prevent the effects of common method variance, several cautionary measures were taken in Study I and Study II. In Study I, the adoption of an interview guide helped the interviews without preventing the spontaneous flow of dialogue and reasoning. Further, it helped explore individuals' arguments and explanations. In Study II, some actions were taken, in accordance with the quantitative approach used. Shortening as much as possible the questions and the questionnaire, using different response formats to help reduce potential response set biases, giving respondents instructions that there were no right or wrong answers, that they should start the questionnaire at the beginning and continue sequentially to the end, and pilot-testing the questionnaire. Having taken these measures is less likely that respondents have checked previous responses and modified subsequent answers to appear consistent. In addition to that, data was assessed for the presence of single method bias. The social desirability feature of common method variance often conducts to a compressed range of answers, which the data did not show. Additionally, all measures of organizational culture, national culture novelty, personal and spouse adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions were factor analyzed. The interpretation was based on factors with eigenvalues greater than one and items with a loading of more than 0.5. These factor analyses confirmed the expected constructs and the independence of variables, which suggests there was no contamination across the various inputs and outputs and the theoretical integrity of the research model.

A second major methodological limitation is the collection of data at a single point in time, that is, the use of a *cross-sectional design*. This design constrains the report of changes in perceptions and attitudes over time, which is a limitation applicable to both studies. Therefore, the relationship between organizational culture and expatriates and repatriates' adjustment has to be interpreted with caution. As most organizations are characterized by several cultures at once, using international employees' perceptions of their organizational culture is a step forward to acknowledge the relationship between organizational culture and self-assessment of cross-cultural adjustment. Though organizational cultures perceived as high in solidarity significantly predict expatriation work and general adjustment, a unidirectional influence cannot be assumed. One can admit that organizational cultures that promote the share of common business goals reduce expatriates' uncertainty in the destination country and therefore promote cross-cultural adjustment. However, a cross-sectional design does not allow testing this causal relationship. Qualitative results from Study I support a similar view among Portuguese international workers, so a future longitudinal design would avoid this limitation.

Another limitation derives from the selected samples. The proposed model of adjustment that builds on the understanding that organizational culture has a strong contribution to all facets of adjustments is clearly limited to corporate expatriates and repatriates. To extend it to other groups, such as military, exchange students, self-initiated expatriates, it would be necessary to account for their cultural influences, different from the business environment. Moreover, as mentioned in chapter IV, namely in section 4.2.2, the sample for Study I was admittedly a convenience sample which limits results generalization.

Another common criticism to qualitative approach is that it is subject to investigator bias (Lillis, 1999). To prevent this effect, multiple independent data coders should be used. This recommendation was not followed, because the use of multiple coders is time and cost consuming. However, this issue is less relevant, when qualitative data are used mainly for the purpose of completeness rather than theory testing, as in Study I exploratory approach (Lillis, 1999).

In retrospect, some procedures could have been done differently if the researcher had the time, the resources and mainly the knowledge acquired with the process. In terms of research design, qualitative data collection and analysis should have been concluded before the design of the quantitative study. This procedure would have allowed:

(1) The inclusion of added questions and variables in the survey, mainly related with perceived selection criteria; family adjustment dimensions (e.g., separated and accompanying spouse, children and parents) and culture novelty (e.g., work and general culture novelty); and

(2) The use of separate questionnaires for expatriates and repatriates, which would explicitly explore different adjustment antecedents.

As doing research is an endless way in search of excellence within the constraints imposed by time, cost and skills, each new step always brings added challenges and new development opportunities.

8.4 Implications and suggestions for further research

This research highlights several areas, which can contribute to future research about the antecedents and outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment, such as: (1) expatriation adjustment and early termination; (2) expatriation and repatriation differences; (3) culture novelty: work and general cultural differences; (4) expatriation and repatriation gender differences; (5) organizational culture and commitment, and (6) expatriation performance.

The interest for cross-cultural adjustment has been motivated by high early departures rates among expatriates combined with the idea that many assignments pursued until the end are unsuccessful. Poor adjustment was assumed to be the main cause for that. Results from this research substantiate previous empirical data (Selmer, Chiu and Shenkar, 2007; Selmer, 2007; 2005; Waxin and Panaccio, 2005; Selmer and Leung, 2003a; Black and Gregersen, 1991a; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Black and Stephens, 1989), about the relatively high level of cross-cultural adjustment among expatriates, which can hardly explain those relationships. Furthermore, this research reveals a poor association between cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction, although a strong association exists between satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Thus, these results confirm that expatriates can be reasonably adjusted and unsatisfied with the assignment, which is likely to increase their withdrawal intentions. Inversely, expatriates can be fairly unadjusted though generally satisfied with the assignment and therefore motivated to remain. Future studies should address this issue in a systematic way to find out: (a) whether similar relationships are achieved with other samples; (b) whether the assignment mission (e.g., the organizational function of expatriation) moderates these relationships; and (c) whether individual motives to accept the assignment moderate these relationships.

A second feature that deserves further research is the finding that expatriation and repatriation adjustment are differently determined. According to the literature (e.g., Scullion and Brewster, 2001; Oddou, Derr and Black, 1995) the use of alternative forms of expatriation is an increasing trend in Europe. These alternative arrangements include commuting, international training, cross-unit teams, task forces, virtual teams and extensive travel. Therefore, a productive approach would be to find out what organizational motives underlie the use of these different forms and what adjustment challenges they pose. Based on these results, one would expect adjustment challenges to differ with each form of international assignment and be influenced by different factors.

A third aspect that deserves further study is based on the lack of a relationship between culture novelty and cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Future research should explore these results further by: (1) using other measures for assessing national cultural differences, namely distinguishing work differences from general cultural differences; (2) determining the gap between initial expectations and effective in-country perceptions regarding cultural differences. As expatriates anticipate several cultural differences when they go abroad, it is reasonable to expect that are not cultural differences *per se* that affect their level of cross-cultural adjustment, but the contrast between their initial expectations and the differences they encounter.

Fourth, based on the increasing number of expatriate women, a number that is expected to grow (GMAC, 2006), and the influence of family, found in this research, future research should explore more comprehensively expatriation and repatriation gender differences. For instance, the impact of family adjustment is expected to be different for men and women expatriates. As women generally take the primary responsibility for organizing the family and home, one might expect they will do that role when they accompany a male expatriate, and similarly, when they are expatriate themselves. This behavior may ease men expatriates' adjustment, as recognized by Portuguese expatriates, though may increase adjustment difficulties for women expatriates, when accompanied by family. Women expatriates face similar adjustment problems to their male counterparts, compounded by their domestic responsibilities. In addition, as male spouses were found to have increased adjustment difficulties (Linehan, 2002), specially to find an adequate occupation abroad, their difficulties are presumed to interact with female expatriates' own difficulties, affecting their adjustment. As these relationships were not explored in the present investigation, future

research may explore these issues further. It may investigate whether under comparable family conditions, women expatriates are likely to experience more adjustment difficulties, be less satisfied with the assignment and more tempted to leave the assignment earlier, than men.

A fifth aspect that would deserve further study is the investigation of whether commitment moderates organizational culture influence on expatriation and repatriation adjustment. Some authors (e.g., Stroh, Gregersen and Black, 1998; Hyder and Lovblad, 2007) have suggested expatriation (and repatriation) is an employment form more relational than transactional. As this research revealed, the expatriation experience involves more than professional outcomes for the individuals involved, which can either strengthen or weaken their relational contract with the organization. Therefore, it would be important to explore, in the future, whether expatriates and repatriates commitment moderates the influence of organizational culture on cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. Based on these research findings, one would expect organizational cultures high in sociability or high in solidarity (e.g., communal and mercenary) to strengthen affective and normative commitment, which in turn, would enhance cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction and decrease withdrawal intentions. Conversely, an organizational culture low in sociability and solidarity (e.g., fragmented) is expected to weaken affective and normative commitment, which in turn would hinder cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction and increase withdrawal intentions.

Finally, another area that might be worth exploring is the relationship between organizational culture dimensions and expatriates and repatriates' performance. Little is known about the influence of organizational culture on expatriation performance. However, the results from this research would lead to expect that an organizational culture high in solidarity (e.g., which focus common business objectives and goals) would lead to increased levels of performance. The relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and performance should also be further tested. According to the results of this research, some assignment missions (such as leading a downsizing process) may affect negatively in-country adjustment, especially interaction and general adjustment. In these specific situations, performance can be achieved even if expatriates feel poorly adjusted. Specifically, the expatriate might attain the assignment goals (e.g., subsidiary set-up or downsizing), without being adjusted to interact with locals and adjusted to the general environment. The same might occur with the more

temporary and short-term assignments, whereas international workers are not really integrated in the host environment.

In sum, a number of propositions emerge from this discussion and from the results of this research that can guide future research. Overall, some propositions can be proposed as follows:

Proposition 1: Under comparable organizational conditions (e.g., role clarity, assignment duration and organizational support), expatriates' adjustment and satisfaction are expected to vary with the organizational function of the expatriation (e.g., coordination and control, socialization and informal communication).

Proposition 2: Under comparable individual conditions (gender, education level, position, previous international experience and host language fluency), expatriates' satisfaction and withdrawal intentions are expected to vary with the motives to accept the expatriation. In particular, expatriates who accept an international assignment because they feel compelled to do so by their firms, are more likely to: (a) persist in the assignment until the end, regardless of adjustment difficulties; (b) have higher expectations regarding organizations recognition of their effort (e.g., increased expectations regarding a promotion and a suitable position upon return); and (c) express less intentions to withdraw from the assignment and the organization.

Proposition 3: Culture novelty *per se* does not influence expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. It is the gap between initial expectations about cultural differences and the differences effectively encountered that influences cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction. Therefore: (a) the highest the negative gap between expected and effective cultural differences (e.g., negative surprises), the lowest the adjustment and the lowest the satisfaction; (b) the highest the positive gap between expected and effective cultural differences (e.g., positive surprises), the highest the adjustment and the highest the satisfaction.

Proposition 4: Under comparable family conditions (e.g., be married and accompanied by spouse and children) female expatriates are more likely to: (a) have more adjustment difficulties than men expatriates; (b) reveal less satisfaction with the assignment; (c) express increased withdrawal intentions than men; and (d) manifest less intentions to accept another assignment.

Proposition 5: Expatriation (and repatriation) is an employment form more relational than transactional. Therefore, one would expect individuals' commitment to moderate the influence of organizational culture, as follows: (a) an organizational culture high in sociability (e.g., communal) would strengthen affective commitment, which in turn would enhance cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction, and decrease withdrawal intentions; (b) an organizational culture high in solidarity (e.g., mercenary) would strengthen normative commitment, which in turn would enhance cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction, and decrease withdrawal intentions; (c) an organizational culture low in sociability and solidarity (e.g., fragmented) would weaken affective and normative commitment, which in turn would hinder cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction, and increase withdrawal intentions.

Proposition 6: Based on present results, one would expect organizational culture to influence expatriates and repatriates' performance. Namely, one would expect: (a) high host solidarity to influence positively expatriates' performance and (b) home solidarity to influence positively repatriates' performance.

Proposition 7: Expatriates, who keep informal networks with home country, during the assignment, are more likely to: (a) have less repatriation adjustment difficulties, (b) find easily job opportunities upon return; and (c) have increased opportunities for promotion upon return.

Hopefully, this investigation and these propositions might endorse the interest of other researchers.

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APPENDIX I - Interview guide of Study I

Name:

Date:

Duration:

1. Assignment type (e.g., expatriate, repatriate):
2. Destination:
3. Assignment duration:
4. Departure date:
5. Return date:
6. Previous international experience (when, where, which position, duration...):
7. How was the selection for the present/last assignment? Who has lead the process? What were the selection criteria?
8. Why have you accepted?
9. What preparation has you made, before or beginning the assignment?
10. Could you please describe the adaptation process? How were the first days?
11. What were your main adjustment difficulties at destination, namely at work, with locals or to local environment?
12. How do you describe your family adjustment?
13. What were/are your main adjustment difficulties upon return, (namely preparing the return, adjusting to work, to interacting with others and to general environment)?
14. How do you describe your home company culture (how is the way of doing things)?
15. How do you describe your host company culture (how is the way of doing things)?
16. What are the most relevant differences between the two companies?
17. What are/were the most liked aspects associated to your present/last assignment?
18. What are/were the most disliked aspects associated to your present/last assignment?
19. What are/were the motives, which could lead you, terminate earlier the assignment?
20. Would you accept another assignment again?
21. What have changed in you with the (last) assignment?
22. Would you recommend an assignment to others?

Other Data:

- Age:
- Civil status:
- Academic background:
- Present position:
- Tenure in the company:
- Host language fluency:
- Family:
- Company:
- Total number of employees:
- Total number of expatriates:
- Sector:
- How long does the company invest at destination?

APPENDIX II - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study I

Study I - Sample Characteristics		Expatriates		Repatriates	
		N	%	N	%
Number of interviews =		15	50%	15	50%
Age					
Average =		40.9		37.1	
St. Deviation =		9.47		5.80	
Min. =		28		30	
Max. =		57		52	
Gender					
Male		14	93.3%	11	73.3%
Female		1	6.7%	4	26.7%
Marital status					
Married		11	73.3%	9	60.0%
Un-Married		4	26.7%	6	40.0%
Academic Background					
High School		1	6.7%	0	0%
Bachelor		0	0%	1	6.7%
College		12	80.0%	10	66.7%
MBA		2	13.3%	4	26.7%
Tenure in the company (years)					
Average =		11.3		10.7	
St. Deviation =		5.00		4.93	
Min. =		2		1.5	
Max. =		18		19	
Tenure in the assignment (months)					
Average =		30.8		41.7	
St. Deviation =		9.50		21.42	
Min. =		18		10	
Max. =		54		84	
Family situation					
Separated parents		4	26.7%	7	46.7%
Separated spouse + children		4	26.7%	0	0%
Trailing spouse		3	20.0%	1	6.7%
Trailing spouse + children		4	26.7%	7	46.7%
Destination countries					
Brazil		8	53.3%	3	20.0%
France		3	20.0%	4	26.7%
Germany		2	13.3%	1	6.7%
Canada		0	0%	3	20.0%
Angola		1	6.7%	0	0%
Czech Republic		0	0%	1	6.7%
Hungry		0	0%	1	6.7%
China		1	6.7%	0	0%
UK		0	0%	1	6.7%
UAE		0	0%	1	6.7%

APPENDIX II - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study I

Study I - Sample Characteristics		Expatriates		Repatriates	
		N	%	N	%
Home Position					
	Professional & Technician	3	20.0%	8	53.3%
	Line & Middle Management	6	40.0%	3	20.0%
	Senior Management	5	33.3%	4	26.7%
	Top Management	1	6.7%	0	0%
Host Position					
	Professional & Technician	1	6.7%	6	40.0%
	Line & Middle Management	4	26.7%	0	0%
	Senior Management	5	33.3%	3	20.0%
	Top Management	5	33.3%	6	40.0%
Size of employing company					
Number of employees worldwide					
	Less than 1.500	2	13.3%	1	6.7%
	1.501 to 6.000	4	26.7%	10	66.7%
	6.001 to 25.000	2	13.3%	3	20.0%
	Over 25.000	7	46.7%	1	6.7%
Number of expatriates worldwide					
	Less than 5	4	26.7%	2	13.3%
	5 to 100	4	26.7%	10	66.7%
	100 to 200	7	46.7%	3	20.0%
	Over 200	0	0%	0	0%
Industry classification					
	Wood, wood products	4	26.7%	10	66.7%
	Automotive	7	46.7%	0	0%
	Pharmaceutical	0	0%	1	6.7%
	Retailing	2	13.3%	1	6.7%
	IT	1	6.7%	0	0%
	Textiles	0	0%	2	13.3%
	Services	1	6.7%	1	6.7%
Country where is located company Head-office					
	Portugal	8	53.3%	12	80.0%
	Germany	6	40.0%	0	0%
	USA	2	13.3%	0	0%
	UK	0	0%	2	13.3%
How long the company invests in destination country (years)					
	Average =	10.2		12.2	
	St. Deviation =	4.72		4.55	
	Min. =	3.5		2	
	Max. =	25		18	

Table 25 - Appendix II: Demographic data relating to the sample of Study I

APPENDIX III - Administration procedure of Study II

E-Mail Message to HR Representatives:

Dear Mr./Mrs....,

*I am writing you to learn of your interest in a research on the subject of “**Expatriates & Repatriates Adjustment**”.*

Before presenting the project, I shall present myself. My name is Luisa Pinto and I am doing a PhD at Minho University (www.uminho.pt), in Portugal, after a seasoned career as an International Human Resources Manager. Based on my past experience as the absence of relevant information, I am researching the impact of corporate culture on expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment.

Previous researches have showed that:

- Expatriation is expected to increase in the following years and new countries are emerging as active destinations;
- Expatriates turnover rate range from 5-15%, which is more than the rate for domestic employees;
- Poor cross-cultural adjustment, from expatriates and their families, is the main reason for assignment failures;
- Companies usually do not track international employees' cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, in an effort to prevent premature leaves.

My proposal is to overcome this gap of information on international employees' cross-cultural adjustment, by collecting data from international companies. To do that, I need to engage current expatriates and repatriates returned within the last 18 months to fill an online survey. This questionnaire, which is ready to administer through the site: <http://expatriates.planetaclix.pt/>, assesses their perceptions on their cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions. By engaging the employing companies into this project, I am able to provide benchmark information, which will help them prevent unexpected turnover and consequently contribute to improve their expatriation management practices.

By participating in this project, you will receive a free copy of the results. There are, in fact, firms which may prefer to receive a special company report, similar to the one I am

APPENDIX III - Administration procedure of Study II

enclosing. This can be freely provided to you as long as you engage a minimum of 10 complete replies. Be assured that individual replies are anonymous and companies' names will be kept confidential to protect for corporate identities.

I have enclosed an illustration of the results report you can get along with a brief description of the project scope and objectives. I hope that you will find this information useful and helpful to encourage the participation of your company. I do include a biographical note of the research team, and myself expecting that you trust on our expertise to assist you in the characterization of your international employees' cross-cultural adjustment, satisfaction and withdrawal intentions.

I will be looking forward to your reply. If I can be of assistance to you in any additional way, please do not hesitate to e-mail me: lhporto@egp.up.pt or call my mobile phone: +351 93 69 05 659.

Thank you for your time.

Best regards,
Luisa Pinto
lhporto@egp.up.pt

Project presentation

Expatriates and Repatriates' Survey on Adjustment and Satisfaction

Evaluate your international employees' cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction

Are you sure of not losing your best people assigned just because you are uncertain about their cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction?

Turnover intention is the final variable before you can do something to prevent losing your best talent pool. Now, you can assess your international employees' adjustment as well as their satisfaction and withdrawal intentions just before it is too late to avoid a premature return. The survey provides immediate and useful information on a range of issues relating to cross-cultural adjustment and retaining valuable human capital. And more: you can compare data for expatriates and recently returned repatriates, benchmarking your company with others. For participating see more details enclosed.

What is cross-cultural adjustment?

The literature suggests that cross-cultural adjustment is a multidimensional concept, generally assessed from the individual experiencing the change. It can be measured in terms of adjustment to the work situation, adjustment to interaction with host nationals and adjustment to the general environment. Adjustment to work is normally the easiest of the three dimensions of adjustment for expatriates and repatriates, essentially because is aided by the resemblance in policies and procedures of the job in the foreign operation and the home country company. The adjustment to interacting with host-country nationals is usually the most difficult of the three adjustment dimensions due to the differences in the way people behave. The adjustment to the general nonworking environment is the dimension, which includes such diverse things as the adjustment to food, transportation, entertainment, health care etc. Research supports the relation between cross-cultural adjustment and the degree of novelty of the new culture and the time spent with other expatriates before the assignment. Typically, previous studies also revealed it is easier to adjust to the general environment than to interacting with others, although similar factors affect both adjustment dimensions.

Employees' withdrawal intentions

Previous research revealed that withdrawal intentions comprise several distinct constructs as: thinking of quitting, withdrawal cognitions and intention to quit. Withdrawal intentions differ from withdrawal behaviors (such as absenteeism and turnover) and usually anticipate them. Therefore, we can anticipate withdrawal behaviors by assessing international

employees' withdrawal intentions. We can do that in three ways. We can assess: (1) withdrawal intentions from the present assignment, (2) withdrawal intentions from present occupation and (3) withdrawal intentions from the organization. The first – withdrawal intentions from the assignment – can be defined as an employee subjective assessment that he/she will be leaving the current assignment in the near future, whether he or she might remain in the same company. The intention to leave an occupation is considered a more difficult decision, since it presupposes a completely different career orientation. Finally, withdrawal intentions from the organization refer to the subjective assessment that one shall be leaving the employing company in the near future.

Research supports a negative relationship between cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions. High withdrawal intentions are usually associated with less adjusted individuals.

Satisfaction

Satisfaction is both an antecedent of cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions and a consequence. As such, all Human Resources Professionals recognize the importance of assessing international employees' satisfaction to enhance international HR corporate policies and practices. In this survey, general satisfaction is assessed both for expatriates and for repatriates, benchmarking company results against a wider sample.

The survey

This project involves an international survey target to **expatriates** (employees temporarily assigned to live and work outside their home countries) and recently relocated **repatriates** (international employees relocated to home country within the last 18 months).

The elements surveyed include:

- Generic demographic data (gender, age, home and host countries, previous assignments, organizational tenure, spoken languages, accompanying spouse, etc.);
- Assessment of expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions;
- Questions relative to expatriates and repatriates' perception of his/her international experience, including general satisfaction.

How to participate

By sponsoring this research your company will find out how first class multinationals address these questions and what are the perceptions of their expatriates and repatriates.

APPENDIX III - Administration procedure of Study II

Each participating company shall forward the web-survey to their expatriates and repatriated (returned within the last 18 months). The firms having a **minimum of 10 complete respondents** will get a **summary report** containing demographic data as well as benchmark information for international employees' cross-cultural adjustment, withdrawal intentions and general satisfaction. For more information on this summary report, see details enclosed. The survey is available **until the 31st of December** through the following URL: <http://www.zoomerang.com/recipient/survey-intro.zgi?p=WEB225JXBHNZLT>

Participation is voluntary, confidential and convenient through the above mentioned site. The survey is in English and do not take longer than 15 to 20 minutes to complete. **Only complete surveys are valid** so please reinforce international employees' participation.

Additional information

For further information on the study scope and methodology, please visit the site: <http://expatriates.planetaclix.pt/> or contact the main author: Luisa Pinto - lhporto@egp.up.pt

November'2006

Research team presentation

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Degrees

- M.A., 2005. Porto University
- MBA, 1994. Porto University
- Psychology degree, 1991. Porto University

Specialties

- General Human Resources Management - formulation and execution
- International Human Resources Management

Research Interests

- Corporate culture
- Cross-cultural adjustment
- International Human Resource Management - particularly with regard to HR strategy formulation and practices alignment with organizational goals and plans

Selected Publications

International Assignments: policies and practices related to the internationalization of Portuguese firm - Master thesis dissertation

Teaching & Professional Experience

Over 12 years of experience as a Human Resources Manager in the biggest Portuguese conglomerate. The company operates in several industries (e.g., retail, wood base products, real estate, tourism and telecommunications) having more than 55.000 people worldwide and aggregate revenues of over \$5 billion dollars.

Past experience as Corporate Human Resources Manager, includes the coordination of HR activities in more than 10 countries. This coordination involved the recruiting of top managers, training as well as the definition and implementation of corporate Human Resources processes.

Assistant Professor of Organizational Behaviour and Human Resources Management at Porto University.

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Professor, Management and Public Administration

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Degrees

- PhD in Organisational Behaviour, Manchester University

Specialties

- Strategic human resource management
- Business Ethics
- Gender diversity

Research Interests

Organizational behavior, human resources management and management of diversity. R&D and equal opportunities.

Selected Publications

Ethics, business education, and the role of business faculty, EBS Review

The Evolving Portuguese Model of HRM, International Journal of Human Resource Management

Gender Asymmetries and the Manager Stereotype Among Management Students, Women in Management Review

Manual de Comportamento Organizacional e Gestão, Editora RH (co-author with Cunha, Miguel Pina; Rego, Arménio; Cunha, Rita Campos)

Teaching & Professional Experience

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Professor, Management

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Degrees

- Ph.D., 1971. University of Florida
- M.A., 1969. University of Florida
- B.S.B.A., 1968. University of Florida

Specialties

- Corporate strategy - formulation and execution
- Strategic human resource management - productivity

Research Interests

- Analyzing corporate strategy
- Facilitating formulation and reformulation efforts among for-profit and non-profit organizations
- Human resource productivity - particularly with regard to methodologies to align human effort with organizational goals and plans

Selected Publications

The Third Sector, Georgetown University Press (co-author with Berman)

Human Resources and Personnel Management, Fifth edition, McGraw-Hill (co-author with Davis)

Productivity Through People, West (co-author with Ruch and McClure)

Teaching & Professional Experience

Past Chair, Managerial Consultation Division of the Academy of Management

Service to more than 100 organizations in Europe and the Americas.

Content of the site: <http://expatriates.planetaclix.pt/>,

Expatriates & Repatriates' Adjustment

Are you sure of not losing your best people assigned just because you are uncertain about their cross-cultural adjustment and satisfaction?

Turnover intention is the final variable before you can do something to prevent losing your best talent pool. Now, you can assess your international employees' adjustment as well as their satisfaction just before it is too late to avoid a premature return. The survey provides immediate and useful information on a range of issues relating to cross-cultural adjustment and retaining valuable human capital. And more: you can compare data for expatriates and recently returned repatriates, benchmarking your company with others.

For participating see, more details enclosed.

Web Survey - <http://www.zoomerang.com/recipient/survey-intro.zgi?p=WEB225JXBHNZLT>

This survey is target to expatriates (employees temporarily assigned to live and work outside their home countries) and recently relocated repatriates (international employees relocated to home country within the last 18 months). By sponsoring this research your company will find out how first class multinationals address these questions and what are the perceptions of their expatriates and repatriates. Each participating company, having a minimum of 10 respondents, will get a summary report containing demographic data as well as benchmark information for international employees' cross-cultural adjustment, withdrawal intentions and general satisfaction.

The survey is available until the 31 December'2006 through the above mentioned URL.

Luisa Pinto

lh Pinto@egp.up.pt

Portugal - Minho University

Phone: 00351936905659

Welcome to this site!

What is cross-cultural adjustment?

The literature suggests that cross-cultural adjustment is a multidimensional concept, generally assessed from the individual experiencing the change. It can be measured in terms of adjustment to the work situation, adjustment to interaction with host nationals and adjustment to the general environment. Adjustment to work is normally the easiest of the three dimensions of adjustment for expatriates and repatriates, essentially because is aided by the resemblance in policies and procedures of the job in the foreign operation and the home country company. The adjustment to interacting with host-country nationals is usually the most difficult of the three adjustment dimensions due to the differences in the way people behave. The adjustment to the general nonworking environment is the dimension, which includes such diverse things as the adjustment to food, transportation, entertainment, health care etc. Research supports the relation between cross-cultural adjustment and the degree of novelty of the new culture and the time spent with other expatriates before the assignment. Typically, previous studies also revealed it is easier to adjust to the general environment than to interacting with others, although similar factors affect both adjustment dimensions.

Employees' withdrawal intentions

Previous research revealed that withdrawal intentions comprise several distinct constructs as: thinking of quitting, withdrawal cognitions and intention to quit. Withdrawal intentions differ from withdrawal behaviours (such as absenteeism and turnover) and usually anticipate them. Therefore, we can anticipate withdrawal behaviours by assessing international employees' withdrawal intentions. We can do that in three ways. We can assess: (1) withdrawal intentions from the present assignment, (2) withdrawal intentions from present occupation and (3) withdrawal intentions from the organization. The first – withdrawal intentions from the assignment – can be defined as an employee subjective assessment that he/she will be leaving the current assignment in the near future, whether he or she might remain in the same company. The intention to leave an occupation is considered a more difficult decision, since it presupposes a completely different career orientation. Finally, withdrawal intentions from the organization refer to the subjective assessment that one shall be leaving the employing company in the near future.

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Satisfaction

Satisfaction is both an antecedent of cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions and a consequence. As such, all Human Resources Professionals recognize the importance of assessing international employees' satisfaction to enhance international HR corporate policies and practices. In this survey, general satisfaction is assessed for both expatriates and repatriates, benchmarking company results against a wider sample.

The survey

This project involves an international survey target to expatriates (employees temporarily assigned to live and work outside their home countries) and recently relocated repatriates (international employees relocated to home country within the last 18 months). The elements surveyed include:

- Generic demographic data (gender, age, home and host countries, previous assignments, organizational tenure, spoken languages, accompanying spouse, etc.);
- Assessment of expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions;
- Questions relative to expatriates and repatriates' perception of his/her international experience, including general satisfaction.

How to participate?

Participation is voluntary, confidential and convenient through the above mentioned site. The survey is in English and does not take longer than 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Only complete surveys are valid so please reinforce international employees' participation.

For further information on the study scope and methodology, please contact the main author: Luisa Pinto - lh Pinto@egp.up.pt

Survey introduction (on-line survey front page)

Expatriates & Repatriates' Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Dear Madame/Sir,

I would like to invite you to participate in a survey that is being carried out by Portuguese researchers and US.

The project is part of my doctoral dissertation and will aid Human Resources Professionals in the design of policies and practices directed to enhance expatriates and repatriates' international adjustment.

As an international employee or a repatriate, your participation in this survey would be a valuable contribution to this project. Therefore, I kindly ask you to take the chance and share your knowledge and experience with the research community. Your answers will be treated confidentially. No personal data will be used for other than statistic purposes and no text comments will be reported verbatim.

I would like to thank you in advance for your participation in this research. The survey will not take longer than 15-20 minutes (it is 10 pages long) and most of the items can be check off. Deadline for the completion of the survey is the 31st of December'2006 - NOW POSTPONED TO THE 19th March'2007. In return, send me an e-mail (lhypinto@egp.up.pt) and I will send you a brief research report that may give you insights in planning your next international or repatriation move.

Finally, I would also be grateful if you can forward this survey to contacts you believe would also be in a situation to participate because either they are still in an international assignment or they have returned within the last 18 months. By doing so, you will allow the results of this research to represent the opinion of a large audience of relevant international stakeholders.

Thank you very much for your cooperation!

Luisa Pinto

(lhypinto@egp.up.pt)

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Company Report - illustrative

**EXPATRIATES & REPATRIATES CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT
Comparative Results - Confidential**

I. Company Profile

Company name:

Industry:

Home base in:

Approximate number of employees worldwide:

Approximate number of expatriates worldwide:

Approximate number of countries the company operates:

II. Respondents Profile

Demographics

Demographics	Company		Overall	
	N°	%	N°	%
Total Respondents:				
Expatriate Respondents				
Repatriate Respondents				
Male female				
Marital Status:				
Single				
Married				
Divorced				
Widow				
Living in partner				
Other				
Education:				
Less than high school				
High school graduate				
Some college, undergraduate				
College graduate				
Some post graduate Post graduate				
Participants per country:				
Brazil				
Portugal				
.../...				

Other Demographics

Other Demographics	Company		Overall	
	Average	SD	Average	SD
Age				
Tenure:				
Tenure in the Company				
Tenure in Present Position				

III. Cross-Cultural Adjustment

Cross-Cultural Adjustment	Expatriates				Repatriates			
	Average		SD		Average		SD	
	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total
Work-Adjustment								
Interaction Adjustment								
General Adjustment								
<i>Illustrative:</i>								
√ In general, company results are better than overall results for work adjustment								
√ Expatriates are better adjusted to work than repatriates								
√ The lower results are achieved for Repatriates interaction adjustment								

IV. Withdrawal Intentions

Withdrawal Intentions	Expatriates				Repatriates			
	Average		SD		Average		SD	
	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total
Withdrawal intentions from present assignment								
Withdrawal intentions from occupation								
Withdrawal intentions from organization								
<i>Illustrative:</i>								
√ In general, company results are better than overall for withdrawal from present assignment								
√ Repatriates reveal more withdrawal intentions from organization than expatriates								
√ The lower results are achieved for Repatriates withdrawal intentions from present assignment								

V. Satisfaction

Satisfaction	Expatriates				Repatriates			
	Average		SD		Average		SD	
	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total	Company	Total
General Satisfaction								
Acceptance of further international assignments								

Illustrative:
 ✓ General Satisfaction is higher for the company than for the overall sample
 ✓ Repatriates are less satisfied than expatriates
 ✓ The lower results are achieved for Repatriates acceptance of further international assignments

Glossary of Terms

Expatriate – An employee who is assigned temporarily to work and live outside of his/her home country. May or may not be accompanied by the family (spouse and children).

Repatriate – An employee who was assigned temporarily to work and live outside his/her home country and has relocated back home within the last 18 months.

Cross-cultural adjustment – Has been defined as the psychological and social well-being of temporary assigned workers, with diverse aspects of the host culture. It encompasses three dimensions: adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with local and general adjustment.

Work adjustment – It refers to international employees’ adaptation to the new job requirements while assigned.

Interaction adjustment – It refers to international employees’ adaptation to socializing with host country nationals.

General adjustment – It refers to international employees’ adaptation to the general living of the host country.

Withdrawal intentions – Has been referred as the antecedents of withdrawal behaviours as absenteeism and turnover. They have been separated in three dimensions: withdrawal intentions from job, withdrawal intentions from occupation and withdrawal intentions from organization.

Withdrawal intentions from present assignment – It refers to international employee’s subjective assessment that he or she will be leaving his/her current assignment in the near future, whether he/she remain in the same organization.

Withdrawal intentions from occupation – It refers to an employee subjective assessment that he or she will be leaving his/her occupation, in the near future, for a different career orientation.

Withdrawal intentions from organization – It refers to an employee subjective assessment that he or she will be leaving his/her company, in the near future.

General satisfaction – It refers to international employees’ subjective assessment of their contentment with the present assignment.

APPENDIX IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II

Study II - Demographic Characteristics		Expatriates		Repatriates	
		N	%	N	%
<i>Number of complete replies =</i>		166	75.1%	55	24.9%
Age					
Average =		40.79		39.04	
St. Deviation =		10.13		9.47	
Min. =		25		20	
Max. =		68		62	
Gender					
Male		127	76.5%	37	67.3%
Female		39	23.5%	18	32.7%
Marital status					
Single		32	19.8%	9	17.3%
Married		103	63.6%	32	61.5%
Living with a partner		15	9.3%	8	15.4%
Divorced		12	7.4%	2	3.8%
Widow		0	0%	1	1.9%
Academic Background					
High School or less		10	6.2%	3	5.4%
Some college		4	2.5%	2	3.6%
College graduation		48	29.6%	16	29.1%
Some post graduation		22	13.6%	7	12.8%
Post graduation		78	48.1%	23	41.8%
Previous International Experience (years)					
Average =		5.53		5.87	
St. Deviation =		6.58		8.05	
Min. =		0		0	
Max. =		30		35	
Birth Country (the 12 most represented nationalities)					
USA		41	25.8%	7	13.2%
India		23	14.5%	4	7.5%
UK		16	10.1%	11	20.8%
Germany		12	7.6%	2	3.8%
Finland		8	5.0%	0	0%
Canada		8	5.0%	1	1.9%
Norway		6	3.8%	2	3.8%
Sweden		5	3.0%	0	0%
Australia		5	3.0%	2	3.8%
France		4	2.5%	1	1.9%
Brazil		3	1.9%	3	5.7%
New Zealand		3	1.9%	6	10.9%
Tenure in the company (years)					
Average =		9.82		8.99	
St. Deviation =		7.61		5.94	
Min. =		0		1	

APPENDIX IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II

Study II - Demographic Characteristics	Expatriates		Repatriates	
	N	%	N	%
Max. =	36		24	
Tenure in the position (years)				
Average =	2.81		2.93	
St. Deviation =	3.83		3.67	
Min. =	0		0.2	
Max. =	26		20	
Tenure in the assignment (years)				
Average =	2.48		2.86	
St. Deviation =	2.53		4.44	
Min. =	0		0	
Max. =	12		20	
Family situation				
Spouse abroad	94	58.0%	31	56.4%
Separated spouse	20	12.3%	7	2.7%
Spouse worked before	90	54.9%	28	54.9%
Spouse working abroad	29	17.9%	16	29.1%
Children abroad	65	40.1%	19	40.1%
Host language fluency				
Average =	2.27		2.55	
St. Deviation =	1.19		1.25	
Min. =	1		1	
Max. =	4		4	
Destination countries (the 12 most represented countries)				
China	27	16.9%	3	5.9%
USA	17	10.6%	11	21.6%
Switzerland	17	10.6%	3	5.9%
Norway	12	7.5%	4	7.8%
Korea	11	6.6%	2	3.9%
Nigeria	8	4.8%	2	3.9%
Philippines	7	4.2%	1	2.0%
Germany	7	4.2%	5	9.8%
Netherlands	5	3.0%	1	2.0%
India	4	2.4%	0	0%
Canada	3	1.8%	0	0%
Japan	0	0%	6	11.8%
Home Position				
Clerical & Administrative Support Occupations	2	1.3%	2	3.8%
Sales & Related Occupations	4	2.5%	4	7.5%
Staff and Specialty Occupations	13	8.2%	5	9.4%
Professional & Technicians	41	25.9%	17	32.1%
Junior Management	15	9.5%	3	5.7%
Line & Middle Management	41	25.9%	15	28.3%
Senior Management	32	20.3%	4	7.5%
Top Management	10	6.3%	3	5.7%
Host Position				
Clerical & Administrative Support Occupations	0	0%	1	1.9%
Sales & Related Occupations	3	1.9%	3	5.8%
Staff and Specialty Occupations	17	10.8%	4	7.7%

APPENDIX IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II

Study II - Demographic Characteristics	Expatriates		Repatriates	
	N	%	N	%
Professional & Technicians	32	20.4%	14	26.9%
Junior Management	9	5.7%	4	7.7%
Line & Middle Management	40	25.5%	11	21.2%
Senior Management	38	24.2%	9	17.3%
Top Management	18	11.5%	6	11.5%
Return Position				
Clerical & Administrative Support Occupations	0	0%	1	2.0%
Sales & Related Occupations	4	3.0%	4	8.2%
Staff and Specialty Occupations	12	9.1%	4	8.2%
Professional & Technicians	13	9.8%	8	16.3%
Junior Management	4	3.0%	2	4.1%
Line & Middle Management	25	18.9%	12	24.5%
Senior Management	34	25.8%	9	18.4%
Top Management	11	8.3%	5	10.2%
Not yet defined	29	22.0%	4	8.2%
Size of employing company				
Industry classification				
Services	83	51.2%	13	24.1%
Health & Care	24	14.8%	8	14.8%
Electronic	15	9.3%	3	5.6%
Pharmaceutical	15	9.3%	4	7.4%
Automotive	13	8.0%	8	14.8%
Pulp & Paper	7	4.3%	3	5.6%
Oil & Gas	2	1.2%	2	3.7%
Telecommunications	2	1.2%	5	9.3%
Food & Beverage	1	0.6%	8	14.8%
Number of Countries				
Less than 10	42	26.1%	15	29.4%
11 to 15	8	5.0%	3	5.9%
16 to 25	11	6.8%	5	9.8%
More than 25	100	62.1%	28	54.9%
Total Revenues				
Less than 1.000 million €	34	23.7%	8	17.1%
1.001 to 10.000 million €	14	9.7%	7	14.9%
10.001 to 100.000 million €	24	16.7%	5	10.6%
More than 100.000 million €	72	50%	27	57.4%
Number of employees worldwide				
Less than 5.000	45	29.0%	11	16.7%
5.001 to 10.000	18	11.6%	7	14.6%
10.001 to 20.000	3	1.9%	8	16.7%
Over 20.000	89	57.4%	22	45.8%
Number of expatriates worldwide				
Less than 150	45	31.5%	17	36.2%
151 to 500	24	16.8%	8	17.0%
501 to 1.500	19	13.3%	5	10.6%
Over 1.500	55	38.5%	17	36.2%
Perceived internationalization stage				
National Company	15	9.6%	6	12.0%
Export Company	2	1.3%	7	14.0%

APPENDIX IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II

Study II - Demographic Characteristics	Expatriates		Repatriates	
	N	%	N	%
Multidomestic Company	8	5.1%	4	8.0%
Global Company	101	64.7%	25	50.0%
Transnational Company	17	10.9%	6	12.0%
Other	13	8.3%	2	4.0%
How long the company invests in destination country (years)				
Average =	37.12		29.74	
St. Deviation =	34.79		29.93	
Min. =	1		1	
Max. =	131		120	

Table 26 - Appendix IV - Demographic data relating to the sample of Study II

APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II

Responses to the items measuring organizational culture, culture novelty, cross-cultural adjustment and withdrawal intentions were factor analyzed and factor scores obtained were used for subsequent data analysis. This appendix presents a general description of the procedures employed.

Organizational Culture

Organizational culture was measured using the 23 items proposed by Goffee and Jones (1998) to assess sociability and solidarity dimensions. The same items were used to rate home culture (question 1) and host culture (question 4), though in a different order to decrease nonresponses. Home and host organizational culture responses were factor analyzed and compared. First, tests of normality (e.g., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) were conducted for all items, which confirmed that none followed a normal distribution. Secondly, the assumption of correlation between items was assessed (through the KMO and Bartlett's tests) which confirmed the appropriateness of a factor analyses. Thirdly, a principal components analysis without rotation was conducted. It revealed the presence of four factors which explained 50% of the variance of data for home organizational culture and the presence of five factors which explained, together, 56.51% of the variance of data for host organizational culture. As the theoretical meaning of each factor was unclear and the emergence of two factors was expected, a principal component analysis method was used to extract two factors, with oblique rotation to simple structure, using the Oblimin procedure. The total variance explained by the two resulting factors was 37.78% for home organizational culture data and 39.40%, for host organizational culture data.

	Component	
	1	2
Home Culture - item 5	.682	.016
Home Culture - item 20	.673	.133
Home Culture - item 3	.667	.215
Home Culture - item 22	.613	.176
Home Culture - item 1	.612	.212
Home Culture - item 11	.609	.196
Home Culture - item 14	.608	.145
Home Culture - item 7	.585	.380
Home Culture - item 9	.577	.278
Home Culture - item 16	.536	.191
Home Culture - item 17	.498	.426
Home Culture - item 18	.492	-.001
Home Culture - item 4	.423	.393
Home Culture - item 8	.389	.728
Home Culture - item 12	.140	.721
Home Culture - item 15	.017	.706
Home Culture - item 21	.272	.636
Home Culture - item 10	.398	.546
Home Culture - item 23	.527	.536
Home Culture - item 6	.181	.528
Home Culture - item 13	.263	.527
Home Culture - item 2	.459	.512
Home Culture - item 19	-.073	.302

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

	Component	
	1	2
Host Culture - item 23	.747	.184
Host Culture - item 7	.686	.202
Host Culture - item 3	.661	.210
Host Culture - item 11	.651	.218
Host Culture - item 21	.644	.276
Host Culture - item 9	.628	.174
Host Culture - item 5	.617	.014
Host Culture - item 18	.566	.215
Host Culture - item 1	.562	.051
Host Culture - item 6	.554	.211
Host Culture - item 16	.553	.088
Host Culture - item 15	.484	.361
Host Culture - item 14	.476	-.092
Host Culture - item 20	.103	.733
Host Culture - item 10	.216	.726
Host Culture - item 17	.056	.710
Host Culture - item 19	.183	.706
Host Culture - item 22	.370	.625
Host Culture - item 2	.334	.607
Host Culture - item 4	.101	.605
Host Culture - item 12	.451	.570
Host Culture - item 8	.325	.522
Host Culture - item 13	-.061	.121

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 9 - Appendix V: Principal Component Factor Analysis for home and host organizational culture, with oblique rotation - structure matrix (after rotation) represents the loadings for each factor

Figure 9 shows the loadings of each item with the two factors emerging from the analysis. Reading the items which loaded more (above 0.5) with each factor, we can easily recognize factor 1 as solidarity and factor 2 as sociability. The data also reveal that for home company, items 4, 17, 18 and 19 have loadings inferior to 0.5 with the two factors. The same occurs with items 13, 14, and 15 of host organizational culture. Interestingly, these items are the same (having a different order in the questionnaire) as the items 17, 18, 19 from the home organizational culture and are: (a) "when people want to get something done they can work around the system"; (b) "hitting targets is the single most important thing"; (c) "people are always encouraged to work things out – flexibility – as they go along". Apparently, none of these items correlate strongly with the emerging solidarity and sociability factors. Interestingly, for host organizational culture, item 6 loaded with factor 1 (solidarity), while it was expected to load with factor 2. This is the same item which did not load with any factor (item 4), for home organizational culture: "people get along very well and disputes are rare". Before deciding the removal of these four items from the final sociability and solidarity scales, a third principal

APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II

components factor analysis with oblique rotation was conducted, in this case excluding these four items. The variance explained by the two factors increased to 41.40% and 43.61%, respectively for home and host organizational culture data. In addition, the correlation between factors increased as the loadings of each item with the factors. The following figures present these results.

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.281
2	.281	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.345
2	.345	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 10 - Appendix V: Home Organizational Culture: components correlation matrix before and after the exclusion of the four items

	Component	
	1	2
Home Culture - item 5	.682	.016
Home Culture - item 20	.673	.133
Home Culture - item 3	.667	.215
Home Culture - item 22	.613	.176
Home Culture - item 1	.612	.212
Home Culture - item 11	.609	.196
Home Culture - item 14	.608	.145
Home Culture - item 7	.585	.380
Home Culture - item 9	.577	.278
Home Culture - item 16	.536	.191
Home Culture - item 17	.498	.426
Home Culture - item 18	.492	-.001
Home Culture - item 4	.423	.393
Home Culture - item 8	.389	.728
Home Culture - item 12	.140	.721
Home Culture - item 15	.017	.706
Home Culture - item 21	.272	.636
Home Culture - item 10	.398	.546
Home Culture - item 23	.527	.536
Home Culture - item 6	.181	.528
Home Culture - item 13	.263	.527
Home Culture - item 2	.459	.512
Home Culture - item 19	-.073	.302

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

	Component	
	1	2
Home Culture - item 5	.683	.067
Home Culture - item 20	.672	.179
Home Culture - item 3	.670	.274
Home Culture - item 14	.641	.167
Home Culture - item 22	.636	.223
Home Culture - item 1	.623	.231
Home Culture - item 11	.616	.213
Home Culture - item 9	.578	.337
Home Culture - item 7	.565	.428
Home Culture - item 16	.523	.230
Home Culture - item 8	.406	.738
Home Culture - item 12	.142	.727
Home Culture - item 15	.023	.705
Home Culture - item 21	.271	.665
Home Culture - item 23	.551	.558
Home Culture - item 13	.256	.550
Home Culture - item 10	.403	.546
Home Culture - item 6	.181	.544
Home Culture - item 2	.442	.511

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 11 - Appendix V: Home Organizational Culture: structure matrix before (with 23 items) and after the exclusion of the four items (with 19 items).

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.216
2	.216	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.304
2	.304	1.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 12 - Appendix V: Host Organizational Culture: component correlation matrix before and after the exclusion of the four items

	Component	
	1	2
Host Culture - item 23	.747	.184
Host Culture - item 7	.686	.202
Host Culture - item 3	.661	.210
Host Culture - item 11	.651	.218
Host Culture - item 21	.644	.276
Host Culture - item 9	.628	.174
Host Culture - item 5	.617	.014
Host Culture - item 18	.566	.215
Host Culture - item 1	.562	.051
Host Culture - item 6	.554	.211
Host Culture - item 16	.553	.088
Host Culture - item 15	.484	.361
Host Culture - item 14	.476	-.092
Host Culture - item 20	.103	.733
Host Culture - item 10	.216	.726
Host Culture - item 17	.056	.710
Host Culture - item 19	.183	.706
Host Culture - item 22	.370	.625
Host Culture - item 2	.334	.607
Host Culture - item 4	.101	.605
Host Culture - item 12	.451	.570
Host Culture - item 8	.325	.522
Host Culture - item 13	-.061	.121

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

	Component	
	1	2
Host Culture - item 23	.762	.229
Host Culture - item 7	.710	.253
Host Culture - item 21	.671	.300
Host Culture - item 9	.646	.219
Host Culture - item 3	.644	.261
Host Culture - item 11	.643	.265
Host Culture - item 5	.632	.052
Host Culture - item 1	.575	.090
Host Culture - item 18	.571	.254
Host Culture - item 16	.535	.139
Host Culture - item 10	.227	.734
Host Culture - item 20	.120	.726
Host Culture - item 19	.205	.719
Host Culture - item 17	.076	.704
Host Culture - item 22	.407	.631
Host Culture - item 2	.353	.621
Host Culture - item 4	.098	.610
Host Culture - item 12	.452	.586
Host Culture - item 8	.328	.541

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 13 Appendix V: Host Organizational Culture: structure matrix before (with 23 items) and after the exclusion of the four items (with 19 items).

Additionally to the factor analyses, the consistency among the items of the two scales (home and host organizational culture) was assessed using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha. The following tables present Cronbach's coefficient alpha for the 23 items scales of home and host organizational culture.

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.871	.872	23

Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.867	.869	23

Figure 14 - Appendix V: Cronbach's Alpha for the original 23 items scale of Home and Host Organizational Culture

APPENDIX V - Factor analyses of Study II

As Cronbach's alpha are higher than 0.8; it can be concluded that the original scales have a good internal consistency (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003).

The following tables present Cronbach's alpha if items deleted, both for Home and Host Organizational Culture scales.

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Home Culture - item 1	71.35	138.319	.474	.409	.865
Home Culture - item 2	71.57	138.655	.509	.467	.864
Home Culture - item 3	71.40	138.614	.510	.430	.864
Home Culture - item 4	71.90	139.286	.423	.382	.866
Home Culture - item 5	72.09	138.683	.430	.441	.866
Home Culture - item 6	71.76	139.853	.356	.291	.869
Home Culture - item 7	71.38	136.655	.560	.471	.862
Home Culture - item 8	71.61	135.393	.580	.552	.861
Home Culture - item 9	71.67	138.149	.509	.372	.864
Home Culture - item 10	71.79	137.150	.484	.393	.864
Home Culture - item 11	71.58	138.490	.466	.420	.865
Home Culture - item 12	71.78	139.573	.407	.418	.867
Home Culture - item 13	71.60	139.833	.417	.288	.867
Home Culture - item 14	71.99	138.304	.458	.380	.865
Home Culture - item 15	71.90	141.645	.320	.396	.870
Home Culture - item 16	71.89	139.283	.431	.332	.866
Home Culture - item 17	71.53	138.377	.514	.360	.864
Home Culture - item 18	71.64	141.585	.317	.350	.870
Home Culture - item 19	71.64	147.396	.093	.206	.876
Home Culture - item 20	71.59	137.552	.495	.442	.864
Home Culture - item 21	71.88	138.253	.459	.386	.865
Home Culture - item 22	71.98	137.227	.474	.428	.865
Home Culture - item 23	72.08	136.012	.575	.478	.862

Figure 15 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha if items deleted, for home organizational culture data

Item-Total Statistics					
	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Host Culture - item 1	67.88	155.571	.395	.356	.863
Host Culture - item 2	68.06	152.705	.500	.437	.859
Host Culture - item 3	67.64	151.403	.548	.463	.858
Host Culture - item 4	67.98	155.213	.340	.339	.865
Host Culture - item 5	68.42	154.035	.408	.401	.862
Host Culture - item 6	68.13	154.702	.426	.412	.862
Host Culture - item 7	67.93	151.227	.516	.511	.859
Host Culture - item 8	68.15	154.228	.443	.410	.861
Host Culture - item 9	68.17	152.095	.489	.435	.860
Host Culture - item 10	68.33	153.540	.474	.500	.860
Host Culture - item 11	67.93	152.464	.508	.443	.859
Host Culture - item 12	67.99	154.054	.552	.480	.858
Host Culture - item 13	67.98	165.013	.031	.222	.875
Host Culture - item 14	67.92	157.890	.282	.376	.866
Host Culture - item 15	67.89	153.234	.493	.356	.860
Host Culture - item 16	68.17	155.285	.416	.343	.862
Host Culture - item 17	68.26	155.376	.367	.497	.864
Host Culture - item 18	68.20	152.972	.492	.409	.860
Host Culture - item 19	67.85	153.958	.445	.453	.861
Host Culture - item 20	68.28	154.648	.408	.516	.862
Host Culture - item 21	67.84	151.310	.536	.524	.858
Host Culture - item 22	68.26	152.538	.505	.479	.859
Host Culture - item 23	67.83	151.031	.563	.589	.857

Figure 16 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha if items deleted, for host organizational culture data

Removing item 4 from the scale of home organizational culture would decrease the scale internal consistency as the removal of item 17 and item 18. Only the removal of item 19 would increase scale internal consistency. In any case, the values would still be above 0.8, which are satisfactory. The Figure 16 also shows that items 18 and 19 are the least correlated with the others, which also supports their removal.

Removing item 6 from the scale of host organizational culture would slightly decrease the scale internal consistency as the removal of item 14 and item 15. Only the withdrawal of item 13 would increase scale internal consistency. In any case, the values would be above 0.8, which are satisfactory. The table also shows that items 13 and 14 are the least correlated with the others, which also supports their removal.

Finally, a Cronbach's alpha coefficient was determined for the revised scales, of home and host organizational culture containing 19 items. The same procedure was followed for the revised scales of sociability and solidarity.

Reliability Statistics			Reliability Statistics		
Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items	Cronbach's Alpha	Cronbach's Alpha Based on Standardized Items	N of Items
.864	.866	19	.865	.867	19

Figure 17 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha if the four items are deleted, for home and host organizational culture data

Cronbach's alpha decreases from 0.871 to 0.864, for home organizational culture data and remains almost unchanged for host organizational culture data. The values are above 0.8, which is very satisfactory and support the decision to remove the four items. The same procedure was used for the revised scales of sociability and solidarity. While the initial Cronbach's alpha ranged from 0.812 to 0.808 for sociability and from 0.845 to 0.843 for solidarity, the revised scales presented similar and satisfactory values, as follows.

	Cronbach's alpha - Original Scales		Cronbach's alpha - Revised Scales	
	Home Data	Host Data	Home Data	Host Data
Sociability	0.812	0.808	0.807	0.835
Solidarity	0.845	0.843	0.830	0.844

Table 27 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha for sociability and solidarity dimensions: comparing the original with the revised scales.

In summary, the results presented above support the decision to remove the following four items: (a) *"when people want to get something done they can work around the system"*; (b) *"hitting targets is the single most important thing"*; (c) *"people are always encouraged to work things out – flexibility – as they go along"*, (d) *"people get along very well and disputes*

are rare". Nine and ten items compose the sociability and solidarity scales respectively. Subsequent data analyses used this revised scales.

Sociability – 9 Items Scale	Solidarity – 10 Items Scale
<i>At the company, people genuinely like one another,</i>	<i>At the company, people know business objectives clearly;</i>
<i>At the company, people often socialize outside of work;</i>	<i>At the company, people follow clear guidelines and instructions about work;</i>
<i>At the company, people do favors for each other because they like one another;</i>	<i>At the company, poor performance is dealt with quickly and firmly;</i>
<i>At the company, people make friends for the sake of friendship – there is no other agenda;</i>	<i>At the company, the group really wants to win;</i>
<i>At the company, people often confide in one another about personal matters,</i>	<i>At the company, when opportunities for competitive advantage arise people move decisively to capitalize them;</i>
<i>At the company, people build close long term relationships – someday they may be of benefit;</i>	<i>At the company, strategic goals are shared;</i>
<i>At the company, people know a lot about each other's families;</i>	<i>At the company, reward and punishment are clear;</i>
<i>At the company, when people leave, co-workers stay in contact to see how they are doing.</i>	<i>At the company, the group is determined to beat clearly defined enemies;</i>
<i>At the company, people protect each other.</i>	<i>At the company, projects that are started are completed;</i>
	<i>At the company, it is clear where one person's job ends and another person's begins.</i>

Table 28 - Appendix V: Sociability and solidarity items scales

Cross-cultural adjustment

As with organizational culture, a similar procedure was followed for the dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. First, tests of normality (e.g., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) were conducted for the 14 items, which confirmed that none followed a normal distribution. Secondly, the assumption of correlation between items was assessed, through the KMO and Bartlett's tests, which confirmed the appropriateness of a factor analyses. Thirdly, a principal components analysis with oblique rotation, using the Oblimin procedure was followed. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than one emerged from the analyses, which in total accounted for 66.38% of data variance. Factor 1 included all items associated with general adjustment and explained 42.81% of data variance. Factor 2 included the four items associated with interaction adjustment and explained 12.91% of data variance. Finally, factor

3 included the 3 items of work adjustment, which explained an additional 10.66% of data variance. Figure 18 presents the factor loadings after rotation. These results empirically confirm the item selection used in each scale. Finally, Cronbach's alpha coefficients were determined to confirm scales reliability, as summarized in Table 29. The values are similar to the ones obtained by other authors (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black, 1990; McEvoy and Parker, 1995).

Structure Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
General Adjustment - item 5	.860	.423	.514
General Adjustment - item 2	.858	.375	.351
General Adjustment - item 7	.789	.359	.254
General Adjustment - item 3	.782	.377	.278
General Adjustment - item 1	.722	.407	.504
General Adjustment - item 6	.694	.116	.231
General Adjustment - item 4	.610	.349	.286
Interaction Adjustment - item 3	.411	.891	.407
Interaction Adjustment - item 2	.385	.879	.199
Interaction Adjustment - item 4	.335	.876	.261
Interaction Adjustment - item 1	.316	.712	.275
Work Adjustment - item 2	.371	.199	.888
Work Adjustment - item 1	.409	.278	.830
Work Adjustment - item 3	.286	.370	.810

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 18 - Appendix V: Principal components factor analysis for cross-cultural adjustment: structure matrix

	Reliability Statistics			
	Cross-cultural adjustment - 14 items scale	Work adjustment - 3 items scale	Interaction adjustment - 4 items scale	General adjustment - 7 items scale
Cronbach's alpha	0.892	0.806	0.864	0.877

Table 29 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha for cross-cultural adjustment dimensions: work, interaction and general adjustment

In relation to spouse adjustment, a principal components factor analysis using Varimax rotation confirmed the presence of two factors that can easily be associated to general and interaction adjustment, as illustrated in Figure 19. Factor 1, identified as general adjustment explained alone 86.65% of data variance. Factor 2, identified as interaction adjustment explained an additional 5.28% of variance. In relation to the scales internal reliability, Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged from 0.981 to 0.984 for spouse general and interaction adjustment, which is very satisfactory (Pestana and Gageiro, 2003).

Rotated Component Matrix^a

	Component	
	1	2
Spouse General Adj - item 1	.800	.510
Spouse General Adj - item 2	.817	.508
Spouse General Adj - item 3	.831	.491
Spouse Interaction Adj - item 1	.484	.842
Spouse General Adj - item 4	.784	.525
Spouse Interaction Adj - item 2	.494	.846
Spouse General Adj - item 5	.783	.515
Spouse General Adj - item 6	.830	.369
Spouse Interaction Adj - item 3	.489	.851
Spouse General Adj - item 7	.801	.553
Spouse Interaction Adj - item 4	.494	.839

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
 a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Figure 19 - Appendix V: Principal components factor analysis for spouse adjustment: structure matrix

	Reliability Statistics		
	Spouse adjustment - 11 items scale	Interaction adjustment - 4 items scale	General adjustment - 7 items scale
Cronbach's alpha	0.984	0.984	0.981

Table 30 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha for spouse adjustment dimensions: interaction and general adjustment

Culture novelty

As previously, a similar procedure was followed, which included tests of normality (e.g., Kolmogorov-Smirnov test) for the 16 items that composed the measure of culture novelty. A reliability analyses revealed that the 16 items scale has a high internal consistency (cronbach alpha = 0.865), though five items were poorly correlated (less than 0.5) with the others, as shown in Figure 20. A principal components factor analysis, using Varimax rotation, conducted for the reduced scale of nine items, suggested that one single factor can be extracted. This factor, alone, explained 42.66% of data variance. Also, the removal of the five items did not affect scale internal reliability, as Cronbach's alpha coefficient remained high (cronbach alpha = 0.828). Based in these outputs, the nine items scale was adopted.

Item-Total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Culture Novelty - item 1	54.41	110.542	.507	.390	.857
Culture Novelty - item 2	54.05	107.006	.674	.574	.849
Culture Novelty - item 3	54.04	111.248	.492	.346	.858
Culture Novelty - item 4	53.85	110.476	.519	.334	.857
Culture Novelty - item 5	53.81	113.561	.442	.278	.860
Culture Novelty - item 6	54.10	110.130	.524	.333	.856
Culture Novelty - item 7	54.03	114.963	.292	.195	.868
Culture Novelty - item 8	54.17	109.931	.561	.429	.855
Culture Novelty - item 9	53.52	115.687	.318	.220	.865
Culture Novelty - item 10	54.01	109.359	.577	.391	.854
Culture Novelty - item 11	53.95	112.020	.486	.335	.858
Culture Novelty - item 12	54.21	108.414	.626	.463	.852
Culture Novelty - item 13	54.52	112.842	.433	.338	.861
Culture Novelty - item 14	55.00	109.436	.492	.363	.858
Culture Novelty - item 15	54.08	108.880	.561	.435	.855
Culture Novelty - item 16	54.31	109.532	.476	.327	.859

Figure 20 - Appendix V: Inter-items correlations and Cronbach's alpha if items deleted, for culture novelty

According to Figure 21, the culture novelty factor is most strongly defined by the differences between home and destination countries in the following items: (1) "everyday customs"; (2) "general living conditions"; (3) "transportation systems"; (4) "available quality and types of food"; (5) "general housing conditions"; (6) "education facilities and opportunities"; (7) "entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities"; (8) "political system"; (9) "religion".

Component Matrix^a

	Component
	1
Culture Novelty - item 1	.616
Culture Novelty - item 2	.794
Culture Novelty - item 4	.621
Culture Novelty - item 6	.624
Culture Novelty - item 8	.650
Culture Novelty - item 10	.666
Culture Novelty - item 12	.699
Culture Novelty - item 15	.621
Culture Novelty - item 16	.561

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 1 components extracted.

Figure 21 - Appendix V: Principal components factor analysis, with Varimax rotation for culture novelty: components matrix

Withdrawal intentions

Withdrawal intentions included three variables: (1) withdrawal intentions from the assignment; (2) withdrawal intentions from the organization and (3) withdrawal intentions from the occupation, which were measured by three items each (Carmeli, 2005). As before, normality tests were conducted on these items and scales internal consistency was computed. Normality tests revealed none of the variables followed a normal distribution. Internal reliability was high for the three scales as for the 9 items scale, ranging from 0.858 to 0.945, as summarized in Table 31.

	Reliability Statistics			
	Withdrawal Intentions from Assignment - 3 items scale	Withdrawal Intentions from organization - 3 items scale	Withdrawal Intentions from occupation - 4 items scale	Withdrawal Intentions - 9 items scale
Cronbach's alpha	0.858	0.945	0.903	0.944

Table 31 - Appendix V: Cronbach's alpha for withdrawal intentions dimensions

Finally, a principal components factor analysis, using Oblimin procedure, confirmed the emergence of three factors, which together explained 84.86% of data variance. Figure 22 presents the structure matrix, which presents factor loadings, after rotation.

Structure Matrix

	Component		
	1	2	3
Think about leaving IA	.518	.924	.451
Searching an alternative to IA	.756	.831	.612
I will leave the present Assignment	.703	.844	.615
Think about leaving occupation	.598	.439	.919
Searching an alternative occupation	.745	.579	.885
I will leave the present occupation	.753	.590	.931
Think about leaving organization	.906	.631	.703
Searching an alternative organization	.962	.587	.675
I will leave the present organization	.960	.646	.736

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
 Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Figure 22 - Appendix V: Principal components factor analysis, with oblique rotation, for withdrawal intentions: structure matrix

Factor 1, identified as withdrawal intentions from the organization explained 69.73% of data variance. Factor 2, identified as withdrawal intentions from the present assignment explained an additional 9.16% of data variance. Finally, Factor 3 explained 5.97% of variance and was identified as withdrawal intentions from occupation.

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

This appendix presents the results of mean scores differences for expatriates and repatriates, related with the main research variables: (1) demographic variables, (2) cross-cultural adjustment, (3) general satisfaction, (4) withdrawal intentions, and (5) spouse adjustment.

Demographic variables

Variables		Descriptive statistics			t-Tests for Equality of Means		
		N	Mean	SD	t	df	Sig. (2-tail)
Age	Expatriates	149	40.79	10.126	1.058	195	0.292
	Repatriates	48	39.04	9.467			
Gender	Expatriates	166	1.23	0.425	-1.356	219	0.176
	Repatriates	55	1.33	0.474			
Marital Status	Expatriates	162	2.04	0.767	-0.583	212	0.561
	Repatriates	52	2.12	0.808			
Education Level	Expatriates	162	4.94	1.217	0.414	211	0.679
	Repatriates	51	4.86	1.265			
Host Language Fluency	Expatriates	162	2.27	1.189	-1.491	215	0.137
	Repatriates	55	2.55	1.245			
Previous International Experience	Expatriates	153	5.53	6.579	-0.299	203	0.765
	Repatriates	52	5.87	8.053			
Tenure in the Company	Expatriates	143	9.82	7.607	0.65	184	0.517
	Repatriates	43	8.99	5.946			
Tenure in the Position	Expatriates	143	2.81	3.835	-0.184	181	0.854
	Repatriates	40	2.94	3.661			
Tenure in the Assignment	Expatriates	72	2.48	2.526	-0.49	89	0.625
	Repatriates	19	2.86	4.444			
Hours of Training	Expatriates	151	27.68	142.648	0.984	198	0.326
	Repatriates	49	7.53	17.66			
Spouse Interaction Adjustment	Expatriates	161	2.84	2.459	-1.586	213	0.114
	Repatriates	54	3.47	2.752			
Spouse General Adjustment	Expatriates	166	3.35	2.543	-0.222	218	0.825
	Repatriates	51	3.44	2.712			
Type of Industry	Expatriates	162	3.3	2.067	-2.963	214	0.003
	Repatriates	54	4.35	2.789			
Company Home Base	Expatriates	156	6.28	5.027	-2.307	205	0.022
	Repatriates	51	8.31	6.68			
Internationalization Stage	Expatriates	156	3.91	1.188	2.164	204	0.032
	Repatriates	50	3.48	1.328			
Home Position	Expatriates	158	5.3	1.607	2.25	209	0.025
	Repatriates	53	4.72	1.747			
Return Position	Expatriates	132	6.46	2.028	2.534	179	0.012
	Repatriates	49	5.59	2.121			
Promotion with the Return	Expatriates	155	0.83	0.972	-2.996	208	0.003
	Repatriates	55	1.27	0.827			
No Difficulties Finding a Return Position	Expatriates	157	0.67	0.85	-4.119	210	0.000
	Repatriates	51	3.44	2.712			

Table 32 - Appendix VI: Demographic Variables of Study II

Comparison of mean score differences of dependent variables according to organizational culture and organizational culture profile

Organizational culture and cross-cultural adjustment

Based on correlational results, the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variable of cross-cultural adjustment (see Table 7). Besides, all correlations were modest.

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for these dependent variables (e.g., work, interaction and general adjustment) differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Home sociability and cross-cultural adjustment

The results of Table 33 revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates and repatriates' work, and interaction adjustment, according to home sociability. Expatriates general adjustment differs significantly, according to home sociability, being higher when home company culture is perceived to have high sociability ($F= 1.743$; $p<0.05$).

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	39.426	27	1.460	.793	.755
		Within Groups	254.138	138	1.842		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	50.838	27	1.883	.845	.687
		Within Groups	307.513	138	2.228		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	65.478	27	2.425	1.743	.021
		Within Groups	191.977	138	1.391		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	29.181	20	1.459	.880	.611
		Within Groups	56.394	34	1.659		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	55.575	20	2.779	1.048	.440
		Within Groups	90.145	34	2.651		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	29.491	20	1.475	.693	.806
		Within Groups	72.381	34	2.129		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 33 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment ANOVA by home sociability.

Home solidarity and cross-cultural adjustment

The results of Table 34 revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment, according to home solidarity.

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	59.921	30	1.997	1.154	.285
		Within Groups	233.643	135	1.731		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	70.242	30	2.341	1.097	.349
		Within Groups	288.109	135	2.134		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	61.788	30	2.060	1.421	.091
		Within Groups	195.667	135	1.449		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	31.804	23	1.383	.797	.710
		Within Groups	53.772	31	1.735		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	72.014	23	3.131	1.317	.235
		Within Groups	73.706	31	2.378		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	47.683	23	2.073	1.186	.325
		Within Groups	54.190	31	1.748		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 34 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment ANOVA by home solidarity

Host sociability and cross-cultural adjustment

The analysis presented in Table 35 revealed that expatriation general adjustment and repatriates work adjustment differ significantly with host sociability, being significantly higher when host company is perceived as having high sociability (respectively $F= 1.588$; $p<0.05$ and $F=3.355$; $p<0.01$).

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	49.280	30	1.643	.908	.608
		Within Groups	244.284	135	1.810		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	83.601	30	2.787	1.369	.116
		Within Groups	274.750	135	2.035		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	67.146	30	2.238	1.588	.040
		Within Groups	190.309	135	1.410		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	58.279	21	2.775	3.355	.001
		Within Groups	27.296	33	.827		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	65.262	21	3.108	1.275	.260
		Within Groups	80.458	33	2.438		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	44.764	21	2.132	1.232	.289
		Within Groups	57.109	33	1.731		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 35 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment ANOVA by host sociability.

Host solidarity and cross-cultural adjustment

The results of Table 36 revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment, according to host solidarity.

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

			ANOVA				
Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	63.219	31	2.039	1.186	.250
		Within Groups	230.345	134	1.719		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	61.660	31	1.989	.898	.624
		Within Groups	296.691	134	2.214		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	56.731	31	1.830	1.222	.217
		Within Groups	200.724	134	1.498		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	45.601	25	1.824	1.323	.233
		Within Groups	39.975	29	1.378		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	66.962	25	2.678	.986	.510
		Within Groups	78.758	29	2.716		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	58.700	25	2.348	1.577	.119
		Within Groups	43.172	29	1.489		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 36 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' work, interaction and general adjustment ANOVA by host solidarity

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for cross-cultural adjustment according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that: (1) expatriates' general adjustment is higher when home and host organizational cultures are perceived as having high sociability; (2) repatriates' work adjustment is higher when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability. These findings generally support hypotheses H2Ec) and H4Ec), which assume a positive association between home and host sociability and expatriates' general adjustment. Further, hypothesis H4Ra), which assumes a positive association between host sociability and repatriates' work adjustment is supported.

Organizational culture profile and cross-cultural adjustment

To determine whether cross-cultural adjustment differs according to organizational culture profile, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were conducted, as summarized in the following sections.

Home organizational culture profile and cross-cultural adjustment

As indicated in Table 37, there is no significant difference for cross-cultural adjustment according to home culture profile.

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	1.036	3	.345	.191	.902
		Within Groups	292.528	162	1.806		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	2.212	3	.737	.335	.800
		Within Groups	356.139	162	2.198		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	11.808	3	3.936	2.596	.054
		Within Groups	245.647	162	1.516		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	7.013	3	2.338	1.518	.221
		Within Groups	78.563	51	1.540		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	3.684	3	1.228	.441	.725
		Within Groups	142.037	51	2.785		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	4.348	3	1.449	.758	.523
		Within Groups	97.525	51	1.912		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 37 - Appendix VI: Cross-cultural adjustment ANOVA by home organizational culture profile

Host organizational culture profile and cross-cultural adjustment

As indicated in Table 38 there is no significant difference for cross-cultural adjustment according to host organizational culture profile.

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	10.714	3	3.571	2.046	.110
		Within Groups	282.850	162	1.746		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	4.276	3	1.425	.652	.583
		Within Groups	354.075	162	2.186		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	7.373	3	2.458	1.592	.193
		Within Groups	250.081	162	1.544		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	2.629	3	.876	.539	.658
		Within Groups	82.947	51	1.626		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	9.014	3	3.005	1.121	.349
		Within Groups	136.706	51	2.681		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	3.147	3	1.049	.542	.656
		Within Groups	98.726	51	1.936		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 38 - Appendix VI: Cross-cultural adjustment ANOVA by host organizational culture profile.

Based on the results of ANOVA analyses, the hypothesis of the existence of a better organizational culture to ease expatriates and repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment is not supported.

Organizational culture and general satisfaction

Based on correlational results, the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variable of general satisfaction (see Table 7 - page 175). Significant positive correlations existed between host sociability and solidarity and general satisfaction (respectively $r=0.32$, $p<0.01$; $r=0.39$; $p<0.01$). Moreover, host culture type correlated negatively and significantly with general satisfaction ($r=-0.30$, $p<0.01$)

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Home sociability and general satisfaction

Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction do not differ significantly along the home sociability dimension, as presented on Table 39.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	35.350	27	1.309	1.464	.081
	Within Groups	123.411	138	.894		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	15.902	20	.795	.943	.544
	Within Groups	28.675	34	.843		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 39 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction ANOVA by home sociability.

Home solidarity and general satisfaction

Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction do not differ significantly along the home solidarity dimension, as presented on Table 40.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	32.173	30	1.072	1.144	.296
	Within Groups	126.589	135	.938		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	18.472	23	.803	.954	.540
	Within Groups	26.105	31	.842		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 40 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction ANOVA by home solidarity.

Host sociability and general satisfaction

Expatriates general satisfaction is significantly higher when host company is perceived as having high sociability ($F=1.812$; $p<0.05$). Repatriates revealed no significant general satisfaction mean differences, along with host sociability, according to Table 41.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	45.581	30	1.519	1.812	.012
	Within Groups	113.180	135	.838		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	21.151	21	1.007	1.419	.180
	Within Groups	23.427	33	.710		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 41 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction ANOVA by host sociability.

Host solidarity and general satisfaction

Expatriates general satisfaction is significantly higher when host company is perceived as having high solidarity ($F=1.997$; $p<0.01$). Repatriates revealed no significant general satisfaction mean differences, along with host solidarity dimensions, according to Table 42.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	50,161	31	1,618	1,997	,004
	Within Groups	108,601	134	,810		
	Total	158,761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	24,794	25	,992	1,454	,166
	Within Groups	19,783	29	,682		
	Total	44,577	54			

Table 42 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction ANOVA by host solidarity.

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for general satisfaction according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that: (1) expatriates' general satisfaction is higher when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability and solidarity; (2) repatriates' general satisfaction do not differ significantly according to organizational culture dimensions.

Organizational culture profile and general satisfaction

To determine whether general satisfaction differs according to organizational culture profile, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were conducted, as summarized in the following sections.

Home organizational culture profile and general satisfaction

Home culture dimensions were correlated near zero with general satisfaction and separate one-way analyses (see Table 39 and Table 40) confirmed that general satisfaction mean differences did not differ significantly with home culture dimensions of sociability and solidarity. Therefore, to determine whether general satisfaction differed according to home and host organizational culture profiles, one-way analyses were conducted, as summarized in the following tables.

As shown in Table 43, expatriates' satisfaction is lower when home organizational culture is perceived as fragmented (e.g., low sociability and low solidarity) and repatriates' general satisfaction is higher when home culture is perceived as mercenary (e.g., how sociability and high solidarity).

Descriptives

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound			
Expatriation	Communal	92	3.5674	.97362	.10151	3.3658	3.7690	1.00	5.00
	Networked	23	3.8087	.54432	.11350	3.5733	4.0441	2.80	4.80
	Fragmented	25	3.1360	1.16865	.23373	2.6536	3.6184	1.00	5.00
	Mercenary	26	3.7154	1.03255	.20250	3.2983	4.1324	1.40	5.00
	Total	166	3.5590	.98091	.07613	3.4087	3.7094	1.00	5.00
Repatriation	Communal	31	3.6774	.93478	.16789	3.3345	4.0203	1.80	5.00
	Networked	8	3.6750	.72457	.25617	3.0692	4.2808	2.40	4.60
	Fragmented	9	3.7556	1.04775	.34925	2.9502	4.5609	1.60	4.80
	Mercenary	7	4.0000	.93808	.35456	3.1324	4.8676	2.40	5.00
	Total	55	3.7309	.90857	.12251	3.4853	3.9765	1.60	5.00

Table 43 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction descriptive by home organizational culture profile.

According to one-way analyses reported in Table 44, the registered differences on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction according to organization culture types are not statistically significant.

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION						
Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	6.550	3	2.183	2.324	.077
	Within Groups	152.212	162	.940		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	.626	3	.209	.242	.867
	Within Groups	43.951	51	.862		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 44 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by home organizational culture profile.

Host organizational culture profile and general satisfaction

Correlational analyses indicated general satisfaction appeared positively and significantly correlated with host culture sociability and solidarity for both expatriates and repatriates samples, and separated one-way analyses (Table 41 and Table 42) confirmed that expatriates but not repatriates, general satisfaction differ significantly with host sociability and solidarity dimensions. Expatriates' general satisfaction was high when host company culture was perceived as having high sociability and high solidarity.

As shown in Table 45 and Figure 23 - page 342, expatriates' general satisfaction is higher when host culture is communal and lower when it is fragmented. For repatriates, general satisfaction is higher when host organizational culture is communal and lower when it is mercenary.

Descriptives

GENERAL SATISFACTION									
Type of Assignment		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
Expatriation	Communal	95	3.8632	.79427	.08149	3.7014	4.0250	1.40	5.00
	Networked	38	3.1789	.95497	.15492	2.8651	3.4928	1.00	4.60
	Fragmented	18	2.9333	1.28154	.30206	2.2960	3.5706	1.00	5.00
	Mercenary	15	3.3467	1.06225	.27427	2.7584	3.9349	1.40	5.00
	Total	166	3.5590	.98091	.07613	3.4087	3.7094	1.00	5.00
Repatriation	Communal	32	3.9937	.83083	.14687	3.6942	4.2933	1.60	5.00
	Networked	13	3.3538	.87237	.24195	2.8267	3.8810	1.80	4.80
	Fragmented	7	3.4286	1.14559	.43299	2.3691	4.4881	1.80	5.00
	Mercenary	3	3.2667	.64291	.37118	1.6696	4.8637	2.80	4.00
	Total	55	3.7309	.90857	.12251	3.4853	3.9765	1.60	5.00

Table 45 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction descriptive by host organizational culture profile.

According to one-way analyses shown in Table 46, the reported differences for expatriates' general satisfaction according to host organizational culture profiles are significantly different, though the same differences for repatriates did not achieve statistical significance. In this case, the reduced number of cases in some conditions (e.g., mercenary) might have accounted for these results.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION						
Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	22.000	3	7.333	8.687	.000
	Within Groups	136.762	162	.844		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	5.345	3	1.782	2.316	.087
	Within Groups	39.232	51	.769		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 46 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by host organizational culture profile.

The results showed that expatriates and repatriates general satisfaction varied with host organizational culture profiles, being higher when the host company is perceived as having a communal culture type. The mean scores differences were statistically significant for expatriates ($F=8.687$; $p<0.001$) but not for repatriates ($F=2.316$; $p=0.08$).

Organizational culture and withdrawal intentions

Correlational results indicated that the dimensions of organizational culture sociability and solidarity correlated differently with the dependent variables of withdrawal intentions (see Table 7- page 175). For instance, significant negative correlations existed between home and host solidarity and all three forms of withdrawal intentions.

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions differed according to each dimension of home and host organizational culture dimensions several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Home sociability and withdrawal intentions

The results of Table 47 revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, according to home sociability, with the exception of expatriates' occupation withdrawal, which differed significantly with home company sociability ($F=1.616$; $p<0.05$). The higher the home company sociability, the lowest the expatriates' occupation withdrawal.

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ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	47.348	27	1.754	1.308	.161
		Within Groups	185.029	138	1.341		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	43.625	27	1.616	1.075	.378
		Within Groups	207.403	138	1.503		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	49.607	27	1.837	1.616	.039
		Within Groups	156.896	138	1.137		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	25.182	20	1.259	.801	.696
		Within Groups	53.477	34	1.573		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	28.778	20	1.439	.916	.573
		Within Groups	53.416	34	1.571		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	27.791	20	1.390	.761	.738
		Within Groups	62.096	34	1.826		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 47 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions ANOVA by home sociability.

Home solidarity and withdrawal intentions

The results of Table 48 revealed no statistical significant differences for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, according to home solidarity.

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	38.987	30	1.300	.907	.609
		Within Groups	193.391	135	1.433		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	51.550	30	1.718	1.163	.276
		Within Groups	199.478	135	1.478		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	41.379	30	1.379	1.128	.314
		Within Groups	165.124	135	1.223		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	30.801	23	1.339	.867	.634
		Within Groups	47.857	31	1.544		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	31.855	23	1.385	.853	.649
		Within Groups	50.339	31	1.624		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	40.104	23	1.744	1.086	.409
		Within Groups	49.783	31	1.606		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 48 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions ANOVA by home solidarity.

Host sociability and withdrawal intentions

Expatriates withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation differ significantly with host sociability (respectively $F=1.824$; $p<0.05$ and $F=1.530$; $p<0.054$): the highest the host sociability, the lowest the occupation and assignment withdrawal, as indicated in Table 49.

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	67.013	30	2.234	1.824	.011
		Within Groups	165.364	135	1.225		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	51.659	30	1.722	1.166	.272
		Within Groups	199.369	135	1.477		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	52.394	30	1.746	1.530	.054
		Within Groups	154.109	135	1.142		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	25.944	21	1.235	.773	.729
		Within Groups	52.715	33	1.597		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	28.801	21	1.371	.848	.649
		Within Groups	53.393	33	1.618		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	42.089	21	2.004	1.384	.197
		Within Groups	47.798	33	1.448		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 49 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions ANOVA by host sociability.

Host solidarity and withdrawal intentions

Significant mean differences appeared for expatriates and repatriates withdrawal intentions according to host solidarity. The highest the host solidarity, the lowest the withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation for expatriates (respectively $F=1.817$; $p <0.05$; $F=1.581$; $p<0.05$ and $F=1.559$; $p<0.05$). Also, repatriates' occupational withdrawal differed significantly with host company solidarity ($F=1.956$; $p<0.05$).

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			ANOVA				
Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	68.764	31	2.218	1.817	.011
		Within Groups	163.614	134	1.221		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	67.219	31	2.168	1.581	.040
		Within Groups	183.809	134	1.372		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	54.735	31	1.766	1.559	.045
		Within Groups	151.769	134	1.133		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	46.385	25	1.855	1.667	.093
		Within Groups	32.274	29	1.113		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	43.728	25	1.749	1.319	.235
		Within Groups	38.466	29	1.326		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	56.421	25	2.257	1.956	.042
		Within Groups	33.466	29	1.154		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 50 - Appendix VI: Expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions ANOVA by host solidarity.

In summary, one-way analyses (ANOVA) of mean score differences for withdrawal intentions according to home and host organizational culture dimensions revealed that: (1) expatriates' occupation withdrawal intentions are lower when home and host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability, (2) expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions are lower when host organizational culture is perceived as having high sociability; (3) expatriates withdrawal intentions (in the three dimensions) are lower when host culture is high in solidarity; (4) repatriates withdrawal intentions from the occupation are lower when host culture is high in solidarity.

Organizational culture profile and withdrawal intentions

To determine whether withdrawal intentions differ according to organizational culture profile, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were conducted, as summarized in the following sections.

Home organizational culture profile and withdrawal intentions

To determine whether differences existed between the mean scores of assignment, organization and occupation withdrawal intentions, according to home organizational culture profiles, one-way analyses of variance were run. Table 51 summarizes the main findings.

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ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	2.366	3	.789	.555	.645
		Within Groups	230.011	162	1.420		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	5.981	3	1.994	1.318	.270
		Within Groups	245.047	162	1.513		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	9.406	3	3.135	2.577	.056
		Within Groups	197.097	162	1.217		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	5.683	3	1.894	1.324	.277
		Within Groups	72.975	51	1.431		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	3.251	3	1.084	.700	.556
		Within Groups	78.943	51	1.548		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	5.627	3	1.876	1.135	.344
		Within Groups	84.260	51	1.652		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 51 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by home organizational culture profile.

According to one-way analyses in Table 51, there are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates withdrawal intentions according to home organizational culture types.

Host organizational culture profiles and withdrawal intentions

As indicated before, significant mean differences appeared for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions according to host solidarity. The highest the host solidarity, the lowest the withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation for expatriates. Also, repatriates' occupational withdrawal differed significantly with host company solidarity. Finally, expatriates withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the occupation differed significantly with host sociability: the highest the host sociability, the lowest the occupation and assignment expatriates' withdrawal.

As shown in Table 52, withdrawal intentions differ with host organizational culture type. Expatriates withdrawal intentions are higher when host culture is perceived as networked while for repatriates, withdrawal intentions are higher when host culture is fragmented. With the exception of expatriates occupational withdrawal intentions ($F=1.639$; $p= 0.183$), all mean score differences are statistically significant (see Table 53).

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Descriptives

Type of Assignment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum		
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound				
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Communal	95	2.0702	.99395	.10198	1.8677	2.2727	1.00	5.00
		Networked	38	2.8421	1.39009	.22550	2.3852	3.2990	1.00	5.00
		Fragmented	18	2.5556	1.36243	.32113	1.8780	3.2331	1.00	5.00
		Mercenary	15	2.2222	1.16610	.30109	1.5765	2.8680	1.00	4.00
	Total	166	2.3133	1.18674	.09211	2.1314	2.4951	1.00	5.00	
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Communal	95	1.8667	1.08982	.11181	1.6447	2.0887	1.00	5.00
		Networked	38	2.5965	1.44604	.23458	2.1212	3.0718	1.00	5.00
		Fragmented	18	2.2037	1.34378	.31673	1.5355	2.8719	1.00	5.00
		Mercenary	15	2.1111	1.08866	.28109	1.5082	2.7140	1.00	4.33
	Total	166	2.0924	1.23344	.09573	1.9033	2.2814	1.00	5.00	
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Communal	95	1.9895	1.08662	.11148	1.7681	2.2108	1.00	5.00
		Networked	38	2.3772	1.18086	.19156	1.9891	2.7653	1.00	5.00
Fragmented		18	1.9074	1.17604	.27720	1.3226	2.4922	1.00	4.00	
Mercenary		15	1.7556	1.01157	.26119	1.1954	2.3157	1.00	3.67	
Total	166	2.0482	1.11872	.08683	1.8768	2.2196	1.00	5.00		
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Communal	32	2.1771	1.08751	.19225	1.7850	2.5692	1.00	5.00
		Networked	13	2.9487	1.17730	.32652	2.2373	3.6602	1.00	5.00
		Fragmented	7	4.0000	.74536	.28172	3.3107	4.6893	3.00	5.00
		Mercenary	3	2.1111	.38490	.22222	1.1550	3.0673	1.67	2.33
	Total	55	2.5879	1.20691	.16274	2.2616	2.9142	1.00	5.00	
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Communal	32	1.9271	1.08669	.19210	1.5353	2.3189	1.00	5.00
		Networked	13	2.6410	1.30143	.36095	1.8546	3.4275	1.00	5.00
		Fragmented	7	3.3810	1.02611	.38783	2.4320	4.3299	2.00	5.00
		Mercenary	3	1.0000	.00000	.00000	1.0000	1.0000	1.00	1.00
	Total	55	2.2303	1.23374	.16636	1.8968	2.5638	1.00	5.00	
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Communal	32	1.8021	1.05701	.18685	1.4210	2.1832	1.00	5.00
		Networked	13	2.7692	1.32905	.36861	1.9661	3.5724	1.00	5.00
Fragmented		7	3.2381	1.51186	.57143	1.8399	4.6363	1.00	5.00	
Mercenary		3	1.6667	1.15470	.66667	-1.2018	4.5351	1.00	3.00	
Total	55	2.2061	1.29018	.17397	1.8573	2.5548	1.00	5.00		

Table 52 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions descriptive by host organizational culture profile

ANOVA

Type of Assignment	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.		
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	17.422	3	5.807	4.377	.005
		Within Groups	214.955	162	1.327		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	14.725	3	4.908	3.365	.020
		Within Groups	236.303	162	1.459		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	6.082	3	2.027	1.639	.183
		Within Groups	200.421	162	1.237		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	21.733	3	7.244	6.490	.001
		Within Groups	56.925	51	1.116		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	18.944	3	6.315	5.092	.004
		Within Groups	63.250	51	1.240		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	17.674	3	5.891	4.161	.010
		Within Groups	72.213	51	1.416		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 53 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by host organizational culture profile.

Although it was not predicted in this research, except for the negative influence of sociability on withdrawal intentions (hypothesis H13E and H14R), these findings reveal that organizational culture types are differently associated with expatriates and repatriates

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withdrawal intentions. Moreover, one can conclude that even if certain organizational culture types do not influence cross-cultural adjustment they have an influence on general satisfaction. The following figures illustrate the main differences for general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions, according to home and destination culture types.

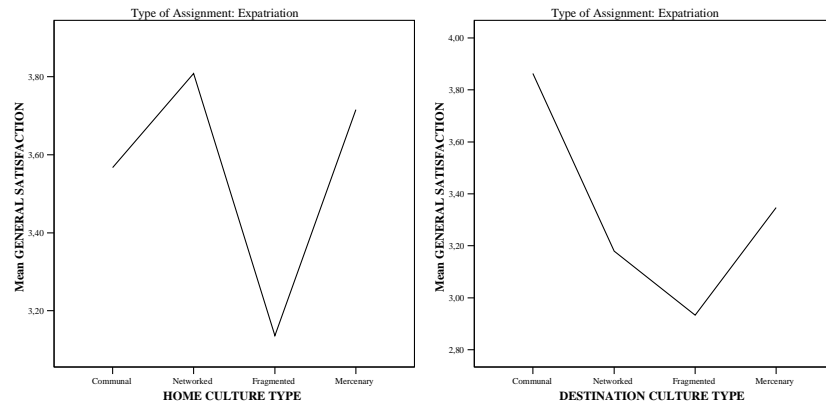


Figure 23 - Appendix VI: Expatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment, according to home and destination organizational culture types.

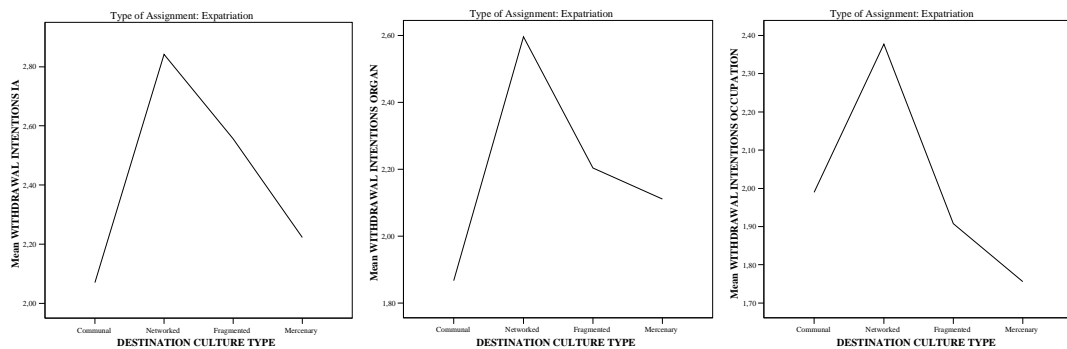


Figure 24 - Appendix VI: Expatriates assignment, organization and occupation withdrawal intentions according to destination organizational culture types.

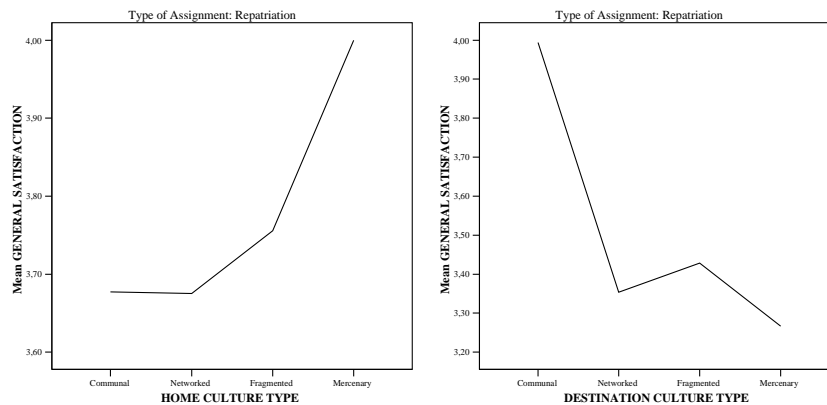


Figure 25 - Appendix VI: Repatriates' general satisfaction with the assignment according to home and destination organizational culture types

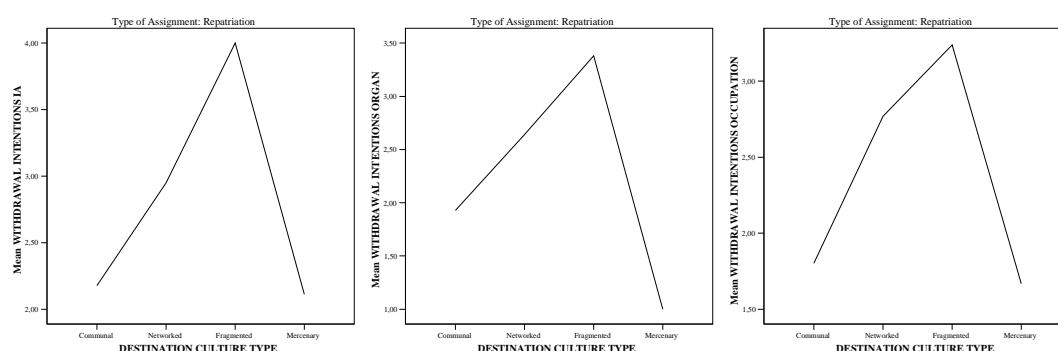


Figure 26 - Appendix VI: Repatriates' assignment, organization and occupational withdrawal intentions according to destination organizational culture types

As shown, a communal destination culture promotes general satisfaction, especially for the expatriate sample, while a networked destination culture can increase expatriates' withdrawal intentions from the assignment and the organization. Conversely, a communal destination culture is positively associated with repatriates' general satisfaction (though the differences were not statistically significant); while a fragmented destination culture can increase repatriates withdrawal intentions from the assignment, the organization and the occupation.

Comparison of mean score differences of dependent variables according to culture novelty

Zero-order correlations revealed that with the exception of general satisfaction and assignment withdrawal intentions, all other dependent variables are not significantly correlated with culture novelty (see Table 7- page 175). General satisfaction correlated negatively with culture novelty ($r=-0.15; p<0.05$) while withdrawal intentions from the assignment correlated positively with culture novelty ($r=0.14; p<0.05$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for the dependent variables (e.g., cross-cultural adjustment, general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions) differed according to culture novelty, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Culture novelty and cross-cultural adjustment

According to Table 54, mean scores for expatriates and repatriates dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment do not significantly differ according to culture novelty.

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ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	.948	1	.948	.532	.467
		Within Groups	292.616	164	1.784		
		Total	293.564	165			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	2.538	1	2.538	1.170	.281
		Within Groups	355.813	164	2.170		
		Total	358.351	165			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	1.661	1	1.661	1.065	.304
		Within Groups	255.794	164	1.560		
		Total	257.455	165			
Repatriation	WORK ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	.696	1	.696	.435	.513
		Within Groups	84.879	53	1.601		
		Total	85.576	54			
	INTERACTION ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	.100	1	.100	.036	.849
		Within Groups	145.620	53	2.748		
		Total	145.720	54			
	GENERAL ADJUSTMENT	Between Groups	.050	1	.050	.026	.873
		Within Groups	101.823	53	1.921		
		Total	101.872	54			

Table 54 - Appendix VI: Cross-cultural adjustment ANOVA by culture novelty.

These findings do not support hypothesis H1E and H1R, which assume a negative association between culture novelty and (a) work adjustment, (b) interaction adjustment and (c) general adjustment. The literature would have foreseen that high cultural differences between home and host countries would lead to high difficulties to adjust. The results obtained for work, interaction and general adjustment were not statistically significant and correlations were close to zero (see Table 7, Table 8 and Table 9).

Culture novelty and general satisfaction

In relation to general satisfaction, the following table shows that even if satisfaction is higher when culture novelty is low ($r=-0.15$; $p<0.05$), there are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction, related with culture novelty.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	.147	1	.147	.151	.698
	Within Groups	158.615	164	.967		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	2.060	1	2.060	2.568	.115
	Within Groups	42.517	53	.802		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 55 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by culture novelty.

Culture novelty and withdrawal intentions

Finally, expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions differences were determined, according to culture novelty, as shown in the following table. As indicated in Table 56, even if expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions are lower when culture novelty is low, there are no significant differences related with culture novelty.

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	.936	1	.936	.663	.417
		Within Groups	231.441	164	1.411		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	.547	1	.547	.358	.550
		Within Groups	250.481	164	1.527		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	.022	1	.022	.017	.895
		Within Groups	206.481	164	1.259		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	1.661	1	1.661	1.143	.290
		Within Groups	76.998	53	1.453		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	2.160	1	2.160	1.430	.237
		Within Groups	80.034	53	1.510		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	2.319	1	2.319	1.404	.241
		Within Groups	87.568	53	1.652		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 56 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by culture novelty.

Comparison of mean score differences of general satisfaction according to cross-cultural adjustment

Based on correlational results, significant positive correlations existed between general satisfaction and work adjustment ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$) between general satisfaction and interaction adjustment ($r=0.26$; $p<0.01$), and between general satisfaction and general adjustment ($r=0.33$; $p<0.01$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for general satisfaction differed according to each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Work adjustment and general satisfaction

As indicated in Table 57, there are significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction, according to their level of work adjustment. The level of general satisfaction is significantly different (and higher) with work adjustment, for both samples (respectively $F=3.179$; $p<0.001$; $F=3.396$; $p<0.01$).

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	42.468	17	2.498	3.179	.000
	Within Groups	116.293	148	.786		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	21.952	12	1.829	3.396	.002
	Within Groups	22.625	42	.539		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 57 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by work adjustment.

Interaction adjustment and general satisfaction

As indicated in Table 58, there are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction, according to their level of interaction adjustment. Even if general satisfaction is higher with interaction adjustment, these differences are not statistically significant for both samples.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	32.776	24	1.366	1.528	.067
	Within Groups	125.985	141	.894		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	21.562	21	1.027	1.472	.156
	Within Groups	23.015	33	.697		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 58 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by interaction adjustment.

General adjustment and general satisfaction

As indicated in Table 59, there are significant differences on expatriates' general satisfaction, according to their level of general adjustment ($F=2.386$; $p<0.01$). The level of expatriates' general satisfaction is significantly different (and higher) with general adjustment. However, for repatriates, the existing differences are not statistically significant.

ANOVA

GENERAL SATISFACTION

Type of Assignment		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	Between Groups	63.466	36	1.763	2.386	.000
	Within Groups	95.296	129	.739		
	Total	158.761	165			
Repatriation	Between Groups	23.651	26	.910	1.217	.305
	Within Groups	20.926	28	.747		
	Total	44.577	54			

Table 59 - Appendix VI: General satisfaction ANOVA by general adjustment.

These findings, together with correlational analyses, revealed a positive and significant association between expatriates work adjustment and general satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$) and between general adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction ($r=0.35$; $p<0.01$), which support hypotheses H6E and H8E. These hypotheses assumed a positive association between work adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction (H6E) and between general adjustment and expatriates' satisfaction (H8E). While zero-order correlations revealed a positive and significant association between interaction adjustment and general expatriates' satisfaction ($r=0.26$; $p<0.01$), one-way analyses (ANOVA) do not support hypothesis H7E, which assumed a positive relationship between expatriates' interaction adjustment and general satisfaction.

Regarding repatriates, one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) only confirmed significant differences on repatriates' general satisfaction, related with work adjustment. Therefore, only hypothesis H6R, which assumes a positive association between work adjustment and repatriates' general satisfaction, is supported. Hypotheses H7R and H8R, which state a positive and significant association between interaction and general adjustment and repatriates satisfaction are not supported by the one-way analyses.

Comparison of mean score differences of withdrawal intentions according to cross-cultural adjustment

Based on correlational results, withdrawal intentions correlated negatively and modestly with the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment (see Table 7 - page 175). Significant negative correlations existed between work and general adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the assignment (respectively $r=-0.24$; $p<0.01$ and $r=-0.21$; $p<0.01$).

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Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for withdrawal intentions differed according to each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment, several one-way analyses (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in the following sections.

Work adjustment and withdrawal intentions

According to Table 60, only expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions differ significantly with work adjustment ($F=2.597$; $p<0.01$). Expatriates' intentions to withdraw from the assignment are significantly lower with work adjustment.

			ANOVA				
Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	53.390	17	3.141	2.597	.001
		Within Groups	178.988	148	1.209		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	34.911	17	2.054	1.406	.141
		Within Groups	216.117	148	1.460		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	31.092	17	1.829	1.543	.087
		Within Groups	175.411	148	1.185		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	14.411	12	1.201	.785	.662
		Within Groups	64.247	42	1.530		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	21.117	12	1.760	1.210	.308
		Within Groups	61.077	42	1.454		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	28.525	12	2.377	1.627	.121
		Within Groups	61.362	42	1.461		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 60 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by work adjustment.

Interaction adjustment and withdrawal intentions

According to Table 61, there are no significant differences on expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions according with interaction adjustment.

			ANOVA				
Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	38.079	24	1.587	1.151	.298
		Within Groups	194.299	141	1.378		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	33.411	24	1.392	.902	.599
		Within Groups	217.618	141	1.543		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	26.128	24	1.089	.851	.667
		Within Groups	180.375	141	1.279		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	24.996	21	1.190	.732	.771
		Within Groups	53.663	33	1.626		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	15.959	21	.760	.379	.989
		Within Groups	66.235	33	2.007		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	24.411	21	1.162	.586	.900
		Within Groups	65.476	33	1.984		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 61 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by interaction adjustment.

General adjustment and withdrawal intentions

According to Table 62, only expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions differ significantly with general adjustment ($F=1.816$; $p<0.01$). Expatriates' intentions to withdraw from the assignment are significantly lower with general adjustment.

ANOVA

Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	78.153	36	2.171	1.816	.008
		Within Groups	154.225	129	1.196		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	64.004	36	1.778	1.226	.204
		Within Groups	187.024	129	1.450		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	37.984	36	1.055	.808	.768
		Within Groups	168.520	129	1.306		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	35.251	26	1.356	.875	.633
		Within Groups	43.407	28	1.550		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	30.753	26	1.183	.644	.869
		Within Groups	51.441	28	1.837		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	35.770	26	1.376	.712	.807
		Within Groups	54.117	28	1.933		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 62 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by general adjustment.

Based on the before mentioned results, only expatriates' assignment withdrawal intentions differ significantly with work and general adjustment. No significant differences exist for organization and occupation withdrawal intentions related with expatriates and repatriates' level of cross-cultural adjustment. These findings together with zero-order correlations, which revealed a significant and negative association between expatriates' assignment withdrawal and work adjustment ($r=-0.27$; $p<0.01$) and between assignment withdrawal and general adjustment ($r=-0.21$; $p<0.01$), support hypothesis H9Ea) and H11Ea).

Hypotheses H9Eb) and c) and H11Eb) and c) which assume a negative association between expatriates' work and general adjustment and withdrawal intentions from the organization and the occupation are not supported. Hypotheses H9R, H10R and H11R, which assume a negative association between repatriates' cross-cultural adjustment and repatriates' withdrawal intentions are not supported either.

Comparison of mean score differences of withdrawal intentions according to general satisfaction

Based on correlational results, general satisfaction correlated negatively and significantly with the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions (see Table 7 - page 175). Significant negative correlations existed between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the assignment ($r=-0.52$, $p<0.01$); between general satisfaction and organization withdrawal intentions ($r=-0.44$; $p<0.01$), and between general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the occupation ($r=-0.30$; $p<0.01$).

Therefore, to determine whether mean scores for withdrawal intentions differed according to general satisfaction, several one-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were run. The results are presented in Table 63.

			ANOVA				
Type of Assignment			Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Expatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	89.032	18	4.946	5.072	.000
		Within Groups	143.345	147	.975		
		Total	232.378	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	69.391	18	3.855	3.120	.000
		Within Groups	181.637	147	1.236		
		Total	251.028	165			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	45.975	18	2.554	2.339	.003
		Within Groups	160.529	147	1.092		
		Total	206.503	165			
Repatriation	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS IA	Between Groups	34.152	15	2.277	1.995	.042
		Within Groups	44.506	39	1.141		
		Total	78.659	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS ORGAN	Between Groups	37.512	15	2.501	2.183	.026
		Within Groups	44.682	39	1.146		
		Total	82.194	54			
	WITHDRAWAL INTENTIONS OCCUPATION	Between Groups	33.641	15	2.243	1.555	.133
		Within Groups	56.246	39	1.442		
		Total	89.887	54			

Table 63 - Appendix VI: Withdrawal intentions ANOVA by general satisfaction.

As indicated in Table 63, significant score mean differences exist for expatriates and repatriates' withdrawal intentions, according to their level of general satisfaction. Expatriates intentions to withdraw from the assignment, the organization and occupation are significantly lower when general satisfaction is high (respectively $F=5.072$; $p<0.01$; $F=3.120$; $p<0.01$ and $F=2.339$; $p<0.01$). Similarly, repatriates intentions to withdraw from the assignment and the organization are lower when repatriates' general satisfaction is high ($F=1.995$; $p<0.05$ and $F=2.183$; $p<0.05$).

APPENDIX VI - Comparison of mean differences of Study II

Similar to correlational findings, which revealed moderated negative correlations between the three dimensions of withdrawal intentions and expatriates and repatriates' general satisfaction (see Table 8 and Table 9), these findings support hypotheses H12E and H12Ra) and b). Hypothesis H12Rc) which states a negative association between repatriates' general satisfaction and withdrawal intentions from the occupation is not supported by one-way (ANOVA) analysis.