THE CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT OF HOTEL EXPATRIATES IN MALAYSIA: THE MEDIATING EFFECTS OF COMMUNICATION AND INTERACTION

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Abstract

Despite the abundance of research in the area of expatriation, the growth of hotel industry and the increase in the number of people serving abroad in the industry, there remains a relative lack of empirical research investigating the mediating effects of variables such as communication and interaction on expatriate adjustment. Therefore, the main purpose of this study is to investigate the mediating effects of communication and interaction in the adjustment of hotel expatriates in Malaysia. The study also investigates differences in the patterns of adjustment between organizational expatriates (OEs) and self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). Besides, relationships between individual, organizational and nonwork factors and expatriate adjustment are determined and the most influential predictors of expatriate adjustment are also identified. The U-Curve Theory and Social Learning Theory guided this thesis, which used a survey to measure the attitudes and opinions of the 203 respondents comprised of expatriates working in the Malaysian hotel industry. Multiple statistical tests were used to analyze data and ensure the reliability and validity of the instruments. Results revealed that communication and interaction partially mediated the relationships between individual, organizational and nonwork variables and expatriate adjustment. The results also showed that OEs and SIEs in the hotel industry did not differ significantly in their adjustment but there were significant differences in the pattern of adjustment of expatriates from different regions. Previous international experience, social support and family adjustment showed significant positive relationships with expatriate adjustment. Meanwhile, social support and family adjustment were the most influential predictors of expatriate adjustment. The findings are significant for the industry and also contributed to new empirical findings to the literature on expatriation and cross-cultural adjustment.

Keywords: Expatriate adjustment; Personality; Communication and interaction; Human resource support; Social support

Abstrak

Walaupun banyak kajian telah dijalankan dalam bidang ekspatriasi, pertumbuhan dalam industri perhotelan dan peningkatan bilangan individu yang berkhidmat dalam bidang tersebut di negara asing, masih terdapat kekurangan yang relatif dalam kajian empirikal berkaitan pengaruh pemboleh ubah pengantara (*mediating*) seperti komunikasi dan interaksi ke atas penyesuaian ekspatriat. Oleh itu, tujuan utama kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji pengaruh komunikasi dan interaksi sebagai pengantara ke atas penyesuaian ekspatriat dalam industri perhotelan di Malaysia. Kajian juga bertujuan mengenal pasti perbezaan dalam corak penyesuaian antara ekspatriat yang dihantar oleh organisasi (OEs) dan mereka yang mengambil inisiatif sendiri (SIEs). Selain itu, hubungan di antara faktor individu, organisasi dan yang bukan berkaitan dengan pekerjaan (*nonwork*) dan penyesuaian ekspatriat turut dikaji dan peramal paling berpengaruh di dalam penyesuaian ekspatriat juga dikenalpasti. Teori *U-Curve* dan Teori Pembelajaran Sosial digunakan sebagai panduan kajian yang dijalankan ini. Kaedah tinjauan diguna pakai dan 203 responden yang terdiri daripada ekspatriate yang bekerja dalam industri perhotelan di Malaysia terlibat dalam kajian ini. Pelbagai ujian statistik digunakan untuk menganalisa data dan memastikan kebolehpercayaan dan kesahan setiap instrumen yang diguna pakai. Keputusan menunjukkan bahawa komunikasi dan interaksi hanya bertindak sebagai separa perantara dalam hubungan di antara pembolehubah individu, organisasi dan *nonwork* dan penyesuaian ekspatriat. Keputusan juga menunjukkan bahawa OEs dan SIEs dalam industri perhotelan tidak menunjukkan perbezaan yang signifikan dalam penyesuaian mereka. Bagaimanapun, terdapat perbezaan yang signifikan dalam pola penyesuaian ekspatriat yang berasal dari rantau yang berbeza. Pengalaman antarabangsa, sokongan sosial dan penyesuaian keluarga menunjukkan hubungan positif yang signifikan dengan penyesuaian ekspatriat. Sokongan sosial dan penyesuaian keluarga pula menjadi peramal yang paling berpengaruh dalam penyesuaian ekspatriat. Penemuan ini mempunyai implikasi yang signifikan kepada industri terlibat serta menyumbang kepada penemuan empirikal yang baru dalam literatur berkaitan ekspatriasi dan penyesuaian antara budaya.

Kata Kunci: Penyesuaian ekspatriat, Personaliti, Komunikasi dan interaksi, Sokongan sumber manusia, Sokongan sosial

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List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
BM	Bahasa Malaysia
CAS	Communicative Adaptability Scale
CS	Culture Shock
EPP	Entry Point Project
ETP	Economic Transformation Program
FA	Factor Analysis
FDI	Foreign Direct Investment
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GM	General Manager
GNI	Gross National Income
HCNs	Host-Country Nationals
HRs	Human Resources
HRDF	Human Resource Development Fund
HRM	Human Resource Management
IHR	International Human Resource
IHRM	International Human Resource Management
IJVHCs	International Joint Venture Hotel Companies
JVs	Joint Ventures
KMO	Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin
LEP	Look East Policy
MAHs	Malaysian Association of Hotels
MIDA	Malaysian Industrial Development Authority
MNCs	Multinational Companies
MNHCs	Multinational Hotel Companies
MoF	Ministry of Finance
MTPB	Malaysian Tourism Promotion Board
NEAC	National Economic Advisory Council
NERP	National Economic Recovery Plan
NKEAs	National Key Economic Areas
NKRA	National Key Result Areas
OEs	Organizational Expatriates
PCNs	Parent-Country Nationals
SEA	Southeast Asia
SDs	Standard Deviations
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SIEs	Self-Initiated Expatriates
SLT	Social Learning Theory
SMEs	Small- and Medium-Sized Enterprises
SSS	Social Support Scale
TCNs	Third-Country Nationals
UCT	U-Curve Theory
US	United States
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Advances in modern technologies have significantly reduced the spatial and temporal barriers previously constraining transnational intercourse. As noted by Samovar, Porter and McDaniel (2010), global communication links and its ability to effect rapid, efficient movement of goods globally have created a growing international economic interdependency among countries of the world. Reich (1991) points out that those geographical boundaries are no longer a concern to international business. The process of internationalization and market expansion does not only lead to the transfer of management styles, products and services but also technology, corporate culture, organizational and management policies and practices to its foreign offices (Nickson, 1999). For many companies also the practice is believed to be logical and an unavoidable step in developing their own competitive potential (Harzing & Ruysseveldt, 2004). In hospitality companies for example, even though there are still a huge number of small- and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) that are unlikely to expand their business overseas, many have actually expanded their businesses abroad. Go and Pine (1995) suggest that even in the hotel industry, the weak growth opportunities in the "slow growth" industrial economies are pushing firms to internationalize their business. The expanding markets in the Third World and developing countries for example, have opened up the opportunity for developed nations to expand their markets in that particular region.

As Warner (1996, p. 189) posits, "across the world, HRM has spread its wings and its international pretensions have expanded as so-called globalization has gathered pace." The internationalization of products and services has also led to a large number of people to move and work abroad. The mobility of people around the world is fundamental when conducting business abroad. Copeland and Griggs (1988, p. 52) notes "At the risk of stating the obvious, the essential ingredient in conducting international business is people…having the right people in international assignment". The link between the internationalization process and the increasing levels of expatriation has been widely acknowledged by authors and scholars (Black & Gregersen, 1990; Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall & Stroh, 1999; Brewster & Harris, 1999). The growth in the internationally operating companies has also led to an increase in the use of international employees. This is based on the assumption that as globalization increases, a growing number of business organizations needs to operate internationally (Harzing, 1995; Tung, 1998). Consequently, this also contributes to the growing number of people working across national boundaries.

Of all the international companies, manufacturing is known as the biggest group of companies that go global. The internationalization process of these firms began long ago and the globalization of world market has opened up greater opportunities for them to expand internationally. Besides manufacturing, another sector that is actively competing in the global market is hospitality. It is the largest sub-sector in the tourism industry that is experiencing a rapid growth. By the late 1980s the domestic hospitality market showed signs of saturation and this had led the demand curve for the products and services to start leveling off (Jafari, 2000). Jafari claims that the industry in general, had reached the maturity stage of its life cycle and was actually experiencing limited growth domestically. Besides, competition had also become fierce, suppliers and customers had been gaining power and the supply of labor had been low. These had led many companies within the industry to seek viable ways to survive the economic hardship that they were facing. As a result, the industry has turned to global expansion and this has also marked the emergence of the multinational firms as a means of continual growth and survival.

Consequently, the development in the industry has opened up great opportunities for people who work for the industry to travel and work abroad, either representing the parent company or simply moving to a foreign country to seek employment in the industry. Burns (1997) contends that the market expansion and demand for people to work in the industry especially in Asia enables the industry to expand rapidly. Barber and Pittaway (2000) suggest that due to the labor shortage in this region, expatriates are in demand to support the market expansion of the industry especially at the managerial and operational levels. Beside the need for labor at the two levels, the industry is also facing a labor shortage for semi-skilled and unskilled workers. According to Kusluvan and Karamustafa (2001) in developing nations, the area of training human resources or also referred to as "soft technology" transfer has been identified as the single most important contribution of the multinational hotel companies (MNHCs). Even though Kusluvan and Karamustafa (2001) argue that no available information was found regarding the lack of expertise at the management level in the MNHCs in the region.

However, research has found that expatriates are needed for key management positions if the companies hope to maintain their specific advantages. The lower level employees however, can be trained among local workforce to ensure quality services and competent performance. This was consistent with Dunning (1988) who also expressed the same view about the utilization of expatriates in many MNHCs. In fact, the researcher's initial investigation has also proven that the above pattern of utilization is still evident today. Several MNHCs interviewed have actually utilized the expatriate's know-how especially at the top management level. According to Kusluvan and Karamustafa again, the use of expatriates at the early stage of hotel development might be justified owing to the lack of skilled management personnel and experience mentioned earlier. These expatriates would soon be replaced when qualified HCNs are available. As Jenkins and Henry (1982, p. 512) claim:

> …the use of foreign expertise is often the only means of jumping the development gap between the indigenously available management and technical skills and the level of experience and competence needed to organize and sustain an international industry. In the short term, the use of foreign nationals in the tourist sector must be regarded as one of the costs of development. In the long term, an integral part of development strategy will be, whenever possible, to replace foreign employees by local people.

In 2007, the World Bank Global Links in 2007 (Global Links, 2012) reported that since the last decade, there has been an increase in the number of expatriates internationally due to the global competition. The number of people moving abroad and working across national boundaries has reached almost 190 million. A report by The Mercer Survey also revealed that the number of international employees has doubled between 2005 and 2008. Forty seven per cent of MNCs admitted the increase in deployment of expatriates (with assignment of 1 -5 years). Besides, the survey also revealed that there has been an increase of 38% increase in the numbers of self-initiated individuals moving abroad to seek employment abroad (Top10malaysia.com, 2012).

The market expansion and international competition enable for increased utilization of international employees in the industry. This has sparked discussions on the crucial issue on the appropriate and effective management of expatriates (Li & Tse, 1998, p. 135). As a consequence, there is a crucial need for a better understanding of the adjustment process of these international employees. The issue becomes crucial as research have shown that (see for example Magnini, 2009; Storey, 1992; Tung 1981 & 1987) that failure rates among expatriates are high.

1.2 Problem Statement

The growing tourism trend has allowed for more hotels to be developed in countries all over the world, especially in East Asia Pacific. In Malaysia alone, the data shows that the number of hotels and hotel rooms have increased tremendously compared to 10 years ago (Malaysian Association of Hotels, 2012). For example, a report of hotel stock compiled by the Ministry of Finance (MoF) in 2002 revealed that there were a total of 129,561 hotel rooms available in Malaysia, representing 1,907 hotels in the first quarter of 2002 but as of December 2011, the number of hotels registered had increased to 2,185 with the total rooms of 168,901. The increase will definitely open up opportunities for people to travel and find jobs in the country. Torrington (1994) has also highlighted on hotel development and the growing tourism trend and how this would create job opportunities for people to work in the industry. It is anticipated that those attached to the hotel industry will also face similar problems just as the "mainstream" expatriates, with the only difference being the elimination of the roles played by parent companies in assisting with the relocation of expatriates. Hence, it is strongly believed that this group of expatriates also deserves some attention and recognition.

Studies on expatriate adjustment have shown the association between cultural environment and adjustment and how the relationship can affect the individual adjustment as well as work attitudes and behaviors (i.e. Selmer, 2001; Yavas & Bodur, 1999). For example, expatriates who are able to adjust to a new cultural environment are found to be more open to the new culture, are able to adjust their behaviors, norms and rules effectively to the new environment (Church, 1982). On the other hand, maladjusted expatriates will experience anxiety which leads to a number of problems associated with the move such as those related to social and work performance, which consequently lead to lack of satisfaction (Russ & McNeilly, 1995; Suutari & Tornikoski, 2001), to the extent that it leads to premature return to the home country (Harzing, 1995). Therefore, it is important for more studies to be conducted to enhance our understanding of the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment.

While it is acknowledged that there has been quite an extensive research on expatriate per se and more specifically on the factors that may facilitate or inhibit expatriate adjustment, especially during the periods of 1990s and early 2000, reviews of the expatriation literature reveal that there still exists certain gaps and weaknesses in the present literature.

First, reviews of the literature have shown that despite the abundance of research in the area of expatriation, the growth in hotel industry and the increase in the number of people serving abroad in the industry, there remains a relative lack of empirical research investigating the phenomenon of adjustment among the expatriates attached to the industry. Although Shay and Tracey (1997) had long ago argued that research that looked at expatriate adjustment did not actually include hospitality practitioners, until today, there are still very limited works have been conducted and published on hotel expatriates (Causin, Ayoun & Moreo, 2011). It is worth noting that these studies had focused on expatriate per se, rather than the more specific cause of adjustment. This usually leads to an over-generalization of data which are usually made based on certain group of expatriates such as American, Japanese or European expatriates (i.e. Black & Stephens, 1989; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Harvey, 1995; Selmer, 1999a & 2001).

Reviews of the literature (i.e. Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1999; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992a; Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique & Burgi, 2001; Kittler, Rygl, Mackinnon & Wiedemann, 2011; Linehan & Scullion, 2001; Palthe, 2008; Selmer, 2002; Selmer & Lauring, 2011) have also proven that researchers seem to be more interested in studying expatriate managers in MNCs from various other industries especially manufacturing, engineering and academics. Even though these researchers have already studied various areas of expatriate adjustment, it is likely that the findings from studies of expatriates in hotel industry would yield different results as hotel expatriates are rather different than those of other industries. Due to the nature of their work, where they are more exposed to people of diverse cultural background, they may require different skills and attribute. For example, while Shay and Tracey agree with Tung (1981) that attributes such as adaptability, flexibility and good communication skills may be desirable for general expatriates, the nature of the hotel industry requires the expatriates in that industry to acquire good interpersonal and relational skills. They must also be more sensitive and flexible toward the new cultural environment.

Secondly, it was also found that most of past research had the tendency to concentrate on homogeneous cultures such as Hong Kong, China, Japan and North America as assignment destinations. As argued by Kittler et al. (2011), studies on expatriates in Asian countries (homogeneous culture) seem to have dominated past research efforts. In addition, scholars and researchers had also studied the adjustment of expatriates in developed, multiracial countries like North America (Black, 1990a, 1990b) and homogeneous cultures like Japan, China and Hong Kong (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991a; Selmer, 2001), as well as those originated from a single country like North America or Japan (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Myers & Pringle, 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer, 2001). While it is acknowledged that there has been research conducted on expatriates originating from a number of different countries locating in a single location (see for example, Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer, 2001; Shaffer, Gregersen, Harrison, Black & Ferzandi, 2006; Shaffer, Harrison & Gilley, 1999), these research however, did not look at the difference in adjustment of expatriates to the country of assignment.

As the reviews revealed, empirical studies comparing adjustment of expatriates in a developing, multiracial country are still scarce. Copeland and Griggs (1985, p. xix) note that “almost 20 to 50 per cent of international relocations end with premature return” and in developing countries, the failure rate has shown to increase to almost 70 per cent. Among the reasons attributed to higher failure rates, especially among American expatriates are failures of both the expatriates and their family to adapt to the new environment as well as other family-related problems. The higher failure rate in developing countries is described as rather frightening as this is the region where the most “attractive” and “growing” countries of the world are located (Shay & Tracey, 1997, p. 32). Even though failure rates among organizational expatriates (OEs) sent to a developed country are also high (25 to 40 per cent), the figures however, are still low compared to the failure rate among expatriates sent to developing countries. It is therefore believed that there is a crucial need for more research to be conducted in investigating the phenomenon in a developing multicultural society like Malaysia.

Thirdly, while the literature on OEs are now abundance and the phenomenon is now becoming well-understood, another group of expatriates which offers an alternative for research and understanding is explored, that of those who travel abroad to find job opportunities, experiences and challenges. This group of individual expatriate has been traveling all over the world for quite some time and their numbers continue to increase. Myers and Pringle (2005) however argue that although the number has increased and they serve important roles in fulfilling the need of the market expansion, little is known about them. Inkson, Pringle, Arthur and Barry (1997) pioneered the research on this group of expatriates or referred as self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) but only in recent years the number has shown to increase. However, the number of research focusing on this group is still scarce (refer Myers & Pringle, 2005; Richardson, 2006; Richardson & Mallon, 2005; Selmer & Lauring, 2011) and mostly, research on SIEs looked at those in other industries, especially academic and not in hotel industry even though for individual hospitality expatriates, many are attached to the hotel industry. Even though it is acknowledged that there was a research that distinguished OEs and SIEs in terms of adjustment (see for example, Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), the research focuses specifically on expatriates' adjustment to work and life of general and academic expatriates in Japan. Even though researchers (see for example Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009) provide a clear distinction between the two groups of expatriates, especially in conceptual and empirical accounts, SIEs are often being discussed and examined together with OEs with a possibly misleading empirical outcomes. If no distinction is made between the two groups of expatriates and across the industry and data consists mostly of OEs in manufacturing and other business-related industries, findings of research are less likely to reflect accurate data about the adjustment of SIEs.

Finally, past research (i.e. Black & Gregersen 1999; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992a; Selmer, 1999a, 1999b, 1999c & 2001) also had the tendency to look at limited antecedents (i.e. only personality, nonwork or organizational factors or a combination of a few), with the exception of Shaffer et al. (1999) who investigated the determinants of adjustment more comprehensively in 45 different countries that host MNCs. The findings have led researchers to generalize the antecedents of adjustment across industry without considering the differences that could exist in expatriates in hotel industry. Even though research in expatriation have long studied the direct effects of certain variables on expatriate adjustment, very few had studied the moderating or mediating effects of certain variables in the relationships between independent variables and expatriate adjustment (i.e. Kraimer, Wayne & Jaworski, 2001; Lee & Sukoco, 2008; Palthe, 2008; Selmer & Lauring, 2011; Shaffer et al. 1999; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). As communication was found to be important in expatriate adjustment, the present research believes that it is worth to investigate the role of communication and interaction as a mediating variable in expatriate adjustment. This variable was previously studied as an independent variable that contributed to a direct effect on expatriate adjustment.

Based on these arguments, it is obvious that an empirical study which include a wider group of expatriates and regions is therefore justified In an attempt to bridge the gaps that exist in the present literature, the arguments posed important justification for the present study to be conducted. The Economic Transformation Program (ETP) that the Malaysian government introduced in 2010 has also emphasized on the utilization of foreign talent to build their careers in the country as many entry point projects (EPPs) from many National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs) require foreign talent (PEMANDU report, 2012). A report by the Malaysian Industrial Development Authority (MIDA) (2009) reveals that Malaysia is one of the leading investment destinations in South East Asian (SEA). The government’s policy has clearly indicated that the number of expatriates will continue to increase especially in oil and gas, manufacturing and engineering sectors. The government through its ETP has acknowledged the needs of expatriates for EPPs and other business. In relation to that, actions will be taken to attract more expatriates to come and work in the country. For example, immigration rules would be eased to facilitate the entry to the country. The government hopes that the expatriates would contribute their talents in technical, critical thinking and leadership skills toward the development of the country through various business opportunities and the non-NKEA projects. The latest statistics show that there are about 35, 583 expatriates now residing and working in Malaysia (Malaysia, 2008). The increase in the number of expatriates residing in the country has supported for further research to be conducted on this group. This will further enhance our understanding of how they adjust to a developing, multicultural society. Moreover, with the exception to Mohd. Tahir and Ismail (2007) who investigated cross-cultural challenges, Sri Ramalu, Raduan, Jegak and Naresh (2010) on personality and cross-cultural adjustment and (Miranda, 2009) on expatriates' learning style, no similar study on expatriates in Malaysia has been published. Therefore, it is strongly believed that expatriates in Malaysia is worth investigating, particularly when the country is moving and developing fast toward achieving Vision 2020.

1.3 Research Questions

From the discussion presented above, it is obvious that there appears to be several issues pertaining to expatriation, which require further investigations. Taking that into consideration, the present research hopes to bridge the gaps and further enhances the knowledge on expatriation. The following research questions are then formulated and it is hoped that the questions help to answer questions pertaining to expatriate adjustment and hence, bridge the gap that exists from past studies.

1. Are there any significant differences in the adjustment of OEs and SIEs in hotel industry?

2. Are there any significant differences in the adjustment of expatriates from different regions?

3. Are there any relationships between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment?

4. What are the most influential predictors of expatriate adjustment in Malaysia?

5. Does communication and interaction mediates the relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment?

1.4 Objectives of the Study

The research questions provided earlier are used in guiding the research to achieve several objectives. Basically, the research hopes:

1. To examine the differences in adjustment between OEs and SIEs in hotel industry.

2. To identify whether there are any significant differences in the adjustment of expatriates from different regions.

3. To investigate the relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

4. To identify the most influential predictors of expatriate adjustment.

5. To examine the mediation effects of communication and interaction on the relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

1.5 Significance of the Study

The present study which examines the determinants of expatriate adjustment in the Malaysian hotel industry offers a number of theoretical and practical significance. As mentioned earlier, the success of expatriation assignment is very much influenced by the ability of the expatriates to cross-culturally adjust to the new environment. Research has indicated that cross-cultural adjustment is positively related to the expatriate's performance on the assignment and negatively related to expatriate failure. Therefore, research investigating the factors inhibiting and facilitating cross-cultural adjustment has received great attention from scholars and practitioners in areas such as organizational and intercultural communication as well as international human resource management (IHRM).

These three areas of studies are significantly related especially when globalization has enabled companies to expand across national boundaries and encouraged more people to move and work in different countries. The mobility of people across national boundaries would require them to adjust and adapt to the new cultural environment and at the same time it would also mean that cross-cultural communication and interaction will exist either in the social or work environment. The adjustment to the new cultural environment will increase the intercultural contacts among the people of the host country. Certainly, intercultural communication is difficult. Even if the natural barrier of a language is overcome, people still fail to understand each other and those who move to a new culture will still need to put more efforts toward understanding the culture and the process of adjustment.

Scholars in the area of adjustment are very much influenced by the positivist approach especially when they adopt theories such as Social Learning Theory (SLT) and U-Curve Theory (UCT) in guiding their works. By studying expatriate adjustment in Malaysia, the study poses its own significance. First, the knowledge obtained from this research will help people to be more aware of the cross-cultural challenges in Malaysia. The knowledge of expatriate cross-cultural adjustment from this study will contribute further to intercultural, organizational and international human resource management literature. Although there has been much scholarly research in the area of adjustment, the knowledge about the subjects is still limited especially on the adjustment of SIEs. The dissemination of information obtained from this study will help materialized Black et al.'s (1992a) claim that the information about expatriation is not widely disseminated to the key players in international operations whereas they are the ones who could possibly benefit the most. The integration of information obtained from the present study and the existing literature on cross-cultural adjustment in the three areas mentioned earlier will provide a useful theoretical and applied knowledge on expatriate adjustment.

From the theoretical perspective, the research attempts to further shift the focus from the mainstream research which examines OEs adjustment to possible differences between OEs and SIEs adjustment in a multicultural society. The findings will help enrich the knowledge about SIEs adjustment discussed from the perspectives of SLT and UCT. Besides, it will extend from the initial knowledge about SIEs characteristics, international career to cross-cultural adjustment as it does not only look at the mainstream OEs but also on SIEs, specifically those in hotel industry (instead of those in the mainstream

MNCs and academic expatriates). The theories used in guiding the research helps explained the process of cross-cultural adjustment of these expatriates.

Third, the comprehensive variable investigated in the present study would also provide empirical knowledge that integrates the information on determinants and predictors of adjustment in Malaysian hotel industry. The role of communication and interaction as a mediating variable between the independent and dependent variables will significantly contribute to new findings in cross-cultural adjustment.

From the practical point of view, the research will help expatriates as well as the MNCs, MNHCs and international joint-venture hotel companies (IJVHCs) to be more aware of the importance of cross-cultural adjustment. The knowledge gained from the study can help create awareness among expatriates, as well as the organizations that they represent, of the problems and impacts toward successful adjustment. Consequently, this will enable organizations to enhance their understanding of expatriate problems and characteristics which could help them cope with the new working environment. The knowledge will enable these organizations to consider how to develop strategies to overcome the problems by designing proper training methods and identifying effective methods of screening the candidates for expatriation. The effective management of expatriates in MNHCs is crucial to the organizations success and as many has suggested, the inability to effectively manage expatriates has been correlated positively with the organization's failure (Hoecklin, 1995; McCaughey & Bruning, 2005). The knowledge will also create awareness among them of the factors that greatly affect as well as predict expatriate adjustment. Besides, the information can also guide the hotel companies of a more suitable training and preparations for the deployment. This will enable them to predict the fit between expatriates and cross-cultural adjustment.

Finally, besides the expatriates, the MNHCs and IJVHCs, the findings will also be equally applicable and beneficial to Malaysian policy makers especially the government and specific ministries and departments such as the Ministry of Tourism, Ministry of Higher Education and the Department of Immigration. The Ministry of Tourism for example, can coordinate their efforts with the Department of Immigration in terms of working visa and permit to work in the country. This can help facilitate expatriate adjustment to the new environment. The government, especially the Public Services Department and the Ministry of Higher Education can be more aware of the importance of cross-cultural adjustment, appropriate selection of candidate and the appropriate training needed when sending staff and students abroad.

As hotel expatriates often hold management positions, their ability to adjust can affect their work performance, which indirectly will also affect the hotel management and operation. The awareness and understanding can help for appropriate measures to be taken to assist expatriates in their adjustment during the assignment and ensure success of expatriation.

1.6 Definition of Terms

As the subject of expatriation involves the use of many conceptual terms, it is important for the thesis to define and elaborate on terms that are considered crucial to the present work. This is crucial as clear definitions of concepts will help the researcher to identify the right path for the present research.

1.6.1 Expatriate

As discussed, some expatriates move to a foreign country to represent the parent company (OEs) and this assignment usually takes place for a period of time. Some, on the other hand, may voluntarily move to work in another country (SIEs). However, despite their notable differences, both groups of expatriates are seldom distinguished. Simply, SIE refers to "any person who is hired on a contractual basis and not transferred overseas by the parent organization" (Lee, 2005, p. 173).

Besides the definition which clearly distinguished the differences between the two groups, scholars have also offered various definitions to describe expatriates in general. For example, Mendenhall and Wiley (1994, p. 605) define an expatriate as "someone who leaves the country of one's birth or official residence and travels to another country to take up residence…." Barber and Pittaway (2000, p. 352) who conducted a study on recruitment strategies of expatriates in MNHCs in Southeast Asian countries define an expatriate as "an employee who has spent the majority of his (her) career working on temporary and/or semi-permanent assignment in overseas locations." The employee, according to them, is the individual who left their country of birth to work in another country, although they do not stay permanently in the country that they work in. Expatriates in their study include employees of all positions, working at various levels in the hotel operation. Selmer (2001, p. 554) however, provides a more precise definition of an expatriate. According to Selmer, an expatriate is “an employee of an organization who is sent on a temporary work assignment in another country from their home country”. In Selmer’s study, “an employee” was referred to the group of expatriate managers from North America and Western Europe who were on a foreign assignment in China. In general, Torrington (1994) describes expatriates as people who may face significant problems in the process of expatriation.

Thus, for the purpose of this thesis, an expatriate is simply someone who moves to take up a temporary or semi-permanent assignment in the hotel industry in a foreign country. This definition includes both the employee who is sent abroad by their parent company (MNHCs and IJVHCs) and also those who seek employment, either at managerial or non-managerial positions in MNHCs and IJVHCs in a foreign country. Even though foreign assignments usually take place between two and five years for most companies but for most lodging companies, the assignment is usually about two to three years (Firth, 1981). This is also consistent with a comment made by Andrew Davison from “Expat KL” an expatriate association based in Kuala Lumpur. In his e-mail, Davison (2010) notes that the assignments for hotel expatriates are often shorter than expatriates in other industries. Davison further noted that the job of hotel expatriates is more time consuming than other expatriate employments. They often have to work late into the night, particularly the General Managers (GMs) and chefs. Most often, they live in the property. Even though the period of assignments for hotel expatriates is rather short, it will of course provide a valuable experience to them.

1.6.2 Adjustment

Scholars (see for example Haslberger, 2005; McKenna, 2010) suggest that sojourners will constantly negotiate and try to make sense of what they see in the new environment. This will enable them to cope with, adapt to and adjust successfully to that environment The concept of adjustment is regarded as a critical concept in the expatriation process in the sense that it determines the success or failure of expatriation or a sojourn (Aycan, 1997). Church (1982) argues that there are problems with the definition and operationalization of the term adjustment. This is evident from past studies which operationalized adjustment in a variety of ways such as nature and extent of interaction with host nationals (Sewell & Davidsen, 1961), psychological mood (Klineberg & Hull, 1979), the level of comfort that sojourners experience (Ruben & Kealey, 1979) and the amount of contact they have with host nationals (Hull, 1978). Black and Mendenhall (1991) believe that the variation that exists in the definition and operationalization of adjustment could have led to the differences in research findings thus making it difficult for comparative purposes. Beside the various ways in which scholars have defined adjustment, there are also problems associated with the term itself. Church's (1982) argument is appropriate as the many terms used in describing adjustment could potentially lead to confusion, though generally, they still point to the same meaning.

To date, the concepts of adjustment, adaptation and cross-cultural adjustment have been used to describe the situation that sojourners experience as they move a new environment. According to Kim (1991, p. 268) adaptation simply means, "the individual's capacity to suspend or modify some of the old cultural ways, to learn and accommodate some of the new cultural ways, and to creatively find ways to manage the dynamics of cultural difference/unfamiliarity, intergroup posture, and the accompanying stress." In other words, this is an individual's capability to change (physically and psychologically) and adjust according to the need of the new environment. Moreover, cultural adjustment refers to an individuals' ability to adjust to a new cultural environment that is often regarded as challenging. Those who enter a new culture ed on generally experience similar emotions as they seek to adjust. Even though various definitions of the concepts of adjustment and cultural adjustment have been offered, these definitions actually point to the same problem and the ways in which scholars define the terms have also been consistent over the last four decades.

Adjustment has traditionally been conceptualized in two ways (Black (1990a). First, it is seen as the psychological comfort, which describes the degree of familiarity that one has for the new environment that he/she is in. This is usually measured by the degree of satisfaction that one feels toward the new culture. Second, it is more toward the performance, which is based on a rating by an independent source. Regardless of how it is defined, the definitions of adjustment are still centered on the "psychological comfort" that an expatriate or other sojourners has with the various aspects of a host culture. According to Black and Gregersen (1991a) the feeling of comfort emerges when uncertainty is reduced. This can be achieved through behavioral learning of what is appropriate and inappropriate when one is in a new cultural environment. Clearly, whether it is adaptation, adjustment or cultural adjustment, the fact is that it still points to the same phenomenon. Therefore in this thesis, adaptation, adjustment, cultural adjustment and cross-cultural adjustment will be used interchangeably to describe expatriate adjustment in a foreign country. As for the present study, the concept of adjustment is conceptualized based on Mahajan's (2009) work where adjustment is viewed as the desire to learn acceptable behaviors of the host culture and the sense of comfort in performing various roles in both work and nonwork domains while one stays and works in a country other than his/her own. Generally, the review of the literature shows that most of the theoretical foundation for adjustment and cultural adjustment research is actually based on Oberg's (1960) work on cultural adjustment. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1962) and Torbiorn (1982) later came up with more contributions to the area.

1.6.3 Expatriate Adjustment

As it is now clear of what constitutes an expatriate and adjustment, the discussion now turns to what expatriate adjustment really is. Yavas and Bodur (1999) claim that expatriate adjustment is rather a subset of cultural adjustment. The criteria that are often used to evaluate expatriate success include the ability to adjust, complete the assignment and perform successfully during the assignment (Caligiuri, 1997). This is consistent with McEvoy and Parker (1995) who note that cross-cultural adjustment can facilitate expatriate performance and lead toward successful expatriation.

Mendenhall and Wiley (1994, p. 607) provide a detail description of what constitutes expatriate adjustment. They describe expatriate adjustment as:

> When an individual leaves a familiar setting and enters an unfamiliar one, old routines are upset thus creating psychological uncertainty…This triggers a desire to reduce the uncertainty inherent in the new setting, especially regarding new behaviors that might be required or unexpected…to the extent that various factors either increase or decrease uncertainty, they either inhibit or facilitate expatriate adjustment.

Mendenhall and Wiley also believe that in order to reduce the pain and uncertainty of being in a new culture, expatriates will have to employ appropriate strategies in dealing with those challenges. It is suggested that these strategies can range from:

> …diligently attempting to learn the whole new set of social norms, values, and behaviors and attempting to adapt individual behavior to fit the normative behavioral requirements of the host culture to remaining fixed in one's own preferred cognitive and behavioral repertoire and refusing to make any sort of adjustment to the norms of the host culture (p. 607).

Sinangil and Ones (2001) define expatriate adjustment as the psychological comfort that individuals experience towards the host culture in which they have to work. In essence successful adjustment is described as a state of "homeostasis" (Torbiorn, 1982), whereby an individual feels comfortable towards the new environment and this leads him/her to function effectively and succeed the assignment. Torbiorn's description of expatriate adjustment is considered by the present study.

The concepts that have been discussed are crucial in discussing expatriate adjustment, as they would enhance our understanding of the factors that facilitate successful adjustment.

In relation to that, Feldman and Thomas (1991, p. 277) identify several criteria that relate to successful adjustment:

- performance at the expected level of quality and quantity;
- endurance until the end of the assignment;
- ability to develop constructive relations with the members of the host society;
- moderate level of stress to function effectively; and
- positive attitude toward work.

In general, it is obvious that the ability to adjust ones behavior to function appropriately in the host culture serves as the main factor that determines the effectiveness of expatriate adjustment.

1.6.4 Communication and Interaction

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) argued that communicative ability is crucial in cross-cultural adjustment. Communication and interaction with people of the host culture is a requirement that is common to most of the activities that are taking place in foreign assignments and this have been acknowledged in literature. Active interaction and communication with the hosts, either at work or outside work will ensure that the expatriate and organization's objectives are fulfilled.

Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) describe communicative ability as the ability to initiate a conversation with the host, communicate meaningfully with them and deal successfully without wrongful interpretation of meaning. In contrast, Duran (1983, p. 320), describes the concept as "the ability to perceive socio-interpersonal relationships and adapt one's interaction goals and behaviors accordingly." The construct describes the social communication competence of sojourners. It combines elements such as social skills, interpersonal, linguistic, communicative and relational competences. Taking the definitions into consideration, being competent in communication and interaction is the expatriate's communicative ability to the surrounding environment and their willingness to communicate and interact with people of the host culture in various social situations, either in a group or interpersonal setting.

1.6.5 Personality

Buss (1989) claims that an individual's personality often predisposes an individual to behave in certain ways in a particular situation to help that person to achieve his/her objectives. This leads researchers to anticipate that an individual's personality lays an important role in determining successful adjustment and expatriation. For example, Kealey and Ruben (1983) reveal that there is empirical evidence that proves the relationship between some personality traits and expatriate adjustment. Among the personality traits that have received wider research attention are the big five personality traits (further discussions in Chapter 2).

Another personality variable that has been proposed and tested is self-efficacy. However, although scholars (see Black et al., 1991; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993), have included the variable in their model of adjustment and transition studies, the variable has not been widely investigated as a predictor of adjustment to international adjustment. Besides, it has also not been widely discussed within the literature. As this skill is crucial in overseas assignment, the research hopes that the focus of studying how self-efficacy helps expatriates to adjust to a foreign environment will help extend the knowledge on the importance of this variable. Literature suggests that the self-efficacy emerged from Social Learning Theory (SLT) proposed by Bandura (1977), where it explains the degree of confidence one has in accomplishing a task. Black et al. (1992a, p. 96) define self-efficacy as “the degree to which one believes that one can successfully execute a particular behavior” or simply an individual level of self-confidence. However, the definition of self-efficacy proposed by Sherer, Maddux, Mercandante, Prentice-Dunn, Jacobs and Rogers (1982) fits the operationalization of the term used in this research. Sherer et al. (1982) describe it as a person’s positive and negative experience about being in a culture, which eventually influence the person’s expectation when they enter a new cultural environment.

1.6.6 Language Ability

The knowledge of local language helps people to move around as it enables people to communicate and interact with host nationals. In this study, language ability refers to the degree of fluency of the language of the country of assignment that enables expatriates to perform successfully. This includes the knowledge of the local language and the ability to use the language in the expatriate’s daily interaction with people of the host country. Building from that, it can be safe to assume that if an expatriate has the ability to understand the language of the host country, it would certainly facilitate their inly adjustment. Bjorkman and Gertsen (1992) posit that to a certain extent, host country language proficiency can an advantage to companies expanding their business in a foreign country.

As described by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985), an expatriate's ability to communicate and interact using the host language can greatly affect their adjustment. It doesn't need them to be fluent in the language but their confidence and willingness to communicate using the host language will certainly ease their adjustment. In conjunction to that, there is another view which suggests that knowing some words of the local language would already help the expatriates to gain "a sense of safety and self-assurance", as this shows that at the very least it reveals that efforts are made to learn the local language (Copeland & Griggs, 1985, p. 113).

1.6.7 Previous International Experience

Previous international experience refers to the expatriate's experience of being and working abroad prior to the present assignment. Literature suggests that previous international experience helps expatriates in their adjustment process as it enables them to anticipate and predict the culture of the host country such as the physical and lifestyle aspects (Black et al., 1991). Those who have experience being in a foreign country are able to separate the effective and ineffective coping behaviors and this allow them to separate the behaviors that worked and had not worked for them. As for those who are sojourning for the first time, they may require more support from those around them, either at work or at home, as compared to those who have past experience of being abroad (Shaffer et al., 1999). Black et al. (1992a) argued that the more experience the expatriates have with a certain country or culture, the more they can use the experience in adapting to the various challenges in the new country.

1.6.8 Training

Mead (1998) suggests that there are four categories of training that an expatriate need to go through prior to their assignment, namely, technical training, management training, cross-cultural training and language training. For the purpose of this research, training refers to any type of training expatriates had prior to expatriation, which would be able to assist them while on their assignment. For example, Black and Mendenhall (1990) suggest that cross-cultural training will enable expatriates to acquire appropriate skills which are important in helping them to interact effectively with people of the host country and try to minimize cultural misunderstandings. In this sense, organizations sending expatriates overseas have to determine appropriate skills and competencies that the expatriates require in order for them to perform effectively abroad.

Most researchers believe that cultural training should be the focus in the preparation for expatriation and the training should be provided before the departure. Others however, argue that it should be provided after arrival in the host culture. Still, others insist that it must be a combination of before, during and after the foreign assignment takes place. Too often, expatriates are fortunate if they receive any training in foreign languages or the technical aspects of world business and environment (Copeland & Griggs, 1985).

1.6.9 Human Resource Support

Human resource management (HRM) is undoubtedly valuable especially to organizations that deploy expatriates abroad. Organizations that send and host expatriates should consider the company's support seriously when sending and hosting expatriates. Guzzo, Noonan and Elron (1994) demonstrate that support from parent companies as well as the hosting organizations would contribute towards the expatriate perception of the extent of human resource support they get from these organizations.

In discussing this type of support, Payne (1980) argues that human resource support is an important determinant of adjustment. In this research, the support from organizations is operationalized based on the expatriate's judgments of the benefits provided by the employers, as well as their perceptions towards the support extended by both organizations. The supports include the financial support (completion bonus, tax reimbursement, subsidized healthcare), general support (assistance with locating new home, emergency leave, rest and relaxation leave) and family support (assistance locating schools for children, training for family, spousal employment).

1.6.10 Social Support

Leavy (1983, p. 5) defines social support "the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships". In the context of expatriation, the support refers to the dissemination of information that are relevant to the expatriate's needs and the assistance provided by the organizations that could facilitate their adjustment. Albrecht and Adelman (1987, p. 19) define social support as "the communication between recipients and providers that reduces uncertainty about the situation, the self, the other, or the relationship, and functions to enhance a perception of personal control in one's life experience." This includes psychological supports such as counseling and advice on how to survive the new environment, especially from those who have stayed in the country longer than them. Ganster, Fusilier and Mayes (1986) on the other hand, look at social support as sources and quality of helping relationships by those working at the same workplace. Regardless of the type and form of support extended, these support can be obtaine from a number of sources such as from those at work, the organization and family and friends (Ganster, et al., 1986). As for this research, social support is defined as the psychological support and helping relationships provided by those at work.

1.6.11 Culture Distance

Culture distance or culture difference is the degree of similarity between the host and the home cultures (Gudykunst & Ting-Toomey, 1988). In the expatriation literature, culture novelty is more preferred than culture differences or similarities. Beside culture novelty, other terms that are commonly used in the expatriation literature are culture toughness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) or culture distance (Church, 1982).

The above notion also relates to Black et al.'s (1991, p. 295) view that "some cultures seem to be more difficult to adapt to than others." Simply, this means, while some cultures are easy to adjust, some are not. Different people require different ability to adjust depending on the extent of similarity and dissimilarity of the two cultures (Black et al., 1992a). The unfamiliarity of the host culture often contributes to the expatriate's unhappiness which eventually leads to other adjustment-related problems.

1.6.12 Family Adjustment

Family adjustment refers to the psychological comfort experienced by the expatriate's family and it has been discussed in a variety of literature (see for example Black, 1988; Harvey, 1995) as it plays an important role in expatriate adjustment. If the spouse is in favor of expatriation, the easier the family will adjust. This consequently helps the overall adjustment of the expatriates and enhances the expatriate productivity, performance and morale. The inability of the spouse to adjust often relates to the changes in the lifestyle due to the move, which include children's education, socialization with host and employment (Harvey, 1985). All these can create the most stress and need to be addressed.

It was found that those who are being sent to most under-develop nations together with their family perceive education for their children as important (Julius, 1987). Much of the work on spouse adjustment suggests that a spouse is normally left at home, either alone or with children. They have to struggle on their own in order to adjust and survive the new environment while the expatriate leaves for work and encounters different people at work. Their families, especially the spouse could even feel more depressed as they are the ones, who would normally stay home, with little opportunity for cultural and social encounters. And as in most cases, spouses do not always have people around them, they often feel isolated and the tendency of being unable to adjust is high.

1.7 Organization of the Chapters

The thesis is divided into five chapters. Chapter 1 discusses the general background of the study. It provides detail description of the problem statement, research questions, objectives, significance of the study and definition of terms which explain how the terms or constructs to be studied are operationalized. Besides, the chapter also highlights the organization of the chapters. Chapter 2 provides a detail review of the literature pertaining to adjustment, as well as the generation of hypothesis and theoretical framework. The chapter begins by differentiating the international companies, including the management styles. This is important as it relates to the utilization of expatriates in MNCs and MNHCs. It also talks about expatriates and international assignments, which describes the types of expatriates and expatriates in hospitality industry. The second half of the chapter talks about expatriation and cross-cultural adjustment and the theories used in explaining adjustment. Additionally, subtopics on Malaysian hotel industry and culture are also included. Finally, the theoretical framework is created and hypotheses are proposed.

Meanwhile, Chapter 3 explains the research methodology. The chapter begins with the description of research design. This is followed by the discussion of population which also explains sampling frame, sample size and sampling technique. The instrumentation section talks about the instrument used in data collection and this is followed by the discussion on measurements. The data analysis section describes how the data and each hypothesis are analyzed. The chapter also discusses the administration of pilot test as well as the results of the test. The final part of the chapter discusses how the reliability and validity of measures are assessed.

The findings of the study are discussed in Chapter 4. It begins with the description of the profile of respondents. This is then followed by the discussion on the test of response bias. It explains how the test is administered and why it is important. Data cleaning and screening section describes the missing data and presents the methods used in detecting outliers as well as the tests underlying multivariate analysis. The final part of the chapter presents the discussion of the results of hypotheses testing.

The final chapter (Chapter 5) wraps up the thesis by summarizing all that has been discussed. First, the chapter presents the overview of the research. The discussions of the research findings mark the dominant part of the chapter. The chapter also presents the discussions on the assumptions, limitations and suggestions for future research. The implications of the study which consist of the discussions on both theoretical and practical implications are also provided.

1.8 Chapter Conclusion

In sum, this chapter previews the background and layout of the thesis. Primarily, the study is concerned with the investigation on how hotel expatriates adjust to Malaysian culture and the factors that determine and predict their adjustment. The chapter began with the background of the study and followed by the problem statement which explained the gaps that exist in the literature on expatriate adjustment and how the present study could help in bridging those gaps. This was then followed by the discussion on the formulation of research questions and objectives of the study. The significance of the study was also discussed. Also included in the chapter was the discussion on the definition of terms where the main concepts used in the study were discussed and defined. The final part of the chapter described the organization of the chapters in the study.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

The last chapter provides an overview of the study by discussing the problem statement, research questions, research objectives, significance of the study and definitions of major terms used in the study before concluding it with the chapter organization. This chapter will move to discuss into detail about expatriation and cross-cultural adjustment. Basically, the chapter is divided into several sections, beginning with the discussion on the perspectives of adjustment. This is then followed by the discussions on the phases of adjustment, expatriation and adjustment and the types of expatriates, which also explains the difference between OEs and SIEs. The chapter also describes the theories used in explaining expatriates adjustment before it wraps up with a lengthy discussions on the main variables under study.

2.2 Expatriates and International Assignment

Traditionally, international employees were sent for an international assignment for purposes of lead and direct foreign operations and be in charge of local nationals (Harris & Kumbra, 2000). Harris and Kumbra note that at that time, the domination of the parent organization led to what is described as "an inevitable ethnocentricity in outlook" (p. 602). At that time, adjustment and concerned for local culture were never an issue. However, this perception has changed since the late 1990s. The process of globalization of business and markets requires an increased need for effective international assignments, which are different from the traditional expatriate assignment. The change takes place for several reasons (Harris & Kumbra, 2000). Firstly, it is due to the nature of international organizations. These days, more joint ventures (JVs), alliances and small- to medium-sized organizations have now become the key players in the global market. The change has forced the organizations to carefully evaluate the cost effectiveness of expatriation. Secondly, is the change in host locations. Harris and Kumbra note that the number of expatriates going from developed countries to the Third World has declined but the number of assignments had shown to increase between developed nations. This trend takes place as a result of "extensive European, Japanese and US FDI actions and cross-border developments in New World trading blocs" (p. 602). Even though the idea in the change of host locations contradicts that of other researchers (for example, Brewster and Pickard (1994, p. 22) who note that the major growth in expatriation "has been between developed countries…") their argument can be considered acceptable as they provide a more recent fact about the trend in expatriation. However, the fact that active expatriation activity still takes place in the Third World and developed countries is undeniable. The final reason according to Harris and Kumbra, concerns the expatriates themselves. The traditional perception that expatriates are male, married and career-oriented has now changed, where today's expatriates come from various countries, consist of a younger generation and educated. The number of female expatriates has also shown to increase (Gliatis & Guerrier, 1993).

Edstrom and Galbraith (1977) who conducted a study on four international companies suggest that international companies usually had three broad motives for sending employees to manage their foreign offices. The first is for the sake of filling in the positions because qualified people of the hosting country or host country nationals (HCNs) are not available. For control purpose, parent-country nationals (PCNs) or qualified third-country nationals (TCNs) may be sent since they are more knowledgeable of the organizational regulations and culture. This enables for effective decision to be made. This is particularly the case in developing countries. Secondly, organizations may seek managerial development. The assignment will allow managers or other expatriates to gain a long-term potential valuable international experience, which consequently will enhance their knowledge and understanding of the foreign organization. In this case, transfer will still take place even with the presence of qualified HCNs. Finally, the transfer is seen as part of the organizational development. This is based on the believe that foreign operations can be managed and regulated through acculturation, socialization and interaction among multicultural workforce. It is hoped that this can create a global corporate culture without emphasizing on national cultures. When this becomes the motive, TCNs are always preferred.

In relation to that, Harvey (1996) claims that there are various reasons why MNCs select various types of expatriates. If the motive of the MNCs is to facilitate communication between home and foreign subsidiaries, PCNs are preferred. Meanwhile, TCNs are more responsive to cultural and political issues. The role of PCNs is more important when MNCs first-set up their businesses abroad but over time, TCNs and more likely HCNs will play a much greater role in the organization (Schuler, Dowling & De Ceiri, 1993). This is consistent with Kaye and Taylor's (1997) study which found that expatriate managers attached to JVHCs in Beijing were often hired specifically for start-up operations and an increasing number of these expatriates are TCNs, mostly from countries that have similar background to China such as Hong Kong and Taiwan. However, preferences for using expatriates also vary from country to country, depending on the location of the parent company. For example, it is found that the United States (US) and European MNCs typically employ HCNs than PCNs or TCNs in their foreign subsidiaries (Mead, 1998). This practice differs from the Japanese MNCs. Tung (1982) finds that Japanese MNCs are more likely to use PCNs in their senior level positions than any other categories of expatriates. Mead (1998) argues that this practice is partly explained by culture (i.e. Japanese). As a country that has higher needs to avoid uncertainty, the Japanese prefer to manage their foreign subsidiaries with PCNs as they share the same language and values of the parent company. To them, this can help minimize the risks of competing in the global market. Nickson (1999) put together some of the advantages and disadvantages of the use of the different types of expatriates in MNCs and this can be viewed in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1
Advantages and Disadvantages of PCNs, TCNs and HCNs

Expatriate	**Advantage**	**Disadvantage**
PCNs	• Familiarity with the home office's goals, objectives, policies and practices. • Technical and managerial competence. • Effective liaison and communication with home-office personnel. • Easier exercise of control over the subsidiary operation.	• Difficulties in adapting to the foreign language and the socio-economic, political, cultural and legal environment. • Excessive cost of selecting, training and maintaining expatriate managers and their families abroad. • The host countries' insistence on localizing operations and promoting local nationals. • Family adjustment problems.

TCNs	• Perhaps the best comprise between securing needed technical and managerial expertise and adapting to a foreign socio-economic and cultural environment. • TCNs are usually career international business managers. • May also be better informed about the host environment than PCNs. • Tend to be more sensitive to cultural and political issues.	• Host countries' sensitivity with respect to nationals of specific countries. • Local nationals are impeded in their efforts to upgrade their own ranks and assume responsible positions in the multinational subsidiaries.
HCNs	• Familiarity with the socio-economic, political and legal environment and with business practices in the host country. • Lower costs incurred in hiring HCNs. • Provides opportunities for advancement of local nationals and therefore, increases motivation and commitment. • Responsive to demands for localization of subsidiary operation.	• Difficulties in exercising control over the subsidiaries operation. • Communication difficulties in dealing with home-office personnel. • Lack of opportunities for home country's nationals to gain international and cross-cultural experience

Source: Nickson, 1999

2.3 Types of International Employees: Differentiating OEs and SIEs

In his work, Torrington (1994) notes that international employees are comprised of five broad categories and this involves the employment of people who spend some time working in another country. However, although there are a variety of terms used in describing the international employees, this thesis will consistently use the term expatriate when describing those who work across national boundaries for a period of time. Reviews of the literature show that there are two groups of expatriates who are actively participating in the movement of people around the world. The first is the group of expatriates sent by the parent company or OEs and the second is the self-initiated individuals or SIEs. Oddou (1991) claims that there are three basic groups of OEs that companies usually consider for international assignment. The first group is the "high-potential" employees. Most companies prefer to deploy this group of expatriates so that they can augment their view of the organization's total operations. The second group consists of those who are interested and available. They are sent because there is an opening and the employees would like to go on overseas relocation. The final group is the technical expert. The individuals from this group are sent abroad as technical support especially in manufacturing, maintenance and sales. As have been discussed, organizations prefer to send the first group of employees described above, but most often, a large number deploy the last two groups. Only a small number of organizations, usually those that are doing well, send their “high-potentials” abroad.

A significant number of literature on expatriates appears to focus on OEs (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2011). However, as globalization takes place, expatriate assignments are no more organizational decisions but rather of personal choice and individual development. As research on the adjustment of OEs has reached its highest point and the phenomenon is well-understood (Black et al., 1991; Myers & Pringle, 2005), another group of expatriates that is now being highlighted is the SIEs. This group of international employees was first being highlighted by Torrington (1994) but only in recent years researchers begin to shift their attention on individuals who initiate their own travel and find work in a foreign country. They are called SIEs (Lee, 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2011), self-initiated foreign experiences or SFEs (Myers & Pringle; 2005; Suutari & Brewster, 2000), independent expatriates (McKenna, 2010) and overseas experience or OEs (Inkson et al., 1997). There has been growing discussion of SIEs especially on the pattern of adjustment, their similarities and dissimilarities and the advantage that SIEs could pose to the global careers. Although growing, research on SIEs is still scarce and more research is needed for further understanding the issues related to SIEs and their journey to a foreign land.

Myers and Pringle (2005) label SIEs as form of self-managed global career. They should be separated from OEs and be seen as part of an individual's career enhancement (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). According to Myers and Pringle (2005), it is predominantly undertaken by the younger generation who likes to explore the world and experience new cultures. Peltokorpi and Froese provide a clear explanation of the differences by distinguishing the two groups of expatriates (p. 1099). Their differences are summarized in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2
Differences between OEs and SIEs

OEs	SIEs
Normally sent by MNCs to their office in foreign countries to accomplish a specific job, within a pre-designated period ranging from 6 months to 5 years	Make own decision to move and work abroad; achieving specific organizational goals is not the primary reason for expatriation
Motivated to go abroad due to the related financial benefits, increased opportunities for career advancement or personal interests in international experience	Perceive overseas experience as a means of self-development or part of other personal agenda and do not follow the structure organizational path of OEs.
Receive relocation packages	Likely to fund their own relocation

2.4 Perspectives of Adjustment

As the study adopts a post-positivist approach, the discussions on the emergence of the area of adjustment will be discussed from three broad perspectives by linking it to the theories that guide the works in the areas. Previous works on expatriate adjustment suggests that adjustment is a multidimensional construct (Black et al., 1991). The multidimensionality of the adjustment process has been discussed from various perspectives in the cross-cultural communication, acculturation and expatriation literature. The following section takes a closer look at how the different literature views adjustment.

2.4.1 Communication Perspective

In the cross-cultural communication framework, two areas of adjustment have been identified: social adjustment (Furnham & Bochner, 1982) and communication adaptability (Wheeless & Duran, 1982). Studies on these two facets of adjustment mainly focus on adjustment of sojourners, particularly international students. Furnham and Bochner (1982) suggest that the stress experienced by the international students is caused by the inability to socially adjust to the host culture. This largely results from their lack of social skills needed to deal with the new situation. It is also suggested that an individual might face a major source of stress when dealing with an unfamiliar culture, especially in everyday interpersonal encounters with people of the host nation such as being in the streets, shops, restaurants and around strangers. There are a variety of factors that affect the social adjustment process. The inability to communicate that includes speaking and understanding the language used in the host country is important in ensuring the development of social relations with the host nationals.

Adaptability on the other hand, is an important concept in communication competence (Cegala, 1981). It focuses "on the ability of the communicator to be flexible in communicating with a variety of people in a variety of situations" (Wheeless & Duran, 1982, p. 54). This, according to Wheeless and Duran "centers around a variety of experiences and the ability to be flexible and feel comfortable with a variety of people" (p. 55). Researchers have identified how an individual's personal characteristics such as personality, psychological and socio-demographic variables influence their communication behaviors (McCroskey, Daly, Richmond & Falcione, 1977; McCroskey, Daly & Sorensen, 1976). Beside personality, cultural differences are also found to affect an individual's communication behavior.

2.4.2 Acculturation Perspective

Three areas of adjustment are identified in the acculturation literature: the psychological and sociocultural adjustment (Searle & Ward, (1990), and work adjustment (Aycan & Berry, 1996; Hawes & Kealey, 1981). Psychological adjustment relates to psychological well-being and satisfaction with the various aspects of life. It focuses more on the attitude of the sojourner. Unlike psychological adjustment, sociocultural adjustment refers to the social skills that inspire the attitudinal factors. It is one's ability to "fit in" into the new cultural environment (Searle & Ward, 1990). It concerns the way a sojourner deals with problems associated with living in a new environment, how he/she strive to perform effectively and interact meaningfully with people of the host nation (Aycan, 1997). Work adjustment simply refers to how an individual accomplishes their tasks and their attitude towards work (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984) and this is marked by good performance and a positive attitude towards the new job.

As proposed in the acculturation literature, acculturation attitudes are important in ensuring successful adjustment (Aycan, 1997). Although the model has never been utilized in the area of adjustment, it obviously provides useful information pertaining to expatriate adjustment. Berry (1980) addresses two significant issues related to an individual attitude toward the new cultural environment (Figure 2.1).

Issue 1

Is it considered to be of value to maintain own cultural identity and characteristics?

Issue 2

Is it considered to be of value to maintain relationship with members of the host society?

	Yes	No
Yes	Integration	Assimilation
No	Separation	Marginalization

Figure 2.1: Model of acculturation attitudes
Source: Berry (1980)

As shown in the model, the first issue concerns whether to maintain ones cultural identity. The second issue concerns whether it is important to maintain relationships with the hosts. The model suggests that if the answer to the first issue is "no" and to the second issue is "yes", "assimilation" takes place. Assimilation means an individual does not wish to retain his/her cultural identity but instead, seeks to totally adopt the new culture. "Separation" occurs when one inclines towards maintaining his/her cultural identity. When this happens, the individual prefers no interaction with people of the host culture. When the answer to the first issue is "yes" and the second issue is also "yes", “integration” occurs. The individual who integrates is more open and willing to interact with the host, but still retains his/her cultural identity. “Marginalization” takes place when one is no longer interested either at keeping his/her own cultural identity or interacting with the host. According to Berry, of all the elements, integration leads to lower level of stress and facilitate successful adjustment. This is based on two reasons. First, as an individual moves to a new cultural environment, it is necessary for that person to adapt to the new environment and this can be done by adopting the values and norms of that culture. This can help them perform effectively to the new social and work environment. At this stage, the individual’s effort in starting the conversation and interaction with the host is imperative as it can help the individual to gain valuable information concerning the new culture. Second, by interacting with hosts and showing the efforts in learning the host culture help he/she proves to the local people that one appreciates their culture. Besides, it also shows that the individual is makng the efforts into learning their culture and in return, the hosts will demonstrate acceptance towards the new individual.

With regard to that, Ward and Kennedy (1993) assert that there are three main points that need to be considered when predicting cultural effects on psychological and sociocultural adjustment. Firstly, they believe that variables that affect adjustment should be distinguished either as cultural general or cultural specific. Secondly, they also claim that both types of adjustment are different due to an individual characteristics and purpose of the sojourn (i.e. expatriation, travelling, studying and so on). Lastly, they also believe that the relationships between both types of adjustment also differ according the experience that one has. This includes adjustment strategies and how one integrates into the new environment. Ward and Kennedy assert that the difference between the two types of adjustment is valuable in cross-cultural adjustment. The researchers also contend that although both types of adjustment are different and being predicted by different antecedents, they are theoretically interconnected.

2.4.3 Expatriation Perspective

Works on adjustment from this perspective are discussed extensively in the international human resource management (IHRM) discipline. Earlier studies on adjustment to a foreign culture mainly focus on adjustment to social contexts such as food, weather, interaction with host nationals or the culture in general. Later research however, suggests that adjustment consists of three areas: adjustment to the general environment, adjustment to interaction with hosts and adjustment to work (Black & Stephens, 1989; Black et al., 1991). Adjustment to the general environment is the area that has been widely studied by researchers and scholars. It encompasses elements that affect the daily routines of expatriates such as food, weather, and transportation. When expatriates enter a new culture, they must learn the whole new set of routines which are unfamiliar to them. The new cultural elements such as values and norms may not be taught or stated and it is his new set of norms, values and practices is not stated anywhere and it is the responsibility of the expatriate to learn and adjust. Studies show that if similarities exist between the home and host cultures, it will be much easier for the expatriate to adjust. This suggests that expatriates who come from China to Malaysia for example, would probably experience less difficulty to adjust to the country as compared to those sent to Saudi

Arabia. The Chinese will find that there are similarities between their home and host culture such as food and festive celebrations since Malaysians are also comprised of Chinese ethnic. In one of the studies conducted by Black and his colleagues, they found that successful adjustment which eventually leads to the completion of foreign assignment is closely related the ability of the expatriates to adjust to the general cultural elements of the host and not so much to work factors.

Adjustment to interaction, on the other hand, involves the level of comfort that employees feel when interacting with members of the host culture. Black et al. (1992a) believe that this is the most difficult area of adjustment because usually the differences between individuals will be revealed when they communicate. Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) state that an individual with good relational skills will find less difficulty to interact with people of the host nation. It is suggested that expatriates who are competent communicators especially in interpersonal relations are better adjusted to the new environment as compared to those with lower interpersonal skills. Those with excellent relational skills will better adjust to the new environment as they have the capability to utilize the principles of human interaction in different cultures. Thus, this makes it easier for them to relate to the host nationals.

Finally, adjustment to work refers to the extent at which expatriates are adjusted to factors such job tasks, work roles and work environment. This includes the degree where the expatriates are able to function within that milieu. Work adjustment is thought to be the easiest area of adjustment if compared to the other two (Black et al., 1992a) though it does not necessarily mean that it is easy to do. The claim is made as studies on American, European and Japanese expatriates revealed that their adjustment to work is greatly affected by the similarities in “procedures, policies and requirements” (p. 117) of the job in the home and host countries. Even though those factors could be similar, other factors such as business practices could be different and this is the time when the expatriates have to adjust to suit to the local practices but still manage to achieve the target outcomes. Some of the work-related factors that have identified to potentially affect expatriate work adjustment are role conflict, role novelty, role clarity, role discretion, and the organization’s culture (see for example Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992b; Kittler et al., 2011; Morley & Flynn, 2003; Nicholson, 1984). Role clarity decreases the uncertainty related to new work atmosphere and it facilitates work adjustment (Black, 1988; Nicholson, 1984). Black et al. (1992a) state that role clarity is the extent to which the organization’s expectation towards the expatriates is what is expected of the individual is understandable and uncertain However, it is obvious that it is rather difficult for anyone to adjust to something that is not understandable and uncertain but according to them, the case is true for American and Japanese expatriates.

Apart from role clarity, role discretion also poses an enormous impact on the expatriate’s work adjustment. Black et al. (1992b) argue that an individual has to adapt themselves to their work role and not vice versa as suggested by Dawis and Lofquist (1984). Role discretion involves the flexibility in determining the type of job that an individual wants to do, when and how to do it and whom to involve in doing the job. An individual with greater role discretion will be able to adjust to their work by using their past successful behaviors (Black et al., 1992b).

Role conflict and role novelty, however, increases uncertainty associated with the job. While role conflict occurs when contradictory expectations are communicated to the expatriates, role novelty is extent of differences between past and present roles. Black et al. (1992b) believe that a new environment normally projects conflicting signals that later increases uncertainty. Expatriates therefore, have to make a careful decision in choosing what is acceptable and what is not. Role conflict has been found to affect expatriate's work adjustment. The higher the degree of role novelty in the expatriate's job demand, the more pressure they have in changing their professional identity or job-related skills (Nicholson, 1984). Role novelty has the potential to mount ambiguity related to work role. Based on their research Black et al. (1992b) reckon that role conflict and role novelty can pose a significant negative relationship with expatriate adjustment.

From the above discussions, it is obvious that the three areas of adjustment (general, interaction and work adjustment) are crucial in determining the expatriate's overall adjustment (Black et al. (1991). It is also argued that cross-cultural adjustment should not be viewed as an individual concept as it is multidimensional in nature. However, each area of adjustment should be treated separately as a number of variables that affect adjustment may not correlate to all three areas of adjustment (Black et al., 1992a).

In sum, we have seen that the cross-cultural adjustment is being discussed from various perspectives in various literature—communication, acculturation and expatriation. Various concepts have been utilized to describe the adjustment of expatriates such as adaptability, acculturation, expatriate adjustment and cross-cultural adjustment. Regardless, it all points to the same phenomenon—the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment. In describing the cross-cultural adjustment investigated in this research, the researcher found that the concepts discussed in the communication and expatriation literature best described the work in this thesis.

2.5 Phases of Adjustment

There are two types of adjustments that have been discussed in the literature. The first is domestic adjustment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984; Nicholson, 1984). This type of adjustment concerns the adjustment within a country and includes adjustment between the different cultures and races that belong to the country. Next is the international adjustment phase (Black et al., 1991) which very much concerns the adjustment in a foreign cultural milieu. This type of adjustment involves two phases–the anticipatory adjustment and the in-country adjustment.

First, the anticipatory adjustment concerns how the information about the new country of assignment helps an individual to anticipate or expect what they are going to experience. Based on the premise of uncertainty reduction, theorists such as Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1962), Oberg (1960) and Torbiorn (1982) contend that anticipatory adjustment phase can occur before an individual enters a new cultural environment. If the individual is motivated about making the adjustment, this can significantly affect his/her actual adjustment. Accurate expectations of the new environment contribute to effective anticipatory adjustment and successful actual adjustment (Black et al., 1991). The researchers argued that if the anticipatory adjustment is effective, there will be fewer surprises and lesser culture shock (CS). This will encourage the individuals to display more appropriate behaviors and attitudes towards the new culture. Consequently, this leads them to adjust quickly and smoothly to the new environment. Researchers (see for example Black, 1988; Bochner, 1982; Brislin, 1981) also agree that among the areas that expatriates can develop expectations are:

- the job;
- the organizational culture;
- the host nationals;
- the host culture; and
- daily life in a new culture.

It is anticipated that these expatriates normally have some information about the country that they are being assigned to and this is likely to include information about the values and norms of the host culture. This information helps them to anticipate what they are about to encounter in their foreign assignment. In discussing the same issue, Mendenhall and Wiley (1994) suggest that previous foreign experience and pre-departure cross-cultural training are also able to provide expatriates with correct information and expectations concerning the new cultural environment. They suggest that candidate selection should focus on suitable personality and skills that match the requirement of the host culture as this could enhance the expatriate's anticipatory adjustment. According to Black et al. (1992a) propose three aspects of anticipatory adjustment that could contribute towards the in-country adjustment. First, the individual who is going on international assignment has to gather as much information as possible prior to expatriation. Second, there should be priority given to adjust to the aspects of the new environment that are considered crucial and finally, make possible changes or adjustment so that it will yield to more accurate actions.

Black et al. (1992a) also note that cross-cultural training and previous international experience are among the factors that could help facilitate the anticipatory adjustment. For example, the parent company or the expatriates themselves can provide the training. Expatriates can always prepare themselves for expatriation by reading and researching about the new country or simply by interacting with people of the host culture or with those who have been to the country. That said previous international experience does not necessarily mean that the expatriates can totally adjust to the environment in a short time. It all depends on factors such as the country where previous international visit/stay took place and the time when it took place. For instance, if the past international relocation was in Switzerland and the present relocation will be in Malaysia there may be adjustment problem. The previous experience in Switzerland cannot be used to justify the success of adjustment in Malaysia. The cultures of the two countries are different but at least the experience will help the expatriate in predicting the aspects of the new culture. Even if an expatriate had been in Malaysia 15 or 20 years ago, the situation could be different now. The rapid development in the country might have changed a lot of things and what were familiar 15 or 20 years ago will now be a strange place for the expatriate. As an example, the previous assignment might have not required the individual to interact with local people but the present assignment may. This could potentially affect the adjustment.

In contrast, in-country adjustment is just another term to describe expatriate adjustment and that is also the reason why it is said to be a multidimensional construct. As discusse earlier, expatriate adjustment or in-country adjustment consists of three dimensions: general adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment. Various factors have been found to affect the in-country adjustment and these factors can be grouped as individual, organizational, work and non-work factors. For example, scholars have discussed a variety of linkages between individual variables and cross-cultural adjustment and most of them are related to the in-country adjustment.

2.6 The Process and Theories of Adjustment

Black et al. (1992a, p. 35) argue that culture is not only about artifacts or an individual's values and beliefs, but it is rather a "common set of assumptions and values that consistently influence artifacts, especially behavior." Culture is being passed on from generation to generation and it very much influences the behavior and activities of the people in one particular group. They however, contend that there are two limitations involved in the way they define "culture." First, most of the important aspects of the culture are actually difficult to recognize, understand and adjust to, as culture is actually invisible. Second, they also posit that a new cultural environment changes the normal and routine activities of an individual. In illustrating more about how culture affects our behavior, Black and colleagues use the analogy of a "road map" and "traffic signals" to refer to culture. The road map tells people where to go and how to get there and traffic signals on the other hand, serve as the rules that have to be followed in order to get to the desired destination. As an expatriate moves to a foreign culture, Malaysia for example, this individual will have to learn to find a way to adjust to Malaysian culture and in doing so, the individual will have to do it appropriately according the rules and norms of the culture. The analogy is made as both the culture and road map and traffic signals are considered similar in leading people to achieve the objectives. The mental maps and rules can be used to predict the activities in the new environment and at the same time enable the expatriate to control the unfamiliar environment. This will eventually leads to effective adjustment and adaptation to the new cultural environment.

Black and colleagues also note that the dynamics of cultural adjustment involve the individual's routine, ego and self-image. When an individual is in a new culture where everything is different and unfamiliar, the likelihood of losing one's sense of balance and become uncertain and insecure are greater. Here, their routines have been disrupted and as the routines are more disrupted, the greater their frustration, anger and anxiety will be. All the changes in the individual's routines will challenge the individual's ego and pose a threat to their self-image. In this situation, going home is thought as the most appropriate thing to do in order to escape from frustration and anger caused by the inability to adjust.

A review of the literature reveals that the process of adjustment and adaptation has, thus far, followed a universal pattern as suggested by Berry, Kim, Minde and Mok (1987). In the next section the process of adjustment is discussed based on two theories that have been widely used to explain adjustment: the U-Curve Theory (UCT) and SLT. The discussions on the theories will help towards a better understanding of the phenomenon.

2.6.1 The UCT and Adjustment

The empirical work on UCT was initiated by Lysgaard (1955) when he conducted a study on three groups of Norwegian students in the United States (US). In his study, he found that students who had been in the US more than six months but not exceeding 18 months reported lower adjustment as compared to those who had spent time in the country less than six months or more than eighteen months. Lysgaard however, neither did offer any theoretical explanation of his findings nor any statistical tests of difference among the three groups. This opened the way for several criticisms to be made about his work. For example, Black and Mendenhall (1991) believe that his study is rather a description of the several phases of adjustment and not actually a theoretical framework that describes how and why an individual moves from one phase to another. Even though there are arguments about the validity of the theoretical framework, his initial work has proven to be useful in describing the process of adjustment. The basic idea still lies in the feelings associated with adjustment to the new cultural environment and these feelings are generally common among expatriates and other sojourners.

The process of adjustment, according to Lysgaard, is a process over time and it is said to follow a u-curve pattern. The pattern mainly comprises of four phases. The first phase is the initial stage of elation and optimism. This phase normally takes place in the first few weeks of arrival. At this phase adjustment is seen to be easy and this could be the reason why it is often referred to as a honeymoon stage. During this stage, an individual will often feel fascinated and excited about the different aspects of the new cultural environment. The individual will view the experience in the new culture as something positive and they basically have a positive feeling about being in a new culture. They may not have enough time and experience to see that some of their habits and behaviors are no longer appropriate in the new culture (Torbiorn, 1982). Social contacts are still somewhat "accidental and segmental" as it usually involves "specific and limited situations…" (Lysgaard, 1955, p. 50). As the individual learns to adapt to the new life, phase two occurs. At this phase, the individual may find that there are differences in the new culture and at this level, this individual will feel irritated, frustrated and bewildered. He/She will also feel isolated due to their inability to behave appropriately in the new culture. The feeling of isolation/alienation leads them to fall into cultural stereotype where they begin to compare the home and the host cultures. This will lead them to get more frustrated and doubt themselves and their ability. The crisis period makes the individual feels less well-adjusted, somewhat lonely and unhappy. According to Torbiorn these feelings occur as the individual discovers that their behaviors are no longer appropriate in the new culture but they have not yet learned what is regarded as appropriate. This is the period when CS most likely to occur.

The third phase is the gradual adjustment to the new environment. This stage will see the individual try to adapt and cope with the differences that they encounter. The individual has begun to learn about the new set of cultural norms. For example, they have learned some language skills, are able to interact with the local people, learned the appropriate behaviors and are able to move around without assistance. These are considered important steps toward adjustment. The final phase is actually the full adjustment period itself, where the individual has already mastered the various practices in the new culture and knows what is appropriate and what is not acceptable in the new culture. Black and Mendenhall (1991) note that at this stage, the ability to perform effectively shows only a minor increase.

Torbiorn (1982) who also contributes toward the development of the UCT provides a clear description of the phases of the u-curve, namely, the tourist phase, the culture shock phase, the conformist phase and the assimilation phase. Torbiorn argues that his categorization of the u-curve into the various stages does not always accord with the description in the literature. He claims that the "boundaries and content of the different stages and the force that impels the adjustment process from one to the next is rarely specified" in the usual descriptions of the curve (p. 93). Obviously, learning from the mistakes, recognizing what is considered wrong, and observing the behavior of others (what is appropriate and what is not) proves to be essential in cross-cultural adjustment. The phases of adjustment from the perspective of the UCT are illustrated in Figure 2.2.

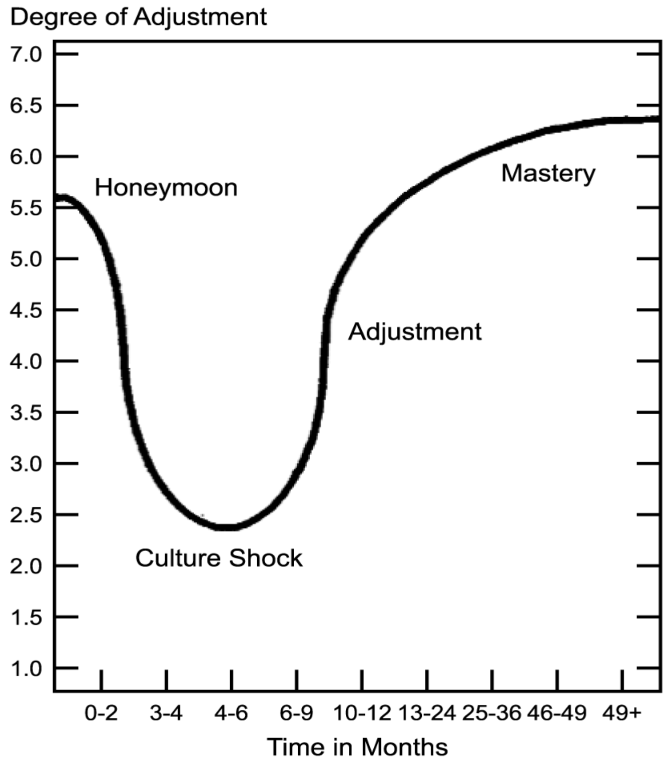

Figure 2.2: The u-curve theory of adjustment
Source: Black & Mendenhall (1991)

In the UCT, the second phase is thought to be crucial, as expatriates may perceive that the experience in the new culture is rather boring and no longer interesting. This is when they find that everything around them is rather irritating and confusing. The frequent encounters with the new culture may help them to realize and recognize the similarities and dissimilarities between the home and new cultures. Culture differences exist even if they are being assigned to a neighboring country with "similar" cultural background. It is often thought that expatriates gradually adjust themselves as they learn the language, exhibit knowledge of the new culture and able to work with the locals at the new workplace (Schneider & Barsoux, 1997). This would mean that the more knowledge they have about the host culture, the more they interact with the locals and the better they will adjust to the new environment. However this is easier said than done. Being in the new cultural environment requires a lot from expatriates. A simple misunderstanding can lead to confusion and if problems are serious, it may impede adjustment. Brett, Stroh and Reilly (1992) suggest that the complexity of adjustment depends very much on the expatriate's motivation and the expectations they form prior to their deployment, the amount of gaps between the home and the new cultures and the extent to which they can tolerate the new job and daily activities of the new environment.

2.6.2 The SLT and Adjustment

If UCT describes adjustment from its various phases and the actual feelings that a sojourner feels during a sojourn, the SLT looks at adjustment from the behavioral aspects. As noted by Black and Mendenhall (1991) theories of behavior and cognition have been trying to explain how individuals learn and utilize their knowledge. While behavioral theories suggest that an individual's learning ability is determined by their behavior, its consequences and how an individual associates the behavior and its consequences, cognitive theories argue that learning actually takes place through the information processing and the anticipated action to be taken (Swenson, 1980). The differences that exist in these two different schools of thought have led to various arguments on how individuals actually learn. Black and Mendenhall (1991) therefore suggest that SLT can be used to explain how individuals learn as the theory integrates both behavior and cognitive theories. The SLT proposed by Bandura (1977) originated from various basic concepts of learning theory and over the years, it has become a prominent learning theory. In proposing the theory, Bandura contends that direct reinforcement could not be applied to all types of learning. He then introduced social element to his theory, in contention that people can also learn through observation.

SLT consists of three main notions. First is the thought that people can learn through observation. Bandura demonstrates that people learn and emulate the behaviors of others. Second, it relates to the belief that internal psychological conditions are the vital element in learning process. Bandura notes that learning and behavioral execution are not only influenced by the extrinsic or environmental fortification but also by intrinsic reinforcement such as self-esteem, contentment and achievement. Finally, Bandura acknowledges that although people have learned something, it does not mean that they will behave differently. Even though behaviorists propose that learning led to a permanent behavioral change, observational learning establishes that learning does not always yield new behaviors.

Observational learning (or modeling) can be broadly interpreted to explain a variety of behaviors, including expatriate adjustment. For example, SLT claims that apart from learning based on the consequences of their behaviors, an individual also learns and behaves through their observations of how others behave, the consequences of that behavior and also by imitating the modeled behavior. In the case of expatriates, as they arrive in the new culture, they will have to learn and behave appropriately based on how people of the host culture behave. The observation can help them to retain what is appropriate and discard what is not. This can be explained further by looking at the steps taken by expatriates during the period of adjustment, starting from the time they enter a new culture. This process is described based on the four important components of SLT—attention, retention, reproduction and motivation. All these components (steps) are involved in the observations during the learning process and as expatriates are also observing and learning about the new environment, SLT is deemed to be the right theory to describe the process that expatriates have to go through during the process of adjustment.

The expatriate's learning and modeling of behaviors start at the attention stage. As an expatriate move to a new cultural environment, before he/she learns by observing, he/she must first pay attention and recognize the modeled behavior. At this stage, several factors are known to affect his/her observational experiences. These include: (1) his/her characteristics; (2) type of activities to be observed; (3) structure of human interactions (the people with whom the expatriates regularly interacts); (4) functional value of the behavior displayed by the models (people of the host country) such as the similarity of the model and the expatriate's behavior; (5) availability of the model; and (6) the expatriate's perceptual level which mainly derives from past reinforcement and situational requirements. At this stage, the learning will not bring positive outcomes if e are something that detracts the expatriate's attention. However, if what is observed is of importance and interesting, then there is the tendency that the expatriate will devote their attention to learning.

The next component is the retention process. This process involves the retention of activities that an expatriate has observed from the model. At this level the expatriate tries to recall what is being observed and in order to do that, the pattern of response has to be represented in the memory through a symbolic code. Learning through observation depends on two representational systems. The first is the imaginal system, which is utilized during the modeling process and verbal interaction. Visual imagery is crucial in observational learning especially at the early stage when the expatriate is still lacked of verbal skills or when he/she learns the behavior that cannot be easily translated to verbal coding. The second representational system is the verbal coding of events itself. According to Bandura (1977, p. 26) the information gathered through observation from a model "can be acquired, retained and later reproduced more accurately" by converting what is seen to spoken words. In this case, symbolic coding and cognitive rehearsal are imperative in sustaining the memory. This is the stage where the expatriate may find that the information storing skill is also essential and is part of the learning process. The ability to withhold the information is influenced by several factors but the ability to recall the information and behave based on it is critical to the learning process as it will help them to select the appropriate behaviors.

The third component is the reproduction process. This stage involves the conversion of symbolic representation into appropriate actions. In simple words, this is the stage where the expatriate turns the patterns of behavior that he/she learns from the chosen model into action. This is done by organizing his/her responses according to the modeled behavior. As expatriates continue to behave in a certain way, they will improve and enhance their knowledge and skills and this will gradually help them in their adjustment.

The final component is the motivational process. The theory suggests that human beings do not always adopt what they learn or observe. They are selective in what they want to adopt and usually the behavior, which is regarded as having negative consequences or of no value at all, will be discarded. Behaviors with positive consequences are more favored. Therefore, observational learning does not guarantee that the expatriate will adopt similar behavior. Some may choose to ignore as they believe that the environment that they are from is much better than that of the new culture. Thus, they choose to retain the behaviors from the home country. Bandura suggests that a reward or an incentive plays an important role in determining whether an individual will choose to adopt or discard certain behaviors. The reward serves as an important motivational tool that can assist an individual in deciding whether or not to adapt to what they have learned or observed. In all, effective organizational learning can only takes place if the expatriates are motivated to initiate positive behaviors based on what is observed.

In going through this process, the SLT suggests that during the learning process, communication and interaction with hosts is crucial as it helps expatriates to obtain information regarding what is appropriate and what is not in the new society. Through the feedback received from people of the host country, an expatriate will be able to adjust their behavior to comply with the current situation. However, although observational learning is believed to be effective, Bandura believes that it also has some disadvantages. For example, the actions that yielded from the observation depend very much on whether the component skills exist and if the skills are not available, it will yield to an inappropriate behavior (action). Another problem with the observational learning is that what has been learned and stored in ones memory (ideas) are not always transformed into appropriate actions for the first time. Accurate modeling can be achieved through the individual's effort in making adjustment to the inappropriate behavior. For example, even though the expatriate may have learned the appropriate behaviors, he/she may not choose to act appropriately for the first time as it is suggested that if the expatriate does not have any effort in making adjustment to the inappropriate behavior accurate modeling may not be achieved. This in turn, will make it difficult for the expatriate to adjust to the new environment.

Obviously, different people react to a foreign situation differently, at different places and different times. The differences that exist in a foreign culture could cause an expatriate or a sojourner to experience CS[1]. This is evident in the discussion of UCT provided earlier. In cross-cultural adjustment, CS is seen as a temporary feeling that exists while a sojourner tries to embrace the new values, attitudes and behavior patterns (David, 1972). An individual who enters a new cultural environment commonly experiences this situation. Generally, it may be regarded as a fundamental experience that one faces physiologically, psychologically, socially and philosophically as a consequence of cultural differences (Kim, 1988). These differences can range from expectations, language, foods, to eating behavior and are often stressful because they may seem neither comprehensible nor ethically appropriate (Adler, 1986).

[1] Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse. These signs or cues include the thousand and one ways in which we orient ourselves to the situations of daily life: how to give orders, how to make purchases, where and when not to respond. Now these cues which may be words, gestures, facial expressions, customs, or norms are acquired by all of us in the course of growing up and are as much a part of our culture, as the language we speak or the beliefs we accept. All of us depend for our peace of mind and efficiency on hundreds of these cues, most of which we are not consciously aware (Oberg, 1960, p. 177).

Brislin (1981) sees CS as an integral part of a foreign assignment and therefore it is something that expatriates should anticipate and learn to accept. There are two reasons to explain this. Firstly, CS can be a positive sign that expatriates are becoming involved with the new environment and not trying to isolate themselves by just associating with their fellow countrymen or other groups of expatriates. Secondly, CS can also motivate the expatriates to try to learn and understand and cope with the cultural differences. Initially, most people do experience CS but the degree of seriousness may differ. Brislin believes that if the problem of CS is serious, it may hinder the learning process.

The discussions on both theories revealed that during expatriation, expatriates will have to go through various phases in order to successfully adjust to a new cultural environment. Various factors contribute towards their adjustment beginning with the expatriates themselves. The individual characteristics of these expatriates will determine whether they will manage to pull through towards successful adjustment. The first encounter with the new culture will see the fascination in them. This is where the expatriates begin to learn and observe, especially the behavior of the people of the new culture. As suggested by SLT, previous international experience would help much during this stage as expatriates will observe and learn the new skills. These skills will help them cope with uncertainties in the new environment. Meanwhile, language ability helps them to communicate with the host nationals. If they hesitate to ask questions when they make mistakes, they will walk toward the wrong path. They will learn and improve from the mistakes they make and tend not to make the same mistake(s). The individual skill needed much at this stage is self-efficacy. Expatriates with high level of self-efficacy, for example, are more likely to perform new behaviors in a new cultural environment.

As the feeling of confusion and isolation emerge, the expatriate will begin to recall what had been observed earlier. At this level, factors such as training, previous experience, language and the supports from the organizations and family are very crucial in determining the success of adjustment. Communication and interaction is most important as it helps the expatriates to obtain information about the new culture and recognize what can and cannot be done, what is appropriate and what is not. Torbiorn (1982) points out that CS usually occurs at either stage two or during the transition period between stages two and three of the process of adjustment (as suggested by the UCT and SLT). That is the reason why Torbiorn sees stage two as crucial in the process of adjustment as it can be seen as a transitional experience that leads to the adoption of new values, attitudes and behaviors. The supports together with the expatriates' motivation to learn and adapt will help them to succeed. The theories clearly specify where each of the variables fit in during the process of adjustment and researches have shown how the variables fit in determining expatriate adjustment. Based on that, the present research hopes to prove this by testing it on expatriates in hotel industry to see whether there are consistencies of findings between previous research and the present one.

2.7 Determinants of Expatriate Adjustment

This final section of the chapter will be dedicated to examining and discussing the factors that facilitate adjustment to a foreign environment, delineating the important variables which scholars and researchers have found to influence expatriate adjustment. These variables are categorized into three main groups: the individual, organizational and non-work factors. However, before discussing these key issues, it is also important to take a closer look at the costs associated with the failure of expatriates on foreign assignment as the failure rates, which are usually described by the premature return from foreign assignments, have been argued to be notably high among those in hotel industry (Magnini & Honeycutt, 2003). The discussion will explain to us why there is a crucial need to identify the factors that facilitate or inhibit expatriate adjustment. In the context of the discussion that follows, costs refer to the lost, either direct or indirect which are incurred by both the expatriates and the organizations due to the inability of the expatriates to adjust to a foreign culture.

2.7.1 Expatriate Failure

The process of globalization has led international companies to deploy their employees to work in their foreign subsidiaries. It has also enabled for more people to initiate their own travel to work in a foreign country. Kraimer et al. (2001) note that there have been about 250,000 employees of US firms alone on foreign assignments. The Global Relocation Trends (GRT) report in 2011 highlighted that 61% of global companies surveyed had expected that more employees would be transferred in 2011 than in recent years. The report suggests that there will be continuous increase in the number of expatriates working in a foreign land. Guzzo et al. (1994) argued that the figures did not take into account the accompanying spouse and other family members. The cost of sending an expatriate abroad is rather high. The first year alone would cost the company at least three times the basic salaries of the employees working at the home office (Wederspahn, 1992). However, not all assignments end with a success. A large number of expatriates have failed in their assignments abroad.

The failure of the expatriates and the accompanying family members to adapt and perform has been discussed widely since it also leads to unsuccessful expatriation. Their families, especially the spouse, could even feel more depressed as they are the ones who would normally stay home, with little opportunity for cultural and social encounters. Expatriates are more fortunate as they often spend more time at work and at the same time are able to experience more social and cultural encounters. Research has shown that failure to perform in a foreign operation could be costly to both the expatriates and the company. Although it is widely acknowledged that the number of failures is higher and difficult to measure the exact amount. First, the actual figure could have never been known as the figures have never been released by the organizations, and second, it is attributed to the meaning of "failure" itself. This is a very subjective term and it can be interpreted differently by different people or organizations. Story (1992) suggests that the failure rates could vary between 10 and 40% and adjustment problem was identified to be the main reason for failure. Mead (1998, p. 400) defines expatriate failure as "the manager's inability to perform effectively in a foreign country". Mead also notes that the failure "is signaled when the manager is dismissed, is recalled or resigns". Black et al. (1992a) define failures as premature return, poor performance and repatriation turnover. Perhaps, the most obvious indicator of expatriate failure is when the expatriate voluntarily leaves the assignment before the scheduled assignment is due. Earlier research had shown that American expatriates faced severe adjustment problems during their foreign assignment.

It was found that only 20 per cent of American expatriates sent abroad without international training can be expected to succeed and another 40 – 60 percent will return prematurely or perform marginally during the assignment (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Studies conducted by Brewster (1991) and Tung (1987) also yielded similar findings, where 16 – 40 per cent of American expatriates failed during the assignments as compared to expatriates from Western Europe who showed a failure rate of less than 10 per cent. In Tung's (1987) study for example, of all American, Western European and Japanese MNCs studied, she found that more than 50 per cent of the American MNCs had a failure rate of more than 10 per cent. Of these companies, seven per cent had a failure rate of 30 per cent. The figure was obviously high compared to the Western European and Japanese MNCs where they only had a failure rate of less than 10 per cent. Of all the Western European MNCs surveyed, 59 per cent of these companies had a failure rate of five per cent and only three per cent had failure rates between 10 to 15 per cent. The Japanese MNCs even had a lower expatriate failure as 76 per cent of the companies showed a failure rate of five per cent.

There are a variety of reasons why expatriates failed during the assignment. Early research on the issue of expatriation revealed that less than a third of premature returns were related to work-specific reasons. In most cases of failure, cultural adjustment was the main factor. This is evident from studies that have been conducted. Tung's (1981) study for example, provides the groundwork for topic on expatriate adjustment by examining success and failure rate among expatriates across several industries. The respondents of her study were expatriates from Europe, Japan and North America. In her study, Tung found that US expatriates record a higher failure rates than those of other countries (i.e. Japan and European). Tung suggests that the three most common reasons for American expatriates' failures are:

1. the inability of the spouse to adapt to the host culture;
2. the inability of the expatriates themselves to adapt to the host culture; and
3. family-related problems associated with foreign assignment.

Tung (1981) also discusses other reasons that were attributed to the failure: (1) the characteristics of the expatriates themselves, which were mostly related to emotional immaturity; (2) the incapability of the expatriates to deal with the new task; (3) the lack of technical knowledge; and (4) the lack of enthusiasm to go overseas. This usually happens when an expatriate is "forced" to accept the assignment. The incapability of the accompanying spouse to adapt to the new culture was the main reason that contributes to the failure of European expatriates to adjust. This is different from Japanese organizations which attribute expatriate failure to the inability of the expatriates to handle bigger responsibilities, complexity of the new work role, individual expatriate problems, lack of technical knowledge and the spouse ability to cope and adapt to the new culture (Harvey, 1998; Solomon, 1996).

The findings from Tung's study contribute towards a better understanding of the factors that that inhibit and facilitate successful adjustment effective performance abroad.

Besides leading to more studies of the same nature to be conducted on expatriates from Britain, Japan and Australia, her findings have several implications. For example, the findings were crucial for the purpose of identification and preparation of expatriates for international assignment. She also notes that the lower failure rates among European and Japanese expatriates were results of cross-cultural training provided before expatriation. Sixty-nine per cent of European expatriates and 57 per cent of the Japanese admitted that they had participated in a cross-cultural training prior to expatriation and only 32 per cent of US expatriates claimed to have done so. Even though the finding is far from conclusive, it is still important to acknowledge the role of cross-cultural training in enhancing successful expatriation.

In another study, Scullion (1995) finds that British multinationals also experience lower expatriate failure rates than US companies. Some of the explanations that could justify the lower percentage rates were: (1) better personnel policies covering expatriates; (2) attention given on candidate selection; (3) priority given to those with previous international experience; and (4) the perception that the British were open than the Americans.

Regardless of the issues being raised, it is obvious that the high failure rates among expatriates are known to be very costly as international assignments do not come cheap. For example, Black and Gregersen (1999) note that an expatriate's salary is three times higher than those holding the same position at home. A complete expatriate package can reach about $300,000 to $1 million annually. The amount spent on a single expatriate could probably be one of the most costly expenses a company could spend on an individual. The estimated figure does not include the cost of sending to management executives such as the Chief Executive Officer. Even though much has been spent on expatriation, companies sometimes do not get the return for their investment when expatriates fail to perform at the expected level, due to their failure to adjust. The inability of expatriates to adjust can lead them to leave the country of assignment prematurely or perform marginally during the assignment.

The premature return from foreign assignment can be costly both in economic (direct cost) and non-economic (indirect cost) terms and can cost the parent company and the expatriate themselves. Even though the number of failure rates is found to vary, it is obviously increasing. The latest figures showed that it ranges between 25 and 40 per cent (McCaughey & Bruning, 2005). The estimated loss due to the inability of the expatriates to adjust to the foreign culture varies but the numbers have shown to increase. Harris and Moran (1991) further noted that the exact statistics concerning the number of expatriates who failed overseas and return prematurely are difficult to determine and the statistics vary from country to country.

A comprehensive study conducted in the 70s by the Center of Research and Education in the US had suggested that adjustment failures are costly in terms of economics, efficiency of operation, cross-cultural relations and personal satisfaction with work in foreign country. During that time, the cost for an organization to bring expatriates back prematurely (to America alone) ranged from $20,000 for those assigned to London, to a total of $150,000 for senior managers assigned to the Middle-East. As the majority of expatriates sent on international relocation are married, those with family even cost higher to relocate. The family relocation could reach up to $210,000 depending on the geographical area and the expatriate's position. It would usually cost the organizations an average of $100,000 per return (Black et al., 1991a). However, according to Lanier (1979) the figures could have been larger if they include the "brownouts" or those who refuse to go home but do not perform well since they are unable to adjust to their new job. Interestingly, almost 30 – 50 per cent of US expatriates are considered "brownouts" (Copeland & Griggs, 1985).

The turnover rate has also been financially costly to the organizations (Magnini, 2009). In the mid-eighties, it was estimated that financially, expatriate turnover cost an organization about $250,000 per year. These figures however, did not include the indirect, intangible costs such as the damage to the organization's reputations and the inability to attract potential candidates for future assignments (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). The more recent estimates showed that the costs ranged between $150,000 and $200,000 for each expatriate failure and it could potentially reach between $250,000 and $1 million, depending on the employee's salary (Punnet, 1997). At the average, the cost of sending an expatriate overseas is about $300,000 per year (O'Boyle, 1989). The figures can however, go up to tens of billions of dollars per year if it includes the total lost to the MNCs. Measuring the direct costs, expatriate failure had cost US firms almost $2 billion annually and this did not include the unmeasured costs that the firms had to incur (Copeland & Griggs, 1985).

Besides those who return prematurely, there are still a number of expatriates who remain abroad. Even though the existing data shows that almost 60 to 84 per cent of the expatriates remained abroad, almost half of them (30 to 40 per cent) perform marginally in their assignment and are considered ineffective by their parent companies (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). According to Black et al. (1992a), this group of expatriates chooses to remain abroad as they feared the negative consequences of leaving early or are hoping that the situation will improve in the future. It is believed that those who remain will eventually manage to overcome the CS and gradually adjust to the new environment. The group of expatriates whom their companies consider as less effective may also incur direct and indirect costs and those who cannot adjust and perform satisfactorily, but refuse to return home could cost the company even higher (Forster, 1997). This is consistent with Black and Gregersen's (1991a) suggestion that the costs for maintaining ineffective expatriates are even higher than the amount spent on maintaining effective expatriates.

Non-economically, the costs are associated with how failure to perform can affect the company, the expatriates and future expatriates. Given the deliberate importance that MNCs place on the crucial need for overseas assignment, the failure can be detrimental to their international businesses and it extends beyond financial expenses. Scholars suggest that expatriate failure can contribute towards: (1) the lost of valuable opportunities; (2) delayed productivity which also contributes towards lower efficiency; (3) weakened the relationships with the locals, clients, local governments; (4) negative perceptions of the firm which could damage the firm's reputation; (5) difficulty for expatriate successors;

and (6) ineffective repatriation (Bennett, Aston & Colquhoun; 2000; Gregersen & Black, 1990; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Shay & Tracey, 1997; Storti, 2001; Zeira & Banai, 1985). As Copeland and Griggs (1988) put it, the harm to the company's reputation is characterized as "frightening". Apart from the impact to the organizations, the failure would also affect the person who is responsible in selecting the expatriate.

As for the expatriates, the inability to adjust and perform abroad is likely to affect them psychologically as the failure could reduce their self-esteem, self-confidence and affect their reputation (Black et al., 1992a; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Tung, 1981). Besides that, expatriate failure would certainly affect future expatriates' decision to take up employment abroad (Stroh, 1995) as they could be afraid of the experience and difficulty they might face in a foreign culture. In all, Black and Stephens (1989) suggest that the more time the expatriate takes to adjust, the higher the cost that the company has to incur and the cost will even be much higher if the expatriate totally fails to adjust at all.

From the discussions presented above, it is now clear that the inability to adjust does not only affect expatriate adjustment but it can significantly affect the organizations. Despite the high costs incurred due to higher rates of turnover and expatriate failure, the process of internationalization still requires employees to work abroad. According to Torrington (1994), MNCs utilize expatriates' services not only for control and expertise reasons, but also to assist with entry into new markets or to increase global management know-how.

2.7.2 The Country of Origin and Expatriation

The country of origin has often been the subject of study in research on expatriation but a handful has actually examined the differences of adjustment among expatriates from expatriates will have difficulties adjusting to a certain culture, while some are not. As has been mentioned, literature suggests that if an expatriate travels to a country where culture similarities exist, it is more likely that the expatriate will succeed. On the other hand, those who come from a culture different from one's own will experience otherwise since they will be more likely to encounter problems in understanding the values and practices of the new culture. Research by Parker and McEvoy (1993) suggest that culture distance affects the expatriate's interaction adjustment and general adjustment negatively. This means that the greater the culture distance the less likely they are to succeed. Peltokorpi and Froese (209) posit that the bigger the difference between the home and the host cultures, the more difficult it is for the expatriate to adjust especially to work and nonwork related areas. Even though it could be argued that success and failure of expatriation are associated with various reasons as discussed in expatriation management literature, most importantly, this justifies that expatriates from different regions would adjust differently to a new of cultural environment.

Several factors could have contributed to that. First, it is the entry requirements to colleges and universities. The knowledge of a foreign language is not required. As Copeland and Griggs (1985) point out, less than eight per cent of American colleges and universities do require the knowledge of a foreign language upon entry. Secondly, there is a lack of graduates majoring in international business and in addition to that, almost 61 per cent of business schools offer no international courses at all. Besides, their curricular have also not been designed in such a way that provides graduates with appropriate knowledge important in maintaining a competitive edge in the global marketplace. Even though the above observations were made in the 1980s, part of it could still hold true up to the present day. It is also believed that other nationalities are much better informed about American values and culture. Consequently, there could be some truth in what Illman (cited in Haris & Moran, 1991, p. 49) said. Americans could have possessed greater feelings of superiority and ethnocentrism, which consequently affect their adjustment to the foreign culture. A lot of books and movies portray American culture, business and politics as superior and as a consequence, individual Americans may see themselves as superior to others in almost every aspect of lives.

Although this could be argued as having no empirical proof, the attitude can easily be observed among American expatriates overseas, otherwise Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) would not have come up with the term "ugly American" to describe a high degree of self-confidence and ego-strength yet low cross-cultural interpersonal and attributional skills among American expatriates. The "ugly American" usually thinks that the hosts who fail to follow them (or adjust to their style) come from a backward culture, are ignorant and have a lack of desire to improve themselves. Their tendency is to continue to force their ways (i.e. western) upon the host nationals, which later, will produce "resentment, silent resistance, sabotage and/or physical confrontation" among people of the host country (p. 76). In business context, the Americans are also known for their superiority. They always want to impose their ideas and expect others to bear and listen to them. They will usually try to dominate the discussion and are usually insensitive about others. These attitudes are not only observed when they are in their culture but also, either consciously or unconsciously practiced in other cultures. Mendenhall and Oddou's descriptions of how Americans usually fail to adjust but prefer to impose their culture on others are true in most cases where expatriates and government policies are concerned. Americans like to tell people what to do and how to do it but they will not follow or adjust accordingly. These are obviously the right examples of maladjusted individuals who do not know or realize that they have adjustment problems.

Webb (1996) notes that of time, sojourners or foreigners always feel that it is the people of the host who have to adjust to their norms and values whereas in fact, they are the ones who deviate from the norms of the host society. Thus, one should realize that it is important for the sojourners to realize how their culture affects them so that they can better understand how the host culture influences its people (Marquardt & Engel, 1993). Arguably though, many do not realize that culture differences exist; norms, values and practices differ from one culture to the other. People usually take things for granted, assuming that all cultures are the same. They are not able to see that some elements of the culture alien to others. Differences are more observable when we are in the culture, experience the day to day routine in that culture.

As the number of companies that go international and the number of expatriates on foreign assignment are increasing, it is also expected that the problems of adjustment will always be the issue in expatriation. In relation to that, it is important that issues related to the adjustment of expatriates be further explored for further understanding of the phenomenon, especially among expatriates assigned to a heterogeneous culture. This will help maximize our understanding of the factors that facilitate, inhibit and mediate expatriate adjustment. The following section offers in-depth discussions on the variables associated with expatriate adjustment.

2.7.3 Determinants of Expatriate Adjustment

As highlighted in subsection 2.4.3, adjustment is comprised of three related areas (general, interaction and work) which determine the expatriate's level of adjustment to the new environment. Church (1982, p. 543) describes well-adjusted expatriates as those who "represent a more integrative approach to a new culture, …are open to the host culture, but integrate new behavior, norms and roles into the foundation provided by home cultures." Likewise, those who fail to adjust are those who cannot accept the norms, values and practices of the new culture. This group of expatriates always perceives that their culture is superior to that of the hosts. Socially, they also prefer to be around the expatriate "bubble" and hold strongly to their culture in terms of norms, values, beliefs and practices.

Tung (1981) identifies three desirable attributes that could help expatriates to adjust to life in a foreign country. They are adaptability, flexibility and communication skills. Shay and Tracey (1997) however, adopted a comparative approach in their study because they believe that most of past research (i.e. Tung, 1981) examined industries other than hospitality. The scholars argued that expatriates in hospitality industry might adjust differently to a new environment and the results from Tung's study could have limited usage for those in hospitality industry. In justifying this, they conducted a study which asked for the perception of hotel managers towards those who returned early and the reasons for the premature return. Out of the 110 questionnaires sent out to managers employed by MNHCs, 40 surveys were returned and the respondents represented 15 nationalities. Interestingly, their study yielded results which showed significant differences in the variables that impact the adjustment of expatriates in hospitality industry. They found that the two most desirable characteristics of hotel expatriates that facilitate their adjustment are people skills and personal qualities, such as adaptability, flexibility, tolerance and emotional maturity. These researchers, in fact, found that personal and social skills are more desirable than technical skills—a result, which contradicts Tung's (1981) study. From their study, it was also found that only 25 per cent of the hotel expatriates underwent a cross-cultural training prior to expatriation. The results of the study also revealed that the failure rates among hotel expatriates were equivalent to those of US expatriates, which were about 30 per cent.

Besides that, Shay and Tracey's study also found some links between their results and past studies across industries. These include: (1) the inability of the expatriates and the trailing spouse to adjust, which has been identified as the most important reasons for failure; and (2) the expatriate's lack of maturity, either personal or emotional. The results of their study also emphasize the importance of relational and social skills for hotel expatriates and the variables have also been identified as more important than technical skills. The respondents also identified that cross-cultural training is essential for international assignments. Clearly, these studies revealed that generalizations that the same factors affect expatriate adjustment are therefore inappropriate as different industries require different expatriate qualities.

In addition, personality traits (Stening & Hammer, 1992), communication and interpersonal skills (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Black, 1990a, 1990b), language proficiency (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) and previous international experience (Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Church, 1982) are also found to affect expatriate adjustment. Variables such as education and age, marital status and pre-departure knowledge have also been identified as factors that influence adjustment (Mamman & Richards, 1996). Cultural distance or cultural dissimilarity has been another important factor in predicting adjustment (Furnham, 1983; Furnham & Bochner, 1982) as does linguistic ability, general knowledge about host culture and quality of interaction with host nationals (Kealey, 1989; Klineberg & Hull, 1979). On the same notion, Kim (1991) made an interesting comment on how an individual could deal with challenging intercultural situations. She (1991, p. 271) notes:

> The capacity to self-reorganize by being open, flexible, resilient and creative—and not being closed, rigid, intolerant, and habitual. This capacity, together with cultural—specific knowledge and skills, should enable a person to approach each intercultural encounter….

Harris and Moran (1991) also identified several important variables that lead to successful expatriation such as technical skills, managerial skills and human relations. In addition, Black et al. (1991) propose six major variables that could potentially contribute to an expatriate overall adjustment. These variables are:

1. anticipatory adjustment factors (i.e. individual expectation and selection process);
2. organization socialization factors (i.e. tactics and contents);
3. job factors (i.e. role clarity, role discretion, role novelty and role conflict);
4. organizational culture factors (i.e. novelty, social support and logistical assistance);
5. nonwork factors (i.e. culture novelty and family/spouse adjustment); and
6. individual factors (i.e. self-efficacy, relational skills and perception skills).

Still on the same issue, Arthur and Bennett (1995) identified five factors that contribute towards expatriate success. The factors are job know-how and motivation, relational skills, flexibility/adaptability, extra cultural openness and family situation. Some of the specific items that constitute each of these factors are presented in Figure 2.3. Three hundred and thirty eight expatriates across industries took part in the study. They were asked to point out the managerial traits that were imperative to expatriate success. Various reported items were then grouped into five factors mentioned before. The expatriates also admitted that the five factors were not equally important to the success of their assignment. Arthur and Bennett conclude that family situation was vital in ensuring successful expatriation.

1. Job Knowledge & Motivation
   Managerial ability
   Organizational ability
   Imagination
   Creativity
   Administrative skills
   Alertness
   Responsibility
   Industriousness
   Initiative & energy
   High motivation
   Frankness
   Belief in mission & job
   Perseverance

2. Relational Skills
   Respect
   Courtesy & tact
   Display of respect
   Kindness
   Empathy
   Nonjudgmental
   Integrity
   Confidence

3. Flexibility/Adaptability
   Resourcefulness
   Ability to deal with stress
   Flexibility
   Emotional stability
   Willingness to change
   Tolerance for ambiguity
   Adaptability
   Dependability
   Political sensitivity
   Positive self-image

4. Extra-Cultural Openness
   Variety of outside interests
   Interest in foreign cultures
   Openness
   Knowledge of local language(s)
   Outgoingness & extraversion
   Overseas experience

5. Family Situation
   Adaptability of spouse & family
   Spouse's positive opinion
   Willingness of spouse to live abroad
   Stable marriage

Figure 2.3: Factors important to international assignment
Source: Arthur & Bennett, 1995

Beside all those factors, scholars also suggest that cross-cultural management skills are crucial for expatriates to manage across cultures. Torrington (1994, p. 98) defines a skill as "the ability to demonstrate a sequence of behavior that is functionally related to attaining a performance goal." In this case, the performance goal is the ability to (Mead, p.1998):

- understand the nature of culture and how it influences behavior;
- learn about specific cultures (i.e. home and host cultures) and try not to make any comparisons between the two;
- recognize the differences that exist between cultures;
- recognize which and how cultural factors affect business, systems, priorities, and so on;

- implement the structure, values (and so on) of the host culture; and
- recognize how the home culture can be implemented within the host culture and vice versa, then implement it.

It is generally agreed that earlier studies preferred to classify all the variables mentioned earlier into two distinct categories: the individual and organizational factors. However, reviews of the literature reveal that whereas individual factors comprise of variables such as personality, family adjustment, previous international experience, language ability, communication and interaction with host nationals and cultural distance, organizational factors include selection and training, human resource support, work role and organizational culture. There have also been attempts to group the variables found in the expatriation literature into four different groups: individual, organizational, work and nonwork. Regardless, the variables classified under each category are not fixed, as researchers sometimes prefer to move these variables around depending on the purpose of their research. For example, social support has been classified as a variable categorized under the organizational factor by some researchers, but in other cases, it has been discussed as the nonwork factor.

The individual factors generally include variables such as personality, language ability, communication and interaction, previous international experience, relational skills and perception skills. The organizational factor comprises of pre-departure training, human resource support, on-site support and organizational culture. Meanwhile, the work factor includes the variables that are related to expatriate's job such as role clarity, role conflict, role novelty and role discretion. Finally, the nonwork factor is made up of family/spouse adjustment, culture novelty and social support. Even though some of these variables may belong to a different category, there are possibilities that the variables can interact with each other to allow successful adjustment. For example, language ability is very much needed for the expatriates (or spouse and children) to be able to communicate with the host. Good communication skills will ensure that the expatriate is able to communicate, interact and perform their job satisfactorily, thus enhancing adjustment.

Even though literature has widely discussed the facilitating and inhibiting factors in expatriate adjustment, this study will not examine all of these variables though it should be recognized that there is an awareness of the impact of other variables on expatriate adjustment. For the purpose of this study, the results obtained from a number of conversations with expatriates in hotel industry were used as a guide in choosing the appropriate variables for this research. From the conversations, it was found that expatriates in the industry did not encounter much problem with work-related issues and that it did not affect their adjustment. The factors and variables that were found to be important are presented in Table 2.3. The identification of factors and variables for the study has also meant that these would be the main subjects under discussion.

Table 2.3
Factors and Variables Identified for the Study

Factors	Variables
Individual	Personality, language ability and previous international experience.
Organization	Training, human resource support and organization culture.
Nonwork	Family/spouse adjustment and host culture and environment (culture novelty
	Communication and interaction (mediating)

The next section discusses the main variables that are expected to influence and mediate expatriate adjustment in the Malaysian hotel industry and it begins with the discussion on the role of communication and interaction as the mediating variable of expatriate adjustment. It is worth mentioning that this variable had been studied as the independent variable in expatriate adjustment and has widely shown a direct effect with expatriate adjustment. The discussion then proceeds with other factors (individual, organization and nonwork) that affect expatriate adjustment.

2.7.3.1 Mediating Variable - Communication and Interaction

The ability to communicate and interact with people of the host country is a requirement that is common to most of the activities that are taking place in a foreign assignment. As noted by Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) the expatriate's ability to communicate is more important than language proficiency. Active interaction and communication with people of the host country will ensure that the objectives of these individuals and companies are met. Researchers have mainly acknowledged the importance of communication and interaction in international adjustment. A study Beamish and Calof (1989) for example, revealed that communication skills are most vital during expatriation. This is followed by leadership skills, interpersonal skills and adaptability/flexibility. In addition, Montagliani and Giacalone (1998) note that communication barriers can pervade the life of expatriates and their families. This in turn will produce unhappiness and hinder their adjustment to the new cultural environment.

Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) propose that there are three dimensions of personal skills that are positively related to adjustment. One of the dimensions is others-orientation, which is the individual characteristics that simply affects "the expatriate's ability to interact effectively with host nationals" (p. 41). This dimension of personal skills can be divided into two. First is the ability to establish interpersonal relationships with people of the host culture. The personality theory describes this as one's sociability (Piedmont, McCrae & Costa, 1991), which includes the one's ability to be sociable and the motivation that one has in establishing interpersonal relationships with the locals. Second, it is one's willingness to communicate with the locals. This is one's level of openness (Piedmont et al., 1991). Caligiuri (2000) defines openness as an individual's receptiveness to learn and change in the new environment. The individual who has an open mind has the belief that the new culture has something valuable to offer and at the same time this can help them to learn, improve and adjust to the new environment.

As stated earlier, successful adjustment does not only depend on communication skills but also the willingness to initiate interaction and communication with the host (Black, 1990b; Church, 1982; Holopainen & Bjorkman, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). It is claimed that a sojourner or an expatriate's willingness to communicate with the host determines the extent of information they can obtain from the locals. As noted by Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005), the greater the involvement with the locals, the more the interaction with them, the better the expatriates can understand the new culture and environment. Communication with host nationals can help the expatriates to better understand the locals and this helps them to learn how to behave in order to perform effectively in the new environment. These will consequently lead to better performance, lower CS and better adjustment (Black, 1990b). Despite, communication and interaction has been found to be an important determinant of all facets of expatriate adjustment.

Kealey (1989) contends that by limiting interaction to the "expatriate ghetto" or mingling around the "expatriate bubble" can only create greater barriers to understanding the new environment. Lee and Yarwood (1983) found that successful expatriates are those who mix around the locals but at the same time maintain their cultural values. Even though the skills are crucial during expatriation, Black et al. (1992a) point out that there are still many expatriates who are not willing to communicate genuinely with people of the host country. They prefer to rely on their subordinates or translators to communicate for them. This kind of attitude will affect the assignment, as without direct and effective communication, "it will be difficult to coordinate, control and transfer information…" (p. 64). Martin (1994) also maintains that people need to interact with host nationals and failure to do that can cause social isolation. The social relationship that expatriates establish during their assignment can help them gather “work- and non-work-related information and feedback” (Black, et al., 1992a, p. 65).

As the ability and willingness to communicate with host nationals serve as important determinants in expatriate adjustment, limiting interactions with co-nationals or other groups of expatriates is considered undesirable as it prevents the expatriates from learning the language, values and customs of the host (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1962) and understanding the local people and culture (Adler, 1991; Kealey, 1989). This in turn, promotes the feelings of alienation. The ability to develop a relationship proves to be important in a foreign assignment (Hammer, Gudykunst & Wiseman, 1978; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). However, Mogtagliani and Giacalone (1998) point out that communication and interaction with the host is usually difficult due to the lack of knowledge about the new culture, especially the cultural standards and other aspects of life in the new environment.

Literature on cross-cultural transition implicitly assumes that frequent interaction with people of the host nation facilitates cross-cultural adjustment (Church, 1982; Gudykunst, 1991). Kim (1988, 2001, 2005) provides a theoretical framework for understanding the context during the sojourn and also on how communication plays its role in successful adjustment. She suggests that people experience some kind of stress when they are in an unfamiliar culture and the feeling can be reduced through communication and interaction with host nationals. She maintains that communication competence is the most important variable affecting adjustment. Another study by Kim (2007) which investigated Korean expatriates' communication and adaptation experiences in the United States revealed two important findings related to expatriates' communicative ability. It was found that cultural awareness and appreciation and the enthusiasm toward participating in interpersonal communication with the locals are crucial in adjustment. The active communication with the locals will enable the expatriates to obtain more information about the people and the culture and hence, facilitate their adjustment. The findings, together with several others (Kim, 1988, 2001, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Ruben & Kealey, 1979) have clearly shown that effective interaction and competency in communication are the most crucial elements in cross-cultural adjustment. Competency in the context of cross-cultural adjustment includes listening skill and the ability to utilize verbal and nonverbal cues which is important in providing feedback to the host. This behavior leads towards appropriate behaviors and adjustment to the new environment. The inability to communicate effectively with host nationals would result in increased feelings of frustration and anxiety, which in turn, enhance CS and inhibit adjustment (Church, 1982).

It is now obvious that communication skills are important during expatriation as most activities during the assignment mostly require expatriates to communicate with people in the new environment on a regular basis. Brein and David (1971) also agree that communication skills are known to be very beneficial in the adjustment process as the ability has shown to affect various aspects of life in the new environment. In the US for example, research on international students found that students who speak and understand English have less trouble in getting along with the Americans and in dealing with the environment (Selltiz , Chris, Havel & Cook, 1963). The discussions also revealed the important roles played by communication and interaction in expatriate adjustment. The following section will look at how the individual factors—personality, language ability and previous international experience play their roles in expatriate adjustment.

2.7.3.2 Individual Factors

Reviews on the impact of individual factors on adjustment were conducted by integrating both the domestic and international adjustment literatures as both are concerned with a move to a new environment, whether within or outside the country and those who move, will definitely have to adjust to the new environment. The only difference could be the degree of familiarity and similarity of the new place.

The individual factor can be categorized into three dimensions. Firstly, there is self-orientation, which is an individual's "ability to believe in oneself and have the confidence in one's ability to deal effectively…" (Black et al., 1992a, p. 125) with the people and the new environment. Those with confidence and positive self-image will adjust better and, as Bandura (1977) points out, those who believe in themselves will continue in their course of action despite the challenges and difficulties. These individuals will not hesitate to ask questions when they make mistakes and they are more likely to learn from the mistakes that they make. Besides, they also tend not to make the same mistakes. In this case, the skills that are needed include self-efficacy and self-knowledge. Bandura believes that those with a greater level of self-efficacy have greater tendencies to exhibit new behaviors in a new environment.

Next is others-orientation or relational skills which focuses on crucial characteristics for relationship development. These characteristics enable the expatriate to go out, meet and interact with people of the host nation. It is predicted that those with good interpersonal skills in the home culture have better adjustment than those with lower interpersonal skills. Those who possess good interpersonal skills are able to apply the principles of human interaction that enable them to develop relationships with host nationals (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994). Through the relationship, the expatriate will gain valuable information about the culture which could facilitate their adjustment. In this case, language proficiency, willingness to communicate and willingness to try new things are important for the expatriate on foreign assignment.

Another type of relational skills that can help individuals to cope with stress in a foreign environment is cultural flexibility, which is one's ability to familiarize oneself to the new culture (Aycan, 1997). This includes the ability to adapt to the new activities in the host culture, being open to people's opinions and behaviors and a willingness to change to the appropriate behaviors of the new culture (Torbiorn, 1982).

Lastly, perception-orientation is concerned with the abilities that enable expatriates to accurately identify and assess the people and the new culture. The skills are important as a mean of understanding appropriate and inappropriate behaviors while entering a new cultural environment. According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1985) the better the perceptual skills the easier the expatriate will comprehend and interpret the host culture.

Abilities such as tolerance for ambiguity, flexible attributions, social ability and cultural flexibility tend to link positively to the three facets of adjustment (Black, 1990a).

The following section will proceed with the discussion on the individual variables that could potentially affect expatriate adjustment. he discussion on personality trait will proceed by concentrating only on personality (self-efficacy), language ability, and previous international experience. This is followed by the discussions on the impacts of language ability and previous international experience. Beside the conversations with the expatriates, the decision to study these variables is also based on the literature reviewed for the purpose of this thesis which revealed some inconsistencies in their relationships with expatriate adjustment. Further investigation is therefore needed in order to confirm the relationship among these variables and expatriate adjustment.

a) Personality

The groups of variables that have received the most attention in relation to adjustment have been personality trait or personal characteristics (Caligiuri, et al., 1998; Church, 1982; Huang, Chi & Lawler, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Johnson, Kristof-Brown, Van Vianen, De Pater, & Klein, 2003; Peltokorpi, 2008; Selmer, 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999; Shaffer et al, 2006; Stening, 1979; Swagler & Jome, 2005). According to Buss (1989, 1991), personality characteristics influence people to behave in a certain way, according to the situation, to achieve a certain goal. Even though there have been arguments about the relevance and validity of personality characteristics to adjustment, there is evidence that certain personality characteristics do exhibit some relationships with expatriate adjustment (Kealey & Ruben, 1983). Personal characteristics such as tolerance of ambiguity, open-mindedness, empathy, interaction management, willingness to communicate, cultural flexibility, respect and flexibility toward others have been identified as important to successful adjustment (Black, 1990a). Parker and McEvoy (1993) in their review of the literature found some frequently cited personality characteristics (i.e. open-mindedness, cultural empathy and stress tolerance). Dawis and Lofquist (1984) refer to the characteristics mentioned above as personality and according to them there are two major aspects of personality. The first is the personality structure, which describes the individual's capabilities and preferences toward the factors that trigger specific reaction from them. The crucial elements here are the abilities which describe an individual's skills and values which provide a manageable way to describe an individual's needs. Second, it is the personality style which is the style of responding during the interaction with the environment such as with people and everything else that one encounters in the new environment.

Of all the personality variables that had been proposed and tested, the Big Five personality traits was repeatedly and consistently been the characteristics of personality chosen for studies in expatriation (see for example Huang et al., 2005; Johnson et al., 2003; Peltokorpi, 2008; Shaffer et al., 2006; Swagler & Jome, 2005). Another variable that has shown to impact adjustment was self-efficacy but despite a broad discussion (see for example Black et al., 1991 and Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993), this variable has not been widely investigated as a predictor of adjustment to international assignment. Besides, it has also not been widely discussed within the literature. The description of this variable is important in understanding the individual variable that facilitate or inhibit expatriate adjustment.

The self-efficacy theory proposes that individual mastery expectations are the major determinants of behavioral modification. The theory suggests that there are two types of expectancies which wield prevailing impacts on behavioral change. The first is the outcome expectancies, which is the belief that certain behaviors will lead to certain outcomes. This type of expectancy is quite similar to Vroom's (1964) work on expectancy-of-performance-to-outcome. Second, is self-efficacy expectancy, which is related to one's self-confidence that he/she can execute the specific behavior successfully (Maddux, Sherer & Rogers, 1982). This is also similar to Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation. Bandura (1977) suggests that expectations of self-efficacy are crucial determinants of behavioral change as the expectations that one has will influence his/her primary decision to execute the behavior effort and duration that it will endure if the situation changes for the worst. There is also evidence that the experiences of personal mastery that lead to efficacy expectancies can be simplified to enable behaviors other than the ones being targeted to be performed (Bandura, Adams & Beyer, 1977). Meaning, those with a number of positive experiences may have positive self-efficacy expectancies in a greater variety of situations as compared to those with limited success. The theory asserts that successful performance leads to increases in self-efficacy expectations and that mastery experiences in one area may be generalized to other types of behaviors (Bandura et al., 1977). The context in which mastery experiences occur and one's ascription of success establish whether experiences of mastery affect the degree of self-efficacy (Bandura (1977).

Based on Bandura's view of self-efficacy, researchers have then pursued to look at the notion of general self-efficacy, which discuss self-efficacy in a more general sense (Sherer et al., 1982). Sherer et al. predict that individual differences in general self-efficacy expectancies subsist and that these differences are correlated to the individual's behavior. Sherer et al. (1982, p. 664) describe general self-efficacy as "an individual's past experiences with success and failure in a variety of situations which should result in a general set of expectations that the individual carries into new situations." This suggests that general mastery in various situations contributes to the expatriates' general expectations about the new cultural environment. Sherer et al. also propose two dimensions of general self-efficacy: (1) performance achievements, which look at the expatriate' work performance; and (2) interpersonal relationship development, which focuses on the expatriate's ability to initiate relationships with others. Bandura (1977) notes that those with higher levels of self-efficacy will endure the imitation of modeled behavior much longer and to be more enthusiastic about emulating new behaviors. Some of the factors that could increase self-efficacy are past experience, vivid experience and verbal persuasion.

The above discussion reveals that this skill is crucial in overseas assignment, as it will help expatriates to successfully adjust to the foreign environment. Black et al. (1991) posit that expatriates who possess high levels of self-efficacy tend to persist in exhibiting new behaviors that are being learned in a foreign environment. Therefore, they have greater opportunities for receiving feedback (positive and negative) about their acquired skills as compared to those with low self-efficacy. The feedback can then be used to reduce the uncertainty and they can correct their behaviors to better correspond to the expectations of the host. Those with high self-efficacy will be very determined in performing the right and appropriate behavior (Bandura, 1977). In short, self-efficacy helps expatriates to perform new behaviors and assists their cultural adjustment. It affects the expatriate's perceptions about their abilities to successfully operate in a new environment and skills in connecting effectively with the locals (Gist, Stevens & Bavetta, 1991).

Research on task specific (performance achievement) self-efficacy has yielded consistent findings. A review by Gist and Mitchell (1992) indicates that self-efficacy is associated with job performance, productivity, coping ability, career choice, learning and achievement and adaptability. Sherer and Adams (1983) on the other hand, studied the relationship between general self-efficacy and students' adjustment to their college environment. They found that students who exhibit high scores on general self-efficacy see themselves as better adjusted as compared to those with lower scores. Even though they did not investigate adjustment to a new culture, the result did suggest that self-efficacy does play a part in adjustment. Studies on the role of individual factors in cross-cultural adjustment also show that self-efficacy has a direct relationship to all three facets of adjustment (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994).

As cross-cultural adjustment involves a wide variety of situations, general self-efficacy is a more appropriate variable to measure the impact of personality characteristics on expatriate adjustment. An expatriate will certainly face various and unique challenges during the course of their adjustment and in surmounting these challenges, their past experiences serve as a beneficial means in shaping their belief about the potential success in the new culture. As adjustment to international assignment involves both dimensions of general self-efficacy described earlier, it is anticipated that those with high levels of achievement and good social self-efficacy skills will be better adjusted to Malaysian culture.

b) Language Ability

Another important variable that people always take for granted when sojourning to another culture is the language. This is perhaps the most obvious difference between cultures. It is the one thing that an expatriate will notice the minute they enter another culture. Language is also the most obvious aspect with which people must learn to cope when they move to another culture. David (1972) posits that language difference is one of the important aspects that influences adjustment and should be taken into consideration when an individual moves to another culture. Selmer's (2006a) study also found that language ability has a strong positive relationship with interaction adjustment and general adjustment and it specifically helps expatriates with work and daily interaction with host nationals which in turn facilitate their adjustment.

The diversity of languages and the comparable mixture of cultures in the world pose great influence on international business. Companies that go international depend greatly on communication and language is a means of communication. The use of different languages in different countries can be a barrier to effective communication when global business is concerned (Spinks & Wells, 1997). To a certain extent, host country language proficiency can be an advantage to companies expanding their business in a foreign country (Bjorkman & Gertsen, 1992). Even though English is known as the language of international business, one should not assume that it could be used in all cross-cultural communications (Harrison, 1994). A vast majority of people in the world neither understands nor speaks English. Most often, the language is used (though not fluently) by people who live in the city. If expatriates view the language skills as a means to enhance interpersonal relationships and to understand the dynamics of a host culture, then language skills can facilitate adjustment (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). It is found that there are two different beliefs regarding the importance of language in adjustment. While one group of researchers believe that fluency in local language is important, the other group believes that fluency is not necessary.

Some researchers believe that a basic knowledge of local language is not just enough. An earlier study by Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1966) revealed that language fluency is a necessary condition for the adjustment of sojourners as language helps them to communicate with host nationals. In the case of expatriates, fluency in the host country language may facilitate adjustment because it equips them with communication and perception skills (Lee & Sukoco, 2008; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993). The inability to communicate effectively with the hosts would result in increased feelings of frustration and anxiety (Church, 1982). Additionally, Shaffer et al. (1999) note that fluency in the host country's language is crucial because if not, important information that are related to their adjustment could be certain inputs related to their adjustment could not be obtained. They also suggest that a lack of fluency could cause the expatriates to depend more on others for support. In their study, Shaffer and colleagues found that fluency in the host country language had significant direct effects on expatriate interaction adjustment. Language fluency could help expatriates to be more aware of various demands from people of the host, either outside or at work. Those who are not fluent may miss the inconsistent gestures shown by the locals.

There is however, a drawback to this. Expatriates who are fluent in a local language, but are not sensitive to local culture, can also make serious mistakes. Some languages are rather vague and therefore, expatriates have to be able to read between the lines. In such cultures information is usually implicit and words do not always have specific meanings. Nonverbal communication is much valued in this culture. Thus, the ability to be sensitive toward the nonverbal expression can be an advantage as it can help expatriates to be more efficient in the new culture. This is especially true in a high-context culture like Malaysia where people have to be able to read between the lines in order to understand what some things mean. For example, in business context, sometimes an employee may not agree with the policy or ideas presented by the management but in most cases, the employee will never tell directly that he/she does not agree with a certain aspect of the management due to the feeling of respect or worry that the comments made can jeopardize his/her career. In this case, a little bit of sensitivity from the management can help them read what an employee has in mind, through their facial expression or body movements.

The second group of researchers believes that even though most people would agree that language helps people to get around easier, this does not mean that expatriates have to be fluent in the local language. They believe that the level of self-confidence and motivation to use the host country's language are more important to adjustment than the fluency of language itself (Brislin, 1993; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Additionally, Copeland and Griggs (1985, p. 113) suggest that knowing some words of the local language helps the expatriates to gain "a sense of safety and self-assurance", as at the very least it reveals that efforts are made to learn the local language. Copeland and Griggs (1985) also suggest that learning the local language may be useful in several ways. First, even though English is widely spoken, knowing the local language allows an expatriate to understand more about the local business practices especially in negotiations. Second, it may be useful for socialization purposes. Being in a new culture requires that expatriates move around a lot such as going to restaurants or shopping. Some basic knowledge of the local language(s) will help expatriates to interact and communicate with local people. Black et al. (1992a) also agree with the view that expatriates need to have some level of host country language proficiency, as without it, it is going to be difficult for expatriates to communicate with people in the host culture. Thus, language studies in cross-cultural training should focus on developing confidence and willingness to communicate with host nationals.

Even though the importance of language is widely recognized, many MNCs still give it low priority. For example, Becker (1981) discovered that less than half of the respondents' top managements identified in the study believed that language was important and only 20 per cent of the companies surveyed required language for overseas postings. Beside those reasons, other reasons that MNCs usually provide include the belief that communication in the local language can always be done by interpreters and that the language used at the parent companies is "international" and expatriates have no need to learn the local language. Instead, it is the locals who must learn the "international" language.[2] Mead (1998) argues that most often, native speakers are at a disadvantage as they are the ones who have to learn to speak the expatriate's language.

In sum, whether it is fluency or just a basic knowledge, knowing local language(s) is argued as being crucial in expatriate adjustment. Hotel Malaysia in its travel advisory brochures simply states:

> For any traveler interested in spending time in this region (East Asian), a basic knowledge of the languages goes a long way to making travel more insightful, economical and much easier. Even if you know a few words…will be delighted to hear you speak their language and will be much more responsive to you.

This shows that some knowledge of a local language is always helpful. Research on the importance of language in cross-cultural adjustment has also yielded results which are consistent with theoretical positions and this have been widely discussed by a number of authors. For instance, Mead (1998) asserts that knowing local language can help expatriates in three ways:

- Local employees will be more likely to trust the expatriate as they are encouraged by the expatriate's interest in their language;
- The knowledge of the local language can help the expatriate to check on the accuracy of the interpreter; and
- In the context of negotiations, if the other side knows that the expatriate understands something of their language, they will less likely to comment upon his/her works in asides among themselves.

Daily encounters with the locals either at work or outside work can pose considerable amount of difficulties if the expatriates does not have the knowledge of the local language. This also prevents them from performing well in the new culture. Even though the knowledge of the local language may not promise

[2] Mead (1998, p. 438) defines international languages as those "spoken by significant groups in more than one country as a first or second language…". These include Arabic, several Chinese dialects (i.e. Cantonese and Mandarin), English, French, Malay, Portuguese, Russian and Spanish.

excellent performance, it certainly helps the expatriate to develop better relationships with people at work and outside work, as well as the customers (Webb, 1996). The knowledge of local language helps people to move around as it enables people to communicate and interact with host nationals. This in turn will help expatriates to adjust to the new environment.

c) Previous International Experience

Authors have argued that the experience of living in a foreign country, especially if it is in the same country or a country of similar background should facilitate adjustment. For instance, Black et al. (1991) note that previous overseas experience helps when an expatriate enters a new culture as he/she can form accurate expectations regarding the various aspects of the new environment. In a study on expatriation in Malaysia, Mohd. Tahir and Ismail (2007) found that respondents in their study claimed that previous experience, especially in cultures similar to the present one, had facilitated their adjustment in Malaysia. The exposures and challenges had helped these expatriates to anticipate about the new culture. This view is supported by Siljanen and Lämsä (2009) who point out that the experience of living abroad, in several places, made adaptation easier for expatriate in many respects. Previous international experience allows expatriates to develop the skills needed during expatriation. The skills help them to reduce uncertainty associated with the move to a new culture and hence, facilitate their adjustment.

According to Black et al. (1992b) the relationship between previous international experience and adjustment is moderated by the gap between past and current assignments and the type of preceding assignment. Black et al. (1992a) also note that the more experience the expatriate has with a certain country or culture, the more they can use the experience in adapting to the various challenges in the new country. This is true even if the previous assignment took place 10 years before. This relates to the example given in Chapter 1 about an expatriate who was sent to Malaysia 15 to 20 years ago. Even though the present situation in the country would have differed in many ways, at least the expatriate will have some rough ideas about what the country, specifically its culture, is like. In this case, adjusting to Malaysian culture is considered easier for an expatriate who had been there as compared to those who have not. Adjustment to a foreign country is also made easier if the expatriate's job responsibility is similar to their previous assignment. Church (1982) and Brislin (1993) also maintain that previous cross-cultural experience has been shown to be a predictor of successful adjustment. A study by Ward and Kennedy (1993) supports that notion. They found that previous cross-cultural experience was a predictor related to social difficulty face by international students in New Zealand. Students who had experience with cross-cultural transition reported less social difficulty during their stay in a foreign country. Generally, previous overseas work experience was found to relate to expatriate's work adjustment rather than their general adjustment.

The above findings are consistent with the SLT discussed earlier in the chapter, which suggests that during previous cross-cultural experience, individuals normally acquire the skills to cope with uncertainties in the new environment (Bandura, 1977). Experienced expatriates will be more likely to discard ineffective coping strategies and retain the effective one. They can always ignore what had not worked for them in the past and focus only on what did (Russ & McNeilly, 1995). The ones they retain will be the one that they will use in the present environment. All these skills are acquired through observation, modeling and reinforcement. However, studies that look into the relationship between previous international experience and expatriate adjustment do not always yield the same findings. Torbiorn (1982) conducted a study on three groups of expatriates with various experiences. The first group comprised of those with less than a year or with no experience working abroad at all. The second group consisted of those who had lived abroad between one and five years and the final group were those who had more than five years of experience. The results showed that the duration of past assignment had not significant relationship with the expatriate's level of adjustment. Therefore, the number of past foreign assignments does not affect the present expatriate's situation.

In the overall, reviews of the literature suggest that previous international experience does generally facilitate expatriate adjustment. The discussion will now move to the second factor, which is the organizational factor.

2.7.3.3 Organizational Factors

Comparative research on international human resource management (IHRM) shows that expatriates representing European companies are more successful in their adjustment than those of American-based companies since they are well equipped with extensive preparation, cross-cultural training and stronger supports from parent organizations (Brewster & Pickard, 1994). Additionally, an expatriate's perception of adequacy of benefits and supports from employers was found to be significant predictors to his/her commitment to the organization (Guzzo et al., 1994). This suggests that the organization does play an important role in facilitating adjustment. While training and human resource support has been tested empirically in previous literature, social support has not received much attention from researchers.

The section that follows discusses how both companies, parent and foreign, can assist in the adjustment of expatriates. Reviews of the literature suggest that there are four types of organizational factors that are considered important for successful adjustment and these factors are also found to have the strongest impact on expatriate's work rather than general or interaction adjustment (Black et al., 1992a). The four variables are post arrival cross-cultural training, organizational culture, logistical support and social support from co-workers. The review however, will only include three variables under organizational factors: training, which focuses on the pre-departure and post arrival, human resource support and social support. The discussion shall begin by looking at the role of training in expatriate adjustment.

a) Training

Participants in intercultural experiences should anticipate that many problems could arise when one enters a new cultural environment. The language is different and this complicates communication. Differences in norms, values and behaviors can be stressful and damaging to some. Snodgrass and Zachlod (1977) note that the complexity or difficulty to adjust to a foreign environment bears heavily upon the responsibility of the organizations that choose expatriates for the assignment. Despite this, a number of writers note that a large number of firms fail to acknowledge the importance of training and preparation for international relocation. For example, Schwind (1985, p. 7) notes that "a majority of companies involved in international trade do not provide any preparatory training for managers and employees destined to work abroad." Many firms are also ignorant or only have the slightest idea about the factors that are more likely to facilitate or inhibit adjustment during a foreign assignment (Black et al., 1992a).

Mead (1998) suggests that there are four categories of training that an expatriate need to go through prior to their assignment, namely, technical training, management training, cross-cultural training and language training. While technical training and management training provide knowledge and awareness toward working in a new culture, cross-cultural training and language training are important to both working and living in a new culture. On the other hand, Schnapper (1979) maintains that the world of MNCs is "too vast, complex and changeable" for a particular training model to have a universal application. He believes that MNCs should focus on four major areas in their training model and this includes managerial, intercultural, local business issues and practices and language training.

Schnapper's (1979) view is also shared by Black and Mendenhall (1990) who contend that if training focuses on all dimensions of adjustment (i.e. culture, work and communication skills) then the training tends to affect all three dimensions of adjustment. The researchers believe that training can help expatriates to practice and develop the behaviors and skills that are crucial in order for them to operate effectively in their assignment. Harris and Moran (1991) argued that regardless of the type of cultural awareness training undertaken, there is a similarity in the general objectives of the management such as to increase greater sensitivity of the differences that exist, enhance cross-cultural skills, reduce CS and increase job effectiveness. More generally, the importance of training has been emphasized by many scholars and researchers. For example, Harris and Moran (1991) discuss different kinds of training that are necessary for a person taking up a post in foreign countries. These include managerial, intercultural and language trainings.

Among the types of training that have been discussed, cross-cultural training has been found to improve performance and adjustment and contribute towards the development of cross-cultural management abilities (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Selmer (2010) proposes three stages of cross-cultural training—before the assignment, after arrival and sequential. These trainings can help expatriates to get into perspectives how the host culture differs from their own. Causin et al. (2011) claim that generally, cross-cultural training has two comparable components: cross-cultural awareness and culture specific trainings. Cross-cultural awareness deals with the culture expression at the workplace, which aims towards dealing with challenges posed by culture differences at the workplace (Gliatis & Guerrier, 1993). On the other hand, culture/country specific training focuses on values, morals, ethics, business practices and other factors related to the country. As Marquardt and Engel (1993) point out, cross-cultural training is important as it helps expatriates to understand how their culture shapes their behavior. This in turn, helps them to recognize how a foreign culture shapes the behaviors of its people. People may be aware of the culture differences but they may not realize that their values, customs, norms, beliefs and behaviors are not universal. They usually take things for granted and are incapable of seeing that the elements are alien to others. They will only realize and understand the difference when they are in the new culture. Gill (1983, p. 89) asserts that "understanding cross-cultural personality differences can help management and government to achieve more harmonious adjustment of expectations where managers are transferred from one country to another.

According to Black and Mendenhall (1990), the improvement in cross-cultural skills are measured by the ability of the expatriate to participate in effective cross-cultural interactions and minimize or eliminate misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviors. In this sense, organizations sending expatriates overseas have to determine appropriate skills and competencies that the expatriates require in order for them to perform effectively abroad. Hofstede (1980, p. 398) suggests several skills that are considered important for international relocation:

- the capacity to communicate respect;
- the capacity to be non-judgmental;
- the capacity to accept the relativity of one's own knowledge and perceptions;
- the capacity to display empathy;
- the capacity to be flexible;
- the capacity for turn-taking (in conversations and discussions); and
- tolerance for ambiguity.

In relation to that, Gudykunst and Hammer (1983) present a detail explanation of a cross-cultural training approach where they believe extend along two axes: (1) experiential (learn by doing) versus didactic (cognitive understanding which can be achieved through lectures, videos and discussionsn); and (2) culture-specific (specific information about the new culture) versus culture-general (information that guides the expatriates through a range of skills). Mendenhall, Punnett and Ricks (1995) however argue that while the models mentioned above are familiar to the academics, very few practitioners actually adopt the training method. In fact, they question whether training is actually provided to the expatriates. An earlier study conducted by Lanier (1979) revealed that 33 per cent of the companies did not provide preparation of any kind to its employees assigned overseas. Of the companies that did, 60 per cent said they used in-house staff that had no real qualifications for orientation training. Most companies in the survey considered preparation to be one or more interviews "covering compensation, travel procedures, company medical plans and how to get a passport." Of all the companies being surveyed, 43 per cent did not include spouses in their training program. The importance of training in the process of expatriation has led Black and Mendenhall (1990) to propose one particular theory for better understanding of the adjustment process. The researchers use the SLT to explain why pre-departure training is useful in facilitating expatriate adjustment and how the training could positively influence their interaction with the locals.

In addition, Black and Mendenhall (1990) claim that "cross-cultural training enables the individual to learn both the content and skill that predict effective cross-cultural interaction by reducing misunderstandings and inappropriate behaviors." (p. 120). Seely (1979, p. 47) further recognizes that cross-cultural training provides:

> a framework within which people can develop skills and acquire the knowledge that increases their ability to function effectively from an intercultural experience. It fosters sensitivity to, appreciation of and respect for all cultures. It functions to reduce tensions and build bridges among people of differing cultural backgrounds.

The knowledge gained from the training will also enable the expatriates to develop confidence to behave suitably in the new culture and perform appropriate behaviors essential for interaction with people of the host culture. Hence, this can enhance expatriate adjustment.

Most researchers believe that cultural training should be the focus in the preparation for expatriation and the training should be provided before the departure (Chien & McLean, 2011; Selmer, 2005, 2010). Others however, argue that it should be provided after arrival in the host culture. Still, others insist that it must be a combination of before, during and after the foreign assignment takes place. Too often, expatriates are fortunate if they receive any training in foreign languages or the technical aspects of world business and environment (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Most US companies, for example, have not provided enough training for its employees to work with people from other cultures. It is found that almost 70 per cent of American expatriates who were sent abroad did not receive any training or preparation prior to their foreign assignment (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Misa & Fabricatore, 1979). Of all US firms surveyed, only about 35 per cent offer pre-departure cross-cultural or language training prior to expatriation. Out of that 35 per cent which offers cross-cultural training, the training include only activities such as watching films, providing reading materials about the country of assignment and interacting with people who have been or lived in the country of assignment. Very few organizations offer in-depth, cross-cultural training (Oddou & Mendenhall, 1991). It seems rather surprising that a country like the US, which is known to have the highest failure rate of expatriate on foreign assignment, still fails to acknowledge the importance of training and preparation for international relocation.

According to Harris and Moran (1991) the length of time devoted to preparation for foreign assignment varies according to the organization and the availability of time and finances for training. Some non-profit organizations devote a year prior to departure. The length of time would seem desirable in the case of foreign language training. Some MNCs devote six months to getting the employee and family ready for foreign assignment. Above all, parent companies should allow enough time for orientation of the expatriate and their family.

Whether circumstances or opinion dictate a long- or short-term approach to cross-cultural training, it is the quality of the training that is important. Time and money are wasted if employee training for functioning in a multicultural environment is deficient. As Harris and Moran (1991) points out, ignorance of cultural and business differences in the host country can lead to unnecessary waste, costly mistakes and career failures. That is part of the reasons why Mendenhall and Oddou's (1986) proposition on the importance of training should be taken seriously. For example, Mendenhall and Oddou note that before expatriation takes place, it is crucial that these expatriates are provided with appropriate training and they suggest several factors that companies need to be concerned of when providing training to expatriates. First, the companies should ensure that expatriates are given the assessment of their capabilities that are vital to their adjustment. This can help them to anticipate how the foreign culture is like. Second, it is also important that expatriates receive training in the areas that are thought to be crucial in adjustment especially in the areas where expatriates consider as their weakest point. Third, the training provided should also be multidimensional in nature. Meaning, it includes all the skills necessary for adjustment. Next, the training should also be appropriate so that expatriates and family can integrate into the host culture. Finally, the training should be provided by well-qualified individuals and should cover a wide variety of areas that could facilitate expatriate adjustment.

Ironically though, in hospitality industry, even though the number of companies related to the industry is increasing, Cullen (1981) argues that hospitality executives are often sent abroad without any preparation for handling the problems associated with cross-cultural management. Cullen also notes how a spokesman from MNC put it, “We send…abroad and see whether he sinks or swims. If he swims, we train him” (p. 18). This tells us that there are companies, which are willing to take greater risks of sending expatriates overseas without providing them enough for expatriation. Cullen further argues that managers in hospitality industry were often offered the foreign assignment because they have demonstrated managerial competence at the home turf. Consequently, many of them failed in other countries. This practice is rather contradictory to what successful firms do when considering expatriate for foreign assignment. It is widely agreed by researchers that the success at home does not necessarily guarantee the success abroad. Cullen also claims that these managers have been traditionally sent overseas with a little knowledge about the host country (i.e. economic, conditions, politics, customs, manners, business practices and so on). As pointed out by Cullen (1981), the information about the host country is crucial not just because this will help them to adjust but also because expatriates in the hospitality industry often assume many roles that would normally be played by other support staff such as: (1) being a company representative in business dealings and taking up the role of an ambassador; (2) communicating with TCNs employed by the company or host country's government; and (3) assisting visitors/travelers from home country.

Arguably then, not only effective training programs can save the MNCs from financial costs by avoiding failure, it will also build the managerial expertise of its employees by providing them with the knowledge base necessary in expatriation. The discussions presented above have clearly shown that cross-cultural training is crucial in facilitating expatriate adjustment.

b) Human Resource Support

Another organizational factor that helps facilitate expatriate adjustment is the human resource support from parent and foreign companies. International companies as well as those organizations that employ expatriates' services should employ appropriate human resource supports to help meet the expatriate's needs and fulfill their psychological well-being. Warneke and Schneider (2011) point out that the motivation to take up an assignment abroad will greatly depend on the compensation package offered by the companies. This would mean that expatriates' willingness to accept an international assignment depends very much on monetary benefits (Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008). Apart from that, companies should also provide sufficient supports such as training and advice to ensure that the expatriates are able to successfully adjust to the new environment (Chen & Chiu, 2009). Problems such as a loss of identity and sense of belonging as well as the decrease in company loyalty are more likely to occur if companies show lack of concern for expatriates. Warneke and Schneider (2011) suggest that in order to encourage a more heterogeneous employee to accept a foreign assignment, most sending organizations often customize the compensation packages according to the needs of an individual expatriate. However, as the number of foreign assignments begins to increase, the compensation packages have been standardized.

The parent company (if expatriates are OEs) is the primary source of support that provides benefits (i.e. financial) and services (i.e. general logistical support) before expatriation (Kraimer et al., 2001). The supports extended will help facilitate the adjustment and ensure the success of the assignment. It was found that expatriates would be more likely to adjust and succeed if they received a satisfactory financial support from the parent company (Flokowski & Fogel, 1999). Logistical supports from the parent company include assistance in finding suitable housing (though in most cases, companies will provide housing facilities for their expatriates) and training for the expatriate and family (Black et al., 1991; Guzzo et al., 1994). This type of supports should be practical and able to fulfill the needs of the expatriate and their family. Other types of logistical support that organizations can provide include schooling (for expatriates with children), medical insurance, legal requirements for entry, spousal employment and work transfer prior to relocation (Aycan, 1997). The supports provided by the organization will show that the employers care about their employees (Harris &

Moran, 1991). As Harris and Moran argue, supports that are being provided by the company can help the expatriate to solve immediate living problems, meet the challenges of a new environment, reduce CS and facilitate their adjustment. It was found that the logistical support provided by the organization was a positive predictor of adjustment, especially interaction adjustment (Shaffer et al., 1999).

Besides the support extended by the parent company, Aycan (1997) points out that the support from foreign office is equally crucial. Since the expatriate will be attached to the company for a period of time, supports from the company are very much needed to ensure the expatriate's continued adjustment. For example, the company can also assist with housing relocation, children's schooling, logistical problems and other supports on a day-to-day basis.

Human resource support service should not just be in the beginning of the expatriation cycle. There needs to be a continuing follow-up of the foreign assignment program with innovative means to reduce family stress and strain. It has also been found that the expatriates will experience less stress and uncertainties if the company provides more support and assistance during expatriation (Munton & Forster, 1993). Besides predicting adjustment, organizational support can also enhance expatriate commitment. It was found that expatriates will be more committed and devoted to their companies if they perceive the supports from the organization at an expected level (Guzzo et al. (1994). The notion of "psychological contract" introduced by Schein (1980) was used by Guzzo et al. to explain the expectations held by employees towards their employers. If they perceive that there is a violation of the contract, it will result in discontentment, disappointment and expatriate failure. Generally, Black et al. (1991) found that this type of support links more closely to general adjustment rather than work adjustment as it concerns much of the non-work issues such as housing and schooling for the children.

In sum, Kraimer et al. (2001) found that the support provided by the sending organization was significantly related to the expatriate's general adjustment and the support provided by the foreign office was positively related to work and interaction adjustment. The results also suggest supportive organizations, both at home and overseas can help facilitate expatriate adjustment. After looking at the human resource support provided by the organization, the discussion will now turn to the last variable of the organization factors which is the social support provided by those at the workplace.

c) Social Support

The nature of expatriation requires expatriates to leave their friends and family in the home country. This can disrupt existing networks in the home country and force the expatriates to seek out new support systems in the host country (Adelman, 1988). Regardless of the context or country of assignment, it has been widely agreed that social support during assignment is a critical determinant in expatriate adjustment (Aycan 1997; Black, 1990b; Feldman & Bolino, 1999;

Searle & Ward, 1990). Previous studies have emphasized the importance of social support with regard to expatriate adjustment and the direct influence it has on the level of adjustment.

A number of studies have highlighted on the importance of social support in expatriation. It is believed that this type of support helps in the mobility of psychological assets and serves to strengthen, acknowledge and verify the expatriate service (Fontaine, 1986), which can greatly improve the adjustment of the expatriates. Reviews have also shown that most past studies have examined the direct effects of social support on adjustment (Black, 1990b). In a model of expatriate's acculturation, Aycan (1997) highlights the important role that organizations play in helping expatriates to adjust. This is consistent with Payne (1980) who argued on the importance of social support provided by the organization and how the variable yielded to be an important determinant in helping expatriates to adjust. The supports from the organization, everyone at the office and family were vital to expatriate adjustment (Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Lee & Sukoco, 2008).

Social support can also be in the form of counseling and advice such as how to deal with the new cultural environment by senior expatriates who have long been in the country. Other researchers however, divide social support into three categories – aid, affect or affirmation (Kahn & Quinn, 1976) that involves the supports from supervisors, co-workers and parent company (Waxin, 2004). In the context of expatriation, aid concerns information giving and assistance extended to the expatriates with the hope of helping them reduce the stress and make sense of the new work culture. Affect, on the other hand, relates to the interpersonal relationship between the provider and the seeker. It involves shared feelings that lead to meaningful accommodating relationships. The final type, affirmation, refers to the reiteration of the ability of the seeker/she has for oneself in dealing with the new environment. The relationships that are reaffirming in nature proves to be more helpful to the expatriates (Kraimer et al., (2001). Of the three types, aid is related closely to social support provided by people at work but affect and affirmation are more towards the support provided by the company.

Meanwhile, Caligiuri and Lazarova (2002) emphasize different elements of an individual's support network. The first is the emotional support which is associated with stress, disorientation and loneliness. Informational support is the information that help reduces the expatriate's ambiguity and uncertainty. The third, instrumental support, describes the support provided by the organization. Although the supports described above are distinct in its objectives, they all aim to contribute towards the expatriate's psychological and physical well-being (Allen, McManus & Russell, 1999).

Researchers (see for example Cohen & Wills, 1985) have long investigated the relationship between social support and stress and there is evidence (see Ganster et al., 1986) that social support can help reduce stress and has shown to demonstrate an indirect effect on variables such as job dissatisfaction. Pinder and Schroeder (1987) assert that an organizational culture (at a foreign office) that includes social support from those at work provides the expatriates with valuable information pertaining to what is appropriate and inappropriate in the new workplace. Besides, it can also provide the expatriates with information on how to behave when in contact with host nationals.

A research by Caplan, Cobb, French, Harrison and Pinneau (1975) demonstrates that expatriates may obtain support from various sources such as those at work, friends and families. Social support from co-workers and supervisors is found to be positively associated with adjustment, especially work adjustment (Black et al., 1991) and interaction adjustment (Shaffer et al., 1999). Indeed, Aycan (1997) and Shaffer et al. found that social support from co-workers had the strongest influence on expatriate adjustment as it makes the expatriates feel welcome, valued appreciated. This results in a feeling of acceptance, belonging and satisfaction which in turn helps them to adjust to the new work environment. Supports from co-workers can assist expatriates with appropriate behaviors at work which consequently lead to better adjustment and work performance (Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2002). Supervisors were also found to be important source of support for dealing with stress at work and they can influence employee attitude and job performance (Fusilier, Ganster & Mayes, 1986). Thus, sufficient social support can enhance expatriate adjustment.

2.7.3.4 Nonwork Factors

Research has found that there are three important non-work factors that have been regularly discussed as they could potentially influence adjustment: family adjustment, culture distance and social support from family and host nationals outside the workplace. Shaffer et al. (1999) for example, claimed that culture distance is the most important non-work variable that influences expatriate adjustment. The term culture distance is used to refer to the perception of the degree of similarity/dissimilarity of the two cultures (Black et al., 1991). It is "the degree to which the content of the host culture differs from those of the expatriate's home culture" (Mendenhall & Wiley, 1994, p. 609). For example, an expatriate coming from the United Kingdom to Australia may experience less difficulty in adjusting to the new environment than if he or she is sent to Vietnam since both countries have a rather similar cultural background. The more the gap between the home and the host cultures, the less knowledge the expatriate has about how to behave appropriately. This will also mean that the expatriates will encounter more problems in adjusting to the new cultural environment. The next important variable is the family/spouse adjustment. Studies on the relationship between nonwork factors and adjustment have consistently shown that the nonwork factors are important determinants of expatriate adjustment (Church, 1982; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). Although the existence of a number of nonwork variables are acknowledged, only culture distance and family/spouse adjustment will be analyzed in this thesis as it is anticipated that the two variables are likely to have a significant impact on expatriate adjustment in Malaysia. The discussion will first begin by analyzing how culture distance affects adjustment and this is followed by the impacts of family adjustment on expatriate adjustment.

a) Culture Distance

A culture has enabled each country to have its own unique character that allows its population to share common values and behaviors. According to Copeland and Griggs (1985) these common values and behaviors make cultural generalization possible. Generalization aids our understanding of a certain culture. Copeland and Griggs also suggest that generalization may equate to simplification. The world consists of people from various cultural backgrounds and this means that the ways in which they conform to cultural norms also differ. In the case of Malaysia, for example, generalizations are less helpful as the country consists of people of different culture and ethnic backgrounds. As the country is divided into two – Peninsular and Sabah and Sarawak (Borneo), there are also differences in terms of foods, business practices, culture and so on. Those who live in the city are also different from people who live in the "*kampung*" (village). In the city, such as Kuala Lumpur, traditional value systems compete with foreign value systems (usually western). However, people in the "*kampung*" are less affected by outside influences due to the lack of exposures and a strong desire to preserve the traditional values and customs.

Hall (1977) distinguishes culture into two categories: high- and low-context cultures, which are viewed in terms of information exchange. In a high-context culture, meaning is derived from experiences and assumptions through a less direct verbal and nonverbal communication. Those belong to this cultural group learn from birth that meaning is communicated indirectly. They have to be skillful at interpreting the covert values that come with the message. In a low-context culture however, information is shared in words of precise and unambiguous meaning. To the people of this cultural group, the message has to get across, other things do not matter and the non-verbal cues are often disregarded. Ambiguity is not valued in this culture. This is somewhat related to Hall's (1977) suggestion, that "communication is culture, and culture is communication." Both constructs cannot be separated when discussing culture. Eastern, especially the SEA and western cultures are usually distinguished and used to illustrate the high- and low-context cultures as the cultures between the two blocks of the world differ so widely. In communication for example, the overt styles of communication such as verbal messages are more prevailing in low-context cultures such as in the US and some European countries. People from this side of the world are perceived as talkative, like to explain the obvious and sometimes redundant (Samovar et al., 2010). Meanwhile, those from high-context cultures rely more on the nonverbal expression and communication is less direct. They can sometimes be perceived as nondisclosive. In the two situations, people who are talkative, more disclosive are thought to be attractive as compared to those who value less direct and nonverbal communication.

From the perspective of management, Hofstede's (1980) work is probably the most widely cited. Hofstede defines culture as "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group of people from another" (p. 21). A series of studies that he conducted, allows him to conclude that: (1) work-related values are not universal; (2) the fundamental values persevere when a MNC tries to impose the same norms on all its foreign offices; (3) local values shape how the parent company's policy are translated; and (4) if a MNC persists on utilizing a uniform practices across its businesses globally, it risk creating morale problems and inefficiencies among local employees.

Hofstede's studies, which were conducted across cultures, also enabled him to plot the differences that exist between cultures across four dimensions and each is independent of each other. The first is power distance, which focuses on the gap that exists between different levels of hierarchy in the organization. Second, is the uncertainty-avoidance. This dimension looks at how members of a culture accept ambiguous situation and tolerate uncertainty about the future. It is said that those from a culture with high uncertainty-avoidance appear to be anxiety prone and prefer to devote more energy in trying to beat the future. Meanwhile, the individualism versus collectivism dimension describes the values of relationships among members of the culture. Those from the individualistic culture value individual attainment and rights. They expect the individual to focus on fulfilling his/her own needs. On the other hand, the collectivist culture separates between in- and out-groups as they place more values on group loyalty. Finally, the dimension of masculinity and femininity describes the division of roles and values in the society. In this culture, men are expected to be assertive and competitive. Hofstede's work is unique in that it uses an empirical survey to develop a model of cultures. Even though Hofstede's model is also vulnerable to critics, his findings are no doubt invaluable when applied and modified to a specific situation and needs. A specific study on expatriation in Malaysia revealed the challenges faced by expatriates during their assignment to Malaysia, a high-context, heterogeneous culture (Mohd. Tahir & Ismail, 2007). These challenges were categorized into six categories:

1. Attitudes of Malaysian – which focuses on the difficulty in understanding the indirect and non-provoking behavior of Malaysians and Malaysians' mistaken belief towards foreigners, especially Caucasians;

2. Custom and religion – which is the problems in understanding Malaysians dress code due to the nature of the country as a multicultural society and being cautious over religious issue;

3. Complexity in addressing people with appropriate names according to social status;

4. Preconceived ideas about western, female expatriates, due to media portrayal of female Caucasians;

5. Malaysian working habit – which is the difficulty in conforming to the work place, no sense of urgency and high level of bureaucracy that deters job implementation; and

6. Unavailability of structured training program prior to expatriation that introduced expatriates to Malaysian culture.

Mohd. Tahir and Ismail's (2007) study provides clear challenges that expatriates might expect during expatriation. Culture differences that exist among countries of the world have always been topics of interest for many researchers and the learning process by which people adjust to a different culture is actually the subject of a wide variety of research. Those moving to a new cultural environment (for example, an expatriate) usually bring with them their "cultural baggage" and when cultures collide, it will lead to misunderstandings and misinterpretations (Elashmawi, 2000). It involves the feelings of loss and withdrawal with regard to friends, family and work. This often leads to the feeling of shock, apprehension and even repulsion and anger when the expatriates realize the dissimilarities that exist between the two cultures. The inability to cope with the cultural differences will lead to the feelings of impotence (i.e. powerless, weak, helpless, etc). This feeling continues until the expatriate is able to cope with the differences, understand and predict the appropriate and inappropriate behaviors of the new culture. In this case, the expatriates should be able to identify the factors that could help reducing the ambiguity related to what is appropriate and what is not appropriate in relation to the new culture. This would generally facilitate their adjustment. On the other hand, factors that augment ambiguity would inhibit adjustment (Kaye & Taylor, 1997). From the perspective of cross-cultural adjustment, CS is temporary and would yield to the acceptance of new values, attitudes and behavior patterns (David, 1972). The impact of CS varies according to people, at different times and places. It could be mild to some people but to others the problems could be severe. If CS is serious, it may hinder the learning process as it can lead to a breakdown in communication and the ability to cope with the new environment (Adler, 1987; Bennett, 1977).

A significant number of research in expatriation (see for example Black et al., 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) suggest that cultural distance plays an vital role in expatriate adjustment. For example, if an expatriate comes from a culture similar to the host, the chances of him/her succeeding the journey is higher

(Causin et al., 2011) and the more the dissimilarities between the two cultures, the more difficult it is to adjust (Williams, Moeller & Harvey, 2010). Williams et al. (2010) also point out that even in the era of globalization where the world is connected, information about other cultures can easily be accessed, culture distance is still an inhibiting factor to adjustment. Expatriates who are not familiar with the various elements of the host culture are often discontent and become a burden to the organization (Webb, 1996). Being in an unfamiliar culture can be a problem to some people. This is due to the situation described by Mishler (1965, p 555):

> The sojourn situation is inevitably a situation in which the individual is confronted with a culture different from his own in terms of customs, values, standards, and expectations. Thus another set of factors that is likely to play a significant role in the nature of the interaction between host and visitor is the degree and nature of the cultural differences between the two societies. Here we are not dealing with the fact that the two societies represent different cultures and nationalities, but with the direct effect of these differences themselves, in other words, with the way in which these differences affect the course of the contact and interaction.

As suggested by the theories and earlier studies, the larger the gap between the home and the host culture, the more the difficulties the foreigner (i.e. expatriates, international students and so on) is expected to face. In an earlier study by Pool (1965) on the adjustment patterns of international students in the US revealed that those students coming from countries that are relatively similar to the US (i.e. western nations), differ in their patterns of adjustment than those from Asia or other non-western nations. A study conducted by Furnham and Bochner (1982) supports the conclusion as they also found similar findings from their study. All these findings are consistent with social learning (SLT) and stress coping theories. Both theories indicate that adjustment is more difficult when large cultural differences subsist between home and host cultures.

Even though most of the investigation on the impact of culture distance has relied basically on a correlational approach, the notion that the bigger the distant, the more difficult the adjustment has been generally supported by most empirical research (Babiker, Cox & Miller, 1980). This will mean that the stranger the environment, the longer it may take the expatriate to adjust and the more they will get frustrated with the situation. This can be linked to the notion of CS mentioned earlier. When abroad, the degree of stress depends on whether the expatriate lives around the local community (host nationals) or in an area with other co-nationals. As noted by Torbiorn (1982) cultural distance will greatly affect the expatriates during their first two years and the impact will gradually lessen after that period of time.

As mentioned earlier in the section, cultural differences exist even between neighboring countries such as those in Asian and European regions. In the SEA region for example, even though in general people look the same – i.e. Malay, Chinese, Thai, Filipino and Vietnamese, there are always obvious differences among them. Their values and beliefs, not to mention language and customs, the way they express themselves and their business practices are different. The only common value that they have is probably their features—they are not western, even though some of the western practices, such as business practices and lifestyles are observed in these countries (Redding & Baldwin, 1991). When differences exist; misunderstandings are possible. As explained by Harris and Moran, 1991, p. 167):

> Ignorance of cultural differences is one of the chief causes of misunderstanding in a world that is getting more and more interdependent on the one hand, and increasingly torn with strife on the other.

However, if cultural differences are successfully managed, these differences can lead to more positive outcomes for the organization in general and expatriate in particular. Research has suggested that the success or failure of foreign assignment is less likely to depend on technical or managerial abilities. It lies mostly upon individual's ability to adjust to the new cultural environment (Shay & Tracey, 1997).

According to Black et al. (1992b) the tougher the new culture, the more training the expatriates will need in order to perform effectively and succeed in the new environment. Black et al. also reveal that there are several countries that are considered tough for American expatriates to adjust and these countries are classified into several regions namely Africa, Middle East, Far East, South America, Eastern Europe/Russia, Western Europe/Scandinavia and Australia/New Zealand. Even though they did not specify whether the regions are presented according to the level of its "toughness", it can be assumed that it is presented in that order. Even though the results of the study might have not been representative, it may be safe to assume that American expatriates found it easier to adjust to countries like those in Australia and New Zealand since these countries have similar cultural backgrounds. The most obvious is the language that they use, which is English.

Copeland and Griggs (1985) contend that there is no point arguing whether a culture is better than the other as every culture has its own uniqueness in terms of things like foods, climate, values, beliefs and so on. Undeniably, differences exist between cultures thus generalization about a certain culture is rather inappropriate due to the uniqueness of each culture. The belief that one's own culture is better or superior than others is can be as detrimental to the expatriate just as a total ignorance of other cultures (Webb, 1996). A model proposed by Beamer (1992) could be very useful in further understanding the culture. In her model, Beamer proposed that:

- culture is something that one can learn;
- cultures are whole and coherent;
- all cultures are unique and valid. None is greater than the other; and
- the culturally fluent communicator always acknowledges that cultural biases exist.

The discussions presented above lead to final variable of the nonwork factors, which is the family/spouse adjustment. The trailing spouse/family is also forced to adjust to the new cultural environment, just as the expatriates. In fact, their adjustment is crucial as it determines the success and failure of expatriate assignment.

b) Family/Spouse Adjustment

It has been found that almost 80 per cent of the expatriates working around the world are married men and more than 70 per cent of them are accompanied by their family (Black et al., 1992a; Tung, 1988). Therefore, it is significant that further investigation on the impact of family adjustment be conducted by considering the setting that the expatriation takes place. Issues related to family/spouse adjustment have become of increased interest to the various parties such as researchers and HR managers. Family/spouse adjustment it has been empirically proven to relate to the spouse positive attitude towards expatriate adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991b). Researchers who have examined the impact of family/spouse adjustment on expatriate adjustment found that there are consistent findings on the relationship between family adjustment and expatriate adjustment across industries (Black & Gregersen, 1991b; Black & Stephens, 1989; Kim, 2007; Shay & Tracey, 1997; Torbiorn, 1982; Tung, 1981). Other studies also suggest the same outcome (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Shaffer et al., 1999; Tung, 1988). For example, Shaffer et al.'s study specifically shows that spouse adjustment was found to have direct affects on expatriate's interaction and general adjustment. It can however, be understood that it could really be difficult for the expatriate to manage their work effectively when family problems occur. Unfortunately, a large number of companies are reluctant to discuss family related issues when considering candidates for foreign assignment. Cross-cultural training often does not include the expatriate's family (Webb, 1996). On the same notion, Solomon (1996) points out that spouses are considered for interviews during candidates' selection only 21 per cent of the time and out of that figure only 50 per cent of them were provided cross-cultural training.

Harvey (1985) notes that family/spouse adjustment simply refers to the degree of emotional comfort experienced by the expatriate's family during the expatriate assignment. The more they favor the assignment, the easier their adjustment and the better the expatriate will adjust. Consequently, this can enhance expatriate productivity, performance and morale (Webb, 1996). All these can create the most stress and need to be addressed. It has been reported that the quality of education has been the major issue for expatriates assigned to under-develop nations. (Julius, 1987). Much of the work on spouse adjustment suggests that a spouse is normally left at home – either alone or with children and has to figure out how to adjust to the new environment while the expatriate goes out to work and encounters different people in the workplace. Their families, especially the spouse could even feel more depressed as they are the ones who would normally stay home, with little opportunity for cultural and social encounters. And as in most cases, spouses do not always have people around them, they often feel isolated, lonely and the tendency of being unable to adjust is high (Hays, 1974). Meanwhile, the expatriates are more fortunate as they often spend more time at work and at the same time are able to experience more social and cultural encounters.

Most often, the spouse's inability to adjust is related to general factors that they might face on a day-to-day basis such as housing condition, transport, schooling for children, places to shop, neighbors and employment (Harvey, 1985). Among other factors that have been identified is cultural distance. The inability of the spouse to adjust will also lead to an early return even though the expatriates may have the essential abilities for cross-cultural adjustment. A number of previous studies on the impact of culture distance on adjustment have proven the link between the two variables (see for example Church, 1982; Mendenhall & Oddou; 1985). A study by Black and Stephens (1989) which was conducted in a number of countries in the Pacific Rim has offered a potent prove of past research in the area of adjustment. Their work established a positive and significant relationship between spouse adjustment and expatriate adjustment. They found that the bigger the difference between the home and the host cultures, the greater the difficulty of the spouse to adjust (Black & Stephens, 1989).

The next factor is the career-related issue. As has been noted, a vast majority of expatriates are male and they are usually accompanied by their family. Some of the spouses who accompany the expatriates are working individuals. One of the issues that surface from this is the readiness of the spouse to give up their profession and follow the expatriate abroad. Almost 70 per cent of expatriates consist of working couples where both the husband and wife are in employment (Reynolds & Bennets, 1991). Sixty per cent of them have children under the age of 18, which shows a 36 per cent increase from less than 20 years ago (Coolidge

& D'Angelo, 1994). Issues concerning the accompanying spouse are generally recognized as one of the most challenging issues for IHR managers (Harvey, 1995). Most accompanying spouses do not work during international relocation as some of the countries of assignment do not issue work permits for the spouse and this forces them to stay at home most of the time. For spouses with a career before the assignment, they would feel isolated and stressed. The situation can already cause a CS to them. International relocation does not only disrupt the spouse's career but also affects their long term social relationships with friends and colleagues in the home country (Black & Gregersen, 1991a).

According to Bielby and Bielby (1992) married women are more likely to take up foreign assignments for career enhancement and more willing to move abroad, accompanying their spouse on foreign assignments. Studies also found that the more the spouse accepts the assignment, the more effort they put in trying to learn about the new culture (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). Besides, spouses who underwent an interview session prior to relocation report a higher level of adjustment. This will consequently help in expatriate adjustment as a whole. The ignorance of "mobility syndrome" in dual-career couples will often lead towards depression, health problems, little community involvement, strong dependency on the spouse for emotional support and poor adjustment (Anderson & Stark, 1988). Furthermore, Reed and Reed (1993) point out that if organizations do not provide any support for the accompanying spouse, dual-career couples will less likely to take up assignments abroad. The issue has been one of the factors to be considered when deciding to accept foreign assignments.

The increasing number of dual-career couples moving abroad would also mean that it is also likely that more spouses would want to work during expatriation. In this case, the MNCs can help facilitate the adjustment of spouses with career by trying to get a work permit and find them a job. The MNCs must develop support strategies for the dual-career couples. Otherwise, the pressure related to the assignment will further contribute towards expatriate failure (Harvey, 1995). Gates (1994) notes that only a small number of companies assist the trailing spouse to get a job and with language or cross-cultural training.

Next, the willingness to communicate is also crucial to the accompanying spouse (Black et al., 1992a). As mentioned earlier, a spouse who keeps to herself (assuming that accompanying spouse is usually female) will feel more stressed and isolated. They need to socialize and develop a relationship with people in the new culture. Hence, communication skills and certain individual characteristics are as important to the spouse and children. Black et al. (1992a) also note that a spouse's ability to communicate effectively with the people of the host culture has a direct link to successful completion of assignment. Finally, it is also found that support from family and host nationals helped spouse adjustment. According to Black et al. again, the support from host nationals is particularly important as it provides both emotional support and information about the host culture.

Just as the expatriates, the accompanying family/spouse will also face the problems of adjustment. As discussed earlier, the whole new experience in the new culture can cause CS or problems of adjustment to the trailing family/spouse. This is the main reason why researchers (i.e. Shaffer et al., 1999) claims that cross-cultural training for spouses is vital for the success of expatriation. They should be briefed of the basic but important information such as hospitals, schools, place of worship, shopping and people to contact during emergencies. Other information includes the dos and don’ts of the new culture, dangerous places and customs. In this context, Webb (1996) suggests that the best source of information is the expatriates who have long been in the country. Therefore, organizations must place more emphasis on preparing spouses for international assignment and in addition to that, supports should also be provided for them during expatriation. Even though research has emphasized that many firms are still ignorant of the importance of training in expatriation, scholars and researchers still believe that many MNCs have now included the spouse, at least, in the cross-cultural training. If the family accompanies the expatriate, they are also subject to CS and this can influence a premature return.

Harris and Moran (1991) argue that the spouse and children are very much affected when an expatriate is sent abroad for a long period of time and since the spouse in particular, seems most affected and challenged by culture shock, it not only helps their adjustment abroad to include them in the training, but at the same time, provides them with insights to share with the expatriates themselves.

Training can also help the expatriate to understand their spouse's problems in the foreign work environment. Thus, family involvement in cross-cultural orientation can have real benefits. The authors also suggest that the training for spouses should include economic counseling, as well as language instruction. More importantly, Harris and Moran contend that family assistance and training are essential for the expatriate to adjust successfully in a foreign culture. Despite these descriptions, research still shows that most firms do not include the spouse in any training that they offer. Besides cross-cultural training, other factors that could possibly help ease the spouse's adjustment are the (Mead, 1998): (1) number of co-national community; (2) relationships with the locals and expatriate community; (3) the lifestyle gap of the locals and expatriate community; (4) spouse's perception of the culture distance; and (5) opportunities to work or study.

The discussion that has been presented above clearly shows how important family/spouse adjustment is to expatriate adjustment. It also proves that the impact of spouse's adjustment on the completion of the expatriate assignment could be significant. In essence, the problems faced by the dual-career couples should be properly addressed by the organizations. This is also the issue that MNCs can no longer ignore as it is clearly emerging as a very significant mobility issue (Dowling, Schuler & Welch, 1994). Next, the discussion will proceed with another important variable in expatriate adjustment, which is culture distance.

We have so far looked very thoroughly on the issue of adjustment beginning with companies that go global, types of expatriates, expatriation and cross-cultural adjustment including the theories related to it. As this thesis will specifically look at the adjustment of expatriates in the Malaysian hotel industry, it is believed that there should be a discussion about the country in general. This is important as the researcher found that there has been an unfair description about the country and this has led people around the world to get misleading information about the country. For example, foreigners usually have a misconception about Malaysia whereby they see Malaysia as belongs to the Malays or Malaysia is only comprised of the Chinese. Therefore, it is crucial to discuss further about the country in general by explaining values, beliefs, business practices, and its economic situation. It is hoped that this will help correct the misleading information, and the people who are coming to visit and work and companies that are coming to invest in the country will get the true picture about the country. This will in turn help them in their adjustment to the country.

2.8 Malaysia: The Overview

The strategic location between the Indian Ocean and South China Sea (Figure 2.4), had enabled the Malay Peninsular to be a meeting place for traders and travelers from both, the eastern and western regions, as early as the first century B.C. Later, a succession of colonists such as the Japanese, Portuguese and British ruled part of the country. The British colonization had profoundly influenced cultures of the country even though the significance of these changes is unclear to contemporary observers. The presence of British colonials had opened up opportunity for the Chinese, Indian and Sikh immigrants to come to Malaysia and worked in the various sectors such as mining, agriculture and plantation.

These immigrants did not only bring their skills but together with them, they brought their respective cultures. Upon arrival they assimilated harmoniously with the local Malays and other indigenous groups (who were the original inhabitants of the country). As a result, today, Malaysia emerges as a multi-racial country with a rich cultural heritage. The Malaysian population has now reached an estimated 28, 728, 607 million (Department of Statistics, 2012) with an increase of 20.89 per cent, with a population growth of 1.58 per cent from 2010. It was then thought that the female population had outnumbered the male but the present data revealed that the male (14,587,048) has slightly outnumbered the female population (14,141,559). The Bumiputras form over half of the total population (59%), the Chinese (32%), Indians (8%) and other races (1%) make up the remainder. The Bumiputra or "sons of the soil" consists of three main groups: the aborigines (or *orang asli*), the Malays and the ethnic groups of Sabah (such as Dusun and Kadazan) and Sarawak (with the main ones are Bidayuh and Melanau). Recently in 2012, the Prime Minister announced that the Thai ethnic are also categorized as Bumiputra. Of the Bumiputras, the Malays make up about 51% of the group.

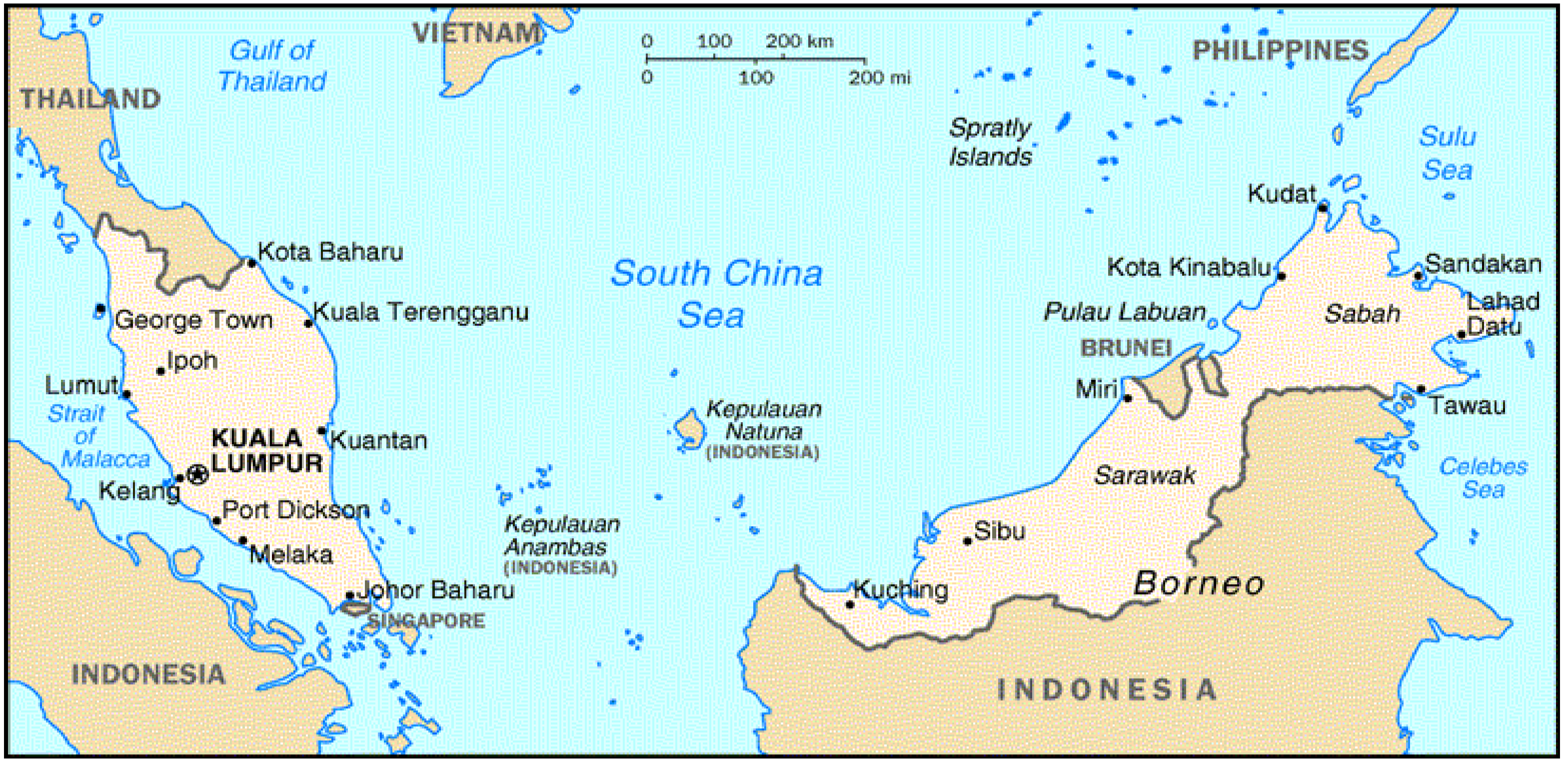

Figure 2.4: Geographical layout of the country

2.8.1 The Cultural Values

As have been noted, Malaysia is a plural society that is made up of three main racial groups (the Malay, Chinese and Indian) and other ethnic groups, especially in Sabah and Sarawak. The last two decades have seen Malaysia undergone remarkable changes and significant progress in race relations. Mutual respect for each other's culture, traditions, religious beliefs and way of life has created a peaceful social environment, stable political climate and a strong economy for the nation. Even though Malaysians in general still hold very strongly to the traditional values and beliefs, the values practiced in its social and business environment are rather flexible compared to the traditional values.

In his work, Hofstede (1980) regards culture as "a collective programming of the mind" where he describes culture as that part of conditioning that one shares with members of the country, region or group, but not with those outside the country, region or group. It determines the differences in values, attitudes and behaviors of the people in a particular country. Of the most obvious differences among cultures are the language spoken by its people.

Even though the country is made up of many different races and ethnics, Malaysians in general hold the same values that are considered appropriate for those who come from the eastern countries. Hofstede's four dimensions of national culture provide practical descriptions of Malaysian culture. The dimension of individualism-collectivism describes Malaysians as collectivist, where group belonging and tight social structure are regarded as important in the culture. The ties between individuals are tight. Meanwhile, the power distance dimension has a close relationship with collectivism, where, countries with collectivist cultural dimension always exhibit large power distances. In relation to this, Hofstede classifies Malaysia as a culture with the greatest power distance, whereby the relationship is distinguished by the hierarchy especially in the workforce. This is especially true with some government's institutions which still belong to the greater side of the power distance continuum. Hofstede's description however, could be acceptable or relevant at the time when the research was conducted, because as time passes by, Malaysia has becoming more open and liberal and thus, the power distance is not that obvious and can be categorized as moderate.

Attitudes such as obedience and conformity are presence in the culture but autocratic decision-making and close supervision, which are mainly the characteristics of a collectivist culture, have not been very much practiced these days. On the uncertainty-avoidance dimension, Malaysian culture can be described as moderate to weak uncertainty-avoidance. Malaysians in general, are able to tolerate ambiguity, less emotional and intolerant of change but they are rather tolerant of behaviors and opinion different from their own. Finally, the masculinity-femininity dimension shows an ambiguous description Malaysian culture. Even though Malaysian women have now become more advance in terms of education, career and positions in the society, their traditional traits (i.e. emotional and compassionate) still exist. The same pattern is observed among men where their traditional male such as assertiveness, competitiveness and ambitious are still obvious. Even though the number of women in the workforce has now increased, men are always seen as the breadwinner.

In other aspects, the everyday etiquette in Malaysia is relaxed and rather straightforward. Courteous behavior will less likely to cause offence to the people around. Generally, Malaysians are a very soft, gentle and friendly people, less likely to lose temper and quick to embrace other cultures and people. In relation to this, Hall's (1977) characterization of high- and low-context cultures is helpful in describing the Malaysians. As Malaysian culture can be categorized as a high-context culture, communication can also be viewed from the high-context perspective. Meaning, most of the information are still conveyed in the coded, explicit form. Much of the information lies in the nonverbal expression (i.e. physical context or internalized in the person). A simple example would be when an individual visits a home of a friend or relative and the host offers for a drink. To be polite and with a thought of not wanting to bother the host, the guest would usually object to the offer. However, the host would still insist of serving a cup of tea or coffee. This is different from those from the low-context culture. To reject the offer would mean that the guest would not be served with anything.

Even though visitors or foreigners are usually treated as one of the family members, it would still be appreciated if they learn or know some of the basic rules that are being practiced in the culture. This will help them better in adjusting to the culture. The followings are some of the basic rules about the Malaysian culture.

- Seniority is greatly respected within Malaysian households regardless of races and religious practices. Children are always taught to respect and obey the older persons. Usually children are not allowed to interrupt while the older people are in conversation.

- Although handshakes generally suffice to both, men and women, some Moslem ladies may acknowledge an introduction to a gentleman with a nod and smile. A handshake is only to be reciprocal if the lady offers her hand first. For the Moslems, the traditional greeting or "*salam*" resembles a handshake with both hands but without the grasp.

- Pointing with a finger is considered to be extremely rude. Instead a thumb of the right hand and four fingers folded under is the preferred usage.

- Dress modestly, especially outside the cities and when visiting religious buildings. Shoes must be removed when entering places of worships such as mosques or temples. Some mosques provide robes and scarves for female visitors. Taking photographs at places of worships is usually permitted but always ask for permission.

- It is polite to call before visiting a home. Shoes must always be removed when entering a Malaysian home. Drinks are generally offered to guest(s) and it would be polite to accept. The right hand is always used when eating with one’s fingers or when giving or receiving objects. The left hand is always regarded as unclean.

- Politeness, humbleness and patience are held in esteem as great virtues and it is considered inappropriate to argue, show affection or raise one’s voice in public.

- Losing temper or shouting in business meeting is not acceptable and reprimanding a staff in front of colleagues, especially junior staff is considered inappropriate.

2.8.2 The Language

Due to the differences in ethnics and races, there are also many different languages spoken in Malaysia such as Bahasa Malaysia or BM (Malay language), the different Chinese dialects, Tamil and English. Classical Malay language was spoken during the 15th century Melaka Sultanate but the British colonization had a great influence on the use of Malay language at the time. The Malay language then came second after English. In Sabah and Sarawak, since the two states are made up of more than 30 different ethnics, more than 80 different languages and dialects are spoken there, and all are distinguishable by religion, language, work, clothes or types of house.

Today, BM is regularly spoken by many Malaysians in their daily conversation. The language, not only used by Malaysians, but is also the native language of a majority of

Indonesians, Thais and Filipinos (those living in the south). As the Malay majority makes up the country, the government has, after independence, declared BM as the national language. The modern BM has taken on different words from the various cultural influences, and this has obviously changed the way of life of many Malay ethnic. The presence of Arab traders during the early days had not only affected the way of life (i.e. dress) but had also “forced” the Malays to loan some of the Arabic words. Apart from that, Malay words are also taken from the Sanskrit, which arrived even earlier when Indian traders introduced Hinduism in the country. However, the most obvious influence came from the British and Portuguese. For example, many English words have been taken and used in daily conversation and these words are usually spelled using the Malay version. As an example, the English words that end with “tion” (i.e. application) will be spelled as “si” (i.e. applikasi) using the Malay version.

However though, BM varies among regions in the country. People from the different region (i.e. north, south, east, the middle part of the country and Sabah and Sarawak) speak BM with different dialects and accents. Just as in other countries, the accents tell where an individual is from, whether the northern, southern, eastern or western part of the country. Isolated communities also have their own distinctive dialect. For example, in Pulau Tioman (Tioman Island), the older generation in the island still speaks a version of Malay, which is only used on that island. Most Malaysians who have never visited the island would never realize the existence of the dialect. Several native languages are also spoken in Sabah and Sarawak but Iban and Kadazan are mostly spoken in states.

Apart from daily conversation, BM is also used as a medium in daily and business transactions, and as the national language, BM must be used by federal and state governments, all authorities (including local authorities) and statutory bodies. The constitution however, protects the use of other languages, suggesting no restriction or prevention for anyone to use, teach or learn other languages. This has allowed for other languages to be used in daily interaction and business communication and enabled English to emerge as the next important language in use. Recognizing its importance, the government has made it compulsory for all schools to teach English as one of the core subjects. In 2002, the government, through the Ministry of Education, has approved a policy that requires Science and Mathematics to be taught in English in all Malaysia's primary schools beginning 2003 even though there was a mixed response among the public and those involved in education. The policy hopes to produce competent Malaysians who are able to communicate in English effectively and compete in global business. However, due to some unresolved issues, the policy was terminated in 2009.

Even though the language is widely spoken (e.g. some Malaysian families even speak mainly English within their household), especially in the cities, major towns and tourist destinations, the government still believe that the language should be widely introduced to all walks of life so that Malaysians can benefit from globalization, especially in business and education. The Chinese dialects on the other hand, are widely spoken by the Chinese though some Malays and Indians are able to communicate using the various Chinese dialects. In Malaysia, Cantonese and Hokkien are commonly spoken. The Indians speak Tamil in their daily conversation but Moslem traders who came from southeast region of India usually speak Hindi or other Indian dialects.

2.8.3 The Administrative System

Malaysia gained its independence from the British on 31 August 1957 and Malaya then became Malaysia in 1963. As a new independent country, Malaysia tends to adopt many of its practices (politics and administration) introduced during the colonial administration. The country practices parliamentary democracy under a constitutional monarchy. The legislative power rests in the hands of the parliament comprising of the *Dewan Rakyat* (House of Representatives), with 222 members who hold office for a period of five years. There are also 70 members of the *Dewan Negara* (Senate), 44 of whom are appointed by the *Yang DiPertuan Agong* and the remaining 26 members are elected by the country's 13 regional assemblies. The executive power is held by the PM, who is formally appointed by the *Yang DiPertuan Agong*. The PM has always been the leader of the winning party in the general election and he is also the leader in the *Dewan Rakyat*. The ruling party, *Barisan Nasional* (National Front) is comprised of 13 component parties, with United Malay National Organization (UMNO) being the largest component party. The largest opponent party was *Pakatan Rakyat* which consists of three main parties—*Parti Keadilan Rakyat* (PKR), Democratic Action Party (DAP) and *Parti Islam SeMalaysia* (PAS).

The PM leads the country with the support from the appointed cabinet ministers. At the state level, the government is led by the *Menteri Besar* (Chief Minister) who also holds the executive power at that level. As Malaysia had been colonized several times in the past by several colonial groups, it has had closer links with them especially the

Great Britain. Consequently, the association has to a certain extent, affects Malaysia's organizational practices especially in the civil service and government-linked companies (Norma & Muhammad Asri, 1998). Typically, Malaysia's administrative system employs the bureaucratic model, where it stresses on the importance of formality and hierarchy. The position that one holds in the organizational hierarchy determines the power that one has in the organization. The level of hierarchy also determines who to report to and formal relationship remains even outside work. Employment is based on qualification and merit though sometimes family and friends are given priority especially in small, family-oriented organizations. Although this is regarded as an inappropriate practice to some people, as it condones nepotism and cronyism, it is still very much practiced, especially among the Chinese families. Malaysians in general are collectivist, in favor of harmonious relationships and regard face-saving as very important (Mansor & Larsen, 1992). Face-saving is one of the important aspects of the Malaysian value system, which allows for an ideal outcome of any transaction or interaction, whereby everyone involved comes out looking good, which means, a win-win situation for everyone involved. Therefore, it is important not to embarrass anyone because interpersonal relationships are based on the concept mentioned earlier. As the majority of the Malaysian populations are Muslims, values such as collectivism and equality are also evident in the administration. This is especially true in the government (public) sector where the management is generally based on Islamic principles.

Apart from that, Japanese and Korean organizational practices are also consistent with Malaysian organizational values. This is seen as part of the outcome of the '*Look East Policy*' (LEP) introduced by the former Prime Minister (PM), Tun Dr. Mahathir

Mohamed in July 1981. The LEP was initially focused on Japan as an exemplary model and this was an initiative taken by Malaysian government with the purpose of learning from Japan's experiences in building the nation. The PM considered that the answer to the Japanese success and its tremendous progress lies in its labor ethics, morale and management capability. In 1983, Malaysia expanded the LEP to include South Korea. The former Prime Minister noted that the work ethics of the Korean people were values that the country desired to emulate in order to attain economic progress.

The policy is also seen as one of the ways to enable the Malaysian workforce to acquire new values to commensurate with the country's industrialization programs and to encourage the transfer of skills and attitude, work ethics and discipline from these countries. Mainly, the policy has two major components. The first is to inculcate the eastern values as the PM believed that Malaysians attitudes were predominantly western-oriented. The main focus is on work ethics and management practices which stress on hard work, punctuality, loyalty, dedication, diligent, group priority, enhancing productivity, determination, patience and teamwork. The second component of the policy is to industrialize the nation by the year 2020.

In achieving the objectives, the government separates the program into two. The first is to send Malaysian students to various universities and institutes of technologies in Japan and South Korea. The second is to send trainees to industries and training institutes. These programs are funded by the Malaysian government and in return, the Japanese will send their teachers to Malaysia and South Korean governments will send their expertise to be located in Malaysian industries. In both cases, Japan and

South Korea share part of the costs. The LEP has already brought some results such as in speeding up Malaysia's development project through increased foreign investment and technology transfer. As a result of the LEP, Malaysia has adopted some aspects of the eastern management style, especially in regard to teamwork and total quality management. Even though the government had stated that the policy would only continue until the year 2000, it was then decided that it continues beyond the year 2000.

Beside the western management approach, the Japanese and Korean styles and the Islamic influence, acquisitiveness has also posed an impact on Malaysian administrative system. As a country where power distance is ranked between moderate and high, practices such as respect and obedience to the management are performed. Perhaps, there is also some truth in what Hofstede (1991, p. 37) describes as "subordinates expect to be told what to do" in such a culture. Norma and Muhammad Asri (1998) who investigated management style in the Malaysian culture admit that it is however, difficult to trace the origin of some of the HR practices in the country, particularly when locally owned companies are also managed in a certain way that is appealing to the local employees. This is somewhat agreeable as local employees still hold to the traditional practices that are guided by culture and religion. As changes take place in the country, many Malaysian companies especially private, prefer to adopt features of both western and eastern management styles. Personally speaking, the researcher is still convinced that Malaysia, as a high-context culture still adopts most of the eastern values in its management practices. The experience of living in a number of western countries helps the researcher to observe the work behavior of the "westerners" and the quotation from Laurent (1983, cited in Mead, 1998, p. 32) below can best describe a part of the differences, in terms of the relationship between the employer and an employee. Even though the context in which the situation takes place is not Malaysia, it is still best to describe how Malaysian culture is like.

> They still represent each other, because they separate the relationship at work… from the personal relationship. But in…if the person is respected in the office, he will be respected also out of the office, in his private life. In the culture he is the boss, wherever he is, and the staff will think that he is the boss, even outside office hours, and *they don't have to behave differently than they usually do in the office*.

2.8.4 The Economy

Since independence, Malaysia has achieved significant economic growth and social progress. Continued rapid economic growth has elevated Malaysia from an agricultural and commodity-based low-income economy to a successful-income economy. The government's policy and planning has enabled the country to move from low- to middle-income status country. Since 1945, Malaysia has been one of only 13 countries in the world to have sustained growth of over seven per cent or more for 25 years (PEMANDU Report, 2012).

During the administration of Tun Dr. Mahathir Mohamed, the government had set up policies and strategies known as "The Winning Formula" which aimed at transferring the country into a rich and industrialized nation by the year 2020. In achieving the vision, Malaysia has progressively opened its market for more MNCs to invest in the country. The move was seen as a success as more international companies came and invested in the country. But as the world economy is constantly changing, the country needs a fundamentally new economic model in order to become a high-income nation. The country's fiscal position is arguably unsustainable while global competition for markets, capital and talent is increasingly intense and thus, the country has to work on a strategic planning to cope with the uncertainties of the global market competition. Under the present administration of Prime Minister Najib Tun Razak, the government has moved ahead to introduce the Economic Transformation Programme (ETP) in 2010 to transform the government to be more effective in its delivery of services and accountable for outcomes. The ETP incorporates six National Key Result Areas (NKRAs): reducing crime, fighting corruption, improving student outcomes, raising living standards of low-income households, improving rural basic infrastructure and improving urban public transport. The program represents a marked changed in approach that builds on the Tenth Malaysia Plan and input from the National Economic Advisory Council (NEAC). The main focus of ETP is on key growth engines or National Key Economic Areas (NKEAs). It relies heavily on private sector-led growth and describes very specific investments and policy actions and has a clear transparent implementation roadmap with strong performance management. The strong economic performance has helped improve the quality of life for Malaysians and supported advances in education, health, infrastructure, housing and public amenities.

The government's high-income objective is not just a quantitative target but also about Malaysia becoming an advanced, developed nation by 2020. In achieving this, the country is focusing on developing: (1) a large and thriving services sector in order to supplement oil and gas, agriculture and manufacturing; (2) a balanced economy, with significant contributions from private consumption, investment, government spending and exports; and (3) productivity levels similar to those of other leading Asian economies, which requires developing economy that is driven by skills, innovation and knowledge (PEMANDU report, 2012). A methodology was designed to identify initiatives that would help boost Malaysia's economic growth and the gross national income (GNI) was calculated based on the income approach. Each NKEA unit would identify initiatives that it classified as either entry point projects (EPP) or business opportunities. One of the business opportunities identified was the development of integrated resorts and hotels across Malaysia, which would create business opportunities for tour operators and land transportation businesses throughout the country. Oil, gas and energy have been projected to contribute the largest amount of incremental gross national income (GNI) of the country. It is predicted that by 2020, oil, gas and energy will still be the largest sector in the Malaysia economy although its share of the economy will have fallen due to strong growth in sectors such financial services and palm oil (PEMANDU Report, 2012).

2.9 Tourism in Malaysia

The Malaysian government has developed national development plans such as the Ninth Malaysian Plan and the Third Industrial Master Plan that are targeted at positioning Malaysia's long-term competitiveness to meet the challenges of a fast changing global economic environment. Among the thrusts of these development plans are to sustain the tourism and hospitality services sector as a major source of growth (Department of Skills Development, 2008). In fact this has also been highlighted in the ETP introduced by the government in 2010. Although oil and gas as well as manufacturing are seen as the country's main economic contributors, it is also undeniable that tourism has also contributed toward the country's economic growth. Though in those early days tourism was not a substantial sector of the economy, it was seen to have a great potential in meeting the objectives of development such as foreign exchange earnings, increasing employment and income levels, diversifying the economic based and increasing government's revenue (Zainab & Shaharuddin, 1997). The government had also realized that tourism could help promote a better understanding of the various cultures that exist in the country, which could contribute to socio-cultural integration and national sense of unity. Recognizing its significant contribution as an important economic activity, the government pledged full support in terms of funding, planning, coordination, regulation and enforcement. Aggressive efforts and measures that have been taken by the government to develop the industry have recorded a successful achievement and tourism has proven its credibility as one of the major contributors to Malaysia's national income. In this sector, Malaysia is currently rated by both foreign and local investors as a moderately attractive investment.

Amongst foreign investors, Malaysia is appreciated for its diverse culture, stable government and favorable exchange rates (Ministry of Tourism, 2001). To the tourist, all these criteria are rather attractive and for the investors, these criteria mean safer investment. Despite the global economic slowdown and concerns regarding H1N1 flu Malaysia received almost 23.6 million international tourists in 2009. The figures showed an increase of about 7% over a year earlier. Singapore, Indonesia and Thailand are important sources of visitors for the country (Research and Markets, 2012). It is forecast that international tourist arrivals in Malaysia will grow at a growth rate (CAGR) of around 8% during the forecast period of 2011-2013 and tourism receipts from overseas tourists are expected to rise at a CAGR of around 8% of the same period, thereby, surpassing RM70 billion by 2013. Apart from ASEAN countries, it is anticipated that tourist arrivals from China, India and the Middle East will strongly grow during the forecast period of 2011-2013. The report by Research and Markets also predicts that Malaysian tourism industry will continue to grow rapidly in coming years, on the back of increasing promotional activities by the government and growing reputation of the country as a shopping hub. Besides, the increase in tourist arrivals in the Southeast Asian region is generally seen as a positive influence, as is the thriving economy.

Although the industry was affected by the 1997-1998 economic crises, its quick rebound contributed to the strong economic recovery of the nation. This was attributed mainly to the coordinated efforts shown by both the public and private sectors as well as the successful implementation of measures outlined in the National Economic Recovery Plan (NERP) to revitalize the industry (GoM, 2001). The increase in investment in the Malaysian tourism sector is actually determined by several factors (Malaysia Tourism Promotion Board (MTPB), 1997). The first is its political environment. The government is recognized as stable and thus, offers security to the tourist. Besides, the government is also recognized for its strong commitment and involvement such as in encouraging, supporting and promoting tourism in the country and internationally. Apart from that, the government also offers a number of incentives to those involved in the industry. For example, incentives for investments in promoting products and activities in the hotel industry and tourism sector as a whole. Such activities are contained in the Promotion of Investment Act 1986 and the Income Tax Act 1967. The incentives are designed to grant partial or to a certain extent total relief from the payment of income tax. The second factor is the economic environment, which is seen as solid, with most sectors showing a healthy and sustained growth. The lost value of the *ringgit* against the currencies of the tourist home country makes it a *value-for-money* holiday destination.

Location is the third factor that influences the investment in tourism sector. Its location in between Thailand and Singapore has made it well-placed to benefit from the increased tourist traffic in the region. Its close distance with other East Asian countries and Australia would also mean bigger markets could be exploited. The fourth reason is the Malaysian culture itself. It is widely acknowledged that the diversity of Malaysia's culture serves as the main attraction for tourists and this is reflected in festivals, religious events, languages, the variety of architecture, the choices of cuisines and lifestyles. This "readily available and least-cost to produce" asset is one of the many attractions that makes "*Malaysia Truly Asia*" a slogan used by Tourism Malaysia in promoting the country's uniqueness. As mentioned, Malaysians in general are considered well-mannered, hospitable and friendly and more importantly, the widespread English fluency minimizes problems in communication for tourists. The fifth factor is the natural environment. The country offers a good variety of environmental attractions from island and beaches to rainforests, highlands and jungles. The final factor is the infrastructure and other facilities related to tourism sector. These include transportation and telecommunication. Although there are still weaknesses in the facilities and infrastructure provided, the government has worked very hard to ensure that all related facilities are able to provide conveniences to tourists.

The government had shown great commitments in developing the sector and this is consistent with Jenkins and Henry (1982) who notes that in developing countries, government usually plays a central role at the initial stages of tourism development. Its role could include providing the necessary tourism infrastructure, and at times engaged as entrepreneur and generator for overseas investment. In the 1980s, more incentives were given for the development of new accommodation, visitor centre facilities, manpower development and encouraging the participation of the Malays in tourism sector (GoM, 1981 & 1986). Besides, various incentives were given to encourage the involvement of the private sector, while the government continued to develop certain facilities and locations where the private sector was reluctant to venture.

The growth of tourism industry has contributed to the economic development through its linkages with a variety of industries within the sector (i.e. hotels, airlines, travel and tours and restaurants). The government has provided generous allocation of funds for the development of tourism. For example in the presentation of Budget 2013, the government acknowledges tourism as one of the key economic growth factors which contributes almost 12% to the gross domestic product (GDP). The total revenue generated from this sector was estimated to increase to RM62 billion in 2012. In conjunction with Visit Malaysia Year 2013-2014, the government has allocated RM358 million under the development expenditure, an increase of 42%, to target 26.8 million tourist arrivals (The Star Online, 2012). Bigger source of funding together with the policies set up by the government have enabled for more hotel companies, international and national to invest in the country. The huge potential of tourism industry has attracted many major international and IJV hotel chains to invest in the country. Schlentrich and Ng (1994) wrote about how international hotel companies such as the J.W. Marriot, Ritz Carlton, Four Seasons and Mandarin Oriental were among those interested to penetrate Malaysian hotel industry and by the year 2000, these hotels, together with other international hotel companies such as Renaissance, Le Meridian, Equatorial, Hilton, Hyatt, Sheraton, Shangri-La and Nikko are already in operation in Malaysia. Hilton hotel chain for example, has been operating in Malaysia for quite a long time. Table 2.4 displays the summary of tourist arrivals and receipts to Malaysia from tourism sector.

Table 2.4
Tourist Arrivals and Receipts to Malaysia

YEAR	**ARRIVALS**	**RECEIPTS**
2003	10.5 million	21,291.1 million
2004	15.7 million	29,651.4 million
2005	16.43 million	31,954.1 million
2006	17.45 million	36,271.7 million
2007	20.9 million	46,070.0 million
2008	22.05 million	49,561.2 million
2010	24.6 million	56.5 billion
2011	24.71 million	58.3 billion

Source: Tourism Malaysia, 29 October 2009, MAMPU 2012 and Malaysia Tourism Report Q2 2012

It can be seen from the table that there was a huge increase of tourism receipts in 2011 as compared to 2008. In 201The figure also shows an increase of 0.6% year-on-year from 2010. In the past 12 months (from April 2012), the Malaysian tourism industry was not immune to a drop in tourism demand from Japan, following the earthquake and tsunami in March 2011, and Europe, where the sovereign debt crisis remains a concern. Later in 2011, Thailand, which is also another source market for inbound tourism, was devastated by the worst flooding in 50 years. As a result, arrivals from Japan were down by 7% year-on-year in 2011, to 386,974, while arrivals from Thailand were down by 1.1% at 1,442,048 (Malaysia Tourism Report, 2012). Despite the various challenges, Malaysia managed to post slightly positive growth in tourism arrivals for the year, which bodes well for a stronger performance in 2012. In ensuring more tourism receipts, the Ministry of Tourism has launched a new national tourism strategy, the "Malaysia Tourism Transformation Plan 2020 Towards 36:168" at the World Tourism Conference in Kuala Lumpur. With the growth in tourism industry, it requires the expansion of tourism related infrastructures and facilities. This will help boost the economy and it will consequently affect the accommodation sector of tourism and hospitality industry. The growth with certainly offer wide range investment opportunities for entrepreneurs, especially the hotel sector. In terms of tourist expenditure pattern, accommodation still remained the highest component comprising more than 33% of the total expenditure. In tandem with the increase of tourist arrivals, the numbers of hotels are also expected to increase, opening more job opportunities for expatriates and the locals.

2.9.1 The Malaysian Hotel Industry

A report published by the Ministry of Human Resources in 2012 notes that in Malaysia, the tourism and hospitality sector has a very strong potential to offer great opportunities in terms of employment as well as business especially in hotel and accommodation. Besides that, with strong government and private supports, this sector is predicted to expand more in the future. As mentioned, the Malaysian government has provided generous allocation of funds for the development of tourism especially toward the development of accommodation. Bigger source of funding, together with the policies set up by the government have enabled more hotel companies, international and national to invest in the country and due to the rapidly growing economy (with an exception of 1997-1998 economic crisis) and the huge potential of tourism industry, many major international or IJV hotel chains see

Malaysia as having a good environment for investment and are keen to extend their operation in the country. These hotel companies have increasingly explored their opportunities for expansion in the Asia Pacific region as countries in this particular region offer lower cost of labor and land and also receive higher number of tourist arrivals (Choy, 1993).

Generally, hotel industry is made up of both independent and chain hotels. Independent hotels seldom move across national boundaries but chain hotels have a greater tendency to expand its business abroad. The intensive competition and over saturation of domestic markets have encouraged additional hotel companies to go beyond national border to look for more attractive markets. A number of chain hotels have been operating in the international arena for decades. This type of hotels have now accounted for over 60 per cent of the total of 6.9 million hotel bedrooms worldwide (Jafari, 2000). The involvement of MNHCs and IJVHCs in the Malaysian hotel industry is very much welcomed due to the large capital investment and the advantages that they bring. This can be seen through their marketing structure, international reservations facilities, central purchasing capabilities and managerial expertise. The past decades have seen very rapid growth in the number of international hotel chains. In Malaysia, only about 0.4 per cent of hotels are foreign-owned (MoF, 2000) but it is now believed that the number has now increased to a bigger percentage. Foreign ownership is concentrated in international class hotels of more than 100 rooms. For example, almost half of the 18 international class hotels in Penang are either owned or operated by foreign hotel chains. Even though there are a number of hotel chain and individual hotels with more than 100 rooms are owned by local nationals, the number is still lower as most hotels, which are owned by local entrepreneurs are usually smaller hotels of less than 50 rooms.

The growing trend over the years, have shown that the number of hotel rooms in the country took roughly about 10 years to double from 28, 432 in 1981 to 55, 866 in 1992. The estimation was quite relevant, as many hotel projects such as the development of new hotels and renovation projects have continued after the 1997 – 1998 economic slowdowns. The increase was evident when a report of hotel stock compiled by the Ministry of Finance reveals that there are a total of 129,561 hotel rooms available in Malaysia, representing 1,907 hotels in the first quarter of 2002 (Q1 2002) compared to 128,603 rooms representing 1,918 hotels in Q4 2001. The current statistics revealed by the Malaysian Association of Hotels (MAHs) in March 2012 showed that the total number of hotel rooms available as of December 2011 was 168,901 (Appendix 1). The statistics also revealed that as of December 2011, there were 2130 hotels of all categories in Malaysia (Appendix 2). Eight hundred and eighty eight of them were rated hotels (1- to 5-star hotels). Of these, 667 are located in Peninsular Malaysia and 337 of them are 3- to 5-star hotels. Ten years ago, there were only 427 rated hotels in Malaysia and 256 of them were 3- to 5-star hotels (MoF, 2002). Out of 256, 204 3- to 5-star hotels were located in Peninsular Malaysia. From the figures, it can be seen that the number of hotels have increased more than a 100% in ten years. The development in the country, coupled with the continuous support from the government could have contributed to the rapid development in the industry. This is consistent with the government's effort in promoting the growth of tourism industry in the country.

The MAHs' report (refer to Appendix 2) also showed that in the Peninsular Malaysia, Kuala Lumpur (KL) , Selangor, Penang and Kedah outnumbered other states in terms of hotel dispersion. The dispersion of hotels in Malaysia reflects the geographical distribution of tourists in the country. As the capital city, which also serves as the major gateway city and also the heart of all activities, KL supplies the biggest number of hotel room supply in the country. The stretch along Jalan Sultan Ismail, Jalan Ampang and Jalan Bukit Bintang, which is also known as the '*Golden Triangle'* records the highest number of hotels in Kuala Lumpur. It all began when the Hilton Hotel chain was opened at the site of the former French Embassy in 1972, then followed by Holiday Inn on the Park in the following year. The continuous construction of large and luxury hotels in the '*Golden Triangle'* indicates the rapid development in this area into a predominantly up-market hotel location (Oppermann & Chon, 1997). Of the large and luxury hotels that are located in the '*Golden Triangle'* are Mandarin Oriental, Renaissance, J. W. Marriot, Hilton, Equatorial, Shangri-La, Sheraton and Nikko. The Hyatt hotel chain is also opening another hotel located at the junction of Jalan Ampang/Jalan Sultan Ismail and the site is still under construction at the time of writing this thesis.

Although more hotels have been built in Kuala Lumpur, the hotels located in the '*Golden Triangle'* remain as the main attraction. The MAHs reported that an average hotel room rates in this area stands at approximately RM221.10 (USD$70.00). Another state which sees a rapid growth of hotel industry is Pulau Pinang (Penang). These hotels also vary in its rating and they are mostly located along the beach, stretching from Jalan Sultan Ahmad Shah to the Ferringhi area. Usually, the rapid growth of hotels in the country can be seen in states or islands that have been main tourist attractions such as island and beaches such as in Penang and Langkawi, Kedah. Even though the government realizes the potential of domestic market and the demand of certain foreign markets notably China, Singapore and Thailand, the mid-price hotels are only expanding in less bigger cities such as Kota Kinabalu in Sabah and Kuching in Sarawak. The increasing price of land and cost of construction especially in Kuala Lumpur has made the development of the budget-class hotels less attractive for investors and private sectors.

As have been noted, hotel investment continues at a high pace in Malaysia and the rapid development in the industry is caused by several factors. The first is the economic factor. The country's continued robust economic growth (before the economic crisis) and the fast recovery and quick return to the path of sustained growth have been the main force in the growth of hotel room supply. The second factor is the spill-over effects of the '*Visit Malaysia Year*' campaigns, which were launched in 1990 and 1994. The campaigns had shown to be a success as the number of tourist arrivals registered during those years had shown to increase. The third reason is the increase in domestic tourism activity and it has played an equally important part towards the overall growth. Domestic tourism fuelled by a steady economic increase and the completion of the North-South Highway, have to a large extent improved the average hotel occupancy rates.

2.9.1.1 Hotel Workforce in Malaysia

The growth in Malaysian hotel development has opened up opportunities for more foreign individuals to come and work in the various areas within the industry. Employment in the industry is divided into a relatively simplistic skill categorization.

The MTPB notes the importance of recognizing the crucial need of manpower planning on a macro level, makes use of standard classifications and these must be related to the rather more broadly based designations employed in the country. Hence, the MPTB classifies the workforce in the hotel industry into various levels that are linked to various skills and competency levels. Table 2.5 shows the respective levels and descriptions of each job category (MTPB, 2003).

Table 2.5
Levels and Descriptions of the Malaysian Hotel Workforce

Level	**Description**
Management	Usually requires formal management education at technical institute or university level. The knowledge gain should enable an individual to perform professional, managerial responsibility, whether salaried or self-employed, in an independent manner and implies mastery of the main technical and management disciplines concerned with the task.
Supervisory	Requires post-secondary technical education and training in college, or in exceptional circumstances where no formal college education or training exists, within industry at a relatively high level. The individual should have some knowledge and abilities which belong to a higher level than "skilled" but do not necessarily require a mastery of the full range of professional management principles in the field concerned. These skills and knowledge will permit a day-to-day operational supervision of a function or department in a fairly autonomous and independent manner. Preparation for management may be included at this level.
Skilled (a)	Training for this level may either be through vocational education or formalized in-house programs but demands a combination of both practical training and more conceptual educational components. The requirement is for more theoretical knowledge than is the case with the proceeding level. Work remains mainly practical, and is such that it can be carried out without supervision and/or may include other responsibilities such as planning and coordination. This level may be deemed the professional or master craftsman level within trades such as professional cookery.
Skilled (b)	This level requires formal external or in-house training, and is based on a series of clearly defined activities, which demand the use of relevant tools and techniques. Main emphasis is on practical work, which can be carried out without supervision, at least with respect to those techniques which have been learned. This level is frequently attained as the next step after "skilled" (a).
Semi-skilled	This training level is acquired either at a school//training center, through training schemes unconnected with education or on the job. The amount of theoretical knowledge and practical skills required are relatively limited. This skills level can be attained in a relatively short time.
Unskilled	No formal or significant in-house training required for the execution of these tasks/jobs.

Those at senior management positions such as the GM, Hotel Manager, Departmental Managers, Executive Chef and Executives, those at other management level positions belong to the management group. Restaurant Manager, Head Chef, Assistant Manager, Head of Department and other departmental manager (in small hotels) belong to the supervisory group. Meanwhile, most Chef positions, Head Bartender and Wine Waiter/Waitress are examples of those belong to the skilled workforce. The semi-skilled group is comprised of positions such as Commis Chef, Waiter/Waitress, Hotel Porter, Receptionist, Check-in Clerk. Finally, Bellboys, Kitchen Porters and Porters are examples of the unskilled positions in the Malaysian hotel industry.

In Malaysian hotel industry, expatriates are only allowed to work in the following three categories of post (MAMPU, 2012):

- Key posts – the high level management posts (i.e. Executive Chairman, Chief Executive Officer, Managing Director) in foreign-owned private companies and firms operating in Malaysia. These posts are essential for companies to protect their interest and investment. The expatriates are responsible in determining the company's policies in achieving its goals and objectives.
- Executive posts – These are the intermediate level of management and professional posts (i.e. General Manager, Marketing Manager, Executive Chef), which require academic qualifications, practical experience, skills and expertise related to the respective jobs. The expatriates are responsible for implementing the company's policies and supervisions of staff.

- Non-executive posts – These are posts for the performance of technical jobs that require specific technical and practical skills and expertise. Examples of posts are Chef and Technical experts.

The main challenge facing the industry is a significant shortage of skilled or trained manpower that it is able to recruit, given the industry's rapid expansion. This has become a debatable issue and caused so much concern among those involved in the industry as the shortage could pose major consequences for the coordination and implementation of recruitment and training for the industry (MTPB, 2003). The shortage of manpower is also seen as part of the changes experienced by the many Southeast Asian hotels as the industry continues to grow (Sutton, 1995). A report by the Ministry of Human Resources (2012) also notes that based on the input gathered, the critical job titles from this industry are from the accommodation sub-sector, chalet/budget hotel/motel and homestay area, food and beverages (F & B) and housekeeping.

In relation to that, both private and public sectors have coordinated their efforts in an attempt to solve the problem. As a result, 18 public institutions as well as 47 private institutions have started to conduct training in tourism-related courses. In addition, the hotel apprenticeship program under the Human Resources Development Fund (HRDF) was initiated in February 1997 to help reduce the shortage of skilled workers in tourism sector as a whole (GoM, 2001).

2.10 Expatriation in Malaysia

Expatriation is not a new phenomenon in Malaysia. Malaysians have been exposed to cross-cultural encounters with foreign employees long ago. Shepard (1996) wrote that Britons represented the first group of expatriates that came to Malaysia, representing various MNCs such as Shell, Dunlop, Guthries, Harrison and Crosfield as well as British Petroleum. In the government sectors, expatriates were mainly attached to various departments as advisors, diplomats, academics and technical specialists. The Britons were then followed by the American and European expatriates who also represented various MNCs such as Phillips, Siemens, Nestle and Esso. The introduction of the LEP had seen the third wave of expatriates coming to Malaysia. They were the Asian group of managers, mainly from Japan, Taiwan and South Korea.

In Malaysia, it has been the government's policy that expatriates can be utilized only when there is a shortage of local human resource. It has also been highlighted in the government's policy that Malaysians are eventually trained and employed at all levels of employment. Companies are encouraged to train more Malaysians so that the employment pattern at all levels of the organization will reflect the multicultural composition of the country. Notwithstanding this, foreign companies are allowed to bring in expatriate personnel in areas where there is a shortage of trained Malaysians to do the job. It also serves as a way to expose the Malaysian workforce toward foreign expertise. In addition, foreign companies are also allowed "key posts" that is, posts that are permanently filled by foreigners (e-directory.com, 2012). The Department of Immigration gathers data on international migrants to Malaysia based on the type of visa or work permit issued to foreigners. The department defines expatriates as all professional and technical migrant workers who earn a monthly salary of not less than RM3000.00. The expatriate is issued an *Employment Pass* (which one has to apply for the position from the expatriate committee) if the employment contract is at least two years. Expatriates and foreign skilled workers are different in the sense that the later are working in Malaysia on short-term contracts of less than a year and are issue the *Visit Pass for Professional Employment*.

Recognizing that human capital is critical to the success of ETP, the Malaysian government has also included a policy on expatriates. The government believes that significant improvements are required in the size and nature of talent pool in Malaysia in order to deliver the required GNI growth in the NKEAs. A third of the EPPs representing RM120 billion of GNI contributions require direct investment of human capital especially for leadership talent for management and administrative positions across all NKEAs. The government has so far, put a substantial effort to attract sheer quantity of talent required. This is available in the Tenth Malaysian Plan report which showed that the number of skilled expatriates is Malaysia had reduced more than half between 2000 and 2007, from 82,500 to 38,100. As a respond to the report, the government has planned to:

- design and implement attractive expatriates packages such as tax incentives;
- design and implement marketing efforts;
- assist expatriates with their applications to work in Malaysia such as visas and work permits; and
- ensure coordination among relevant agencies, especially immigration for much more flexible immigration policies and time taken in documents processing.

The inflow of expatriates to the country, especially the SIEs helps meet the needs for skilled and professional human capital in various fields especially manufacturing, oil and gas, financial services, education and engineering. It is claimed that most expatriates work in Malaysia because they have been posted here by the parent company for a specific period of time, often two to three years. It was reported that in 1999 alone, there were 21,859 registered expatriates in Malaysia (Malaysia, 2000). The number had reduced tremendously due to the economic downturn in 1997-1998. However, as the economy began to recover, the number of expatriates had increased. The number of expatriate positions approved in 2006 was 19,444 as compared to 19,752 in 2005. The total number of expatriates in 2005 was 43, 548 and in 2006, the number has fallen to 32,609 (Kanapathy, 2008). However, in 2007 it was reported that there were about 35, 583 expatriates in Malaysia but the latest statistics provided by the Malaysian Office of Statistics (2012) puts the expatriate population at around 35,000, with no specific figures. In 2006, the top five sending countries of expatriates were India (28.2%), Japan, 14.8%), China (15.1%), the United Kingdom (8.6%) and Singapore (6.7%). A worldwide expatriate association, *Internations* in its publication (2012), reports that expatriates in Malaysia come from almost 180 countries and among the top 20 in the list are displayed in Table 2.6.

Most of these expatriates are concentrated in the oil and gas industry and many of them live in Kuala Lumpur. Other areas where significant number of expatriates are employed are education, hotels and hospitality, banking and finance, IT and business consultancy. Besides them, there is also a large diplomatic community in the country (The Explorer, 2012). Even though it is clearly specified that in getting a work permit, a degree of equivalent professional qualification will be essential, but in some circumstances, extensive professional experience relevant to the position being offered is also considered. This is especially true in the case of hotel and hospitality industry.

Table 2.6
Malaysia Expatriates by Nationality

No.	Nationality	Total
1.	Americans	209
2.	Argentineans	32
3.	Australians	125
4.	Austrians	44
5.	Brazilians	30
6.	British	365
7.	Canadians	69
8.	Chinese	30
9.	Dutch	68
10.	French	90
11.	Germans	151
12.	Indians	180
13.	Irish	42
14.	Italians	39
15.	Polish	37
16.	Portuguese	47
17.	Russians	49
18.	Swedish	32
19.	Spanish	35
20.	Swiss	35

Source: internations.org

Living as expatriates in a foreign country is described as favorable due to higher salary and perks but it is claimed that opportunities for expatriates in Malaysia are quite restricted. Besides all the attractive expatriate packages and the life in Malaysia, there are some issues that are being brought up and discussed among the expatriates (The Explorer, 2012). Among them are:

- SIEs were claimed to have limited opportunities to secure a job in Malaysia, although it is possible, due to immigration procedures;

- local salaries, which are claimed to be low and although the minimum salary for a work permit holder is set above the average at RM3,000.00 per month, most expatriates would not want to work for this amount;

- work ethics in Malaysia which is rather laid back and can be frustrating in the workplace. This was not pointed to the hours spent at the office but rather to do with a general feeling of calm and a lack of urgency that can be exasperating to people who are used to a fast-paced working environment;

- culture shock related to the organizational culture. For example, if one is the only expatriate in the office (the boss), one may find that he or she is being deterred and feel like he/she never gets a straight answer to anything. This refers to the Malaysian colleagues trying to tell the expatriate boss what they think he/she wants to hear, a kind of second guessing that can be extremely frustrating;

- Malaysian bureaucracy which can be incredibly slow moving and especially when the expatriates first arrive—waiting for work permit, waiting to move to a new home and waiting to open a bank account; and

- the job market for expatriation in Malaysia is not very fluid so it is hard to judge the level of vacancies (for SIEs). It is claimed that jobs are seldom advertised and tend to be filled by internal transfers or by using headhunters.

However, besides the comments, it is also agreeable that Malaysia is still a generally pleasant and rewarding place to live and work and the contribution of expatriates to the economy is recognized. In addition, even though expatriate packages vary enormously, with standard features such as location allowance, rent allowance, medical insurance, school fees and annual air tickets to home country, these packages are described as attractive and enable them to live very well in the country. The best packages are usually to those who are sent by parent companies, which also include a car and a leave allowance for holidays. SIEs usually receive an expatriate salary together with other perks and allowances.

Opperman and Chon (1997) claim that in the hotel industry, the continuous construction of large and luxury hotels in the "*Golden Triangle*" of Malaysia indicate the rapid development in this area into a predominant up-market hotel location. The shortage of skilled workers in the industry has enabled for foreign expertise to be recruited and many of the international (MNHCs and IJVHCs) and national hotels (especially those classified as 4 and 5-star hotels) are utilizing expatriate's know-how. The MNHCs and IJVHCs are more likely to utilize expatriates' know-how at the senior management positions such as GM, Chief Finance Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Hotel Manager, Executive Chef and executives.

As noted by Jenkins (1982) the use of foreign expertise is often the only means of jumping the development gap between the level of indigenously available management and technical skills and the level of experience and competence needed to organize and sustain an international industry. Expatriates in Malaysian hotel industry comprised of both, OEs (i.e. TCN or PCN) and SIEs. However, there are also MNHCs and IJVHCs operating in Malaysia that recruit the locals (HCNs) on a contract basis. Experienced TCNs are hired by many international hotel chains on an individual basis or through a management contract. A normal management contract involves two types of payment. First, a basic fee of two to five per cent of the total sales and an incentive fee of five to ten per cent of the gross operating profit. In foreign-owned or foreign-operated hotels, 40 to 75 per cent of its gross revenues go to the hotel chains and an average of 23 per cent of the wage bill is paid to foreign staff (UN, 1982). In Penang for example, almost all international hotel chains are managed by expatriates (either PCNs or TCNs).

One of the conditions of a work permit being issued to a foreign expertise is that a local candidate cannot be found for the job. Another is that the job is a managerial position and that the expatriate filling it can demonstrate that they have the skills and experience that will be of benefit to Malaysia. Besides, there is also a guideline of minimum age for a work permit of 21 for information technology (IT) industry and 27 for all other sectors. The age factor is seen as discouraging among the expatriate community. As described by The Explorer (online, 2012) "…KL isn't a great place to try to start your career if you're a fresh graduate and it's not a conducive environment for changing direction either". Regardless of whatever conditions, the stable politics and economy has encouraged more individual expatriates to come and work in the country and as the industry continues to grow, it is expected that more expatriates will come to work in the Malaysian in the future.

The extensive reviews of the literature have shown that adjustment is a multifaceted process and it can be influenced by several factors (see e.g., Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Black et al., 1991; Hechanova, Beehr & Christiansen, 2003). All these factors have been carefully considered and reviewed and from there, 10 variables that are deemed important to the present research are further considered for testing. The UCT, SLT and the related conceptual discussions suggest that adjustment to a new cultural environment is also a time-related process and that expatriates need time to learn and become accustomed to the culture of the host county (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982). As time passes by during their stay in the new culture, the expatriates will find that some factors may facilitate their adjustment and some factors may inhibit their adjustment. Thus, determine the success or failure of adjustment. The discussions of the variables and the theories have enabled for the theoretical framework to be designed. The next sections present the theoretical framework and the discussions on how the hypotheses are generated.

2.11 Theoretical Framework

A theoretical framework is "a conceptual model of how one theorizes the relationships among the several factors that have been identified as important to the problem" (Sekaran, 2000, p. 63). It offers the conceptual foundation for a researcher to proceed with the research and as it also serves as a method of identifying the "network of relationships" among the variables to be studied. Simply, it is a plan of how the researcher will undertake her study based on the written objectives and what the study hopes to achieve based on past theories.

Since most of the theoretical foundation of adjustment and cultural adjustment research is actually based on Oberg's (1960) work on cultural adjustment, the researcher has also decided to use the foundation and adopts the UCT that he proposed, in designing the theoretical framework for the present study. The basic idea of this theory still lies in the feelings associated with adjustment to the new cultural environment and these feelings are generally common among expatriates and other sojourners. Besides the UCT, the present study also looked at SLT proposed by Bandura (1977) as a foundation for the theoretical framework. If UCT describes adjustment from its various phases and the actual feelings that a sojourner feels during a sojourn, the SLT looks at adjustment from the behavioral aspects.

The theoretical framework designed for the present study helps the researcher to postulate and test the factors that facilitate expatriates adjustment as well as to improve understanding of the dynamics of expatriation and adjustment. It also helped in the formulation of research hypotheses. Figure 2.5 presents the theoretical framework designed for this research.

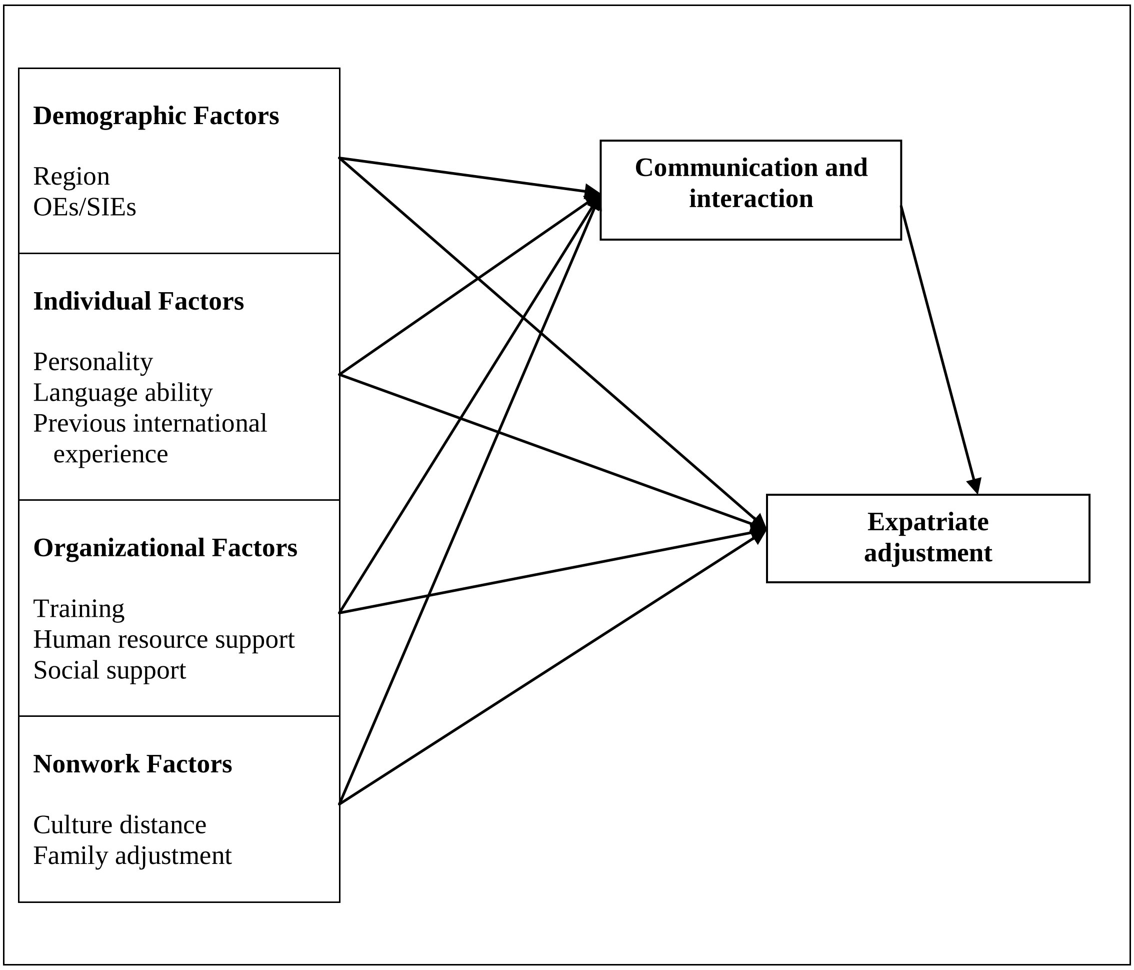

Figure 2.5: Theoretical framework

2.12 Hypotheses

Research and academic discussions of SIEs are increasing, highlighting emerging distinction between OEs and SIEs. As scholars have now began to show interests in SIEs, more information can be obtained about the differences in the adjustment between OEs and SIEs. As discussed in the literature, most research on OEs and SIEs are more focused on expatriates attached to various industries such as manufacturing, engineering and academic (Inkson et al., 1997; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009; Suutari & Brewster, 2000). A specific research by Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) shows that OEs and SIEs are two expatriates types who are different in their adjustment and are more adjusted to general cultural aspects. Their differences are attributed to the differences in motivation and frequency of cross-cultural interaction with the host. This can be related to the nature of SIEs themselves. Looking at the definition again, SIEs are the group of expatriates who initiate their own mobility and hence, they are often motivated by the interest in a given foreign country. OEs on the other hand, are sent by parent companies and they may know little about the country of assignment. In many instances, they receive more assistance from the organization (such as housing, area of residence) as compared to SIEs.

Since SIEs initiate their own move to other countries, they are anticipated to be more motivated to learn faster and more about the country. The easier the learning process, the better their adjustment will be. This is consistent with what is described in SLT about learning behavior which suggests that in order for organizational learning (expatriation) to be successful, the expatriate has to be motivated to initiate positive behaviors that have been modeled. During the process, communication and interaction with hosts is crucial as it helps expatriates to obtain information regarding what is appropriate and what is not in the new society. Through the feedback received from people of the host country, an expatriate will be able to adjust their behavior to comply with the current situation.

Therefore, having to discuss the differences, it is also anticipated that SIEs and OEs in hotel industry also differ in their adjustment to a new cultural environment. Thus, the following hypothesis is formulated to test the significant differences in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs in hotel industry and if there is, in which area of adjustment (general, interaction or work).

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs in hotel industry.

As have been noted earlier, different people may experience different types of difficulty in adjusting to the new culture, depending on how much difference there is between the home and host cultures (Black et al., 1992a). It has been suggested that if the culture distance between the home and the host cultures is small, adjustment will be much easier for the expatriates. Research by Parker and McEvoy (1993) suggests that culture distance poses a negative impact on interaction and general adjustment. In other words, the more dissimilarities exist between the home and host cultures, the more difficulty the expatriate will face in adjusting to the work and nonwork areas (Peltokorpi and Froese (2009). SLT also suggests that the degree of difficulty also makes learning and modeling of behavior more difficult. Even though it could be argued that success and failure of expatriation are associated with various reasons as discussed in expatriation management literature, most importantly, this justifies that expatriates from different regions would adjust differently to a new of cultural environment.

Even though literature has also suggested that expatriates from a culture similar to the host country will experience less difficulty in adjusting themselves to the culture, empirical research looking at the differences in adjustment of expatriates from different cultural backgrounds, located in one country is rather scarce. Even though Shaffer et al. (2006) specified that their research involved expatriates from 20 nationalities (Hong Kong samples), their research did not specifically looked at the difference of adjustment among these expatriates. Since the study involves expatriates from different cultural backgrounds, it is anticipated that those from a culture distant to the host country will experience difficulties to adjust to the Malaysian culture. Both the UCT and SLT also suggest that those who move to work in a new cultural environment will experience a stage of shock within a few months of their stay. This relate to the literature in the sense that those who come from a country similar to the host, will experience less shock and less difficulty to adjust. Hence, it can be concluded that expatriates will adjust differently to a new culture due to the differences between the home and the host cultures. In proving this, the following hypothesis is generated.

Hypothesis 2: There are significant differences in the adjustment of expatriates from different regions.

Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) argue that when discussing the challenges in adjustment, researchers tend to focus on work and life and not at the determinants of adjustment in general. Hence, after reviewing the theoretical arguments from past and present works on adjustment, crucial determinants of adjustment have been identified. These determinants can be categorized into three separate groups: the individual, organizational and non-work factors (Black, 1989; Shaffer et al., 1999). The impacts of individual, organizational and non-work factors on expatriate adjustment have been extensively examined (Black & Gregersen 1990, 1991a, 1991b & 1999; Selmer, 2001; Shaffer et al. 1999, 2006; Ward & Kennedy, 1993). Since adjustment is viewed as a multifaceted construct, it seems logical that different antecedents may affect difference facets of adjustment differently. For example, communication and interaction with host nationals are found to facilitate all facets of adjustment but pre-departure training and family adjustment facilitate only expatriates' general adjustment (Black, 1988). Spouse adjustment and personality have also been found to predict expatriate adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Shaffer et al. 1999). All these factors are important during the process of adjustment especially during the second phase of UCT and SLT. The discussions then lead to the generation of the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

Hypothesis 4: Personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment are predictors of expatriate adjustment.

Past research seemed to look at how communication and interaction relates directly to expatriate adjustment (Black, 1990b; Holopainen & Bjorkman, 2005; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Piedmont et al.; 1991). Aycan and Kanungo (1997) and Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) reviewed expatriation literature and they posited that researchers have not paid enough attention on the mediating effects of certain variables on expatriate adjustment. Since their review, Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi and Bross (1998) explored the mediating effect of family adjustment on expatriate adjustment. Their research demonstrated that family adjustment mediated the relationship between family characteristics and expatriate adjustment. Their research however, looked at family adjustment as a unitary construct. Meanwhile, the research conducted by Lee and Sukoco (2008) looked at the mediating effects of expatriate adjustment and operational capability on the success of expatriation. Results revealed that expatriates personality has direct effects on perceived adjustment and operational capability, and the expatriates' operational capability was found to be a mediating variable for both expatriates' personality and adjustment on performance. Using Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) and Aycan and Kanungo's (1997) critiques about the insufficient attention given o expatriate process mediators, the research hopes to explore further on the mediating role of communication and interaction in expatriate adjustment as the variable plays crucial role in cross-cultural adjustment. According to Black (1988), work adjustment may not necessarily influence the performance level unless expatriates are better able to communicate effectively with the people in the host country, at work or outside work context. This is consistent with the proposition made in SLT which claims that individual characteristics and supports from all parties will not be as effective without communication and interaction between expatriates and all parties involved such as organizations, family, people at work and the host nationals. Willingness and motivation to communicate and interact are crucial during the process. Therefore, a systematic study of exactly what happens in intercultural contacts and interactions when the communication process involves cultural diverse people is needed. Building upon that, the following hypothesis is offered.

Hypothesis 5: Communication and interaction mediates the relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance, and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

Thus far, very limited studies have considered communication and interaction's direct and indirect effects on adjustment and how this variable mediates expatriate adjustment. Therefore, this study hopes to consider the variable as an underlying mechanism that affects expatriate adjustment.

2.13 Chapter Conclusion

As the world is becoming more globalized, it is also expected that the number of expatriates working on international assignment will also increase. In essence, foreign assignments are critical for companies to expand their businesses and at the same time achieve their objectives. Despite complications such as the distance between places in the world, cultural diversity and potentially conflicting demands by governments involved, foreign assignments are unique because they provide time and opportunity for those involved to collect and exchange information, either about the culture or the business itself. To the expatriates, foreign assignments can help develop global managers who are responsible for the success of the MNCs.

It is therefore, important that continuous investigation on the factors that affect expatriate adjustment be conducted in order to help expatriates, as well as the organizations to further understand the impact of these factors on adjustment. This chapter has provided an in-depth discussion on the issues related to adjustment including the theories that are often related to adjustment. Besides, the chapter also discusses the variables that influence expatriate adjustment. These variables are categorized into three groups: the individual, organizational and non-work factors. Personality, language ability, communication and interaction with host and previous international experience are categorized as individual factors. Pre-departure training, human resource support and organizational culture are variables, which have been commonly discussed as organizational factors. Meanwhile, family/spouse adjustment and culture distance are regarded as non-work factors. It is hoped that the discussion provided in this chapter will help us to better understand the factors and challenges facing today's global work force.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

After reviewing the literature related to the variables that will be investigated in the study, the chapter will now discuss the methodology employed by the research. It will elaborate on the development of the research design and strategy, approaches and methods of data collection, as well as how the variables are operationalized. Among the most important part of the chapter is the methods section, which specifically describes the method that the research adopts. Other subtopics that will be highlighted are the sampling technique, development of the research instruments, measurements and data analysis. While the section on sampling delineates the criteria for including respondents in the study, the section on the development of research instruments describes the techniques employed in the data collection process and how the techniques are conducted. The measurement section discusses the criteria used in selecting the measures and construction of indices. This is followed by a review of the methods of data analyses and finally, how the findings of this research can be considered reliable and valid.

3.2 Research Design

As mentioned, this research attempts to investigate the adjustment of expatriates working in Malaysia by focusing on both, OEs and SIEs. Even though it is acknowledged that there has been numerous research conducted in understanding the adjustment behavior of these expatriates especially the OEs, it is still believed that further investigation needs to be conducted to further understand the adjustment of both groups of expatriates, especially those working in a developing, multiracial society like Malaysia. For the purpose of this research, quantitative approach was found to be the most appropriate. This was due to a number of reasons:

a. The nature of the research topic. As mentioned above, there is an abundance of literature in the area of expatriation and this allows for the formulation of the theoretical framework and generation of research hypotheses. As Creswell (2005) points out this lends itself more readily to a quantitative approach.

b. This approach was also preferred as the study also hoped to investigate the cause and effect between and among variables chosen for the study. This enabled the researcher to establish the causal relationships between and among these variables and link them to the theory. A highly structured methodology designed by the proponents of this approach helps the present research to progress.

c. Besides, it also allowed the problem to be studied with more precision, objectivity and rigor.

The present study was designed to be exploratory in nature as it had proven to be a valuable means of finding out how expatriates working in Malaysia adjust themselves to the host environment, to seek new insights of adjustment in a multicultural society and to assess phenomenon in a new light as it would also look at how communication and interaction could possibly mediates expatriate adjustment in Malaysia. This also proved to be a particularly useful approach as the research hoped to clarify an understanding of the problem of adjustment among expatriates. As has been mentioned, the purpose of this study was to examine the determinants of adjustment among expatriates in Malaysian hotel industry.

In lieu to that, a cross-sectional approach was deemed to be the most appropriate for data collection. This was due to two reasons. First, it relates to the main objectives which hoped to further explore the adjustment of Malaysian hotel expatriates. Secondly, the decision to adopt the survey strategy by the present research also allowed for the adoption of the strategy. Finally, as the research aimed at investigating a particular issue (i.e. expatriate adjustment in Malaysia) at a particular time, and time was also a constrained, it allowed for a cross-sectional strategy to be adopted (Saunders, Lewis & Thornhill, 2007; Robson, 2002). Besides, the research also involved a one-time measurement, where it used a cross-sectional sample population (taking a sample of population elements at one point in time) and data were gathered just once, over a period of three months (i.e. data were collected between January and March 2011). The decision to use the cross-sectional research design was also influenced by other factors. For example, the present research was interested in generating a representative sample in which statistics could be compiled and compared to those of past research on expatriate adjustment.

3.3 Research Procedure

From the research design presented above, questionnaire survey, specifically the self-administered questionnaire, was found to be the most appropriate for data collection purposes. The decision to use the questionnaire survey was neither influenced by its greatest use nor for convenience purposes. The questionnaire method was chosen for several reasons. First, considering the population of expatriates in the areas chosen for the study (N=323). Questionnaires allow for very large samples to be taken and in the case of the present study, this was important in ensuring a higher response rate. Second, the sorts of data that had to be collected. The nature of the study that looked for information pertaining to the expatriate's attitude (how they feel about Malaysian culture, working environment and so on), beliefs (what they think or belief as right or wrong and so on), behavior (a concrete experience that covers what they did, do and will do) and attitude (respondent's characteristics or what they possess such as age, gender, marital status, occupation and education), required the use of survey questionnaire. This is consistent with Dillman (1978) who suggests that attitude, belief, behavior and attribute are the types of data that can be collected through the use of questionnaires.

Third, the use of questionnaire in the study would also enable the expatriates to respond to the same set of questions. Besides, it enabled for consistency in the questions asked and data gathering. It also facilitated the process of analyzing the participants' responses. The use of questionnaires also allowed for a more efficient way of collecting and ensuring the reliability of responses. Fourth, as stated by Hussey and Hussey (1997), this method is cheaper, considering the large number of respondents. Fifth, due to the widespread locations of the expatriates questionnaires represent a sensible approach to generate an optimum response. Finally, questionnaires prevent interview bias (White, 2000). Respondents will be more willing to answer personal questions as they are not having any face-to-face encounter with the researcher.

The field work for data collection was carried out from January to March 2011. During the period of three and a half-months, the researcher distributed (drop and collect method) the set of questionnaires to each hotel that had hosted expatriates identified earlier through telephone calls. Each hotel had a policy that did not allow for the questionnaires to be delivered direct to individual expatriates. This was to ensure the safety and privacy of the expatriates working at the premise. And as it was not possible for the researcher to request the hotels to furnish the name of the individual expatriate working with them, the questionnaires had to be dropped at the

GM's office or HR Department upon request from the hotels themselves as they agreed to distribute the questionnaires to expatriates working at their premises. This would also mean that the distribution of questionnaires was left to the discretion of the respective offices. The researcher was also advised that the questionnaires could only be collected in a week or so, so that the expatriates, as well as their spouse (if they were married) had enough time to respond to it.

Based on the list containing the name of hotels and addresses, and based on the availability of expatriates at each premise (see Appendix 3), questionnaires (see Appendix 6) were then distributed to each of the hotel depending on the number of expatriates attached to a particular hotel. A cover letter was also attached to the questionnaire requesting for cooperation from the respondents (see Appendix 5). The package was addressed to the GMs of all the hotels identified. A letter was also attached, requesting for their cooperation to distribute the questionnaire to expatriates attached to their premise (see Appendix 4). Basically, two different sets of questionnaires were distributed to each respondent. The first set of questionnaire was intended to the expatriate him/herself and the second set was meant for the spouse (if they were married). In past studies, questionnaires to measure spouse adjustment had been filled by expatriates themselves (Black & Stephens, 1989), and this has led to the question of bias in the answers given. As this study hoped to overcome the weakness, the researcher requested that the expatriates themselves distributed the questionnaire to their spouse (in the cover letter, Appendix 5). In doing this, the spouse's questionnaire was attached together with the set of questionnaire given to the expatriates. Instructions were given in the letter, requesting for expatriates to pass the questionnaire to their spouse, if they were married. They would then return the spouse questionnaire together with their set to the GM's office.

Even though Saunders et al. (2007) suggest that self-administered questionnaires can pose several disadvantages as compared to interviewer-administered questionnaires such as a lower response rate and the potential data contamination, which can eventually affect reliability, this did not prevent the present research from using questionnaire as part of its data collection method. The researcher had great confidence that this method could yield a higher response rate, especially with the drop and collect method. All the weaknesses that might be posed by questionnaires survey were considered seriously during the actual data collection process especially the ones that were related to the non-response error. Calls were made as follow-ups, in order to remind the GM's office that the researcher would be collecting the questionnaire surveys in a few days. The drop and collect method used in this study was also hoped to overcome the questionnaire non-response bias. Besides, the researcher also kept a record and put some sort of coding system for each questionnaire that was sent out. For example, if the hotels were located in Langkawi, the researcher would write L1, L2, etc. at the top right hand corner of each set of questionnaire. This would help the researcher to identify the hotels or the number of expatriates at each hotel that had not returned the surveys.

In Langkawi and Penang, data were collected in January. As most hotels with expatriates were located in Kuala Lumpur and Selangor, almost one and a half months were spent for data collection (February until mid-March). The remaining time was spent for data collection in the east coast (i.e. Pahang, Melaka, Johor and Terengganu.

In total, 400 questionnaires were distributed, a number which exceeded the total number of expatriates identified (N = 323). The researcher purposely attached extra sets of questionnaires to each hotel, just in case there were more expatriates at each facility than what was identified before. After three and a half months, 241 questionnaires were collected (returned rate of 74.6%) and after the cleaning process, 203 usable data were analyzed. This was considered a good return rate as Saunders et al. (2007) proposed that 30 – 50 per cent return rate for a drop and collect method was already reasonably and moderately high.

3.4 Population and Sampling

As discussed in Chapter 2, the development in the hospitality industry has opened up great opportunities for people attached to the industry to travel and work abroad, representing their companies. Thus, expatriate management is becoming crucial as more hotel chains are now seeking expansions into overseas market (Li & Tse, 1998). In relation to that, the present research hopes to pursue the investigation on expatriate adjustment by focusing on Malaysian environment, which is widely known of its multicultural society. In studying this group, two groups of population had been identified. The first group, which was also the main focus of the study, was the expatriates themselves and the second group was the trailing spouses. This thesis focused only on expatriates attached to the Malaysian hotel industry, by specifically focusing on 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels located in Peninsular Malaysia. This industry was chosen due to the fact that it has been one of the most important industries that contribute towards Malaysia's economic growth and it continues to grow very rapidly, especially in Kuala Lumpur, the capital city of Malaysia. Moreover, as the hospitality industry continues to grow, it is also expected that more expatriates will be needed to work at the facilities. Even though the broader tourism industry is largely comprised of four important sectors, namely, airlines, travel agency, restaurant and hotel, the study will only focus on the expatriates in the hotel sector as this sector has shown a rapid development in the last 10 to 15 years. Besides, the dearth of literature on adjustment of expatriates in hospitality industry reveals that there is a growing need for expatriation research in this industry which would help facilitate the understanding of expatriation issues in this industry. As more expatriates seem to be joining the various sectors in the industry, their spouses could be accompanying them too. Thus, this allows for spouses to be included in the study because a great number of past research have found that spouse adjustment has a great impact on expatriate adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989).

Only 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels are targeted because expatriates are usually attached to these premises. Hotels in Peninsular Malaysia were chosen in order to ensure that enough samples were taken for the study. Furthermore, based on the same information, it was identified that most 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels (MNHCs & IJVHCs) in Malaysia were located in Peninsular Malaysia especially in Kuala Lumpur, Selangor, Penang and Langkawi. From the calls made to all 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels in Malaysia, it was identified that there were about 323 expatriates attached to these facilities in Peninsular Malaysia. Their job specifications ranged from top management (GMs) to non-managerial posts (chefs and technical experts). However, the total population of expatriates' spouse would only be known after the survey came back as there was no way that this could be known earlier before the surveys were returned. The answers provided by the expatriates on their marital status and whether they were accompanied by their spouse, helped the researcher to figure out the number of expatriates' spouses available. The numbers obtained served as the list of population.

3.4.1 Sampling Frame

The most critical problem that arose during the process of identifying the sampling frame was the lack of sources that could provide information on expatriates attached to the Malaysian hotel industry. ExpatKL.com, one of the expatriate's association based in Kuala Lumpur had been generous enough to provide valuable information that enabled the researcher to move forward to the next step in identifying the target population by providing a list containing the names and addresses of all hotels in Malaysia. The list was also provided based on the confidentiality agreement made with the person in-charged in handling the expatriates' information. From this list, together with the telephone directory, 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels (locals, MNHCs and IJVHCs) were identified. The lists were complete, accurate and current at the time when the data were about to be collected (list obtained in October 2010 and data were collected in January 2011). The completeness of the sampling frame was important as incomplete or inaccurate list would mean that some hotels would have been excluded so it would be impossible for every case in the population to have a chance of selection.

3.4.2 Sample Size

Saunders et al. (2007) posit that generalizations about populations from data collected using any probability samples are based on probability. This would mean that as the size of the sample gets larger, the likelihood of making an error in generalization becomes smaller. Probability sampling was also employed considering the accurateness of the findings and the amount of time and money spent on data collection and analysis. Therefore, the decision to adopt the sample size for this research was greatly determined by the: (a) level of certainty; (b) margin of error that could be tolerated; (c) type of analyses undertaken; and (d) size of total population. Thus, the decision model proposed by Saunders et al. (2007) was used in determining the required sample size. As the total population of expatriates attached to the hotel industry in Peninsular Malaysia was 323 (N=323), this would mean that the appropriate sample size identified for the present study should be 175, at a 95 per cent level of certainty (5 per cent margin of error) as data were collected from all cases in the sample (Creswell, 2005).

3.4.3 Sampling Technique

After the sampling frame had been identified and the actual sample size had been established, the appropriate sampling technique was then selected in order to obtain a representative sample. In identifying the hotels where the expatriates resided, the stratified random sampling was used. The populations were categorized into discrete groups prior to sampling (3-, 4- and 5-star hotels). In this case, the selection of 3-, 4- and 5-star hotels were selected from all hotels in Malaysia. The categorization of hotel ranking was made by Malaysian Association of Hotels (MAHs), based on an international standard. For this type of sampling, the sampling frame was the complete list of hotels provided by ExpatKL.Com which had already grouped the hotels based on their rankings. Each group was numbered based on its location and then samples were chosen randomly.

As hotels would not allow for a direct access to the individual expatriates to pass the questionnaire surveys, the questionnaires were then distributed to the GM or human resources (HRs) office and from there, the set was distributed to expatriates attached to the premise. Even though it was argued that the likelihood of the sample being representative and the control over sample contents was rather low, but the surveys were able to reach the samples that possessed the characteristics desired. Beside, this technique was useful where difficulties exist in identifying cases (expatriates) (Saunders et al., 2007).

3.5 Instrumentations

A researcher will not be able to test the hypotheses and find answers to the issues being investigated unless the variables are measured in some ways. Thus, this section will discuss the different ways in which the variables identified for this study lend themselves to measurement.

In measuring the variables, the researcher identified appropriate sets of questionnaires that would specifically measure each variable under study. As pointed out before, questionnaires were divided into two sets. The first set had to be completed by the expatriates and the second by the spouse. The set of questionnaires for the expatriate was divided into two parts, which comprised of six sections. The first part, which contained section one, was designed to obtain the demographic characteristics of the respondents and also to measure the individual variables (i.e. previous international experience and language ability) and also organizational variable (i.e. training).

The second part contained seven sections that measured the dependent, mediating and independent variables. The independent variables consisted of 10 variables that were categorized into four groups – demographic, individual, organizational and nonwork. Each of these variables was also measured using either the adopted or adapted version of past instruments, except for region, individual expatriates/MNCs, language ability, previous international experience and training as the answers could be obtained directly from the first part (demographic information). The adoption/adaptation method was preferred as all sets of instruments were established and had consistently shown high reliability values (see discussions on measurements of items). Each instrument required that respondents rated their feelings on a 5-point Likert Scale. The measurements of each variable are described below.

3.5.1 Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of the thesis was the *expatriate adjustment*. The construct was measured using an adapted version of the instrument developed by Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989). This set of item was chosen as it had been employed by several researchers (see for example Black, 1988 and Black & Stephens, 1989), had shown high reliability coefficient (α=.84) and the values were consistent in every studies. Black (1988) divided the 14 items in the instrument into 3 factors. The first factor was termed general adjustment (items 1 – 7) and had produced an alpha of .80 which was considered acceptable. The second factor was adjustment to interacting with host (items 8 – 11) and had recorded a relatively high reliability coefficient (α=.83). The final factor was adjustment to work (items 12 – 14) and had produced and intrascale reliability of .91. This set of questionnaire asked respondents to indicate on a scale from 1 (not adjusted at all) to 5 (very well adjusted) the degree to which they are adjusted or not on the 14 items listed in the questionnaire.

3.5.2 Independent Variables

The discussions on the independent variables will be discussed based on the categorization of variables-demographic, individual, organizational and nonwork.

3.5.2.1 Demographic Factors

Two variables made up the demographic factors—region and types of expatriates (OEs versus SIEs). In measuring the *region*, the expatriates were asked a direct question about their home country (refer to Section 1, Q6: "Your citizenship"). The respondents had to specify their citizenship by filling in the answer in the space provided. From this information, the countries of origin were then categorized based on seven regions (according to the classification of the seven continents, (i.e. North America, Europe, Asia, etc). These were then tested against the adjustment variable. The purpose of this question was to measure whether expatriates from different region adjust differently to Malaysian environment.

The second variable under this category, the *type of expatriates*, measured how the OEs and SIEs adjust themselves to Malaysian culture. It hoped to identify whether the two groups of expatriates adjust themselves differently to Malaysian environment. This information could also be obtained in the demographic information (see Section 1, Q8: "How did you come to work in Malaysia?") and they had two choices of answers that would help the researcher to identify whether they were sent by the parent company or initiate their travel and work in Malaysia. This was then tested against the dependent variable.

3.5.2.2 Individual Factors

The individual factors were made up of personality, language ability and previous international experience. It looked at how these variables affect expatriate adjustment. The measurement of personality variable was based on the description of self-efficacy, which consisted of two factors that measured general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy. In measuring *personality (self-efficacy)*, the instrument was adopted from a revised Self-Efficacy Scale by Sherer et al. (1982) which consists of 23 items. The 23 items were divided into two factors. Factor 1 (items 1 to 17) measured the general self-efficacy (i.e. “I give up on things before completing them.”, “If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.”). Factor 2 (items 18 to 23) measured the social self-efficacy (i.e. “It is difficult for me to make new friends.”, “When I am trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don’t give up easily.”). The Cronbach alpha reliability coefficients for both factors were .86 and .71 respectively (Sherer et al., 1982). These were considered favorable with the alpha value of .60 recommended by Nunnally (1978). The Self-Efficacy Scale (SES) asked the respondents to rate their agreement with each item on 5-point Likert scales ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Language ability was measured based on respondents’ report on their ability to speak any foreign language(s) and their degree of fluency. The answers could be obtained from the direct responses given by the expatriates in Section 1 (Q12 – 14) of the questionnaire. In this research, language ability of the expatriates is measured based on the questions included in the first section of the questionnaire where expatriates are asked whether they speak other languages than their native. If they do, what is their degree of fluency of the native language(s). Besides, they are also asked to describe their ability to speak the native language of the host country by describing, for responding to one of the five statements given (i.e. “I do not know the native language of this country.”; “I am limited to very short and simple phrases.”; “I am fluent in the language of this country.”).

Previous international experience was measured based on the direct answer given by the expatriates when responding to questions 10 (“Have you had experience working in other foreign countries before?”) and 11 (“…how many times has it been including the present one?”). These questions were also available in Section 1 of the questionnaire.

3.5.2.3 Organizational Factors

Training was measured based on the closed-ended question asking whether respondents had had any training prior to expatriation (Q15). If yes, the respondents had to indicate the type of training they had prior to expatriation (Q16) and whether they believe that the training had helped them in adjusting to Malaysian culture (Q17). These questions were also included in Section 1 of the questionnaire.

The *human resource support* was measured using Guzzo et al.’s (1994) Company Practice Item, which comprised of 43 items (α=.84). The items measured the organization’s practices, specifically the human resource support that the organization offered to the expatriates. The support was divided into three categories—financial inducement (items 1 – 18), general support (items 19 – 36) and family support (items 47 – 43). Respondents were asked to rate the practice of their organization by rating each practice on a 5-point scale with 1 (to no extent/not provided) and 5 (to a great extent). Examples of the statements include: "Reimbursement for tax return preparation," "Assistance for locating new home," and "Training for local culture systems."

Social support on the other hand, was measured using an adapted version of Caplan et al.'s (1980) Social Support Scale (SSS) and yielded an alpha value of .86. The SSS was comprised of four questions that measured the extent of social support that expatriates received from supervisor (boss) and other people at work. This led to a total of eight items altogether. Respondents were asked to rate the support they receive from people in each of the group (i.e. "How easy is it to talk with each of the following people?"; "How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work?") by rating it on a 5-point Likert scale with 5 (very much) and 1 (not relevant).

3.5.2.4 Nonwork Factors

Culture distance was measured using the culture novelty questionnaire which was also developed by Black and Stephens (1989). This instrument measured how the home and host culture differ. It consisted of 8 items (i.e. "Available quality and types of foods." and "Transportation systems used in the country."). This instrument has a reliability coefficient of .64 (Black & Stephens, 1989). Although it was rather low it was still an acceptable value (Black & Stephens, 1989). Respondents were asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale how similar or different the situations described in the statements, to their home country.

Meanwhile, *family adjustment* was measured using Black (1988) Black and Stephens (1989) self-report measures of adjustment. The reliability coefficient of this measure is .83 (Black & Stephens, 1989). Even though the questionnaire was originally used to measure expatriate adjustment, it was also applicable in the case of expatriate's spouse. However, instead of 14 items, this instrument consists of 9 items (i.e. "Health care facilities." and "Socializing with Malaysians."). Those items that concerned work-related responsibilities or relating to interacting with host nationals with a work context were not included in the questionnaire as evidence from past research suggested that almost 80 per cent of the accompanying spouses were not working (Stephens & Black, 1988). Since, this set of questionnaire measured how well the spouses get themselves adjusted to Malaysian culture, it required answers from the expatriate's spouse. The spouse was asked to indicate on a 5-point Likert scale whether they were very well adjusted (5) or not adjusted at all (1) to the statements provided.

3.5.3 Mediating Variable

In the present research, *communication and interaction* was treated as a mediating variable. It was measured using Duran (1992), Communicative Adaptability Scale (CAS). The scale consists of 30 items that measured respondents' communicative behaviors in social situation. It also measured how the expatriates feel about their communication style in social situations, in the host country. The communicative behavior was categorized into six dimensions—social composure (items 1 – 5; α=.82), social confirmation (items 6 – 10; α=.84), social experience ((items 11 – 15; α=.80), appropriate disclosure (items 16 – 20; α=.76), articulation (items 21 – 25; α=.80) and wit (items 26 – 30; α =.74). The respondents were asked questions such as, "I feel nervous in social situations.", "I try to be warm when communicating with another person." to reflect their experience communicating with people in the host country. They were asked to rate each statement on a scale from 1 (never true of me) to 5 (always true of me).

Table 3.1 summarizes the information of the variables and factors discussed earlier. Only four variables were divided into factors or dimensions.

Table 3.1
Summary of Variables with Factors/Dimensions

Variable	Factors/Dimensions	Items
Adjustment (14 items)	General (F1) Interaction (F2) Work (F3)	Items 1 – 7 Items 8 – 11 Items 12 -14
Personality (23 items)	General SE (F1) Social SE (F2)	Items 1 – 17 Items 18 - 23
Human Resource Support (43 items)	Financial (F1 General (F2) Family (F3)	Items 1 – 18 Items 19 – 36 Items 37 -43
Communication and Interaction (30 items)	Social Composure (F1) Social Confirmation (F2) Social Experience (F3) Appropriate Disclosure (F4) Articulation (F5) Wit/Humor (F6)	Items 1 – 5 Items 6 – 10 Items 11 – 15 Items 16 – 20 Items 21 – 25 Items 26 - 30

3.6 Data Analysis

After the data had been collected from the respondents, the next step was to analyze the data so that the research hypotheses could be tested. The analysis involved four important steps:

a. Testing for data normality;

b. Descriptive analysis involving mean, standard deviation, correlations, frequency distribution and so on);

c. Testing the quality of data (i.e. reliability—Cronbach's alpha and validity) and;

d. Testing the hypotheses (using appropriate statistical analysis).

These steps were taken to ensure that the data obtained was good and thus, allowed for better interpretation of the results. In this study, the data were analyzed using the latest version of SPSS, which is the IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 19). The statistical analyses used in measuring the quantitative data are outlined below.

3.6.1 Univariate/Descriptive Analysis

This method was used to test the frequency distributions, mean scores and standard deviations of the variables.

3.6.2 Analysis of Differences between Means

Two statistical procedures were used in testing whether differences exist between group means. *T*-test, as well as the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) were used to compare the means between two variables and when the number of groups involved was more than two. Thus hypotheses 1 and 2 were analyzed using this method. In this study the demographic variables which consisted of more than two groups such as age group, level of education, number of past foreign assignment, degree of foreign language fluency, ability to speak the host's native language and time taken to adjust to the Malaysian culture were also analyzed by using this method. Meanwhile, the *t*-test was used to determine whether the means of two groups differ. Variables such as sex, marital status, whether accompanied by family job status, how did the expatriate come to work in Malaysia, experience working in other foreign countries, ability to speak other languages, training, whether training helped in the present assignment and problems adjusting to Malaysian culture required for the administration of *t*-test procedure. The *t*-test was also used to test whether there was a difference in the expatriate's overall adjustment, as well as their general, interaction and work adjustment as measured by their ability to speak foreign language, their previous international experience and training that they had.

3.6.3 Multivariate Analysis

Hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 called for the use of multivariate analysis, specifically the multiple regression analysis and structural equation modeling (SEM). Even though Pearson Correlations could also be used to test the relationships between independent and dependent variables, the multiple regression was more preferred as it provided a more rigor analysis of the relationship between variables (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010). In analyzing hypotheses 3 and 4, multiple regression analysis was used as the analysis displayed the percentage of variance in the dependent variable that would be explained when multiple independent variables were used to speculate the influence. The main aim of the analysis was to build a regression model by relating the dependent variable to multiple independent variables. The model was then used to illustrate, forecast and control the dependent variables based on the independent variables (Aaker, Kumar & Day, 1995). The SEM was adopted in analyzing the mediating effects of communication and interaction on independent and dependent variables. The findings from SEM were used to compliment the findings from multiple regression analysis.

3.7 Pilot Testing

Saunders et al. (2007) suggests that a pilot study should be conducted before the actual data collection methods were administered. The step is important to ensure that questionnaires are refined and that problems will not occur when respondents answer the questions. This will also help during data recording. Besides, a pilot study can also help in the assessment of validity and reliability of the data collected. For the present research, a preliminary analysis was also conducted before the pilot test was actually administered. The analysis allowed the supervisors and several other people who had the knowledge in questionnaire design to comment on the representativeness and suitability of the questions asked in each set of the questionnaire. Mitchell (1996) points out that this can help determine the content validity, thus enabling the researcher to amend the questions before conducting the pilot test. The researcher also endorsed Bell's (1999) advice that questionnaires should be given a trial run regardless of how pressed for time one had. Without it, there was no way the researcher would know that the questionnaire would succeed.

For the pilot test, the researcher distributed the questionnaire to a similar group of samples in Langkawi, Kedah between October and November 2010. The responses provided the researcher with an idea of the reliability of the items. In this exercise, 60 questionnaires were distributed and 43 expatriates responded to the survey. Forty-three was considered sufficient to produce a valid outcome (Cooper & Schindler, 2008; Emory & Cooper, 1991). They contend that samples between 25 – 100 are sufficient enough for pilot testing. In fact, Fink (2003) suggests that a minimum number of 10 are enough for a pilot test as the respond would already provide the researcher with at least some idea of the questionnaire's face validity—whether the questionnaire appeared to make sense.

Each of the respondents admitted that each of them took about 15 – 20 minutes to complete the set of questionnaire given to them. After the pilot test, each completed questionnaire was checked to ensure that respondents had no problems with the questions.

3.7.1 Results of Pilot Testing

As specified, the purpose of pilot testing was to test the validity and reliability of the instrument, the administration of the survey and making appropriate amendments, if necessary, on the survey instrument. Sixty questionnaires were distributed and 43 were returned. The following discussion will focus on the results of the test of frequencies and reliability of the variables, including the dimensions.

The demographic information of the respondents (i.e. age, sex, education, marital status, etc) was obtained from Section 1 of the questionnaire. It will be discussed in percentage form based on the frequency tests that was conducted. From the total of 43 respondents, 19 fell under the age of 35 (44.2%), eight (18.6%) fell between the age of 36 and 41. Twelve (27.9%) were between 41 – 45 years of age. Only one (2.3%) was between the age of 46-50 and the remaining 3 (7.0%) fell over the age of 50. Out of the 43 respondents, 14 (32.6%) were female and 29 (67.4%) were male.

In terms of education, eight (18.6%) finished their high school, nine (20.9%) had a college degree and 15 (34.9%) had a bachelor's degree. Only five (11.6%) completed their graduate degree and six (14.0%) stated that they had other qualifications than what was mentioned (i.e. professional courses or diploma). Twenty-two of them (51.2%) were married and 21 (48.8%) were still single. Among those who were married, only 18 (41.4%) brought their family with them.

The citizenships of the expatriates were classified based on the region (the seven continents) they were from. Most of the respondents (22=51.2%) came from Europe, mostly Germany (11.6%). Eleven were Asian (25.5%), where the majority were from Japan (8=18.6%), seven (16.3%) from the Australian/New Zealand region and three (7.0%) from North America.

Out of the 43 respondents, 37 (86.0%) hold a managerial posts, whereby 14% claimed that they hold the GM post. Only six (14.0%) hold the non-managerial posts. Nineteen (44.2%) of them were OEs and 24 (55.8%) were SIEs. Twenty-five of them (58.3%) had been in Malaysia for up to 23 months, 13 (30.2%) had been in the country between two and five years and five (11.5%) had been working in Malaysia for more than five years.

Thirty-eight (88.4%) of the respondents had experience working in other countries prior to current assignment. Out of 43 respondents, only five (11.6%) stated that they had had no experience before taking up a job in the country. Fifteen of them (34.9%) had taken jobs in other countries for more than three times. Thirteen (30.2%) of them had taken three times. Meanwhile, eight (18.6%) had taken twice job assignments in other countries prior to Malaysia and only two (4.7%) stated that they had only taken up a job in other countries once before coming to Malaysia.

A majority of these respondents (37 or 86.0%) spoke other languages than their native and the remaining six (14.0%) admitted they were not able to speak any foreign language. For those who were able to speak foreign languages, 15 (34.9%) were very fluent, 19 (44.2%) were somewhat fluent and only four (9.3%) reported that they were not fluent. When asked about their ability to speak the native language (BM), nine (20.9%) claimed that they did not know the native language of this country. Twenty-one (48.8%) were limited to very short and simple phrases and five (11.6%) knew basic grammatical structure and spoke with a limited vocabulary. Only eight (18.6%) understood conversation on simple topics.

Most of the expatriates (69.8%) had never had any training prior to taking a job in Malaysia. Only 13 (30.2%) of the respondents had some kind of training before coming to the country. The majority of them (95.3%) claimed that they had no problem adjusting to Malaysian culture. Only two (4.7%) stated that they had problem adjusting (to work and culture). Thirty-nine (90.7%) took 0 – 6 months to get adjusted, two (4.7%) took 7 – 12 months, one (2.3%) took between 13 and 18 months and one (2.3%) took more than 18 months to get adjusted. Table 3.2 summarizes the results of the frequency tests conducted on each variable in the demographic section.

Table 3.2
Summary of Respondents' Profile

		Frequency	Per cent (%)
Age	Under 35	19	44.2
	36-41	8	18.6
	41-45	12	27.9
	46-50	1	2.3
	Over 50	3	7.0
Sex	Female	14	32.6
	Male	29	67.4
Education	High school	8	18.6
	College degree	9	20.9
	Bachelor's degree	15	34.9
	Graduate degree	5	11.6
	Other	6	14.0
Marital status	Married	22	51.2
	Single	21	48.8
Family here	Yes	18	41.4
	No	4	9.3
Citizenship	Europe	22	51.2
	North America	3	7.0
	Asia	11	25.6
	Australia/New Zealand	7	16.3
Job status	Managerial	37	86.0
	Non-managerial	6	14
Coming to Malaysia	Sent by parent company	19	44.2
	Individual/voluntary basis	24	55.8
How long in Malaysia	0-23 months	25	58.3
	24-60 months	13	30.2
	More than sixty months	5	11.5
Experience before coming to Malaysia	Yes	38	88.4
	No	5	11.6
If yes	Once	2	4.7
	Twice	8	18.6
	Three	13	30.2
	More than three times	15	34.9
Speak other languages	Yes	37	86
	No	6	14
Degree of fluency	Very fluent	15	34.9
	Somewhat fluent	19	44.2
	Not fluent	4	9.3

Ability to speak native language of host country	I do not know the native language of this country	9	20.9
	I am limited to very short and simple phrases	21	48.8
	I know basic grammatical structure and speak with a limited vocabulary	5	11.6
	I understand conversation on simple topics	8	18.6
Training	Yes	13	30.2
	No	30	69.8
Problems with Malaysian culture	Yes	2	4.7
	No	41	95.3
Time to adjust	0-6 months	39	90.7
	7-12 months	2	4.7
	13-18 months	1	2.3
	More than 18 months	1	2.3

3.8 Reliability and Validity

Sekaran (2000) notes that a test of reliability is important as it look at the consistency of the measurement used to measure a concept. This would allow for a research to be repeated and yield the same results. Reliability is very much concerned with the research findings and it also provides credibility to the findings itself. Validity on the other hand, tests whether the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. Therefore, in ensuring the reliability and validity of the data collected, the questions asked "must be understood by the respondent in the way intended by the researcher and the answer given by the respondent must be understood by the researcher in the way intended by the respondent" (Foddy, 1994, p. 17). To ensure that, the present study either adopted or adapted the instruments used in past research. The method was significant, as this study needed to compare findings with past studies.

For quantitative research, reliability is commonly assessed using Cronbach's alpha, which is a measure of internal consistency of items making up the scale. The reliability of measure indicates the stability and consistency of the instrument used in measuring the concept. Most scholars support that the alpha value of the reliability should not be less than .70 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994; Baxter & Babbie, 2004). Hair et al. (2010) contend that the lower limit for Cronbach's alpha is .70 though it may decrease to .60. However, Briggs and Check (1986) advances the concept of optimal mean inter-item correlation for small items which ranges from .20 to .40. For this particular study, the reliability for internal consistency was tested by calculating the Cronbach's alpha for each of the items. Checking the internal consistency of the items becomes inevitable considering the fact that the instruments used were taken from previous research.

Pallant (2010) also suggests that the researcher should also check for negative worded items included in the instrument and scores should be reversed before proceeding with the calculation of the alpha values. Thus, a total of 14 items were recoded under the personality variable (b2, b4-b7, b10-b12, b14, b16-b18, b20 and b22) and 10 under the communicative behaviors (c1-c4, c15 and c21-c25) as they were negative worded items. Then, the alpha was calculated using the IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 19).

3.8.1 Tests of Reliability

The reliability tests conducted revealed high reliability values for most variables. For expatriates' overall adjustment, the alpha value was .85 (α=.85). This variable was divided into three dimensions: general, interaction and work. Each dimension revealed higher alpha values. For general adjustment, the alpha value was .75, interaction .84 and work .73. These values indicate that the instrument was good, acceptable and could be adopted for the present research

The second variable measured the expatriates' personality. For this variable, the alpha value was .65. It was comprised of two dimensions: general self-efficacy (α=.72) and social self-efficacy (α=.48). Although the alpha value for social self-efficacy dimension was low, it was decided that this item be adopted for the present research. A thorough review of each item in this variable did not reveal any problem with the wording of each statement in the instrument. The lower value could be due to the small samples involved in the pilot testing.

For communication and interaction variable, the alpha value was .84 (α=.84). This variable comprised of five dimensions: social composure (α=.61), social confirmation (α=.85), social experience (α=.69), appropriate disclosure (α=.84), articulation (α=.94) and wit/humor (α=.79). The human resource variable revealed the alpha value of .81 (α=.81). There were three dimensions: financial inducement (α=.71), general support (α=.62) and family-oriented support (α=.90). Other variables include culture (α=.78), social support (α=.86) and family (α=.94). Based on the values, it was decided that all instruments would be adopted for the present study although the alpha values of some variables were at the average score but were still significant. It was agreed that this could be due to a smaller number of respondents involved. Table 3.3 presents the summary of the alpha value of each variable and its dimensions.

Table 3.3
Alpha Values of Variables and Dimensions

Variables/Dimensions	α	Total Items
Adjustment	**.85**	
General	.75	7
Interaction	.85	4
Work	.73	3
Personality	**.65**	
General self-efficacy	.72	17
Social self-efficacy	.48	6
Communication	**.84**	
Social composure	.61	5
Social confirmation	.85	5
Social experience	.69	5
Appropriate disclosure	.84	5
Articulation	.94	5
Wit/Humor	.79	5
Human resource support	**.81**	
Financial inducement	.71	18
General support	.62	18
Family-oriented support	.90	7
Social support	**.86**	8
Culture distance	**.78**	8
Family adjustment	**.94**	9

3.8.2 Tests of Validity

If measurement reliability is always assessed by a numerical indicator, measurement validity, on the other hand, is assessed at a conceptual level. This would mean that the measurement technique measures accurately what it is supposed to measure. Hence, the discussion will now focus on the validity measures that had been taken in assessing each of the variables.

As part of the attempts to establish measurement validity, the present research relied on measurement techniques that had been used in previous research. The items used to measure each variable in this study were adopted from past studies (by making only minor changes such as from "host nationals" to "Malaysians") and had shown average to high reliability values (refer to earlier discussions on measurements). They were also tested for measurement validity. For example, adjustment, culture distance and family adjustment instruments were proposed by Black (1989) and Black and Stephens (1989) and had been widely used in measuring expatriate adjustment. Communication and interaction was developed by Duran (1992) and had also been tested for its construct validity. Personality instrument which measured the self-efficacy was also assessed through construct validity.

Besides the adoption of established instruments from past research in the same area, the validity of this research was also measured through content validity, construct validity and item-whole correlations (*alpha* if an item was deleted). Even though factor analysis would be one of the most appropriate methods of measuring validity, in the case of this study, this method was not appropriate to be used as the respondents for the pilot test were only 43. As was noted by Hair et al. (2010), a sample of fewer than 50 was not appropriate for factor analysis.

For content validity, all sets of instruments were assessed if they reflect the attributes of the concepts being investigated. For example, a questionnaire adopted in measuring communication and interaction was examined to ensure that it contained questions that were related to what it was supposed to measure (i.e. expatriates communicative behaviors in social situation. In assuring the content validity of the items, a number of faculty members and colleagues were consulted. Feedbacks from them gave some ideas whether the instruments measured what it was supposed to measure and whether they made sense. These individuals were also asked if they had had no problems understanding or answering questions and had followed all instructions. This gave the researcher's some ideas of the questionnaire's face validity.

Although face validity was deemed to be necessary, proclaiming it did not make it so. Thus, a stronger procedure, a panel approach, which consisted of qualified people were also included. Experienced researchers in communication and statistics, as well as an expert in language were consulted for the accuracy of measures and language used in the instrument. Besides examining the information about the objectives of the instruments, the content areas and the level of difficulty of the questions, they were also asked whether the items represent all of the possibilities of questions available and if the questions asked were representative of the area of interest. The feedbacks obtained from them were positive and this enabled for the pilot test to be conducted.

The second way that the research adopted in measuring validity was through construct validity, which looked at the scores on the instrument. This was done by using statistical procedures to examine the correlation among items of an instrument, to see whether they were significant or a good measure and could be used to understand a sample from a population (Creswell, 2005). In substantiating it, the product-moment correlation was applied to statistically measure the inter-item correlations. This statistical procedure was widely applied for a more detail analysis of the items. For the inter-item correlation, the value that exceeds 0.30 and item-total correlation which exceeds 0.50 are accepted in testing the item validity as suggested by Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson and Tatham (2006). The summary item statistics for inter-item correlations of each variable are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4
Summary Item Statistics

Inter-Item Correlations	**Mean**	**Min**	**Max**	**Range**	**Max/ Min**	**Variance**	**No. of Items**
Adjustment	.315	-.06	.70	.76	-11.86	.03	14
Personality	.077	-.40	.77	1.17	-.1.90	.05	23
Communication	.164	-.74	.96	1.45	-1.30	1.01	30
HR	.086	-.53	.92	.57	-1.74	.05	43
Culture	.319	-.02	.55	.68	-24.81	.03	8
Social support	.440	.10	.78	.51	7.82	.03	8
Family	.646	.41	.92		2.25	.03	9

For adjustment variable, most items are significantly correlated with each other. Even though there had been items that were not significantly correlated to another item, the single item did not represent the whole set of items in a particular instrument. For adjustment variable for example, items a4, a5, a6, a7, a10, a12 and a13 were not significantly correlated to item a1 but these items could not be considered as representing the whole items in a particular instrument. For personality and communication and interaction, most items in the instrument did not correlate well with each other. For example, for personality variable, only items b3, b9 and b11 seemed to correlate with item b1 and in communication and interaction, only items ac2, c5, c14, c21 and c25 were correlated to item C1. As mentioned earlier, these items cannot be considered as representing the whole set of items in the questionnaire. The items for human resource support also revealed positive correlations between all items.

For social support variable, the majority of the items showed high correlation with most items in the questionnaire. Most scored .30 and above, with item f2a showed a high correlation with item f1a. Item f4a also showed high correlation with f1a and f2a. The inter-item correlations for culture distance variable also showed that most items were correlated with each other. Items e3, e6 and e7 however, did not correlate well with items e4. Meanwhile, the items in family adjustment variable seemed to show correlations with all other items in the questionnaire, where most of the items showed high correlations of .40 and higher. The detail results of the inter-item correlations are variable are available in Appendix 7a.

From the scores of the inter-item correlations, it can be seen that personality and communication and interaction variables, did not seem to correlate with each other. However, the researcher did not intend to delete these items as past research which adopted the same instrument (Duran, 1992; Shaffer et al, 1999) had shown no reliability and validity problems with the items in the instruments chosen. The occurrence of such problem could be due to the number of respondents involved in the pretest, which was less than 50. The researcher was more than confident that the validity problem would not occur in the actual study, if the number of respondents increased. In ensuring this, the research took a precaution that the actual study would involve a high number of respondents.

Besides the inter-item correlations, item-whole correlations which provide the Cronbach's alpha if an item was deleted was also presented (see Appendix 7b). The results showed that in general, all items in the adjustment variable showed a high alpha value of .83 and above. Thus, all items that represent the adjustment variable were adopted without any amendment from the sentence structure or magnitude. Although the items in the personality variable revealed a moderate consistency level

(.60 to .68), the scale was adopted for the present research without any changes either in the sentence structure or the magnitude. The 30 items of communication and interaction variable which measured the respondents' communicative behaviors in social situation revealed high correlation values between .82 and .87. The human resource support which consisted of 43 items also revealed high consistency level between .79 and .81. Therefore, all items were remained in the actual study without any changes or magnitude. The social support variable measured the support that the expatriate received from immediate boss and other people at work. The analysis showed a high consistency level of each item, which was between .83 and .87. Thus this set of items was also adopted by the present study without any changes done.

The culture distance variable which consisted of eight items showed a moderate consistency level between .74 and .79. This allowed for all items to be adopted for the actual study without any amendment. The final variable was the family adjustment. This variable consisted of nine items. The analysis revealed a high correlation of each item which was above .90.

In sum, results of the tests of validity of all items showed that all items could be considered for the actual study without any amendments are done to it either in the sentence structure or its magnitude. As specified, even though the inter-item correlations revealed that some items did not significantly correlate to each other, this individual item did not reflect the instrument as a whole and thus, the instruments could be considered valid.

3.9 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter presents the discussion on the methodology employed by the thesis. It first discussed the research design employed by the study. This was then followed by the discussions on population, sampling frame, sample size and sampling technique. The instruments section covered the discussions on data collection strategies which described how the data was collected. It then moves to discuss the measurements of all variables-dependent, independent and mediating. The types of analyses method used in analyzing the data were discussed in the data analyses section. It focused on the statistical analyses used in measuring the data. Finally, the chapter described the pilot testing which also included the discussions on the results and the test of reliability of each variable and its dimensions and the test of validity of each instrument. The next chapter discusses the findings of the study.

CHAPTER FOUR

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the findings of the data analysis of the questionnaire survey. The presentation of the findings begins with the discussions on respondents' profiles which describe the demographic information and expatriates characteristics. This is followed by the analysis of response bias. The chapter then moves to discuss data cleaning and transformation which include the missing data, detection of outliers, normality tests, reliability and validity tests. Finally, the chapter discusses hypotheses testing and findings.

As specified in Chapter 3, the data collected were analyzed using the IBM SPSS Statistics (Version 19). Descriptive statistics was used to report the profile of respondents. Frequency measures including percentage, means and standard deviation were used at this phase. Inferential statistics were used to enable the researcher to decide whether the data represented a particular relationship or characteristics in the population. Inferential statistics used in this study include *t*-test, Pearson Correlation and multiple regressions. However, before further discussions take place, the researcher will first discuss the respondents' profile, descriptive statistics which describes the mean and SD of each variable and results of the test of response bias conducted on responses received from the respondents. These are important to ensure that the data that would be used in the analysis fulfilled the assumptions needed for data analysis. All the analyses were conducted at the multivariate level.

4.2 Profile of Respondents

As discussed in Chapter 3, 400 questionnaires were distributed during the data collection process. Of the 323 expatriates identified for the survey, 241 expatriates completed and returned the surveys (74.6%), but only 203 were usable data (62.8%). One hundred and thirty one expatriates were married but only 120 of them were accompanied by their family. All spouses (100 per cent) responded to the survey.

In describing the respondents' profile, the discussion will be separated into two separate sections. This first describes the demographic-related information and the second discusses the responses related to adjustment background of the expatriates.

4.2.1 Demographic-Related

Table 4.1 illustrates the overall profile of respondents participated in this study. The age of respondents of this study ranged from under 35 to over 50 years. Sixty-two respondents (30.5%) fell under 35 years or age, 55 respondents (27.1%) were between the range of 36 to 40 years, 55 respondents (27.1%) fell between the ranges of 41 and 45 years, 22 respondents (10.8%) were between the age of 46-50 and only nine respondents (4.4%) were over 50 year. Based on gender, 68 respondents (33.5%) were female and 135 respondents (66.5%) were male.

Looking at the level of education, 31 respondents (15.3%) had attended high school, 96 respondents (47.4%) had a college degree, 58 respondents (28.6%) had a bachelor's degree, 10 respondents (4.6%) obtained a graduate degree and 8 respondents (3.9%) had had other forms academic achievement such as certificate or diploma.

Table 4.1
Summary of Respondents' Profile

	Frequency	**Per cent**
Age		
Under 35	62	30.5
36-40	55	27.1
41-45	55	27.1
46-50	22	10.8
Over 50	9	4.4
Total	203	100.0
Sex		
Female	68	33.5
Male	135	66.5
Total	203	100.0
Level of education		
High school	31	15.3
College degree	96	47.3
Bachelor's degree	58	28.6
Graduate degree	10	4.9
Other	8	3.9
Total	203	100.0
Marital status		
Married	131	64.5
Single	72	35.5
Total	203	100.0
If married, family here?		
Yes	120	91.6
No	11	8.4
Total	131	100.0
Citizenship		
European	98	48.3
North American	11	5.4
Asian	42	20.7
Australian/NZ	52	25.6
Total	203	100.0
Job Status		
Managerial	179	88.2
Non-managerial	24	11.8
Total	203	100.0

From the total respondents, 131 respondents (64.5%) were married and 72 respondents (35.5%) were still single. Of those who were married, 120 respondents

(59.1%) had their family with them in Malaysia. Only 11 respondents (5.4%) did not bring their family with them during expatriation. Looking at the country of origin, 98 respondents (48.3%) were from Europe, 11 (5.4%) were from North America, 42 (20.7%) were Asian and 52 (25.6%) came from Australia/New Zealand region. Of those from Europe, the highest number of expatriates came from Germany, which was 24 (11.8%). Most of the expatriates (52 or 25.6%) were from the Australia/New Zealand region. Asian expatriates were mostly from Japan (14 or 6.9%). Under the job status category, it was found that 179 respondents (88.2%) held managerial posts as compared to those holding the non-managerial positions (24 respondents or 11.8%).

4.2.2 Adjustment-Related

Table 4.2 displays adjustment-related information of the respondents. In answering to the question on how they came to Malaysia, 95 respondents (46.8%) indicated that they were sent by parent companies and 108 respondents (53.2%) came to Malaysia on individual/voluntary basis. Looking at the length of stay in Malaysia, these expatriates had been in the country between nine and 237 months. Fourteen expatriates (6.9%) had been in Malaysia for less than a year. A hundred and thirteen of them (55.7%) had stayed between 13 and 24 months. Forty-six expatriates (22.7%) had stayed for more than two years (25 – 36 months). Twenty-five of them (12.3%) had stayed from three to four years and only five (2.5%) had been in the country for more than 4 years. Based on their experience working in foreign countries prior to expatriation in Malaysia, it was revealed that of the 203 respondents, a majority of them (184 or 90.6%) had had experiences working in foreign countries. Only 19 respondents (9.4%) had no experience prior to expatriation in Malaysia. Nineteen of them (9.4%) reported that they had been on expatriation once before coming to

Malaysia. Forty-six (22.7%) had been on foreign assignment twice. Eighty-one (39.9%) had worked in other countries three times before coming to Malaysia and thirty-eight (18.7%) had been on assignments in other countries for more than three times.

Table 4.2
Summary of Adjustment-Related Responses

	Frequency	**Per cent**
How did you come to Malaysia		
Sent by parent company	95	46.8
Individual/voluntary basis	108	53.2
Total	203	100.0
Length of stay in Malaysia		
0 – 12 months	14	6.9
13 – 24 months	113	55.7
25 – 36 months	46	22.7
37 – 48 months	25	12.3
More than 48 months	5	2.5
Total	203	100.0
Experience working in foreign country		
Yes	184	90.6
No	19	9.4
Total	203	100.0
How many times?		
Once	19	9.4
Twice	46	22.7
Three	81	39.9
More than three times	38	18.7
Total	203	100.0
Speak other language(s) than native?		
Yes	200	98.5
No	3	1.5
Total	203	100.0
Degree of fluency?		
Very fluent	93	45.8
Somewhat fluent	85	41.9
Not fluent	22	10.8
Missing – did not speak other languages	3	1.5
Total	203	100.0

Ability to speak the native language of host country		
I am limited to very short and simple phrases (limited)	121	59.6
I know basic grammatical structure and speak with a limited vocabulary (basic)	58	28.6
I understand conversation on simple Topics (understand)	17	8.4
I am fluent in the language of this country (fluent)	7	3.4
Total	203	100.0
Training prior to expatriation		
Yes	33	16.3
No	170	83.7
Total	203	100.0
Problems adjusting to Malaysia culture		
Yes	6	3.0
No	197	97.0
Total	203	100.0
Time taken to adjust		
0-6 months	186	91.6
7-12 months	14	6.9
13-18 months	3	1.5
Total	203	100.0

When asked whether the expatriates speak other languages than their native, 200 respondents (98.5%) claimed they speak other languages than their native and only three respondents (1.5%) did not speak other languages than their native. Ninety-three (45.8%) claimed that they were very fluent in speaking a language other than their own. While 85 of them (41.9%) admitted that they were somewhat fluent, 22 respondents (10.8%) reported that they were not fluent in languages other than their native. Three respondents (1.5%) did not specify their degree of fluency as they did not speak other languages than their own.

Meanwhile, in describing their ability to speak the native language of this country, 121 respondents (59.6%) admitted that their ability to speak the native language of the host country (Bahasa Malaysia) were limited to very short and simple phrases only. Fifty-eight respondents (28.6%) knew basic grammatical structure and spoke with a limited vocabulary. Seventeen respondents (8.4 %) indicated that they understood conversation on simple topics. Only 7 (1.4%) rated themselves as fluent in the language of this country. While a majority of the respondents (170 or 83.7%) indicated that they had had no training prior to expatriation, 33 did undergo a certain type of training related to expatriation.

When asked a direct question whether they had ever had problems adjusting to Malaysian culture, the results revealed that most of them (197 or 97.0%) had no problem at all. Only six (3.0%) admitted they had some sorts of problem adjusting to the host culture. A hundred and eighty-six of them (91.6%) claimed that it took them less than six months to adjust to Malaysian culture. Fourteen (6.9%) took between seven and 12 months and only three (1.5%) took 13 to 18 months to adjust. A majority of the respondents (59, 81.9%) got themselves adjusted within 0-6 months, 9 respondents (12.5%) took within 7 to 12 months, 2 respondents (2.8%) adjusted themselves within 13 to 18 months, and 2 respondents (2.8%) admitted that it took them more than 18 months to do so.

In general, from the respondents' profile and adjustment background, it is clearly observed that most of the respondents were below the age of 35, male and had a college degree. Almost half of them were married and out of that figure, more than 90 per cent were accompanied by their family. The majority of these expatriates came from European countries such as German, Italy, Austria and France. Most of them hold managerial posts, especially the GM and Executive Chef and were sent by parent companies (either MNHCs or JVHCs). The results also revealed that most expatriates had been in the country between one and two years. A majority indicated that they had experience working in foreign countries before coming to Malaysia and most had been on expatriation at least three times. Besides, they were also able to speak languages other than their native fluently. Interestingly, a majority also claimed that they were able to speak and understand very short and simple phrases of BM. However, only a small percentage was fluent in communicating in BM. Even though almost a majority did not have any training prior to expatriation, most of them admitted that they had no problem adjusting to Malaysian culture. Most took less than six months to do so.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

The description of the respondents profile leads to the discussion on the descriptive statistics of the variables. In this section, the variables (i.e. adjustment, personality, communication and interaction, human resource support, culture distance, social support and family adjustment) are explained, explored and described in detail according to the items appeared in the questionnaire. In answering the research questions and attending to the problem statement, the data were analyzed using the descriptive statistics by specifically focusing on the mean and SD. Since all instruments utilized a 5-point Likert scale type of measurement, the researcher had considered the suggestion made by the Qualification and Curriculum Authority (2000) that the mean scores of all variables be divided into three levels—low (1.00 – 2.33), average (2.34 – 3.66) and high (3.67 – 5.00).

Adjustment

Based on the results of the analysis of each statement, it was revealed that the expatriates' overall adjustment fell within the range of high mean score level. The highest mean score for the item was for item a12 with the mean score of 4.81. The lowest mean score was 4.06 (item a7). The average mean score for all items was 4.50. Table 4.3a summarizes the results of the analysis.

Table 4.3a
Mean and SD of Items in Adjustment Variable

No.	Adjustment	Mean	SD	Level
1.	Living conditions in general	4.69	.462	High
2.	Housing	4.51	.557	High
3.	Food	4.68	.466	High
4.	Shopping	4.60	.549	High
5.	Cost of living	4.68	.553	High
6.	Entertainment/recreational Facilities & opportunities	4.14	.767	High
7.	Health care facilities	4.06	.668	High
8.	Socializing with Malaysians	4.46	.499	High
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis	4.41	.532	High
10.	Interacting with Malaysians outside of work	4.34	.561	High
11.	Speaking with Malaysians	4.37	.570	High
12.	Specific job responsibilities	4.81	.391	High
13.	Performance standards and Expectations	4.61	.529	High
14.	Supervisory responsibilities	4.64	.481	High
Overall Adjustment		4.50	.541	High

A frequency analysis was conducted to identify the number of respondents fell under each level of the adjustment. As the results revealed, all expatriates exhibit high level of adjustment in the overall (mean between 4.06 and 4.81).

Personality

The personality variable consisted of 23 items which were described in both positive and negative statements. As specified in Chapter 3, all the negative items (*) appeared in the instrument were recoded so that the responses would be interpreted as positive statements that described the personality of the respondents. Of the 23 statements, 18 statements yielded mean scores between 3.67 and 5.00. Five fell at the average level of the mean scores (2.34 – 3.66). The highest mean score was for item b17, with the mean score of 4.88. Meanwhile, the lowest mean score was for item b8, which was 3.27. The average mean score for all items was 4.18. This showed that the expatriates strongly agreed to the statements that described their personality. In the overall, the results indicated that the expatriates had positive attitude that helped them to adjust to the country. Table 4.3b describes the detail analysis.

Table 4.3b
Mean and SD of Items in Personality Variable

No.	Personality	Mean	SD	Level
1.	When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	3.39	1.224	Average
2.	One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.*	3.33	1.237	Average
3.	If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	3.88	1.186	High
4.	When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.*	4.42	.736	High
5.	I give up on things before completing them.*	4.56	.605	High
6.	I avoid facing difficulties.*	4.32	1.147	High
7.	If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.*	4.45	.815	High
8.	When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	3.27	1.218	Average
9.	When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	3.42	1.193	Average
10.	When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.*	3.97	1.099	High
11.	When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.*	4.39	.880	High
12.	I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.*	4.36	.823	High

13.	Failure just makes me try harder.	4.45	.698	High
14.	I feel insecure about my ability to do things.*	4.41	.715	High
15.	I am a self-reliant person.	4.43	.783	High
16.	I give up easily.*	4.77	.645	High
17.	I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life.*	4.88	.324	High
18.	It is difficult for me to make new friends.*	4.84	.802	High
19.	If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him/her to come to me.	3.60	1.170	Average
20.	If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.*	4.02	1.002	High
21.	When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.	3.92	.754	High
22.	I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.*	4.54	.779	High
23.	I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.	4.46	.797	High
Overall Personality		4.18	.897	High

Communication and Interaction

For this variable, 10 items (c1 – c4, c15 and c21 – c25) were recoded as they carried negative statements. This would enable the times to be treated as positive statements. In response to the statements provided in the communication and interaction variable, it was revealed that the statements yielded mean scores that ranged from 2.31 to 4.75. While item c13 yielded the highest mean score, item c27 showed the lowest. The results also revealed that items c26, C28 – C30 yielded the average mean scores. Communication and interaction variable was made up of five dimensions and under "wit" dimension, all items revealed low to average mean scores between 2.31 and 2.76. Other items in this variable indicated high level of communication and interaction with host. The average mean score of all items was 4.07. In general, the mean score for this variable revealed that the statements were true descriptions of expatriates' communicative behaviors. Table 4.3c reveals the overall mean scores of each item in communication and interaction variable. The table showed that the overall mean score of the variable was 4.07, which explained that the expatriates felt comfortable communicating and interacting with people of the host nation.

Table 4.3c
Mean and SD of Items in Communication and Interaction Variable

No.	Communication and Interaction	Mean	SD	Level
1.	I feel nervous in social situation.	4.23	.803	High
2.	In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.	4.31	.807	High
3.	When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense.	4.42	.702	High
4.	My voice sounds nervous when I talk with others.	4.57	.674	High
5.	I am relaxed when talking with others.	4.52	.727	High
6.	I try to make the other person feel good.	4.64	.511	High
7.	I try to make the other person feel important.	4.53	.624	High
8.	I try to be warm when communicating with another.	4.69	.462	High
9.	When I am talking, I thing about how the other person feels.	4.62	.506	High
10.	I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.	4.50	.501	High
11.	I like to be active in different social groups.	4.44	.704	High
12.	I enjoy socializing with various groups of people.	4.57	.587	High
13.	I enjoy meeting new people.	4.75	.457	High
14.	I find it easy to get along with new people.	4.49	.740	High
15.	I do not "mix" well at social functions.	4.55	.759	High
16.	I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.	3.77	.965	High
17.	I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.	3.92	.817	High
18.	I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.	4.00	.689	High
19.	I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.	3.97	.764	High
20.	When I self-disclose I know I am revealing.	3.93	1.09	High

21.	When speaking I have problems with grammar.	4.43	.873	High
22.	At times, I don't use appropriate verb tense.	4.49	.727	High
23.	I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another.	4.30	.977	High
24.	I sometimes use words incorrectly.	4.38	.959	High
25.	I have difficulty pronouncing some words.	4.30	1.01	High
26.	When I am anxious, I often make jokes.	2.40	.967	Average
27.	I often make jokes when in tense situations	2.31	.813	Low
28.	When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.	2.64	.841	Average
29.	When someone makes a negative comment about me, I respond with a witty comeback.	2.54	.828	Average
30.	People think I am witty (humorous).	2.76	.899	Average
Overall Communication & Interaction		4.07	.759	High

Human Resource Support

The results of the descriptive analysis of HR support are displayed in Table 4.3d. Of the 43 statements, 10 items (i.e. d1, d2, d15 – d17, d19 – d20, d30, d34 & d36) of the HR support statements fell in the range of high mean score level. Item d20 scored the highest mean score of 4.67. These findings imply that the expatriates rated the statements of HR support mentioned earlier at high level in relation to their adjustment. Four of the HR support statements (items d8, d11, d22 – d23) had the average score between 2.80 – 3.57. The remaining items fell in the range of low level of mean score with the lowest score being 1.11 (item d37). In the overall, the results of the mean score indicated that the expatriates rated HR support at a lower level (mean 2.30) in relation to adjustment in Malaysia. This however, could be explained. All low scores identified could be due to the statements of services provided by the organization. Many respondents indicated that they did not receive some of the services provided in the statements and therefore, their responses were more toward 1 (to not extent/not provided) and 2 (somewhat not provided). These responses could have led to the lower mean scores when the items were analyzed.

Table 4.3d
Mean and SD of Items in Human Resource Support Variable

No.	HR Support	Mean	SD	Level
1.	Reimbursement for tax return	4.14	1.053	High
2.	Tax equalization	4.01	1.175	High
3.	Housing differential	2.21	1.501	Low
4.	Children's education allowance	1.35	.704	Low
5.	Temporary living allowance	1.69	1.038	Low
6.	Goods and services differential	1.45	.778	Low
7.	Transportation differential	2.10	1.393	Low
8.	Foreign service premium	3.40	1.245	Average
9.	Household furnishing allowance	1.54	1.030	Low
10.	Currency protection	1.76	1.170	Low
11.	Mobility premium	2.80	1.414	Average
12.	Home-leave allowance	1.77	1.223	Low
13.	Stop-over allowance	1.51	.829	Low
14.	Subsidized health and fitness facilities	2.12	1.404	Low
15.	Hardship premium	3.76	1.256	High
16.	Completion bonus	4.36	1.007	High
17.	Assignment extension bonus	4.38	1.044	High
18.	Extended work week payment	1.90	1.130	Low
19.	Emergency leave	4.65	.606	High
20.	Home leave	4.67	.678	High
21.	Language training (expatriate)	1.30	.653	Low
22.	Company car/driver	3.15	1.526	Average
23.	Assistance with locating new home	3.57	1.647	Average
24.	Access to high-quality, western health care	1.67	1.100	Low
25.	Club membership	1.25	.625	Low
26.	General personal services (i.e. translation, interpreter, etc.)	1.13	.407	Low
27.	Personal security (expatriate & family)	1.30	.840	Low
28.	General culture-transition training (expatriate)	1.20	.608	Low
29.	Social events	1.55	1.049	Low
30.	Career development and repatriation Training	4.12	.980	High
31.	Training for local culture such as language and customs (expatriate)	1.75	1.126	Low
32.	Orientation to community (expatriate & family)	1.63	1.037	Low
33.	Counseling services	1.63	1.047	Low
34.	Rest and relaxation leave	4.38	.839	High
35.	Domestic staff (excluding child care)	1.25	.638	Low
36.	Use of company-owned vacation Facilities	3.68	1.254	High
37.	Language training (family)	1.11	.413	Low

38.	Assistance locating schools for children	1.98	1.559	Low
39.	General culture-transition training (family)	1.13	.414	Low
40.	Training for local culture such as customs and language (family)	1.13	.414	Low
41.	Child-care providers	1.13	.414	Low
42.	Spousal employment in firm	1.21	.717	Low
43.	Assistance locating spousal employment outside firm	1.13	.414	Low
Overall HR Support		2.30	.963	Low

Social Support

For social support, four questions were asked and the expatriates had to rate the support they receive at work, which were from their immediate boss and other people at work. In the overall, all items yielded mean scores within the range of high level, with the highest score being 4.26 (item f2a) and lowest score being 3.87 (item f1b). This reveals that expatriates received very much support from their immediate boss and other people at work. Mean scores for each item are shown in Table 4.3e.

Table 4.3e
Mean and SD of Items in Social Support Variable

No.	Social Support	Mean	SD	Level
1.	How much does each of these people go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?			
	a. Your immediate boss	4.05	.615	High
	b. Other people at work	3.87	.583	High
2.	How easy is it to talk with each of the following people?			
	a. Your immediate boss	4.26	.577	High
	b. Other people at work	4.16	.522	High
3.	How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work?			
	a. Your immediate boss	4.19	.558	High
	b. Other people at work	3.96	.420	High
4.	How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your personal problems?			
	a. Your immediate boss	3.97	.433	High
	b. Other people at work	3.92	.570	High
Overall Social Support		4.04	.534	High

Culture Distance

Table 4.3f displays the descriptive findings of the expatriates' responses to culture differences between their home and host countries. All statements yielded mean scores toward the lower level, between 1.40 and 2.27. The scores indicated that the expatriates came from a culture different than the host. Item e7 ("Climate"), yielded the lowest mean of 1.40 and the highest mean was 2.27 for item e1 ("Everyday custom that must be followed"). All scores for each item are displayed in Table 4.8. The overall mean (1.97) indicated that expatriates perceive the host culture environment as different from their home culture.

Table 4.3f
Mean and SD of Items in Culture Distance Variable

No.	Culture Distance	Mean	SD	Level
1.	Everyday custom that must be Followed	2.27	.815	Different
2.	General living conditions	2.09	.854	Different
3.	Using health care facilities	2.02	.858	Different
4.	Transportation systems used in the country	2.26	.800	Different
5.	General costs of living	1.54	.607	Different
6.	Available quality and types of foods	2.02	.696	Different
7.	Climate	1.40	.677	Different
8.	General housing conditions	2.17	.774	Different
Overall Culture Distance		1.97	.760	Different

Family Adjustment

One hundred and twenty respondents (spouses of expatriates) responded to the family adjustment survey. The analysis results of each statement in family adjustment variable (Table 4.3g) fell within the range of high mean score level. This means that the expatriates spouse perceive their adjustment to the host country at a very high level. The mean score yielded for every statement ranged between 3.85 and 4.00.

While items g1, g2 and g3 scored a mean of 4.0, item g7 revealed the lowest score (3.85), within the high level. Overall, family adjustment obtained an average mean score of 3.95. This showed that the expatriates' families were well adjusted to the cultural environment of the host country.

Table 4.3g
Mean and SD of Items in Family Adjustment Variable

No.	Family Adjustment	Mean	SD	Level
1.	Living conditions in general	4.00	.898	High
2.	Housing conditions	4.00	.893	High
3.	Food	4.00	.898	High
4.	Shopping	3.97	.878	High
5.	Cost of living	3.97	.878	High
6.	Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities	3.95	.880	High
7.	Health care facilities	3.85	.813	High
8.	Socializing with Malaysians	3.92	.846	High
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis	3.92	.846	High
Overall Family Adjustment		3.95	.870	High

4.3.1 Correlations

Using the full sample of respondents, the means, standards deviations (SDs) and correlations of all variables were also calculated. Table 4.4 reports the mean distributions, SDs and correlations of all variables. Adjustment scored the highest mean value ($\bar{x}$=4.50), followed by personality ($\bar{x}$=4.20). Except for culture, other variables also scored high on the mean value. Culture scored the lowest mean value ($\bar{x}$=2.00) as most respondents perceived the home and host cultures were different.

Table 4.4
Means, SDs and Correlations of All Variables

Variables	***M***	***SD***	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**	**7**
Adjustment	4.50	.39	-						
Personality	4.20	.36	.29**	-					
Interaction	4.07	.36	.56**	.24**	-				
Human resource	2.30	.34	.06	.04	.33**	-			
Culture	2.00	.54	-.04	.08	.30**	.19**	-		
Social support	4.05	.27	.23**	.03	.23**	.24**	.36**	-	
Family	4.00	.85	.27**	.29**	.15*	.20**	.15*	.17*	-

Note: All variables were measured based on a 5-point Likert scale.
**p<.01
*p<.05

Based on the frequency of values, the mean and SD, a histogram was created. The analysis is the starting point for understanding the nature of the variables involved in the study. This was done by characterizing and examining the shape of its distribution of values through regression analysis. The data were then examined by the simplest diagnostic test for normality which is the visual check of the histogram that compares the observed data values with a distribution approximating the normal distribution. This method is appropriate for the present study as it involved a large sample group. The analysis was important as it helped the researcher to gain an adequate perspective of the variables involved. Besides, the histogram also provides a visual representation of the frequency distribution that help the researcher to conform to a normal distribution (Allen, Titsworth & Hunt, 2009).

In running the test, all variables were entered including the mediating variable. The results of the histogram (Figure 4.1) showed that the residuals were well distributed and fell within the normal curve and the tails lied on the normal distribution line. The middle of the distribution showed a normal curve and both tails showed no appreciable skewness to one side or the other. Even though there are a few cases toward the end of the set of values (the right side of the distribution) that stand apart from the others and could skew the distribution a bit, in the overall, the residuals were well distributed and fell within the normal curve (Allen et al., 2009).

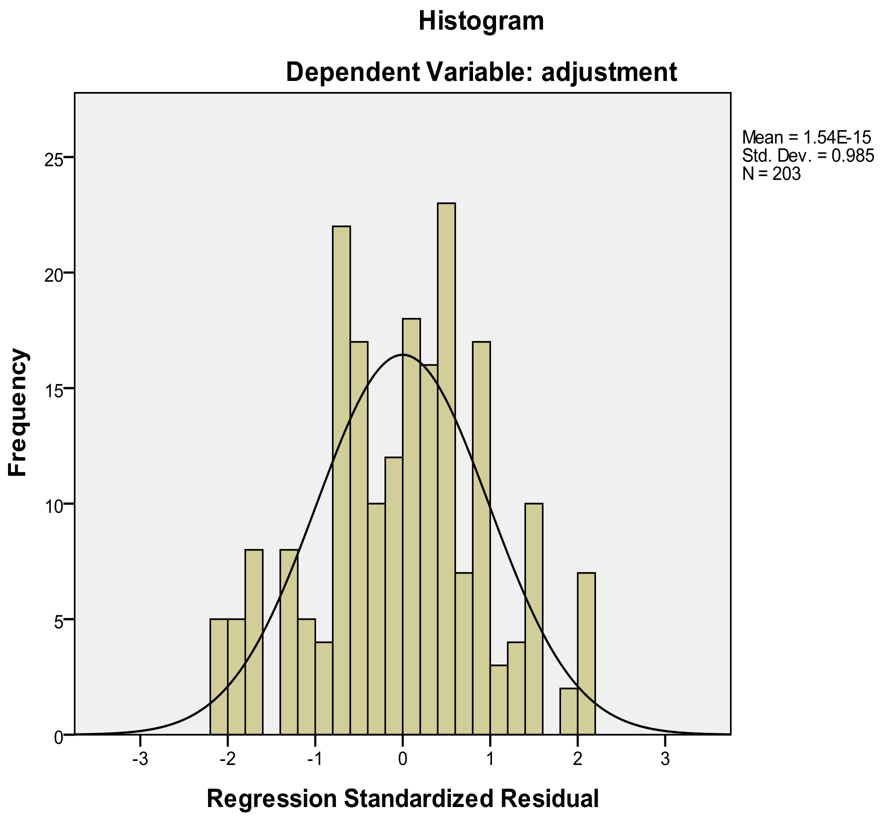

Figure 4.1: Histogram of residual distribution of all variables

4.4 Response Bias

As discussed in Chapter 3, 400 questionnaires were distributed. Three hundred and twenty three expatriates working in Peninsular Malaysia were identified for the present study. The data collection process itself took almost three and a half months to complete. The return rate was good, where 241 expatriates (75% return rate) completed and returned the questionnaires. Besides that, one hundred and thirty one expatriates were married and 120 of them were accompanied by their family. All spouses (120) responded to the survey. The examination on the questionnaires showed that all sets of questionnaires were usable. Even though the percentage of the returned rate allowed for the researcher to skip the test of response bias which had to be conducted if the response rate is lower than 70%, the researcher still conducted an analysis of response bias. This was due to the belief that bias can emanate from the instrument, interviewer, respondents, and/or the situations (Sekaran, 2000). In order to clear the myth of loosing valuable information to non-response bias, there was a need to test the statistical significance of response and non-response bias.

A number of scholars (see for example Churchill & Brown, 2004; Malhotra, Hall, Shaw, & Oppenheim, 2006) have argued that late respondents could as well pass for non-respondents. Their argument was based on the assumption that late respondents might also fail to respond at all if not for pressures that were mounted on them through the follow-up process by the researcher. Malhotra et al. (2006) further stress that non-respondents are assumed to be of similar characteristics with the late respondents. In order to confirm this, the research considered the suggestions made by the scholars and took the step to divide the respondents into two groups to look if possible bias existed: (1) early respondents (those that returned the questionnaire within two weeks of distribution); and (2) late respondents (those that returned the questionnaire more than two weeks after the date of distribution). The division put 101 respondents into one group and the remaining into the other. The researcher then ran a *t*-test between the groups and the dependent variable (adjustment) to look at the mean of the two groups and its significance level. This method was considered acceptable as it has been adopted by a number of research (i.e. Sarina, 2010).

An independent samples *t*-test was then conducted to look at the difference of the two groups (Group 1 and 2). The results (Table 4.5) revealed that for both groups, the mean was 4.50 (SD for group 1=.388 and group 2=.385). The results of independent samples test (*t*-test for equality of means) revealed that the value was also not significant (t=.92, p>.001), with the mean difference of 0.006. In the overall, the results suggest that there was no significant difference between the two groups. Consequently, this denied the presence of response bias in the data collected and the earlier assumption on how non-responses could possibly affect the ability to generalize the findings. This also enabled the researcher to utilize all 203 responses for further analysis.

Table 4.5
T-Test Results for Non-Response Bias

Variable	**Group**	**n**	**Mean**	**T**	**df**	**Sig**
Adjustment	1	101	4.50	.92	201	.754*
	2	102	4.50			

*p>.001

4.5 Data Cleaning and Screening

Data examination is inconsequential but an essential part of multivariate analysis. By examining the data before the application of the multivariate analysis, the present research gains several critical insights into the characteristics of the data. The discussion that follows will touch on the steps taken in data examination starting with missing data, identification of outliers and tests of assumptions underlying multivariate analysis. This will help reveal what is not apparent and portray the actual data (Hair et al. 2010).

4.5.1 Missing Data

Missing data occurs if a respondent fails to complete one or more sections in a survey, from data/code entry error (Baxter & Babbie, 2004), or from problem of data collection where respondents are requested to skip certain portion of the questionnaire that are not applicable to them (Hair et al., 2010). Thus, in checking for the missing data in this study, each of the variables was examined for scores that were out of range or cells that were not filled at all. The four-step process suggested by Hair et al. (2010) was considered. The first step was to examine the data in order to determine the type of data that were missing. Missing data could be categorized into two—ignorable and not ignorable. After the examination, an ignorable missing data was identified. It was considered ignorable as this type of missing data was due to the specific design of the data collection process due to the design of the data collection instrument used in the study, which was the skip pattern where respondents skip sections of questions that were not applicable to them. This was evident in the first part of the questionnaire that asked for demographic and adjustment-related information. For example, the question on marital status in the demographic section that requested the respondents to ignore the question if they were not married.

Since the missing data identified in the examination process were ignorable, further steps in the four-step process were not taken into consideration. This enables for further analysis of the data to be conducted.

4.5.2 Detection of Outliers

This section discusses the method of cleaning the data through the identification of outliers. Outliers are observations with values that are distinctly different from those of other observations in the data set. Byrne (2010) describes it as observations which are numerically distant to the rest of the data set. Various researchers established the virtue of detecting and handling outliers using various methods. Hair et al. (2010) for example, presents clear methods used in detecting outliers in univariate, bivariate and multivariate situations based on the number of variables considered.

In examining the outliers for the present research, the practical and substantive standpoints were considered. It was practical in the sense that it looked at how the outliers could pose a marked impact on empirical analysis and substantive in light of how representative the data was of the population. Box plot analysis was conducted on each variable to examine for possible outliers and candidates for outlier designation were found. They involved case numbers 2, 4, 8, 9, 15, 18, 21, 22, 27, 34, 36, 37, 40, 43, 46, 55, 59, 64, 67, 73, 75, 84, 89, 103, 110, 124, 126, 127, 156, 171, 173, 181, 198, 202, 211, 220, 238 and 240. From the examination, the outliers was classified as extraordinary observations, which no explanation could be offered. Besides, they could also represent untapped elements in the population, which was previously not identified (Hair et al., 2010). Some of the observations were rather extreme as they stood out of the acceptable range of distribution. For this, the decision was then made to delete the outliers and clean the data to enable for multivariate analysis to be conducted. The following section discusses the final step in data examination. It involves testing the assumptions underlying the statistical bases for multivariate analysis.

4.5.3 Normality Tests

Basically Hair et al. (2010) propose four basic assumptions that could potentially affect multivariate analysis—normality, homoscedasticity, linearity and absence of correlated errors. For the purpose of this research, normality was assessed using both empirical measures of a distribution's shape characteristics (specifically by looking at the skewness and kurtosis) and the normal probability plots. The normal probability plot was conducted through visual inspection. It was based on an assumption that the data lie on a "reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom to top" (Pallant, 2010, p 144; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Besides that, histograms and box plots were also considered in the examination. Through box plot analysis, cases that were not located in the box would be eliminated. Another method used in testing the normality of the data was through normality test which looked at the significant level of Kolmogorov-Smirnov scores of each variable ($p<0.05$). A violation of these assumptions can lead to the creation of errors which could impair the credibility of the research findings.

The next section begins with the description of skewness and kurtosis values and then moves toward discussing the detail results of the tests of normality of each variable followed by multicollinearity, homoscedasticity and linearity tests.

4.5.3.1 Skewness and Kurtosis

Before further discussion on the tests of normality takes place, the researcher will present the skewness and kurtosis scores of each variable. While skewness describes the balance of the distribution (if the outliers on the positive end of the distribution are negatively affecting the accuracy of the mean), kurtosis refers to the "peakness" or "flatness" of the distribution. The skewness and kurtosis of a normal distribution are given values below zero. In the descriptive analysis of the variables it was suggested that skewness values should fall outside the range of ±1.96 to indicate an acceptable distribution (Palant, 2010). Allen et al. (2009) on the other hand, suggest that skewness and kurtosis statistic should be less than two or less than twice the standard error of skewness or kurtosis. Table 4.6 presents the value of the skewness and kurtosis scores of each variable.

Table 4.6
Skewness and Kurtosis Values

Variables	**Skewness**	**SE**	**Kurtosis**	**SE**
Adjustment	-.230	.171	-.840	.340
Personality	.151	.171	-.029	.340
Interaction	-.433	.171	-.568	.340
HR	.151	.171	-.256	.340
Culture	.274	.171	-.474	.340
Social support	-.026	.171	-.017	.340
Family	-.013	.171	-1.69	.340

From the table, it is shown that adjustment, interaction, social support and family were slightly negatively skewed, with scores of -.230, -.433, -.026 and -.013 respectively. In large samples, a variable with statistically significant skewness often does not deviate enough from normality to make a substantive difference in the analysis. In a large sample, the impact of departure from zero kurtosis also diminishes. In general, the distribution of skewness and kurtosis values were within the acceptable value of ±1.96 that confirms the normal distribution of data.

4.5.3.2 Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

In further testing for normality of each variable, the Kolmogrov-Smirnov test was administered on each variable to assess the normality of the distribution of scores.

The test revealed all variables yielded significant values with $p<0.05$. This is consistent with Pallant (2010) suggestions that it is very rare to have an insignificant Kolmogrov-Smirnov value with large samples more than 200. Table 4.7 shows the results of the Kolmogrov-Smirnov test conducted on each variable.

Table 4.7
Results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			**Shapiro-Wilk**		
	Statistic	**df**	**Sig.**	**Statistic**	**df**	**Sig.**
Adjustment	.137	203	.000	.930	203	.000
Personality	.071	203	.015	.983	203	.017
Interaction	.097	203	.000	.956	203	.000
HR	.070	203	.016	.982	203	.012
Culture distance	.175	203	.000	.941	203	.000
Social Support	.150	203	.000	.960	203	.000
Family	.269	203	.000	.792	203	.000

4.5.3.3 Distribution Shape

A number of statistical measures were used to assess data normality, but many times an adequate perspective of the variable could be gained through a histogram. The first step in analyzing the data in this study was to examine the normality of the data through the shape of its distribution. Beside the graphical representation of the variables, other tests of normality (i.e. Q-Q plot and box plot) were also conducted through visual inspections. As specified earlier, the normal probability plot is based on an assumption that the data lie on a "reasonably straight diagonal line from bottom to top" (Pallant, 2010, p. 144; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). A visual inspection of the box plot looked for possible outliers of each variable. The discussions on normality are based on Hair et al. (2010). Results of histogram, probability plot (Q-Q plot) and box plot of all variables are available in Appendix 8.

a) Adjustment

This is the dependent variable of the study. The first test used in assessing the normality of the data was the histogram. The data distribution from the histogram showed that the distribution was short and spread. The middle of the distribution fell toward the right side, while the right tail was higher than expected. This suggested a negative skew of the variable. However, the shape of the distribution suggests that the data is normal (Hair et al., 2010). Meanwhile, the result of the probability plot showed a normal, uniform and univariate distribution as the line was distributed along the diagonal line. Even though there were several departures from normality, their representation was still within the normal probability curve in terms of kurtosis and skewness. A visual inspection of the box plot also revealed no outliers present. Although the data seemed to lie near one end of the box and implied possible skewness in the opposite direction, the pictorial representation showed that the data was normally distributed and appropriate for further analysis.

b) Personality

The graphical representation of the histogram showed that personality variable also fell within the normal curve. The curve was tall and narrow, the right tail was slightly higher and it also showed that the data skewed slightly to the left, suggesting a negative skewness. A visual inspection of the Q-Q plot and box plot also confirmed the normality of the data for personality variable. The normal probability plot showed a univariate distribution as the plotted line fell along the diagonal. The peak of the distribution was also flatter. The box plot also revealed that the data were normally distributed as they were equally distributed as the solid line (median) within the box fell equally between the two boxes. Both diagrams did not show the existence of outliers.

c) Communication and Interaction

In the present study, communication and interaction served as the mediating variable between independent and dependent variables. The results of the histogram showed that it was tall but equally spread from right to left tail and fit along the normal curve. The Q-Q plot showed that the plotted lines scattered along the diagonal and seemed to show a flatter distribution of data. Meanwhile, the box plot also showed a normal distribution of the data. The median lay a bit toward the upper end of the box and this suggested the presence of skewness in the data. The size of the box also showed that the data were well-dispersed. In general, the graphical representation and visual inspections of the diagrams revealed that the data for communication and interaction variable were still within the normal range of distribution and thus, enabled for multivariate analysis.

d) Human Resource Support

For this particular variable, the visual inspections also showed a normal distribution of the data. The results of the histogram showed a positive skewness for human resource support as the left tail was a bit higher than the right tail. There were a few cases in the high end of the set of values that stood apart from the others. The kurtosis value also revealed that the distribution was slight lower but spread out. The results of the Q-Q plot and box plot also suggested that the data was within the normal distribution. The probability plot revealed that the plotted line fell close to the diagonal even though there were a few that moved away from the diagonal line, suggesting a flatter distribution of data. The data also seemed to suggest a skewed distribution of data. For the box plot, the box was located toward the lower end of the box, with a possible skewness as the median lay near the upper end of the box. However, in general the data for box the Q-Q plot and box plot were normally distributed and data were suitable for further analysis at the multivariate level.

e) Social Support

The histogram for the social support variable also suggested a normal distribution of the data. The shape of the distribution was slightly shorter and spread out. The right tail was slightly higher and this explained the slight skew on the left. The Q-Q plot revealed that the data were scattered along the diagonal line, with a uniform distribution. Data distribution also showed a flatter distribution of data. Meanwhile, a visual inspection of the box plot also revealed no outliers. It however, showed a large skew toward the upper end as the median lay toward the lower end of the box. General examination of the data however, still showed that the data was normal and appropriate for the analysis using parametric analytical tools.

f) Culture Distance

Just as other variables, visual inspection of the culture variable also revealed normal distribution of the data. Thus, allowed for further analysis to be conducted. The histogram showed that the dispersion of the data were normal though the distribution was slightly shorter but rather spread out within the normal distribution. The normal probability plot revealed that the plotted line in the Q-Q plot lay above and below the diagonal but showed a nonpeak distribution. For the box plot, the skewness was easily seen as the median lay toward the lower end of the box. The size of the box seemed to suggest that the data were not substantially dispersed.

g) Family Adjustment

As reported earlier in the respondents' analysis, only 121 expatriates were accompanied by their family. The remaining numbers were either not married or not accompanied by their family. This would mean that all accompanying spouses responded to the survey. Visual inspections of the family variable also revealed a normal data distribution. From the graphical representation of the histogram, it could be seen that the distribution was short and spread out. Both tails were slightly higher but no appreciable skewness was present. Results of the Q-Q plot and box plot revealed the absence of outliers. The probability plot showed that the data were plotted above and below the line with some moved away from the line at the bottom end of the diagonal. This explained a nonpeak, flatter distribution of data. Besides, it also suggested that there was no possible skewness even though the data seemed to move away from the line toward the end. The box plot on the other hand, revealed much clearer data dispersion as the size of the box extended equally from the median. The median suggested the absence of skewness for this variable.

In general, the results of the visual inspections seemed to suggest that the data were normally distributed—the skewness and kurtosis were near zero (0), the "tests of normality" which were presented by the Q-Q plot and box plot also revealed a normal distribution of the data. Based on the results, the residuals from this regression appeared to conform to the assumption of being normally distributed (Hair et al., 2010) as all variables appeared to be within normality.

4.6 Multicollinearity

Multicollinearity occurs when two or more variables are highly correlated. The main focus of examining the multicollinearity is to observe the degree of relationship that exists between the dependent and independent variables. According to Hair et al. (2010), multicollinearity among either variable set will confound the ability of the techniques to isolate the effect of any single variable, thus making the interpretation less reliable. They note that the simplest and most obvious means of identifying collinearity is by examining the correlation matrix for the independent variables. The presence of high correlations (.90 and above) indicates substantial collinearity.

In assessing multicollinearity, a measure expressing the degree to which each independent variable is explained by the set of other independent variables is needed. Hair et al. (2010) suggest that the two most common measures for assessing both pairwise and multiple variable collinearity are tolerance and its inverse, the variance inflation factor (VIF). The suggested cutoff for the tolerance value is .10 (or a corresponding VIF of 10.0), which corresponds to a multiple correlation of .95 (Hair et al., 2010, p. 204). This is also the cutoff used for the present study.

Pallant (2010) on the other hand, explains that multicollinearity occurs when the correlation between the independent and the dependent variables on one hand, and between the independent variables on the other is too high (.70 and above). Table 4.8

reveals the absence of multicollinearity between the independent variables, as well as between the independent and the dependent variable. A regression analysis was conducted to identify the tolerance and VIF values. Simply, each independent variable became a dependent variable and was regressed against the remaining independent variables.

Table 4.8
Diagnosis of Multicollinearity

Dependent Variable	Independent Variables	Collinearity Statistics	
		Tolerance	VIF
Personality	HR	.846	1.183
	Culture	.819	1.221
	Social support	.828	1.208
	Family	.936	1.068
HR	Personality	.899	1.112
	Culture	.849	1.178
	Social support	.856	1.168
	Family	.875	1.143
Culture	Personality	.914	1.095
	HR	.918	1.090
	Social support	.929	1.077
	Family	.865	1.157
Social support	Personality	.900	1.111
	HR	.935	1.070
	Culture	.860	1.163
	Family	.939	1.065
Family	Personality	.988	1.012
	HR	.931	1.074
	Culture	.852	1.174
	Social support	.838	1.193

From the table, it clearly shows the absence of multicollinearity as all values reveal a tolerance close to 1. As specified earlier, each independent variable becomes a dependent variable and was regressed against the remaining independent variables.

All values meet the suggested cutoff by Hair et al. (2010) for the tolerance (.10) and corresponding VIF of 10.0. which also corresponds to a multiple correlation of .95.

4.7 Linearity

As stated by Hair et al. (2010), it is crucial for a researcher to examine the relationships between variables to identify the departures from linearity that may affect correlation because correlations represent only the linear association between variables. This would also mean that the nonlinear effects will be presented in the correlation value. For that matter, the researcher conducted a linearity test to measure the relationships among the variables that might have a linear relationship. Based on a linear regression analysis among variables, with adjustment being the dependent variable, the results showed the presence of linear relationship among the dependent and independent variables. Figure 4.2 displays the normal p-p plot of regression standardized residual.

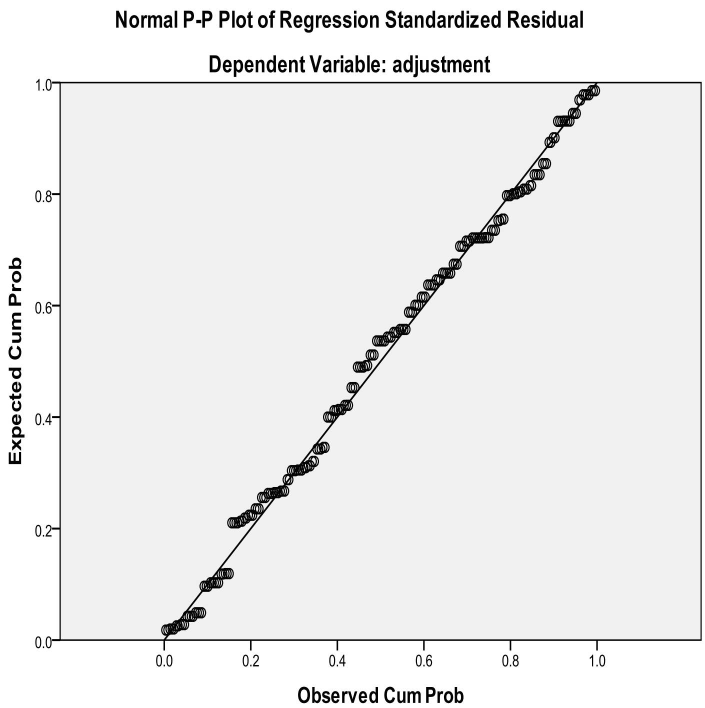

Figure 4.2: Linearity between independent and dependent variables

4.8 Homoscedasticity

In addition to that, data intended for multivariate analysis must also be tested for its homoscedasticity. Homoscedasticity assumes that the amount of variance of the dependent variable explained is not concentrated in a limited range of the independent variables but rather relatively spread across them equally. Otherwise, the data would be said to be heteroscedastic (Hair et al., 2010). The term refers to the assumption that the dependent variable shows equal levels of variance across the range of predictor variables. This assumption means that the variance around the regression line is the same for all values of the predictor variables. Hair et al. (2010, p. 74) contend that homoscedasticity is needed "because the variance of the dependent variable being explained in the dependence relationship should not be concentrated in only a limited range of the independent values."

There are two common methods that are usually utilized in testing for homoscedasticity. First is through the analysis of residuals, where data are said to be homoscedastic if the residuals plot is the same width for all values of the predicted dependent variable. Homoscedasticity can be checked by looking at a scatterplot between each independent variable and the dependent variable. For the residuals plot, the cluster of points should approximately be of the same width all over. Heteroscedasticity may occur when some variables are skewed and others are not. Therefore, it is crucial to check that the data are normally distributed as this would cut down on the problem of heteroscedasticity. In Figure 4.3, the scatterplot shows the normal distribution that exhibits equal dispersion across all data values. From the figure, it can be observed that the residuals scattered normally between the values of

-3 and +3 (i.e. regression standardized residuals). This means that the data is homoscedastic.

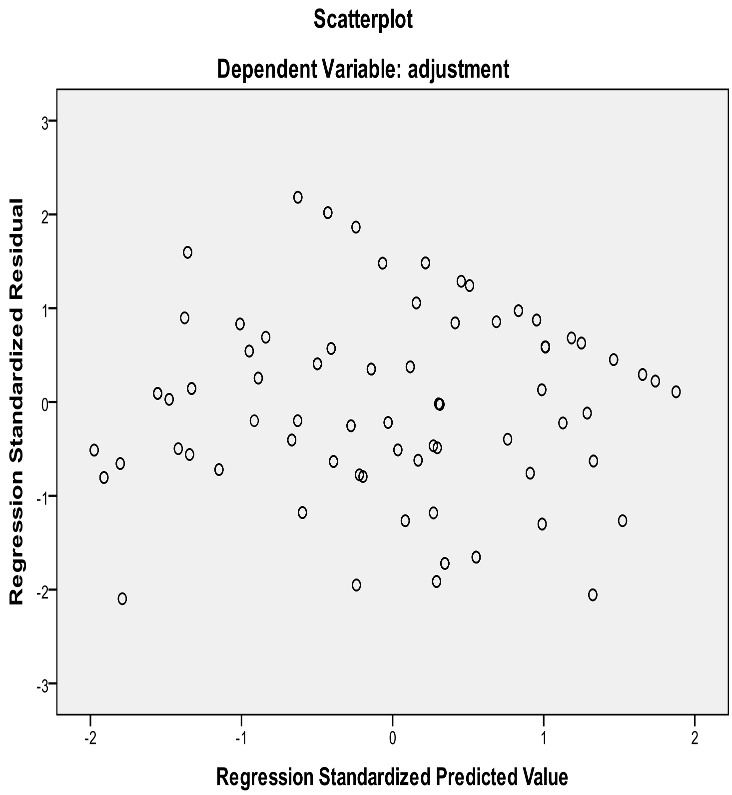

Figure 4.3: Scatterplot of homoscedastic relationships

The second method is through the utilization of a statistical test for testing homoscedasticity, which is the independent samples *t*-test that looks at the values of Levene statistic. The test assesses whether the variance of a single metric variable are equal across any number of groups. For the present study, this method was also used in looking for homoscedasticity. In doing this, all variables were tested against the nonmetric (categorical) variable (i.e. marital status, experience and job status which were labeled X_1, X_2 and X_3 respectively). Hair et al (2010) suggest that the result of the Levene statistics should be statistically insignificant ($\alpha > 0.05$) to be free of heteroscedasticity.

Table 4.9 displays the results of the Levene test for three nonmetric variables. As shown, values in bold are statistically significant and display patterns of heteroscedasticity as each scores the significance value between .01 and .00 respectively ($p<.05$). For example, X_1 (marital status) and X_2 (experience) showed minor patterns of heteroscedasticity. The same pattern was observed among the dependent variables as both communication and interaction and family adjustment seemed to show patterns of heteroscedasticity when examined with the same nonmetric variables (X_1 and X_2). Human resource support also showed minor pattern of heteroscedasticity when tested against job status. Other variables did not show any pattern of heteroscedasticity. Values that are not bold are statistically insignificant thereby suggesting that the variance in the dependent variable is equally spread across the independent variables and thus, display the homoscedasticity of the data.

Table 4.9
Results of Levene Test for Homoscedasticity

	***X_1* Marital Status**		***X_2* Experience**		***X_3* Job Status**	
Metric Variable	**Levene Statistic**	**Sig.**	**Levene Statistic**	**Sig.**	**Levene Statistic**	**Sig.**
Adjustment	.84	.36	2.90	.09	.14	.71
Personality	3.31	.07	.014	.91	1.26	.26
Interaction	**6.55**	**.01**	**9.576**	**.00**	.43	.51
HR	3.62	.06	2.756	.10	**12.01**	**.00**
Culture	.366	.55	.347	.60	2.01	.16
Social support	.300	.06	1.989	.16	.27	.60
Family	**85.39**	**.00**	**28.387**	**.00**	1.13	.30

Note: Values in bold are statistically significant at the .05 level or less

However, for the purpose of this study, only the result of the scatterplot is considered for normality purposes as it provides a visual representation of the residual distribution. This method presents a clear relationship between independent and dependent variables and the distribution that exhibits the dispersion of residuals across all data values (Hair et al., 2010).

4.9 Reliability and Validity Tests

Since the measurement of variables is an integral part of any empirical research, this section is devoted to a discussion on the accuracy of measures which depends on its reliability and validity. As with the pilot test, the reliability tests for the present research was conducted by calculating the Cronbach's co-efficient alpha. This was done for two reasons: (1) to test the ability of the instruments to yield the same results when repeated; and (2) to identify that there was no error in measurement and that the same test would yield high consistency level every time the instrument was administered, regardless of time, place and samples (Burleson & Waltman, 1988). According to Hair et al. (2010), the correlation value of <0.6 is weak, 0.6 - <0.7 is average, 0.7 to 0.8 is good, 0.8 to 0.9 is very good and 0.9 is excellent and consistent in measuring the variables under study. Clearly, any summated scale should be analyzed for its reliability to ensure that it was appropriate before proceeding to validity assessment. In testing the validity, factor analysis was used in testing whether the items in each variable were in the right factor. The researcher followed the same process in testing the reliability and validity values of each variable and its dimensions.

4.9.1 Reliability Tests

Table 4.10 displays the alpha values of all variables being studied. Results of the reliability analysis for the measures used in the present research indicated that Cronbach's alpha ranges from .60 to .94 for all variables, thus displaying acceptable levels of internal consistency. For the overall expatriate adjustment, the alpha value was .92 and the value proved that the instrument employed by the study was appropriate. While the personality variable revealed an alpha value of .74, communication and interaction yielded a score of .87. The analysis on the human resource support on the other hand, showed a reliability value of .81. Culture distance differences yielded a score of .86. For social support, the alpha value was .60 and finally, family adjustment scored .94 on the reliability test. Even though the value for social support seemed to be on the weaker side based on Hair et al.'s (2010) argument and if compared to the value obtained in the pilot test, it was still acceptable. This could be due to the increase in the number of samples in the actual study. Even though there have been slight differences in the scores if compared to the results of the pilot test, in general, the results indicated that all instruments employed by the present research were appropriate and acceptable as the scales employed by the present research did not reveal any serious problems of reliability.

Table 4.10
Alpha Values of All Variables

Variables	**A**	**Total Item**
Adjustment	.92	14
Personality	.74	23
Communication & interaction	.87	30
HR support	.81	43
Social support	.60	8
Culture distance	.86	8
Family adjustment	.94	9

The adjustment variable was made up of three dimensions that include general, interaction and work. The results of the analysis demonstrated that for general adjustment, the reliability value of the item was high, α=.87. For interaction, the alpha value was .93 and work, α=.82. There were two dimensions of personality variable—general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy. For general self-efficacy, the alpha value was .76 and for social self-efficacy, the reliability value was .60. The alpha value for social self-efficacy was rather low but the scores for both dimensions (i.e. general self-efficacy and social self-efficacy) increased from the scores obtained in the pilot test. Meanwhile, communication and interaction variable was made up of six dimensions: social composure (α=.72), social confirmation (α=.85), social experience (α=.52), appropriate disclosure (α=.89), articulation (α=.93) and wit/humor (α=.66).

Finally, human resource support was categorized into three dimensions: financial inducement, general support and family-oriented support. For financial inducement, the reliability value was .69. The second dimension, general support scored a reliability value of .64 and the alpha value for family- oriented support was .74. Table 4.11 presents the overall scores of the dimensions. As observed, reliability values of certain variables and dimensions had decreased from the results obtained in the pilot test. For examples, the alpha value for social support had decreased from .86 in the pilot test to .60 in the actual study. Even though the value showed a weak reliability value, it was still acceptable (Hair et al., 2010).

4.9.2 Validity Tests – Factor Analysis

As discussed in Chapter 3, validity refers to the ability of a measure to accurately measure what it is supposed to measure. There are several types of validity, categorized according to the purposes of the assessment and the kinds of evidence on which the validity is to be judged, but the most common types are content validity, criterion-related validity and construct validity.

Table 4.11
Alpha Values by Dimensions

Variables	A	Total Item
Adjustment		
General	.87	7
Interaction	.93	4
Work	.82	3
Personality		
General self-efficacy	.76	17
Social self-efficacy	.60	6
Communication		
Social composure	.72	5
Social confirmation	.85	5
Social experience	.52	5
Appropriate disclosure	.89	5
Articulation	.93	5
Wit/Humor	.66	5
Human resources		
Financial inducement	.69	18
General support	.64	18
Family-oriented support	.74	7

For the pilot test, all items used in the measures were checked by experts and their suggestions were incorporated into the final version of the questionnaire. This procedure provided valuable inputs in lending support for content validity of the measures. On the other hand, the evidence of construct validity was statistically supported through the application of factor analysis (FA). Even though in the pilot test the scores for inter-item correlations for some variables in the instruments did not seem to correlate with other items in the instruments (i.e. personality and communication and interaction), but with the increased in the number of respondents in the actual study, the FA proved that the items were valid although some had to be dropped from the instruments as the loading did not meet the .50 criteria (factor loading of .50 and above) and they measured what were supposed to be measured.

FA is extensively used in establishing construct validity in social sciences research. According to Mason and Bramble (1989), FA can be used to support construct validity because it allows sets of highly correlated variables to be grouped into factors that determine the structure of a concept and into groups which the instrument is designed to measure. Thus, this section will discuss the results of the factor analysis administered on the items when the measures were factor analyzed.

In determining the appropriateness of FA, Hair et al. (2010) suggest the following criteria:

1. The visual inspection, whereby substantial number of correlations greater than .30 were considered appropriate for FA. For the purpose of this study, only items with values greater than .50 were considered.
2. *The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity*. This is a statistical test for the presence of correlations among variables. It provides the statistical probability that the correlation matrix has significant correlations among at least some of the variables. If the Bartlett test is not significant (i.e. its associated probability is greater than .05, then there is the danger that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix, and is therefore, unsuitable for further analysis (Kinnear & Gray, 1994). The Bartlett test of sphericity for the instruments used in the present study produced the following results:
   - Adjustment variable - 2335.802 (p<0.001)
   - Personality variable - 850.929 (p<0.001)
   - Communication and interaction - 3547.047 (p<0.001)
   - HR support - 2476.988 (p<0.001)
   - Culture - 690.325 (p<0.001)
   - Social support - 531.043 (p<0.001)
   - Family - 419.673 (p<0.001)

3. *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO)*. The measure can be interpreted with the following guidelines: .90 or above = marvelous; .80 or above = meritorious; .70 or above = middling; .60 or above = mediocre; .50 or above = miserable; and below .50 = unacceptable (Kaiser, 1974). Field (2000) recommends 0.5 – 0.7 as medium, 0.7 – 0.8 as good and 0.8 – 0.9 as superb. The KMO measures of sampling adequacy for the instruments in the present study are presented below:

   - Adjustment variable - .81
   - Personality variable - .71
   - Communication and interaction - .76
   - HR support - .70
   - Social support - .50
   - Culture distance - .80
   - Family - .90

   The results of the KMO measures revealed that the items did not present any serious multicollinearity problem except for social support instrument that scored low in the measurement. Hair et al. (2010) and Pallant (2010), proposed a value of .50 as an acceptable value for KMO. This allows for KMO value for social support to be accepted. Besides, social support also showed a significant value of .000 ($p<.05$).

4. *Sample Size*. It has been noted that a researcher could not factor analyze a sample of fewer than 50 observations and Hair et al. (2010) suggested that a sample size should be 100 or larger to be appropriate for FA. Employing this criterion, the sample size of 203 in the present study was considered more than adequate in meeting the requirement for conducting FA.

The results obtained from the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity and KMO measures of sampling adequacy as well as the sample size requirement together indicated that FA was suitable for the instruments used in the present study and hence appropriate for FA. Each instrument also revealed a significance level of .000 ($p<.001$).

Although an exact quantitative basis for deciding the number of factors to extract has not been developed, the following criteria were currently used (Hair et al., 2010):

1. *Latent Root of Eigenvalues*. This is the most commonly used technique in deciding the number of factors to extract. For the present study, only factors having latent roots or eigenvalues greater than 1 were considered significant; all factors with latent roots less than 1 were considered insignificant, thus were disregarded.
2. *Percentage of Variance*. The percentage of variance criterion is an approach in which the cumulative percentages of the variance extracted by successive factors are the criterion. The purpose is to ensure practical significance for the derived factors. In this study, a solution which accounts for about 60 per cent of the total variance was considered satisfactory.
3. *Factor rotation*. The rotational method was also considered as it helped achieve simpler and theoretically more meaningful factor solutions. It also helped improves the interpretation by reducing ambiguities that often accompanied initial unrotated factor solutions. In this study, the Varimax rotation was preferred as with this technique, some high loadings (close to -1 or +1) were likely, as were some loadings near 0 in each of the column matrix. This way, the interpretation was made easier when the variable-factor correlations are: (1) close to either -1 or +1, thus indicating a clear positive or negative association between the variable and the factor; and (2) close to 0, indicating a clear lack of association. Besides that, the Varimax

technique had proven to be successful as an analytic approach to obtaining an orthogonal rotation factors (Hair et al., 2010).

The scree plot on the other hand, is used to identify the optimum number of factors than can be extracted before the amount of unique variance begins to dominate the common variance structure. The scree test is obtained by plotting the latent roots against the number of factors in their order of extraction, and the shape of the resulting curve is used to evaluate the cut-off point (Hair et al., 2010). As a general rule, the scree test results in at least one and sometimes two or three more factors being considered significant than does the latent root technique. Figures 4.4, 4.5, 4.6, 4.7, 4.8, 4.9 and 4.10 display the scree test results for the dependent variable (i.e. adjustment), independent variables (i.e. personality, human resource, culture, social support and family adjustment) as well as the mediating variable (i.e. communication and interaction). The results of eigenvalues and percentage of variance, together with the scree plot will be discussed according to the individual variable.

4.9.2.1 Adjustment

The principle component analysis was conducted on all fourteen items listed under this variable. An inspection of the correlation matrix revealed the existence of many items with co-efficient values of .002 and above. The analysis revealed the existence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1, contributing 51.2 per cent, 11.8 per cent, and 10.2 per cent of the percentage of variance respectively; together explaining 73.2 per cent of the variance in the data. Table 4.12 presents the results of the principal component analysis.

Table 4.12
Total Variance Explained for Adjustment

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.166	51.185	51.185	7.166	51.185	51.185	3.668	26.200	26.200
2	1.651	11.795	62.980	1.651	11.795	62.980	3.624	25.883	52.083
3	1.426	10.183	73.163	1.426	10.183	73.163	2.951	21.080	73.163
4	.964	6.885	80.048						
5	.550	3.932	83.980						
6	.485	3.463	87.443						
7	.434	3.098	90.541						
8	.342	2.443	92.984						
9	.286	2.041	95.024						
10	.199	1.419	96.443						
11	.187	1.333	97.776						
12	.135	.964	98.741						
13	.105	.753	99.493						
14	.071	.507	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

An inspection of the scree plot (Figure 4.4) revealed that starting with component one, the plot dropped steeply downward initially until it reached component five and then slowly dropped again until it reached the end. Obviously too, it showed a clear break at item two and five and this enabled for three components to exists. This corroborated the retention of three dimensions suggested in earlier studies.

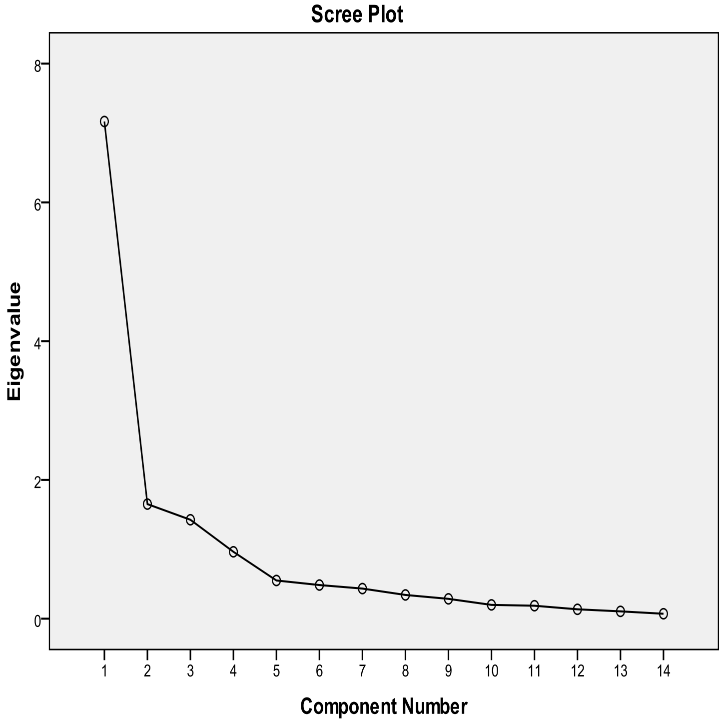

Figure 4.4: Scree plot for adjustment

To compliment the interpretation of the three components, the varimax rotation was performed. The rotated solution revealed that the fourteen items loaded strongly on three components with values above 0.50 (Lattin, Carrol & Green, 2003). Even though the results of the test revealed three factors as the original instrument, two items (i.e. a6 and a7) did not load in the first factor as in the original instrument but was clustered together in factor three. However, other items loaded as in the original instrument. Table 4.13 shows the factor loading of the items. For the purpose of the present study, the researcher had decided to use the factors proposed in the original instrument.

Table 4.13
Factor Loading for Adjustment

Items		Factor Loading		
		general	interact	work
a4.	Shopping	.84		
a1.	Living conditions in general	.81		
a3.	Food	.81		
a5.	Costs of living	.79		
a2.	Housing conditions	.53		
a11.	Speaking with Malaysians		.86	
a9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis		.84	
a10.	Interacting with Malaysians outside of Work		.84	
a8.	Socializing with Malaysians		.82	
a12.	Specific job responsibilities			.81
a14.	Supervisory responsibilities			.78
a13.	Performance standards and Expectations			.75
a7.	Health care facilities			.56
a6.	Entertainment/Recreational facilities and opportunities			.53

Note: general = general adjustment, interact = interaction adjustment, work = work adjustment; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.2 Personality

Meanwhile, the test of correlation matrix on personality variable revealed many items with coefficient of .3 and above. The principal component analysis also showed the presence of two components with eigenvalue higher than one which explained 50.0 per cent of the variance. The first component contributed 31.3 per cent, while the second contributed 18.69 per cent to the total variance. Table 4.14 presents the principal component analysis.

Table 4.14
Total Variance Explained for Personality

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.758	31.320	31.320	3.758	31.320	31.320	3.757	31.312	31.312
2	2.242	18.681	50.001	2.242	18.681	50.001	2.243	18.689	50.001
3	1.144	9.532	59.533						
4	.925	7.710	67.243						
5	.833	6.946	74.189						
6	.766	6.384	80.573						
7	.611	5.093	85.667						
8	.506	4.213	89.880						
9	.399	3.327	93.206						
10	.344	2.863	96.070						
11	.252	2.101	98.171						
12	.219	1.829	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The scree test results (Figure 4.5) showed a clear drop after the second component. This enabled the retention of the two components for further investigation. To ensure a clearer explanation of these two components, varimax rotation was performed. After the analysis, 11 out of the 23 items (2, 4, 5, 7, 13, 15, 17, 18, 19, 20 and 23) could not meet up with the .5 loading requirement and as a result, were considered for deletion, leaving only 12 items to be factor analyzed. The researcher kept the two factors remained as in the original instrument. The loaded items are presented in Table 4.15.

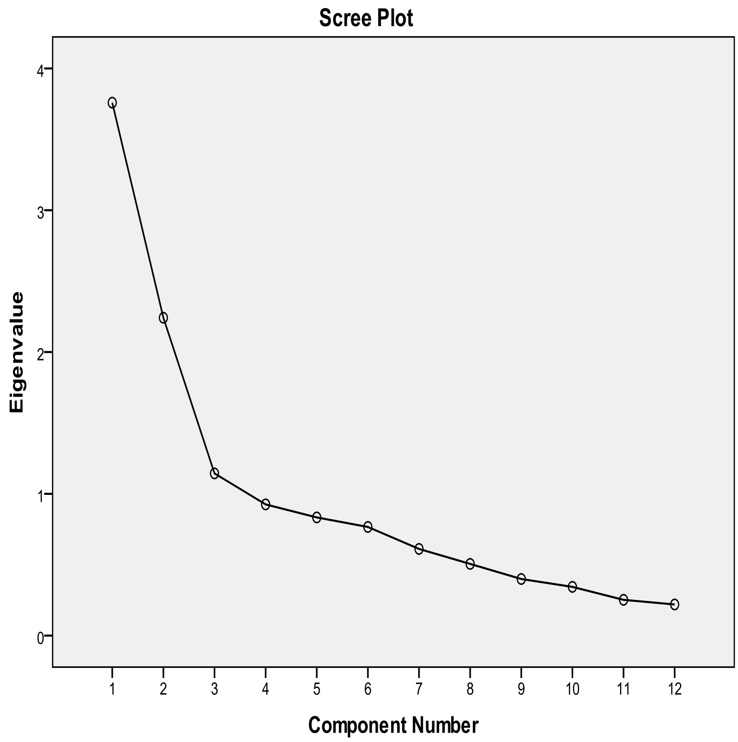

Figure 4.5: Scree plot for personality

Table 4.15
Factor Loading for Personality

	Items	Factor Loading	
		general SE	**social SE**
b1.	When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	.764	
b9.	When I decide to do something, I go right to wok on it.	.747	
b3.	If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	.737	
b8.	When I have something unpleasant t do, I stick to it until I finish it.	.704	
b6.	I avoid facing difficulties	.670	
b11.	When unexpected problem occur, I don't handle them well.	.661	
b10.	When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially. successful.	.604	
b14.	I feel insecure about my ability to do things.		.730
b21.	When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.		.655
b16.	I give up easily.		.589
b12.	I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.		.588
b22.	I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.		.585

Note: generalSE = general self-efficacy, socialSE = social self-efficacy; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.3 Communication and Interaction

The mediating impact of communication and interaction was measured by 30 items. The results of the principle component analysis conducted on all 30 items revealed the existence of many items with co-efficient values of .3 and above. The analysis also revealed the existence of six components with eigenvalues for all factors exceeding 1. The six components, with each scores 16.0 per cent, 15.3 per cent, 15.3 per cent, 10.2 per cent, 8.2 per cent and 7.4 per cent respectively, make up 72.5 per cent of the variance in the data. Table 4.16 presents the results of the principal component analysis.

Table 4.16
Total Variance Explained for Communication and Interaction Variable

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.315	28.135	28.135	7.315	28.135	28.135	4.144	15.937	15.937
2	3.622	13.929	42.064	3.622	13.929	42.064	3.992	15.354	31.291
3	2.432	9.355	51.419	2.432	9.355	51.419	3.983	15.318	46.609
4	2.168	8.339	59.758	2.168	8.339	59.758	2.660	10.229	56.838
5	1.936	7.448	67.206	1.936	7.448	67.206	2.137	8.219	65.057
6	1.375	5.287	72.493	1.375	5.287	72.493	1.933	7.436	72.493
7	1.096	4.216	76.709						
8	.873	3.357	80.066						
9	.746	2.868	82.934						
10	.635	2.441	85.376						
11	.548	2.106	87.482						
12	.479	1.843	89.324						
13	.416	1.601	90.925						
14	.381	1.466	92.391						
15	.339	1.304	93.695						
16	.303	1.165	94.860						
17	.248	.954	95.814						
18	.189	.726	96.540						
19	.187	.718	97.258						
20	.163	.628	97.886						
21	.141	.542	98.429						
22	.116	.447	98.875						
23	.107	.412	99.288						
24	.088	.339	99.627						
25	.051	.194	99.821						
26	.046	.179	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Meanwhile, the result of the scree plot test (Figure 4.6) revealed a clear drop after the fifth component and the drop was consistent after the fifth component. This enabled for the retention of the six components as suggested by the original instrument for further investigation. In ensuring further explanation to be made on the six components, the varimax rotation was performed. After the analysis, seven items we deleted (4, 12, 14, 15 and 20) as they could not meet up with the .5 loading requirement. This leaves another 25 items for further analysis. The analysis revealed the six components appeared as suggested by the original instrument. However, as there were only two items (c29 and c30) proposed for component six and the two items were combined with items in component five, making it all together five items for that particular component (wit). Three items from "social experience" component were deleted and the remaining two (11 and 13) were clustered together with "social comfirmation" component. As for the present study, the analysis would still follow the six components suggested in the original instrument. Table 4.17 presents the loaded items contained in six factors.

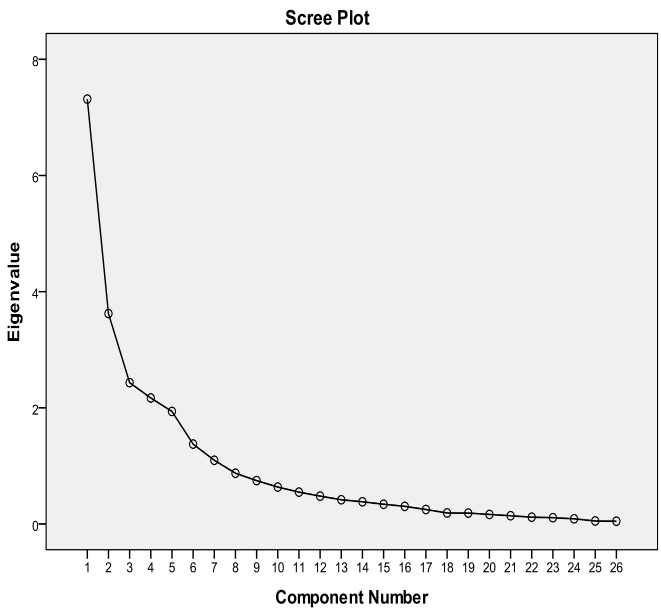

Figure 4.6: Scree plot for communication and interaction

Table 4.17
Factor Loading for Communication and Interaction

Items		Factor Loading				
		social confirm	**art**	**appr discl**	**social comp**	**wit**
c10.	I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.	.802				
c7.	I try to make the other person feel important.	.790				
c6.	I try to make the other person feel good.	.762				
c8.	I try to be warm when communicating with another.	.739				
c9.	When I am talking I think about how the other person feels.	.738				
c11.	I like to be active in different social groups.	.638				
c13.	I enjoy meeting new people.	.605				
c22.	At times, I don't use appropriate verb tense.		.908			
c25.	I have difficulty pronouncing some words.		.877			
c24.	I sometimes use words incorrectly.		.841			
c23.	I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another.		.827			
c21.	When speaking I have problems with grammar.		.776			
c17.	I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.			.870		
c19.	I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.			.832		
c18.	I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.			.812		
c16.	I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.			.803		
c20.	When I self-disclose I know I am revealing.			.654		
c1.	I feel nervous in social situations.				.807	
c2.	In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.				.752	
c3.	When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense.				.712	
c5.	I am relaxed when talking with others.				.597	
c26.	When I am anxious, I often make jokes.					.889
c29.	When someone makes a negative comment about me I respond with a witty comeback.					.885

c27.	I often make jokes when in tense situations.	.883
C30.	People think I am witty (humorous).	.701
C28.	When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.	.597

Note: social confirm = social confirmation, art = articulation, appr discl = appropriate disclosure, social comp = social composure; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.4 Human Resource Support

For human resource support, the test of correlation matrix showed most items with coefficient values of .3 and above. The principal component analysis also revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalue higher than one. The three components made up 64.6 per cent of the cumulative percentage. While component one accounted for 23.0 per cent of the variance, component two revealed only 21.0 per cent. The third, accounted for 20.1 per cent of the variance. Table 4.18 presents the principal component analysis.

Table 4.18
Total Variance Explained for Human Resource Support

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	6.110	38.188	38.188	6.110	38.188	38.188	3.687	23.045	23.045
2	2.696	16.853	55.041	2.696	16.853	55.041	3.362	21.013	44.057
3	1.524	9.525	64.565	1.524	9.525	64.565	3.281	20.508	64.565
4	1.128	7.048	71.613						
5	.885	5.530	77.143						
6	.736	4.599	81.742						
7	.698	4.364	86.106						
8	.528	3.299	89.405						
9	.421	2.629	92.034						
10	.358	2.240	94.274						
11	.328	2.050	96.323						
12	.207	1.294	97.617						
13	.127	.793	98.410						
14	.118	.740	99.151						
15	.107	.670	99.821						
16	.029	.179	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

The scree test results (Figure 4.7) showed that starting from the first factor, the plot slopes steeply downward until it reached component three and from there, it slowly dropped until the end, enables for three components to exist. The results of the principal component analysis and varimax rotation supported the existence of the three components. This enabled for the retention of the three components for further investigation.

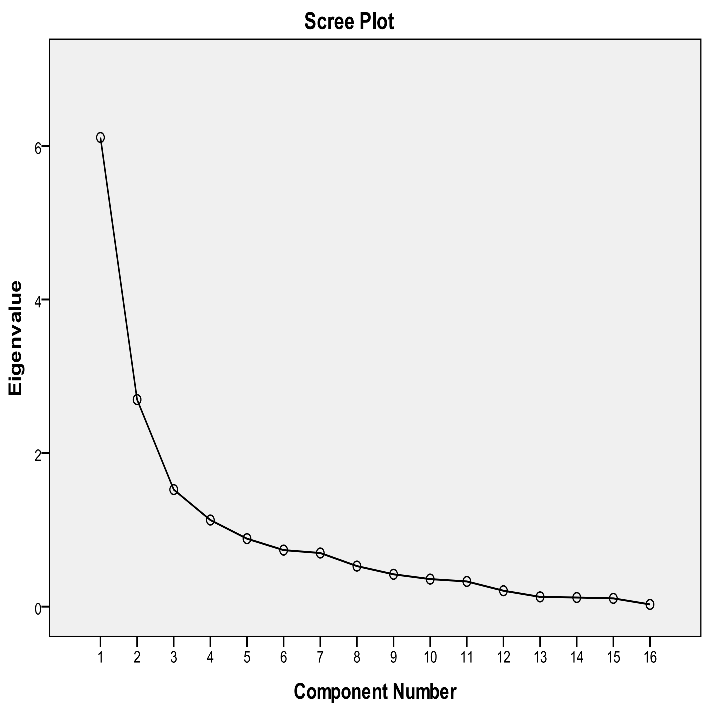

Figure 4.7: Scree plot for human resource support

The rotated component matrix revealed a strong loading of the factors on three components. Items d1, d2, d15, d16, d30 and d36 loaded significantly on component one; while items d27, d28, d37, d39 and d42 loaded strongly on component two; items d4, d5, d6, d24, d25 and d27 loaded significantly on component three. Of the total 43 items, twenty-seven items (d3, d7, d8, d9, d10, d11, d12, d13, d14, d17, d18, d19, d20, d21, d22, d23, d26, d29, d31, d32, d33, d34, d35, d38, d40, d41 and d43) failed to load on any component because the values were less than the .5 requirement for loading (Hair et al., 2010). The items with significant loadings are presented in Table 4.19.

Table 4.19
Factor Loading for Human Resource Support

	Items	**Factor Loading**		
		finance	**general**	**family**
d2.	Tax equalization	.875		
d1.	Reimbursement for tax return preparation	.866		
d16.	Completion bonus	.804		
d30.	Career development and repatriation training	.708		
d36.	Use of company-owned vacation facilities	.629		
d15.	Hardship premium	.598		
d39.	General culture-transition training (family)		.873	
d37.	Language training (family)		.797	
d42.	Spousal employment in firm		.781	
d28.	General culture-transition training (expatriate)		.730	
d5.	Temporary living allowance			.822
d6.	Goods and services differential			.794
d4.	Children's education allowance			.686
d25.	Club membership			.650
d27.	Personal security (expatriate & family)			.643
d24.	Access to high-quality, western health care			.592

Note: fin = financial inducement, gen = general support, fam = family-oriented support; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.5 Social Support

The next variable tested was the social support that expatriates received from both the immediate boss and other people at work. The original instrument used to measure the variable did not suggest for the items to be factored. Just as other variables, separate analysis were performed in testing the normality of this variable. However, the rotated component analysis, the scree plot and the varimax rotation revealed the presence of three components with coefficient values of above .30 for most items.

Table 4.20 presents the components proposed through the rotated component matrix with eigenvalue higher than one. The three components made up a total of 77.4 per cent of the total variance with component one accounts for a total variance of 29.3 per cent, component two 28.3 per cent and component three 19.8 per cent.

Table 4.20
Total Variance Explained for Social Support

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.203	31.470	31.470	2.203	31.470	31.470	2.054	29.344	29.344
2	1.974	28.203	59.673	1.974	28.203	59.673	1.978	28.262	57.606
3	1.241	17.725	77.398	1.241	17.725	77.398	1.385	19.793	77.398
4	.672	9.593	86.992						
5	.517	7.381	94.373						
6	.240	3.425	97.798						
7	.154	2.202	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Even though the results of the rotated component analysis revealed the existence of three separate components for the instrument, the scree plot test (Figure 4.8) did not show a clear drop although it could be observed that the distance between the components reduced significantly after the third component.

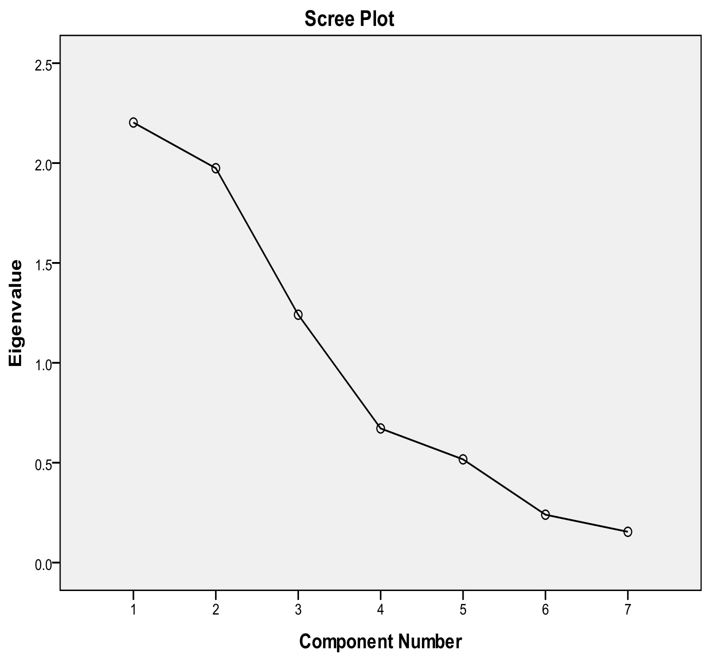

Figure 4.8: Scree plot for social support

Finally, the varimax rotation that was performed, confirmed the existence of the three components (Table 4.21). Items f1a and f2a were clustered in component one, f1b, f3a and f3b in component two and f2b and f4b in component three. Of all eight items from the original instrument, one item was deleted (f4a) as it did not meet the requirement of .5 for item loading. The analysis results of the varimax rotation clearly shows that the items were not suitable to be factored as suggested by the component analysis and scree plot test. This was due to items mixed-up as the items were meant to answer specific questions asked. For example, item three asked “How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work?” The respondents had to rate the support they receive from their immediate boss and other people at work. Thus, the respond should not be separated into separate components, as suggested in varimax rotation for item three. Therefore, the researcher retained the original instrument without any broken components for culture variable.

Table 4.21
Factor Loading for Social Support

	Items	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
f2a.	How easy is it to talk with each of the following people? Your immediate boss.	.902		
f1a.	How much does each of these people got out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you? Your immediate boss.	.809		
f3b.	How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work? Other people at work.		.853	
f1b.	How much does each of these people got out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you? Other people at work.		.849	
f3a.	How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work? Your immediate boss.		.613	
f2b.	How easy is it to talk with each of the following people? Other people at work.			.874
f4b.	How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your personal problem? Other people at work.			.554

Note: Original instrument suggests only one component; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.6 Culture Distance

The impact of culture on adjustment was measured by eight items. All the items were subjected to principal component analysis with the underlying principles of KMO higher than 0.50, loading values of 0.50 and above. An inspection of the total variance explained revealed an eigenvalue higher than 1. The scree plot test was also conducted for the identification of component retention and observation on the rotated component matrix for factor loading of each component. An inspection of the correlation matrix showed that most items had coefficient values of .30 and above.

The original instrument used to measure culture variable did not suggest for the items to be factored. However, the rotated component analysis, the scree plot and the varimax rotation revealed the presence of two components. Table 4.22 shows the two components proposed through the rotated component matrix with eigenvalue higher than one. Together, the two components made up a total cumulative percentage of 78.3 per cent with component one accounts for a total variance of 43.9 per cent and component two with 34.4 per cent of the total variance.

Table 4.22
Total Variance Explained for Culture Distance

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.620	60.338	60.338	3.620	60.338	60.338	2.635	43.919	43.919
2	1.080	18.002	78.340	1.080	18.002	78.340	2.065	34.421	78.340
3	.501	8.342	86.682						
4	.374	6.231	92.913						
5	.263	4.379	97.292						
6	.163	2.708	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The scree plot analysis (Figure 4.9) showed a clear drop after the second component and enable for the two components to be retained. As with other variables, the varimax rotation was performed. The results revealed that items e2, e3 and e8 loaded strongly in component one and items e5, e6 and e7 in component two. However, two items (e1 and e4) did not meet the .50 requirement for factor loading and therefore, were deleted.

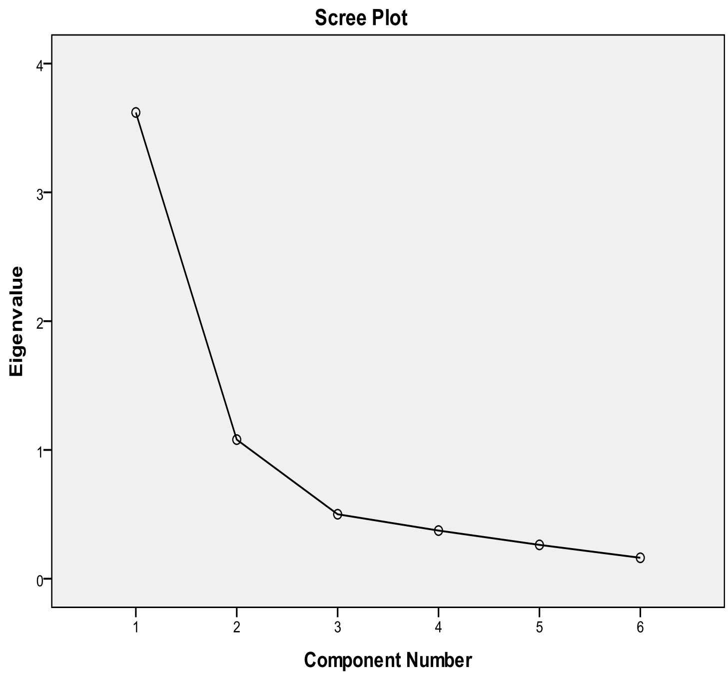

Figure 4.9: Scree plot for culture distance

The factor loading of the items are presented in Table 4.23 below. Although all the tests showed the presence of two components for culture variable, the present research retained the original instrument (with only one component) used to measure the variable, without the intention of breaking it into separate components.

Table 4.23
Factor Loading for Culture Distance

Items		Factor Loading	
		Factor 1	**Factor 2**
e2.	General living conditions	.907	
e8.	General housing conditions	.889	
e3.	Using health care facilities	.853	
e7.	Climate		.902
e5.	General costs of living		.777
e6.	Available quality and types of foods		.691

Note: Original instrument suggests only one component; only loading >.50 are displayed

4.9.2.7 Family Adjustment

The final variable tested for normality was the family adjustment. As discussed earlier, this variable scored high for its reliability, KMO values and Bartlett's test of sphericity. The coefficient value for this variable was also above .3 levels for most items. The variable contained 9 items that should be answered by the expatriates' spouse.

The principal component analysis suggested only one component with eigenvalue higher than one for this variable, just as in the original instrument. Table 4.24 shows the component analysis. Since, only one component suggested for this variable, the rotated component matrix and varimax rotation could not be performed. Due to this, only the factor matrix score was presented (Table 4.25).

Table 4.24
Total Variance Explained for Family Adjustment

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	8.504	94.486	94.486	8.504	94.486	94.486
2	.293	3.254	97.740			
3	.123	1.364	99.104			
4	.040	.443	99.546			
5	.023	.259	99.806			
6	.015	.169	99.975			
7	.002	.025	100.000			
8	2.957E-16	3.285E-15	100.000			
9	-1.885E-19	-2.095E-18	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

The results of the scree plot test (Figure 4.10) showed a clear drop after the first component as the plots sloped steeply downward and then slowly turned to an approximate horizontal line. The point at which the curve first began to straighten out was considered to indicate the number of factors to extract. In this case, only the first factor would qualify and this enabled the researcher to retain the component suggested by the analysis.

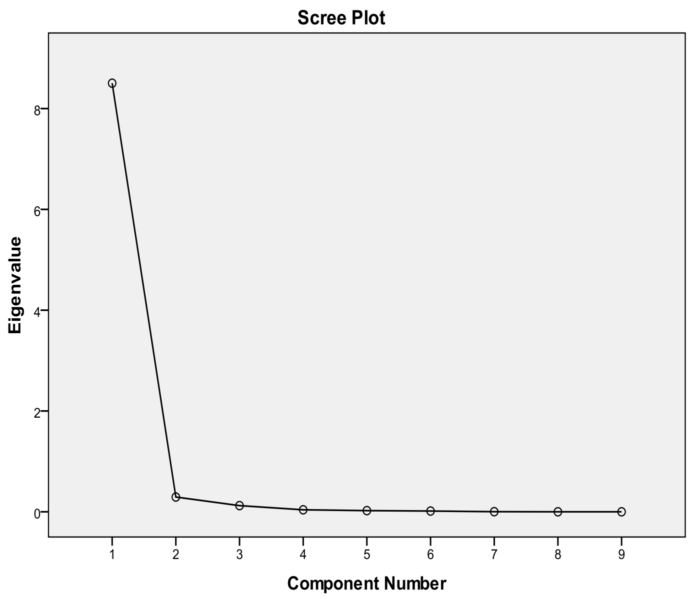

Figure 4.10: Scree plot for family adjustment

Table 4.25
Factor Loading for Family Adjustment

Item		**Factor Loading**
g2.	Housing conditions	.932
g1	Living conditions in general	.911
g3.	Food	.862
g4.	Shopping	.846
g7.	Health care facilities	.789
g5.	Cost of living	.769
g6.	Entertainment/Recreation facilities and Opportunities	.714
g9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day Basis	.686
g8.	Socializing with Malaysians	.660

Note: All loadings are >.50

In sum, it can be observed that the exploratory factor analysis revealed that the items selected for all variables fulfilled the requirement for further analysis at the multivariate level. The KMO values were appropriate, the principle component analysis showed that all variables had eigenvalues higher than one and the scree plots were explained. For factor loading, even though the analysis suggested the appropriate number of factors, the items were not loaded according to the original instruments. The researcher, thus, decided to retain the loadings suggested by the original instruments.

4.10 Hypotheses Testing

Statistics assumptions mainly regard to regression have been investigated. Normal curve, probability plot and scatter plot indicated that all statistics assumptions were obtained (Hair, et. al, 2006; Coakes, 2005). Hence, the chapter continues by specifically discussing the hypotheses testing, followed by the elaboration on thesis findings.

Hypotheses 1 and 2 hoped to identify the differences in adjustment pattern according to expatriates' demographic factors.

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs.

This hypothesis aimed at looking at the pattern of adjustment between two groups of expatriates—OEs and SIEs. Previous studies seemed to show a different pattern of adjustment. Thus, a *t*-test was conducted to test hypothesis 1. The results were interpreted based on three assumptions: (1) the dependent variable (adjustment) was normally distributed; (2) the two groups of expatriates had approximately equal variance on the dependent variable; and (3) the two groups of expatriates were independent of one another. Table 4.26 displays the results of the *t*-test.

Table 4.26
T-Test Results of Differences between OEs and SIEs

Variable	**Coming to Malaysia**	**N**	**Mean**	**t**	**Df**	**Sig**
Adjustment	Sent by parent company	95	4.56	.05	201	.027*
	Individual/voluntary Basis	108	4.45			

*p<.05

The table showed that the mean for OEs was slightly higher than SIEs which was, 4.56 (SD=.414) and SIEs 4.45 (SD=.354). However, the results revealed that there was no significant difference in the adjustment pattern of the two groups of expatriates. This suggested that further analysis on the adjustment pattern could not be performed. Clearly, the results of the analysis did not support the findings by Peltokorpi and Froese (2009), which found that there was a difference in the adjustment of OEs and SIEs.

Hypothesis 2: There are significant differences in the adjustment of expatriates from different region.

Past studies showed that there were differences in the pattern of adjustment among expatriates from different region. To confirm whether the results remained the same for expatriates residing in Malaysia, the one-way ANOVA test was conducted. The purpose was to examine whether expatriates from different region adjust differently to Malaysian environment. Table 4.27 revealed that there was a significant different in the pattern of adjustment among expatriates from different region (F=10.977, p<.05).

Table 4.27
Results of One-Way ANOVA on the Differences of Adjustment

Variable		**Sum of Squares**	**df**	**Mean Square**	**F**	**Sig.**
Adjustment	Between Groups	4.27	3	1.423	10.977	.000
	Within Groups	25.79	199	130		
	Total	30.06	202			

*Scheffe Alpha (0.05)

The Post Hoc Scheffe was also conducted to further examine the differences in the adjustment aspect of the expatriates based on the region which they came from. This would specify the specific regions that differ. The analysis showed that there were differences in adjustment for those from North America and Asia as compared to those from European countries. There were also significant differences in the adjustment between those from Australia/New Zealand region as compared to those from North America and Asia. Expatriates from North America and Asia seemed to show no significant difference. Table 4.28 displays the result of the Post Hoc Scheffe test.

Table 4.28
Post Hoc Scheffe Test on Differences of Adjustment

Variable	**Region (I)**	**Region (J)**	**Mean Difference (I-J)**	**SE**	**Sig.**
Adjustment	Europe	North America	.44103*	.11448	.002
		Asia	.29786*	.06640	.000
		Australia/NZ	.01346	.06177	.997
	North America	Europe	-.44103*	.11448	.002
		Asia	-.14317	.12194	.711
		Australia/NZ	-.42757*	.11948	.006
	Asia	Europe	-.29786*	.06640	.000
		North America	.14317	.12194	.711
		Australia/NZ	-.28441*	.07469	.003
	Australia/NZ	Europe	-.01346	.06177	.997
		North America	.42757*	.11948	.006
		Asia	.28441*	.07469	.003

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

For Hypothesis 3, the multiple regression analysis was used to test the relationships between the variables. The nature of the analysis enables for more rigor analysis of the relationships between variables to be performed. Besides, it also provides an in-depth analysis on the relationship between dependent and independent variables. This is done by forming the variate of independent variables and then examining the statistical significance of the regression coefficient for each independent variable (Hair et al. 2010). In this study, the independent variables were divided into three categories. The first was the individual factors which comprised of personality, language ability and previous international experience. The organizational factors were made up of training, human resource support and social support. Finally, the nonwork factors comprised of culture distance and family adjustment. The results of the analysis are discussed below.

a) Individual Factors

For the individual variable, only previous international experience seemed to establish a significant positive relationship with adjustment (β=-.195, t=-2.798, p=.01) (Table 4.29). The other two variables; personality (β=.072, t=1.028, p=.305) and language ability (β=.035, t=.509; p=.611) did not demonstrate any relationship with adjustment. From the results, it could be interpreted that the more experience the expatriates had internationally, the better they adjust to a new cultural environment. Personality and expatriates ability to speak languages other than their own however, did not have any impact on their adjustment in Malaysia.

b) Organizational Factors

The analysis conducted on organizational variables showed that there was no significant relationship between the training expatriates had prior to expatriation and their adjustment (β=.032, t=.467, p=.641) (Table 4.29). Analysis on human resource support also did not reveal any significant relationship with expatriate adjustment (β=.069, t=1.004, p=.317). However, there was a significant, positive relationship between social support received by expatriates from their supervisor and other people at work and their level of adjustment toward the host country (β=.262, t=3.794, p=.000). This showed that the more support that expatriates received from their boss and other people at work (i.e. making work life easier, easy to talk with, reliable and willingness to listen), the better they adjust to the new culture environment. The analysis on organizational variables revealed that only social support that expatriates received from their boss and other people at work did have significant, positive relationships with their adjustment.

c) Nonwork Factors

Finally, the analysis was conducted on nonwork factors. Two variables were tested against the dependent variable. First, the analysis looked at the relationship between culture distance and expatriate adjustment. The hypothesis hoped to find out whether culture similarities or differences had any relationship with expatriate adjustment. The analysis however, did not show any relationship between the two variables (β=-.016, t=-.266, p=.790). This contradicts past research that claimed culture dissimilarities/similarities as one of the determinants of adjustment to a new cultural environment.

The final variable tested was family adjustment and its relationship with expatriate adjustment. The results revealed that there was a significant, positive but weak relationship between family adjustment and expatriate adjustment (β=.264, t=3.082, p=.000). The results suggested that if the expatriates' family were better adjusted, the expatriates would also adjust themselves better to the new environment. Table 4.29 displays the summary of the results of correlation analysis.

Further analysis was conducted to determine the predictors of expatriate adjustment.

Hypothesis 4: Personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment are predictors of expatriate adjustment.

The multiple regression analysis with enter method was used to identify the predictors of expatriate adjustment. The method was able to extract variables which were assumed to be predictors to the dependent variable (Green & Salkind, 2008; Hair et al. 2010). The regression analysis was conducted on the predictors and its criterion (dependent variable).

An examination of the standardized beta weight/coefficient across the predictors informs the relative strength of each predictor in relation to the criterion variable. In this study, the predictors were personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment.

Table 4.29
Multiple Regression Analysis of Relationships between Independent and Dependent Variables

Variable	B	SE	β	T	Sig.
Individual Factors					
Previous experience	-.258	.092	-.195	-2.798	.006
Personality	.053	.052	.072	1.028	.305
Speak other language	.080	.157	.035	.509	.611
Organizational Factors					
Training	.033	.071	.032	.467	.641
HR	.074	.073	.069	1.004	.317
Social support	.346	.091	.262	3.794	.000
Nonwork Factors					
Culture	-.012	.046	-.016	-.266	.790
Family	.120	.032	.264	3.802	.000

Constant = 2.749
$R^2 = .134$
$\Delta R^2 = .134$
F = 3.764
Degree of Freedom = 202

Dependent Variable: Adjustment; $p < .01$

Table 4.30 presents the results of multiple regression analysis. The regression model used to predict adjustment resulted in an adjusted R^2 of 1.34. The results of the analysis revealed that out of eight variables tested, only social support and family adjustment predict expatriate adjustment. From the table, it could be seen that together, social support and family adjustment contributed 23.0 per cent toward expatriate adjustment in Malaysia. Other variables (i.e. personality, human resource, culture, previous international experience, ability to speak languages other than their own and training) did not predict the adjustment directly.

Table 4.30
Multiple Regression Analysis: Predictors of Adjustment

Variable	B	SE	β	T	Sig.
Previous experience	-.131	.106	-.099	-1.235	.218
Personality	.004	.052	.005	.067	.947
Speak other language	.054	.158	.024	.342	.733
Training	.010	.071	.009	.135	.893
HR	.045	.076	.042	.589	.556
Social support	.300	.099	.227	3.036	.003*
Culture	.069	.053	.103	1.302	.194
Family	.090	.033	.198	2.707	.007*

Constant = 2.749
R^2 = .134
ΔR^2 = .134
F = 3.764
Degree of Freedom
= 202

*p < 0.01

The results of the multiple regression analysis also found that social support significantly predict expatriate adjustment (β=.227; t= 3.036, p < .01) and contributed 9.6 per cent toward expatriate adjustment. Meanwhile, family adjustment yielded β=.198, t=2.707 (p=0.00<0.01). The variable contributed 13.4 per cent toward expatriate adjustment in Malaysia. Together, both variables contributed 23.0 per cent toward the overall expatriate adjustment. A total of 13.4% variance in expatriate adjustment are explained by previous international experience, personality, language, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment.

The final hypothesis hoped to identify whether communication and interaction mediated the relationship between the independent variables and expatriate adjustment.

Hypothesis 5: Communication and interaction mediates the relationship between personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, family adjustment and culture distance and expatriate adjustment.

In examining the mediating effect of communication and interaction, two separate analyses were conducted. The first was the multiple regression analysis and in complimenting the results of multiple regression analysis, SEM was applied. This was considered crucial as multiple regression technique could only examine a single relationship at a time. As the present research involved the presence of a mediating variable, SEM was seen a powerful tool to address the limitation as it had the ability to analyze the relationships in a comprehensive manner and able to extend the analysis on multiple relationships among the variables (Byrne, 2010; Hair et al., 2010). Mediation was assessed using SEM application, using Baron and Kenny's (1986) causal steps approach. The application estimates the direct and indirect effects of the mediation variable on independent and dependent variables link. Meanwhile, the magnitude of mediation effects was assessed with direct effect procedure. This process further verified the results of multiple regression analysis conducted earlier. Besides, SEM was also preferred as it allowed for the estimation of measurement error (Abu Bakar, Dilbeck & McCroskey,2010; Hu & Bentler, 1999) and was tested using AMOS 18. This justified why SEM was employed in the analysis to reconfirm the findings yielded from the multiple regression analysis.

The structural model testing was used in determining the validity of the hypothesized factor model as compared to other underlying plausible factor models based on several fit indices. The chi-square and fit indices were X^2 = 41.4, df = 18, ratio = 2.301, CFI = .96, NFI = .94, RMSEA = .08. The results provided evidence for the distinctiveness of the construct in this study and suggested that common method variance was not responsible between the constructs (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee & Poksakoff, 2003). The above results enabled the researcher to develop the structural model and examined the mediation.

In discussing the results of both analyses, the researcher will first discuss the results of multiple regression analysis. For this analysis, the researcher hypothesized that communication and interaction served as a mediating factor to personality, human resource, culture, social support, family adjustment, previous international experience, ability to speak other languages and training that contribute toward expatriate adjustment. To establish mediation, four conditions were considered based on Baron and Kenny's (1986) proposal. The first was the need to establish a significant relationship between the independent variable (personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment) and the mediating variable (communication and interaction). Secondly, there was a need to establish the relationship between the mediating and dependent variable. Thirdly, there was a need to establish the relationship between independent and dependent variables. Finally, there was a need to establish a significant reduction in the strength of the relationship between the independent variables and the dependent variable once the mediating variable was introduced into the regression equation. If the variance accounted for by the independent variables was reduced to zero, then there was a full mediation and if the magnitude of the relationship decrease, but it was not reduced to zero, then there was partial mediation.

The first step in the equation was to include all independent variables to examine their direct effects on expatriate adjustment. In the second model, communication and interaction was added to the equation to test whether it mediated the effects of independent variable (personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment) on dependent variable.

Tables 4.31a and 4.31b present the results of multiple regression analyses. From Table 4.31a, model 1 revealed that social support (β=.227, t=3.036, p=.00) and family adjustment (β=.198, t=2.707, p=.01) had significant direct relationships with expatriate adjustment. The F value was 3.764 and p<.00. From the model, it could also be seen that 13.4 per cent of variance were explained by personality, human resource support, social support, culture distance, family adjustment, previous international experience, ability to speak other languages and training.

However, when communication and interaction was introduced (Model 2) as a mediating factor in the relationship between independent and dependent variables, the results showed that communication and interaction had a significant direct relationship with expatriate adjustment (β=.591, t=9.668, p=.00). Besides, culture distance (β=.183, t=2.777, p=.01), social support (β=.164, t=2.643, p=.01) and family adjustment (β=.203, t=3.373, p=.00) also demonstrated significant relationship with expatriate adjustment. The relationship between social support and expatriate adjustment also decreased (β=.164, t=2.643, p<.01). Altogether, 28.2 per cent variance in expatriate adjustment were explained by personality, language ability, previous international experience, training, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment. Communication and interaction itself contributed 39.0% variance toward culture, family adjustment and social support. The inclusion also revealed an F value of 15.326 and p<.00.

Table 4.31a
Multiple Regression Analysis for Expatriate Adjustment

Model		B	SE	β	t	Sig.
Step 1 (Model 1)	Personality	.004	.052	.005	.067	.947
	HR	.045	.076	.042	.589	.556
	Culture	.069	.053	.103	1.302	.194
	Social support	.300	.099	.227	3.036	.003
	Family	.090	.033	.198	2.707	.007
	Previous experience	-.131	.106	-.099	-1.235	.218
	Speak other language	.054	.158	.024	.342	.733
	Training	.010	.071	.009	.135	.893
Step 2 (Model 2)	Personality	.008	.043	.011	.191	.849
	HR	-.085	.064	-.080	-1.325	.187
	Culture	.121	.044	.183	2.777	.006
	Social support	.216	.082	.164	2.643	.009
	Family	.093	.027	.203	3.373	.001
	Previous experience	.011	.088	.009	.128	.898
	Speak other language	.015	.130	.007	.119	.906
	Training	-.012	.058	-.011	-.203	.840
	Interaction	.567	.059	.591	9.668	.000

Constant = 2.749 for step 1; .877 for step 2
$R^2 =$ .134 for step 1; $\Delta R^2 =$ .282 for step 2
F=3.764 for step 1; 93.465 for step 2
Degree of Freedom = 202

From the results, it can be said that communication and interaction partially mediated the relationships between independent and dependent variables as the values did not turn to zero. Only culture, social support and family adjustment showed significant relationships with expatriate adjustment. This also suggests that communication and interaction exerted only a relatively small influence on the relationship described above.

Table 4.31b
Multiple Regression Analysis for Expatriate Adjustment

Variable	**Expatriate Adjustment**	
	Model 1	**Model 2**
Step 1		
Social support	.227**	
Family	.198**	
Step 2		
Culture		.183**
Social support		.164**
Family		.203**
Interaction		.591**
Total R^2		
Total Adjusted R^2		
R^2 Change	.134	.282

**p<.01

To sum up, the results of multiple regression analysis demonstrated that: (a) social support and family adjustment showed a direct significant relationship with expatriate adjustment; (b) communication and interaction (mediating) showed a significant relationship with expatriate adjustment; and (c) culture distance, social support and family adjustment demonstrated significant relationships with communication and interaction.

After the multiple regression analysis was conducted, SEM was then employed to further reconfirm the results of multiple regression analysis. Table 4.32 displays the fit indices for independent, mediating and dependent variables. From the constrained path, an acceptable fit was generated: X^2 = 150.67, df = 59, GFI = .91, CFI = .95, NFI = .92, TLI = .93 and RMSEA = .08.

Table 4.32
Fit Indices of All Variables

Model	*df*	$\chi^2(p)$	GFI	CFI	NFI	TLI	RMSEA
personality, human resource, social support, culture, family, communication and interaction and adjustment	59	150.67(0.25)	.91	.95	.92	.93	.08

Note: GFI = goodness-of-fit index; CFI = comparative fit index; NFI = normed fit index; TLI = Tucker Lewis index

Figure 4.11 shows the direct effect scores of independent variables to the mediating variable, independent to dependent and mediating to dependent variable. For the direct effect of independent to mediating, the scores were: personality (β=.12, $p<.01$); human resource support (β=.13, $p<.01$); social support (β=.09, $p<.01$); culture distance (β=.57, $p<.01$) and family adjustment (β=.16, $p<.01$). The score from mediating to dependent was β=.25 at $p<.01$. On the other hand, the direct effect of independent to dependent variable showed the values of personality (β=.06, $p<.01$), human resource support (β=.21, $p<.01$), social support (β=.15, $p<.01$), culture distance (β=.09, $p<.01$) and family adjustment (β=.07, $p<.01$). The direct effect of independent on dependent with mediator showed that values for personality, culture and family seemed to decrease but did not turn to zero and suggested only partial mediation of the model. This is consistent with Hu and Bentler's (1999) guidelines. Based from the model, personality, human resource support, culture distance and family adjustment together contributed 52.3 per cent of variance in mediating and dependent variables.

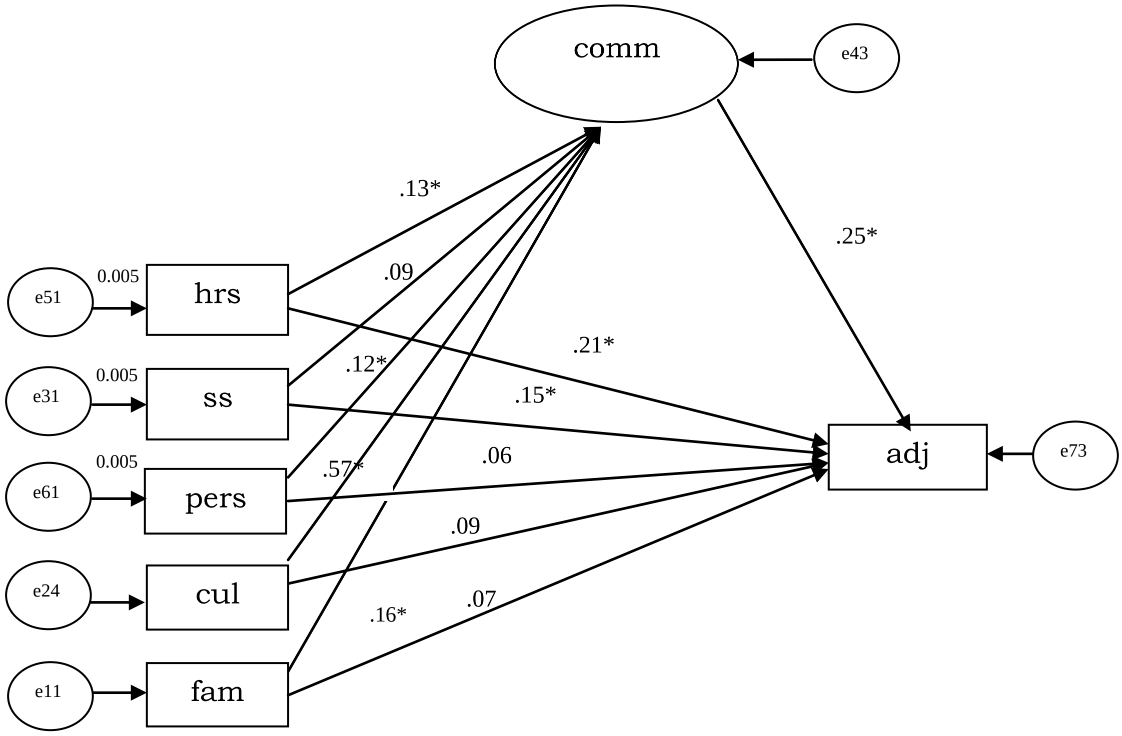

Figure 4.11: Path coefficient for mediation model. Path coefficients are standardized regression coefficients. Significance level at p<.01.
hrs = human resource support; ss = social support, pers = personality; cul = culture; fam = family.

In sum, SEM analysis suggests that: (a) human resource support and social support demonstrated a significant direct effect with expatriate adjustment; (b) personality, human resource support, culture distance and family adjustment revealed significant direct effects with communication and interaction; and (c) communication and interaction had a significant direct effect with expatriate adjustment and it also mediated the relationship between personality, human resource support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

4.11 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter discussed the detail analysis beginning with the detail description of the profile of respondents, descriptive statistics of the variables, response bias and variable correlations. In examining the normality of the data, the discussion began with a section on missing data, detection of outliers and normality tests which included the pictorial representation of the data distribution of metric variables. The skewness and kurtosis values were also discussed besides multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity. Besides that, the reliability and validity scores (factor analysis) were also discussed in detail. The final part of the chapter covered the discussion on hypothesis testing and findings.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

5.1 Introduction

This final chapter concludes what had been discussed in the previous chapters. It comprises a number of separate sections, beginning with the recapitulation of the study where the purposes and objectives of the study are revisited. This is then followed by the discussions on findings and later followed by the implications of the study. Recommendations for future research are also offered before the chapter concludes.

5.2 Overview of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the mediating effects of communication and interaction on personality, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment in the context of Malaysian hotel industry. It also tried to identify the determinants of expatriate adjustment. The conceptual model hypothesized direct relationships between all the variables and also indirect relationships between previous international experience, personality, ability to speak foreign languages, training, human resource, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment as mediated by communication and interaction.

The study hoped to achieve five objectives. The first was to investigate the differences (if any) in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs. Specifically, it tried to look at the differences in the adjustment of these expatriates to Malaysian environment and if they differed, in which area(s) of adjustment. The second objective was to identify the differences in adjustment among expatriates from different regions. A comparison was made to see if expatriates from different cultural background (based on the seven continents of the world), adjust differently to the culture. In the third objective, the research hoped to investigate the relationship between individual, organizational and non-work factors and expatriate adjustment. The individual factors were made up of previous international experience, personality and ability to speak languages other than one's own. Organizational factors on the other hand, were comprised of training, human resource support and social support. Meanwhile, nonwork factors were made up of culture distance and family adjustment. If objective three was met, this led to the fourth objective, which tried to identify the most influential predictors of expatriate adjustment. The final objective aimed at identifying whether communication and interaction mediated the relationship between previous international experience, personality, ability to speak foreign languages, training, human resource, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

The study involved expatriates attached to the Malaysian hotel industry. Three hundred and twenty three expatriates working in hotel industry in Peninsular Malaysia were identified for the present study. A total of 400 self-administered questionnaires were distributed through a drop and collect method. The data collection process took almost three and a half months to complete as the researcher collected the data based on the regions (i.e. Langkawi, Penang, Kuala Lumpur and Selangor and the eastern and southern states of Peninsular Malaysia). The return rate was acceptable, where two hundred and forty one expatriates completed and returned the questionnaires, making the respond rates of 75 per cent. Only 203 usable data were analyzed.

Results of the *t*-test confirmed that response bias was not present in this study. Univariate/descriptive analysis was used to test the frequency distributions, mean scores and SDs of the variables. Before the hypotheses were tested, various tests, including statistical and graphical were administered to assess at the normality of the data. These were important to ensure its correspondence to the normal distribution, which was the benchmark for statistical methods. Tests of multicollinearity, linearity and homoscedasticity were also conducted for that purpose. This was then followed by the tests of reliability and validity. All these were important before the hypotheses testing.

The data was initially analyzed using the descriptive statistics to look at the frequency of distributions, mean scores and standard deviations of each variable. Two statistical procedures were used in testing whether differences exist between group means. *T*-test, as well as the ANOVA were used to compare the means between two variables and when the number of groups involved was more than two. Thus, hypotheses 1 and 2 were analyzed using this method. Hypotheses 3, 4 and 5 called for the use of multivariate analysis, specifically the multiple regression analysis. Even though Pearson Correlations could also be used to test the relationships between independent and dependent variables, the multiple regression was more preferred as it contributed to a more rigor analysis of the relationship between variables. In supporting the findings from Hypothesis 5, SEM was used to compliment the results obtained from the multiple regression analysis.

5.3 Discussions

Before further analysis took place, an FA was conducted on each of the variables under study. Even though the results of the FA with satisfactory loading produced the right dimensions for all variables, the items however, were not loaded as in the original instrument. This had been highlighted in Chapter 4. The present research however, disregards the item loading and proceeds with the classification provided in the original instruments.

From the profile of the respondents, it can be seen that most expatriates were below 40, male, educated and married, with accompanying spouse. Most of them came from European countries and hold managerial positions in the hotel. From this we can see that the trend of expatriation is changing as more young, educated people are either sent by parent companies (OEs) or initiated their own travel (SIEs). As Myers and Pringle (2005) suggest, today, expatriation is predominantly undertaken by the younger, educated generation who likes to explore the world and experience new cultures. Siljanen and Lämsä (2009) describe this group of expatriates as global careerists. Even though family is seen as one of the factors that could affect expatriate adjustment, a large group of expatriates in this study brought their family with them. Even though in some studies (i.e. Richardson & Mallon, 2005) OEs claimed that family limits their choice of countries, expatriation is still seen as an incentive (i.e. broaden family experience) to them. For SIEs, expatriation with family is seen as an opportunity for the spouse and kids to travel, experience different cultures and broaden family experiences. For both groups, Richardson and Mallon (2005) suggest that bringing family along can be a source of encouragement.

Respondents' analysis also revealed that a majority of the expatriates came from European countries. Most of the respondents surveyed also claimed that they hold various managerial positions at the hotel, ranging from GM, Chef Executive, Chief Finance Officer, Chief Operating Officer, F & B Manager and Chef. This is consistent with the discussion on the needs for foreign expertise to be recruited or transferred from parent companies to a new location provided earlier which suggests that the need arises due to the shortage of skilled-workers in the industry and the expatriates' know-how which was mostly critical at the senior management level.

Of all the total number of expatriates surveyed, most were SIEs. This also fits the recent and changing trend in expatriation whereby individuals were more interested in taking charge of their career trajectories without the direct support of an organization (Carr, Kerr & Thorn, 2005). The higher percentage of SIEs also supports Myers and Pringle (2005) claim that this group of expatriates has now formed a larger and even more potent global labor market segment than OEs. A larger segment of the respondents had been in Malaysia between one and two years, which are the normal duration of the assignment and expatriation in hotel industry. A vast majority of the respondents had been on foreign assignments more than twice and they were able to speak foreign languages very fluently. They also admitted to be able to speak Bahasa Malaysia although with limited ability (short and simple phrases). A majority claimed to have had no training of any sort prior to expatriation. But even without training, almost all of them admitted that they did not have problems adjusting to Malaysian culture. They claimed that it took them less than six months to adjust to the culture. Interestingly, this contradicts some research findings which suggest the importance of training in expatriate adjustment (Causin et al., 2011; Mohd. Tahir & Ismail, 2007;

Selmer, 2006b; Selmer, Chiu & Shenkar, 2007; Warneke & Schneider, 2011). It can be argued that training, in this case, was not the matter as most of the expatriates (either OEs or SIEs) had had experience working and being in other countries prior to expatriation. As discussed in the SLT, past experience helps expatriates to anticipate and learn about life in a foreign country. This in turn, helps them to adjust to the present culture. Beside the experience the ability to speak BM even though with limited ability could have also contributed to their adjustment. The ability can help them to communicate with the people of the host country and this determines the amount of information regarding the country and the culture they can obtain. The more they are involved in communication the better they understand the people and the culture of the host country and this will help facilitate their adjustment.

Results obtained from the descriptive statistics revealed the correlations of each variable. Personality, communication and interaction, social support and family adjustment were positively correlated to adjustment. This means that the more positive the expatriates' personality, the better their communication and interaction with host, the more support they received from supervisors and co-workers and the better their family adjusts, the better the adjustment of the expatriates. Of all four variables, communication and interaction revealed the strongest correlations to adjustment. This relates to Holopainen and Bjorkman (2005) suggestion that the more positive the expatriates toward communication with hosts, the better they can understand the people and the culture. Thus, when they are more adjusted in their interaction with local people, the better they perform in the new environment. Human resource support and culture distance however, did not correlate to adjustment. From this, it can be said that expatriates in hotel industry did not regard the support as important to their adjustment as the basic needs (i.e. accommodation and transportation) are usually available at the hotel facility. Culture distance on the other hand, did not seem to be so much of a problem as most of them had been on foreign assignments before and the exposures they had could have helped them to anticipate what would be in the new culture. Certainly, this could contribute toward their learning of a new cultural environment.

Meanwhile, communication and interaction and family adjustment showed positive correlations to personality. This suggests that the better the expatriates communicate and interact with the local people, the more positive their attitude toward the local people. In addition, the better their family adjust to the local culture, the better the attitude of the expatriates toward the new culture. Human resource support, culture distance and social support on the other hand, did not show any correlation with personality.

Besides that, it was also found that human resource support, culture distance, social support and family adjustment were all correlated positively with communication and interaction. This reveals that the more support expatriates receive from the organizations, the more social support they receive at work from both supervisors and co-workers and the better the family adjust, the more positive the expatriates will be toward communicating and interacting with people of the host culture. Besides, the more similar the home and host cultures, the more willing they are to communicate and interact with local people. Drawing from that, it can be concluded that the willingness of the expatriates to communicate and interact with local people depends much on human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment. Apart from that, culture distance, social support and family adjustment were positively correlated to human resource support. This suggests that the larger the distance between the home and the host cultures, the more human resource support they will need. In addition, the better the support system the expatriates receive from supervisors and co-workers, the more human resource supports are provided to them, the better they adjust. Hence, the family will also adjust better if more human resource supports are provided especially in terms of spousal employment.

Social support and family adjustment were also found to be positively correlated to culture distance. This means that expatriates will expect less social support from organizations if the culture distance between the home and the host cultures are smaller. As described in UCT and SLT, expatriates will not encounter great problems if they enter a culture which is similar to their own and thus, do not need much support to help them adjust to the new culture. In other words, less social support is expected if culture distance between the home and the host cultures is smaller. In addition, family adjustment was also correlated to culture distance. This implies that the family will be very well adjusted if the home and host cultures are similar. The relationships of these variables are consistent with UCT and SLT and in fact with stress coping theories which suggest that successful adjustment during culture transition will be easier when smaller cultural distance exists between home and host cultures. Expatriates will require less social support and the learning process will not be that complicated during the adjustment period. Finally, family adjustment was also correlated with social support. This implies that the expatriate's family will succeed in their adjustment if they also receive more social support from the organization. By this it means, if the organization (parent company and/or foreign facility) provides them enough support, this will assist them in their adjustment process. In the case of expatriate's family social support may not be in the work-related form but the support extended to the expatriate could also relate to spouse adjustment. Well-adjusted expatriates affect their family positively.

Of all the variables, family adjustment was found to be the only variable that had shown positive correlations with all other variables. The results suggest the importance of family adjustment in expatriate adjustment. Not just that, the variable was also important in determining the expatriate personality and the expatriate's willingness to learn about the new culture and to communicate and interact with the locals. It was also linked to human resource support, culture distance and social support.

In discussing the research findings, the discussion will first focus on the results of Hypothesis 1, which deals with the differences (if any) in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs. Surprisingly, the result suggests no significant difference in the adjustment pattern between the two groups of expatriates. That means, the two groups of expatriates in hotel industry do not differ in their adjustment to Malaysian culture. Even without the support from parent companies, SIEs have proven that they are still able to learn, adjust and adapt to the lives in the new culture. This could be due to their ability to learn and cope with the new environment, together with their perception of the facilities available in the country. As SIEs initiate their own travel, they can be more open about the new culture and more motivated to explore the culture without having to depend much on the organization. The results clearly contradict previous findings by Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) which found that OEs and SIEs differ in their adjustment, specifically in general and interaction adjustments. The results can be explained in two ways. First, empirical studies conducted within the context of hotel industry have generally suggested that emphasis placed on certain skills and competencies may not completely conform to the more generic skills proposed in general expatriation literature. For example, for the OEs, they seem to have no adjustment problem as those in hotel industry usually possess the most desirable attributes such as people skills, adaptability, flexibility, emotional security, language ability, cultural sensitivity, interpersonal skills, functional and technical skills and international motivation (Kriegl, 2000; Shay & Tracey, 1997). Only a small percentage of these expatriates admitted that they had had some sorts of training prior to the move to Malaysia, but interestingly, more than 90 per cent of them reported that they had experience working abroad before coming to Malaysia. In fact, most claimed they had been on foreign assignments more than twice. Of the expatriates sent by parent companies, only a few had some sort of training prior to expatriation. This suggests that training do not play an important role in expatriate adjustment but previous experience that they had could have helped them in adjusting to Malaysian culture. The international nature of the hospital industry, coupled with the experience that these expatriates had, could have served as a buffer toward their adjustment in the country.

On the other hand, it is known that SIEs made their own decision to move and work abroad. They perceived their overseas experience as a means of self-development or part of some other personal agenda. Their main aim was not at achieving specific company goals but about exploring new cultures and looking for new opportunities.

The motivations would have enabled them to easily explore the new environment. The interaction and possible formation of social relationships with Malaysian could have allowed SIEs to gain insights into cultural norms, facilitating further interaction with the hosts. With the self-motivation and willingness to venture a new life abroad, SIEs would also face less adjustment problem in the country.

Taken together, the pattern of adjustment of the two groups of expatriates should be taken into consideration in conceptual and empirical accounts of research in expatriation. In the past, research on expatriates mainly examined expatriates as a group, without differentiating the two (OEs and SIEs). Despite the notable differences that exist (e.g. Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000), only limited research were found to focus on SIEs. This could possibly lead to misleading empirical results since very little is known about the pattern of adjustment of SIEs as the differences between the two have not been widely researched. Only recently research on SIEs has begun to highlight on the emerging distinction between the two groups of expatriates. One of the reasons that could explain this is that we began to realize that globalization has allowed for rapid movement of SIEs and their numbers are now increasing. Besides, scholars have begun to recognize the added value that SIEs could bring to the individual's career capital (Inkson & Myers, 2003).

The second hypothesis hoped to identify whether expatriates from different region adjust differently to Malaysian environment. As the results revealed, there was a significant different in the pattern of adjustment among expatriates from different regions. The results also showed that there were differences in adjustment of those originating from North America and Asia as compared to those from European countries, and between those from Australia/New Zealand region as compared to those from North America and Asia.

The results suggest that region or country of origin, which also relate to culture distance contributes toward expatriate adjustment. As can be seen from the results, North American expatriates showed a different pattern of adjustment as compared to those from Asia. This could be linked to the description of low- and high-context culture proposed by Hall (1977). North America was known to belong to the low-context culture, whereas Asia belongs to the high-context culture. Interestingly, Malaysia is located in Asia and is categorized as a high-context culture, where meaning is derived from experiences and assumptions through a less direct verbal and nonverbal communication. Asians are similar and they share almost the same values and this could have led the expatriates from Asia to adjust easier and faster to Malaysian culture. The descriptions of the impact of culture similarities in UCT and SLT, together with the categorization of low- and high-context cultures could have contributed to the difference in adjustment between expatriates from the two regions. As someone from a low-context culture, the North American values and norms could have contradicted the values and norms of Asians and the differences in their adjustment.

The result also revealed that expatriates from North America and Asia adjust differently than those from European countries. From the literature, European expatriates were known to adjust better than American expatriates. Even though the two countries were classified as "western" countries, but the attitudes, the way they view expatriation and other cultures could have been different and this had been translated into the differences in their pattern of adjustment. As described earlier in the chapter about how expatriates from North America are referred to as "ugly Americans" due to their tendency to remain in the "expatriate bubble", this too could have contributed to the differences in their adjustment. Apart from European, expatriates from North America and Asia are also different in their adjustment as compared to those from Australia/New Zealand region. Even though the Australian/New Zealand region is mainly comprised of Caucasians, where the values and norms differ but the close distance between Asia, especially SEA and Australian/New Zealand regions, as well as the distance between the region and Malaysia, could also contribute toward the differences in their adjustment.

Obviously, the differences in cultures of the world had contributed toward the pattern of adjustment among expatriates. This fits Hofstede's dimensions of cultures, where he describes about uncertainty-avoidance. The dimension suggests that members of a culture accept and tolerate ambiguous situations differently. Those coming from a culture with high uncertainty-avoidance appear to be anxiety prone and prefer to devote more energy in trying to beat the situation. The notion of cultures proposed by Hall and Hofstede and the suggestion made by the theories that the adjustment to a new culture environment will be different from one expatriate to the other can help explain the differences. Besides, the theories also contend that without motivation, the learning process as well as the adaption could be difficult.

Even though Selmer (2006b) argued on the notion that culture distance could pose difficulties in adjustment and questioned about the relevancy of SLT in explaining about the difficulty faced by an expatriate to adjust in a foreign location, the findings from this study were consistent with many of previous literature that expatriates from different region adjust differently to a new cultural environment and the factors that contribute to their failure also differ (Causin et al., 2011). Previous findings often reported that American expatriates often faced difficulties adjusting to the country of assignment leading to a premature return to the home country (Black 1988; Scullion, 1995; Naumann, 1992; Tung, 1981 & 1982; Williams et al., 2010). For example, a study by Tung (1982) indicates that 16 per cent to 40 per cent of expatriates from America did not successfully make the transition and return prematurely due to various reasons such as the inability of both the expatriates and the spouse to adjust. Even though Japanese expatriates also faced difficulty in adjusting themselves to a new cultural environment, their reasons however, were more related to work adjustment (Causin et al., 2011).

Although there has been a number of research that look at the influence of country of origin on expatriate adjustment, the finding of this research is unique as it focuses on how expatriates from different countries of origin adjust themselves to a heterogeneous culture as compared to past studies that looked at expatriate adjustment a homogeneous society. For example, Causin et al. (2011) claimed that they studied expatriates from multiple regions working in a homogenous culture but in their study, they simply described the country of origin of the expatriates but their main focus of the study was the management style of expatriates from different region. The findings from this study came out as expected as various literature had suggested that if expatriates originate from a country that is culturally similar to the country of assignment, they will be more successful in adjusting to the culture but if the culture distance between the home and the host are greater, difficulty in adjusting is expected.

Mendenhall and Oddou's (1985) research conformed to the notion that cultural distance between home and host cultures plays an important role in successful expatriation. Nonetheless, the importance of culture awareness and motivation to learn with an open mind has been proven in this study.

Meanwhile, previous international experience (individual factor), social support (organizational factor) and family adjustment (nonwork factor) have shown significant positive relationships with expatriate adjustment. This means that the more experience the expatriates have, the more social support they receive and the better their family adjust, the more successful the expatriate adjustment will be. The variables prove to play influential roles in expatriate adjustment. Previous international experience helps expatriate with the current assignment in a way that it helps provide expatriates with accurate expectations regarding social, physical, cultural and lifestyle aspects of a foreign country. This in turn helps expatriates in their learning process about the new culture. The results are consistent with Black et al. (1992a) who suggest that the more experience expatriates have with other cultures, the more they can use it in adapting to the various challenges in the new country. Social support from supervisors and co-workers, on the other hand, can help expatriates to deal with work adjustment, especially the stress in the new work place, work culture and work-related issues in the new office environment. The advice and support provided by supervisors and co-workers provide expatriates with information pertaining to work and people of the host culture. Additionally, family adjustment is important as it will affect the overall expatriate's adjustment (general, interaction and work) (Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011; Selmer & Lauring, 2011). For instance, if the family is adjusted, the expatriate can focus and manage their work effectively but if they are not, it could be difficult for the expatriates to focus on their job, which is the main reason for expatriation.

The results corroborate the findings of a great deal of the previous work in expatriation management. Mendenhall and Wiley's (1994) suggestion that previous experience is able to provide expatriates with correct information and expectations concerning the new cultural environment are therefore acceptable in explaining the significant relationship emerged from the present study. Social support has also been found to be positively associated with adjustment and it is consistent with the studies by Black et al. (1991) and Shaffer et al. (1999). Even though in their studies, the scholars looked at expatriates in other industries (i.e. manufacturing), it is believed that social support is not industry specific or differ across cultures as everyone needs advice and support from other people in order to perform successfully. The supports at work, especially from superiors and subordinates help provide emotional strength to the expatriate. The willingness of these people to listen and be supportive of him or her could motivate the expatriates in terms of their work. It can also provide the expatriates with information on how to behave when in contact with host nationals. Shaffer et al. (1999) also found that social support from co-workers and subordinates had the strongest influence on expatriate adjustment. Besides, the significant relationship between family adjustment and expatriate adjustment suggest a consistent finding with previous research (Arthur & Bennet, 1995; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Makela et al., 2011; Selmer & Lauring, 2011; Shay & Tracey, 1997) which found a significant correlation between the variables. The ability of the spouse and children to adjust themselves to the new environment helps the expatriates to have more psychological comfort and hence, enhance an expatriate's productivity, performance and morale as well as their intent to stay (Webb, 1996).

The UCT suggests that the second stage of adjustment was very critical. This is a period of irritability, frustration and confusion about people and culture (general and work) of the host country. The feeling of alienation and frustration could lead the expatriates to fall into cultural stereotype where they begin to compare the home and the host cultures. This is where previous experience, social support and family adjustment and support would prove to be influential in helping the expatriates to make sense and adjust to the new environment. The degree of difficulty to adjust depends greatly upon the motivations to learn, the support they received from those at work and their family and expectations prior to foreign assignment (derived from previous international experience). The finding is obviously consistent with the two theories which suggest that motivations and expectations are crucial in determining the success and failure of adjustment.

Contrary to expectations, personality, language ability, training, human resource support and culture distance did not show any significant relationship with expatriate adjustment. This shows that the variables did not determine the adjustment of expatriates in the hotel industry. Since Black proposed the concept of adjustment in 1988, scholars and practitioners supported the idea that these variables determine successful expatriation. However, the roles of these variables are not supported in this study. For example, even though previous research (McGrath-Champ & Yang, 2002; Porter & Tansky, 1996; Tung, 1981; 1987) had proven that the lack of cultural preparedness and training was considered to be the causes of expatriate failures, it could be argued that the majority of these research had been conducted on expatriates other than in hotel industry, especially manufacturing (Linehan & Scullion, 2001; Shen & Darby, 2006) and most research by Black and colleagues, 1991, 1992a, 1992b). Black and Mendenhall (1990) indicate in their research that some companies believe that training cannot do much to resolve the various issue associated with expatriate assignments.

In the case of expatriation in Malaysia, language is not a problem because most working Malaysians are able to communicate in English, regardless of race and ethnic. This is especially true as a study by Lim (2001) proved that Malaysians, especially those involved in the business sector, are fluent in English language. This is different than expatriates attached to hotel industry in a homogenous culture like Taiwan, China and Japan where in these countries, people mostly speak the native language (i.e. Mandarin, Cantonese or Japanese) in their daily interactions. Additionally, Malaysian culture is also regarded as "friendly" especially with regard to food, entertainment and health care facilities as foods from different regions of the world are almost available everywhere and entertainment and medical care are easily accessible.

Most importantly, the results yielded findings that are inconsistent and contradictory to past research (Black et al., 1992a, 1992b; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Lee & Sukoco, 2008; Silajanen & Lämsä, 2009) which suggest positive relationships between these variables and expatriate adjustment. This can be explained in two ways: (1) previous research mainly looked at different set of respondents from industries other than hotel, where characteristics of expatriates and nature of business are different; and (2) previous research also studied mainly expatriates from a single country of origin, located in a homogeneous culture. As compared to the present study, the respondents and the contexts had proven to be different.

The development in the industry has also attracted more foreigners to initiate their own travel and work in the industry (SIEs). As discussed earlier in this section, since they initiate their own travel, their attitude and views toward other cultures could be different than those of other industries. And even though they are sent by parent companies (OEs), expatriates in this industry possess different characteristics than those of other industries. For example, the industry itself requires someone who possesses people skills, adaptability, flexibility, emotional maturity, international motivation, intercultural competencies, adaptive leadership and ability to work with limited resources (Kriegl, 2000; Shay & Tracy, 1997) as their work requires them to meet with people of different characteristics and cultures. Moreover, expatriates in this industry are also mobile as their assignment usually takes between two and three years. The experience they have by being in other cultures have helped them to anticipate what will be in a new culture and thus, help them to adjust to a new culture. The study supports past claim (Causin et al., 2011) that generic skills proposed in general expatriation literature are not appropriate for expatriates in this industry.

The results obtained from this study also prove that generalizations over factors that contribute toward expatriate adjustment are inappropriate as hotel expatriates differ from those of other industries in their adjustment. Though expatriates in the study proved that they adjust differently to the new culture, the factors that facilitate their adjustment differ from expatriates in other disciplines based on the argument presented earlier. Thus, this study rejects the claims and overgeneralizations made by past studies.

Besides that, it is also revealed that social support and family adjustment are the most influential predictors of hotel expatriate adjustment. Other variables (personality, human resource, culture, previous international experience, ability to speak languages other than their own and training) however, do not predict the adjustment. The results suggest that social support and family adjustment are extremely important and should be taken into consideration in assisting expatriates to adjust to the new cultural environment. This can also be used to relate to Lee and Sukoco (2008) work which emphasizes that expatriates do not only need supports from those at work, but family adjustment is also extremely important in order to increase the likelihood of successful expatriation.

From the above findings, it is obvious that generalization of findings across disciplines is therefore inappropriate. As earlier suggested, there has been a notable tendency in the literature to attempt to identify a universal set of competencies and skills that can be expected to apply to the majority of expatriates across jobs and industries around the world. The present findings suggest that different regions of the world and different expatriate jobs require different emphasis on certain skills than others. For example, Kriegl's (2000) study found that expatriates in hotel industry should possess among others, cultural sensitivity, good interpersonal skills, flexibility, intercultural competencies, ability to work with limited resources as well as interest functional and technical skills. This is consistent with Causin et al.'s (2011) who argued that expatriates from different industries require certain skills which could be different from those in other industries. They contend that within the context of hotel industry, the emphasis place on certain skills and competencies may not completely conform to the more generic skills proposed in general expatriation literature. Personality for example, has been tested against expatriate adjustment in numerous research (Caligiuri, 2000; Gist & Mitchell, 1992; Hechanova et al., 2003; Parker & McEvoy, 1993) and has been found to predict and affect expatriate adjustment especially in terms of general living conditions, working environment and interaction with host nationals. As results of the present research do not support previous findings on how personality affects expatriate adjustment, this proves that the factors predicting and facilitating expatriate adjustment cannot simply be generalized across industries as expatriates in hotel industry could have been more exposed to different cultures as well as to communicating with people from diverse cultures as they meet people of diverse cultures all the time (i.e. hotel guests).

In all, the findings from Hypotheses 3 and 4 revealed the importance of previous international experience, social support and family adjustment in determining and predicting expatriate adjustment. Evidently, this supports findings from previous studies conducted across disciplines and job sectors (Albrecht & Adelman, 1987; Kraimer & Wayne, 2004; Lauring & Selmer, 2010) which suggest that support provided by the organization, supervisor, those at work and family would be particularly important to expatriates. For example, the adjustment and support from accompanying spouse was a great source of support and encouragement for the expatriate. Therefore, organizational support, particularly social support and family adjustment should be taken seriously by organizations and expatriates themselves when considering expatriation as these are main predictors of adjustment.

Evidently, besides the contradicting results found in the determinants of adjustment among expatriates in hotel industry, another important contribution of the present study was the results yielded from multiple regression analysis and SEM which explored the role of communication and interaction in mediating the relationship between the personality, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment. As specified in Chapter One, there has been very limited study in the past that explored the role of communication and interaction as a mediating variable in the relationship with expatriate adjustment. Even though the results from the multiple regression analysis showed that social support and family adjustment had direct relationships with expatriate adjustment, a rigor analysis by SEM revealed different results. The analysis showed that social support and human resource support had direct relationships with expatriate adjustment. Results from both analyses showed that social support was the only variable which had a direct relationship with expatriate adjustment. This was consistent with previous studies which reported the direct influence of social support on the level of adjustment (Black et al., 1991; Johnson et al., 2003; Pinder & Schroeder, 1987). This suggests that social support from supervisor and subordinates are important in determining the expatriate's level of adjustment.

In comparing the results of the two analyses, family adjustment and human resource support had also been found to be important determinants of expatriate adjustment. Previous research had shown the link of the two variables and expatriate adjustment. Research by Black (1988) pioneered the findings which suggest the importance of family adjustment in determining the success or failure of expatriate adjustment. The results also emphasize that family adjustment and human resource support are relevant determinants which should be taken into consideration by all types of industries when sending or hosting expatriates. Beside family, human resource support (i.e. salary, bonuses, perks, accommodation in home and host while on assignment, schooling for children, etc.) are also important in determining the success of expatriate adjustment. Family adjustment and human resource support are related in the sense that human resource support also involves the support for expatriate's family (i.e. home for the family, spouse's career and schooling for children). A number of research (Harvey, 1995, 1996; Suutari & Tornikoski, 2001; Warneke & Schneider, 2011) looked at the compensation packages for expatriates acknowledged the issue and its importance. The results obtained from the study will enable companies to adapt expatriation packages to the expatriates needs. This can help saving the administrative and bargaining costs without exasperating future and present expatriates.

In looking at the direct relationship with the mediating variable, social support, family adjustment and culture distance showed a direct effect with communication and interaction. With a more rigorous analysis, SEM, except social support, human resource support, personality, culture distance and family adjustment showed a direct relationship with communication and interaction. It also implies that these variables are important in determining successful communication and interaction with people in the host country. For example, expatriates with positive attitude will have the ability to tolerate pressure of the host environment, and at the same time enable them to communicate and interact well with host nationals and maintain good relationships with them. From both analyses, it can be seen that only culture distance and family adjustment seemed to consistently exhibit direct effects with communication and interaction.

Finally, the results of both analyses consistently exhibit the direct relationship between communication and interaction and expatriate adjustment. This was consistent with previous findings (see for example, Lee & Sukoco, 2008; Black 1990b; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985) which suggest the importance of communication in helping expatriates to adjust to the new cultural environment. Willingness to communicate and communication with hosts can help these expatriates to gain better understanding of the host culture. The more the expatriate gets involved in communication with the host, the better the person can adjust because communication and interaction will help the expatriates to build and maintain good relationships with local people. Thus, when expatriates have adjusted in their interaction with the locals, the better they perform (Holopainen & Bjorkman, 2005).

In the overall, the findings of the study revealed that the expatriates in the hotel industry did not show the pattern of adjustment suggested by the UCT, as most of the expatriates in this study claimed that it took them six months or less to get adjusted to Malaysian culture. The UCT suggests that expatriates usually take between six and twelve months before they can actually reach the adjustment stage. In this sense, the present findings seem to contradict the theory of adjustment in terms of time taken for the expatriates to adjust. However, the findings seem to support both UCT and SLT in terms of the supporting elements during the process of adjustment and what is required during the learning process and where communication fits during that process. Results from the present study contradict past findings in terms of variables that determine expatriate adjustment. Only previous international experience, social support and family adjustment exhibit positive relationships with expatriate adjustment. This could probably be explained by: (1) the nature of expatriates attached to the industry, which is more open to foreign cultures as most of them had been on previous international assignment or had worked in foreign countries before; (2) the nature of the job that the expatriates do, which requires them to meet and communicate with people and be more open and flexible with the environment help them in their adjustment; (3) the skills needed by different groups of expatriates, where the same variable, when tested on different groups of expatriates, could yield different findings. The determining and inhibiting factors of adjustment could not be generalized as different groups of expatriates (different industry) are motivated by different variables; and (4) Malaysian culture itself where Malaysia is composed of a multicultural society where people are more open to and tolerant of those from different cultural background. Besides, the culture in general (i.e. language, food, entertainment, health care, transportation, etc.) can easily be accessed and adapted to. English is widely spoken, foods from all over the world are easily available and so do transportation and medical treatment. Language, as pointed out by Adler, Doktor and Redding (1986) is an important mediator of culture and in the case of Malaysia, as English language is widely spoken as a second language (Schermerhorn, Jr. & Bond, 1997), it helps the expatriates to communicate and interact with Malaysians in their daily activities and hence, help them to quickly adjust to the culture. In all, these elements—previous experience and Malaysian culture in general could have contributed to a faster adjustment toward Malaysian culture.

The discussions presented above indicate that all the hypotheses have been tested and research questions are answered. By this, it means that the objectives of the study have been achieved. Once again, the findings reveal that in hotel industry:

1. OEs and SIEs do not differ in their adjustment;
2. Regions do contribute to differences in adjustment;
3. Previous international experience, social support and family adjustment determine expatriate adjustment;
4. Social support and family adjustment are the strongest predictors of expatriate adjustment; and
5. Communication and interaction partially mediates the relationships between personality, human resource support, social support, culture distance and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment.

5.4 Implications of the Study

The findings from the present research have great implications on knowledge of theories and practices. These pertain to the added value of the study in terms of what is new to the body of knowledge and how the study relates to the theories and how it can be applied by concerned parties. Thus, this section will be devoted in discussing the implications of the study, which will describe in two separate subsections, theoretical and practical.

5.4.1 Theoretical Implications

The findings of the present study have certainly contributed toward the literature on adjustment in several ways. Firstly, reviews of the literature had shown that research on expatriate adjustment mostly looked at a limited variable such as personality, communication and interaction, human resource support or family adjustment. The present research took further efforts in conducting much thorough investigation on all variables (except work role) that could possibly affect expatriate adjustment. Previous international experience, social support and family adjustment were found to be significantly related to adjustment. Social support and family adjustment have also shown to be the strongest predictors to expatriate adjustment.

This study provides empirical knowledge that integrates the information on determinants of adjustment and strongest predictors to adjustment by developing and testing multilevel modeling using SEM. The results obtained also provide support for the hypothesized relationships in the model. In multiple regression analysis, social support and family adjustment had shown to have significant direct effects with expatriate adjustment but with the role of communication and interaction as a mediator variable, social support, culture and family adjustment seemed to show indirect effects on adjustment. With SEM, the research found that only human resource support and social support had direct effects with expatriate adjustment. Communication and interaction was identified as a mediator in the relationships between human resource support, personality, culture and family adjustment and expatriate adjustment. But of all, analysis of SEM revealed that only human resource support had direct effects with both, dependent and mediating variables. This also suggests the link between the independent variables and expatriate adjustment that exist directly and indirectly through communication and interaction. The overall findings have substantial implications for advancing research on the role of mediating variables on expatriate adjustment.

Secondly, the findings also provide important implications from the mediation effects of communication practices on the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Even though there has been research on expatriate adjustment that looked at the mediator effects, but thus far, research that looked at the role of communication and interaction in mediating the relationship between independent variable(s) and expatriate adjustment are very limited. This provides a new finding to the literature on expatriate adjustment.

The results of the study had proven to contribute to a new empirical findings to the literature on expatriation as: (1) there had been very minimal literature on research focusing specifically on expatriates in hotel industry and looked at the adjustment of OEs and SIEs at the same time; (2) it was conducted in a multicultural environment, heterogeneous population as compared to previous studies which were mostly conducted in a homogeneous society such as in Taiwan, Japan or China. This helped contribute to findings different than what literatures had discussed; and (3) the respondents of the study represented 21 nationalities of the seven continents of the world, suggesting that their experiences can be applicable to a wide range of people living and working in Malaysia. It is believed that SIEs report that they experience no problem adjusting to Malaysian culture can also hold in other countries. Most importantly, the findings from the present study had shown an inconsistency in terms of time taken to adjust to a new cultural environment suggested by the UCT (expatriates in hotel industry located in a heterogeneous culture took less than six months to adjust themselves to Malaysian culture).

In conclusion, the findings of this research contribute to and support the expatriate literature in several ways. First, it confirms past research by providing supports for the importance of human resource support, social support, personality, culture difference and family adjustment in expatriate adjustment. Second, it also extends previous research by providing empirical evidence to suggest that the relationship between personality, human resource support, culture distance and family adjustment is mediated by communication and interaction. The findings support the call made by Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer and Luk (2005) on the need for more research on the significance of communication and interaction in determining expatriate success and those that focusing on understanding intercultural interactions and capturing the complexity of communication and interaction abroad. Third, the results of this research also extends the literature on expatriation by exploring further on SIEs and looking at the difference in adjustment pattern between OEs and SIEs. The result of the present research, though contradicts the research by Peltokorpi and Froese (2009), has certainly contributed to the new knowledge in expatriation.

5.4.2 Practical Implications

Apart from theoretical implications, the present research also provides practical implications. First, the study reveals that a large number of hotels in Malaysia are employing SIEs as another source of labor. Globalization has obviously changed the trend of expatriation from the traditional expatriation – sent by parent companies, to self-initiated traveling. Political and economic stabilities of countries around the world have enabled for more people to move and work abroad. The higher number of SIEs reported in the study has shown that companies around the world has changed their focus on hiring SIEs as a source of labor. This is consistent with research by Suutari and Brewster (2000) which had strategically addressed the issue of SIEs employment as a source of labor. Malaysian government has so far taken a number of initiatives in attracting more foreign talents to the country and the increase in employment of SIEs in certain NKEAs could have been related to the government's policy in attracting more foreign talents to work in various industries in the country especially with regard to immigration procedures.

A few years back, the Malaysian government has begun to promote Malaysia My 2nd Home (MM2H) program and it has attracted many applicants. Most were those who had worked in the country. Following that, the government also introduced resident-pass-talent (RP-T) in 2011 to enable top foreign talent to apply to stay in Malaysia for 10 years. In response to the strong interest shown by the expatriates toward RP-T, the Malaysian Prime Minister has recently announced that the government will set up the Expatriate Services Department, which will be handled by the Immigration Department (New Straits Times, 4 December 2012). The department, which is scheduled to operate March of 2013 will offer immigration services to expatriates and their dependants as part of the efforts toward attracting more foreigners to live and work in the country. The initiatives will pull out all the stops to encourage foreign talents to work and live in Malaysia. It has been reported that expatriates who had applied for the RP-T have shown to increase (New Straits Times, 4 December 2012). The efforts taken have shown that the government is really serious in implementing their plan as reported in the Tenth Malaysian Plan.

Looking at the tourism trend, development in the hotel industry and budget that the government has allocated for the development in tourism industry, it is not surprising that the number of SIEs will continue to increase. Thus far, Malaysian government has shown some flexibility in migration regulations, has taken appropriate actions to simplify migration procedures such as abolishing regulations related to expatriates' income, with the hope that this will encourage them to come and work in service sectors. The government also hopes that the removal of such restrictions will shorten the processing times and ease the current migration procedures. Apart from that, the government also plans to extend and apply the criteria for the elimination of regulations on automatic authorization of visas and work permits. Additionally, with all that has been done, it is also suggested that the government would consider removing certain immigration policies required by some NKEAs to execute their EPPs, especially those that are related to tourism. This will certainly contribute to more attractive package in attracting more foreign talents to come and work in the country. In sum, with policies that are more accommodating, flexibility in migration regulations and all the supports provided by the government, it is expected that the number of foreign talents coming to work in the country will increase.

Secondly, the results of the study also acknowledge the importance of human resource supports during expatriation. MNCs, MNHCs as well as IJVHCs should seriously consider the human resource supports (such as tax return, bonus, leave, assistance in locating new home, as well as orientation to the new cultural environment for both expatriates and family) to the employees they sent abroad as the support extended determines the success or failure of expatriation. In the case of hotel industry, relocating new home during expatriation was not much of a problem to the expatriates as most of those attached to the industry stay within the hotel premise. Attractive expatriation package usually leads to successful expatriation.

Apart from the human resource supports, the findings also revealed the importance of social support and family adjustment to the expatriate's overall adjustment. The social support from people at work (employers and subordinates) could help expatriates to better adjust themselves to the new environment, either work or social environment. The importance of family adjustment is also undeniable. The implications of the inability of the family to adjust to the new cultural environment had been discussed in various literatures and had proven to cause companies a great deal. This means that those involve with expatriates should be aware that in ensuring successful adjustment of the expatriates, it does not only involve the efforts from the expatriate alone but also those in the host facility such as supervisors and co-workers. Organizations sending the expatriates, as well as those hosting the expatriates should consider the elements of social support (i.e. doing things to help ease work life, easy to talk with, reliable and willingness to listen) in helping the expatriates to adjust and succeed in their job. It does not only suggest the important roles of the organizations as a whole but also the roles of the employers and subordinates in helping the expatriates to adjust.

Most importantly, the findings from the study would not only benefit those in hotel industry but other MNCs and organizations in general. It could help create awareness among these organizations such as governments as they send employees to work in foreign countries, as well as sending students to study abroad, especially those married ones. Since adjustment of the spouse and the expatriate are highly correlated, sponsoring agencies, as well as those initiating their own travel have to be aware of the correlations as this would affect the expatriates' overall adjustment and could cause a premature return. A large number of companies have neglected the role of the spouse in the process of adjustment of the expatriates. The spouse opinions, especially those related to the move, have never been considered. Training and preparations for the sojourn are seldom provided (see Tung's1981 study). Given that spouse adjustment is positively related to expatriate adjustment and expatriate intentions to stay or leave the assignment, organizations, be it private or public may also benefit from providing some sorts of predeparture training for spouses as well as expatriates themselves. The efforts by Malaysian government in supporting the expatriates dependants (family) are therefore, supported.

In all, the findings of the study would enhance our knowledge pertaining to expatriate adjustment. The two theories used in the research had clearly specified that culture distance would pose some difficulties to expatriate during their expatriation especially during the first few months of arrival. SLT for example, suggests that the learning process will be a bit difficult when the distant between the home and host cultures are great. In this case, it requires a lot of motivation from the expatriate him/herself to learn and adapt to the new culture. However, from the findings, it can be seen that the successful adjustment of the expatriates does not only depend on the efforts (expatriate's personality) shown by the expatriates alone but it is also the responsibility of parent companies, foreign facilities and the accompanying family. While organizations can provide appropriate human resource support and social support to the expatriates, family can do the same in helping the expatriates to adjust. This in turn will help ease their learning process and adjustment to the new environment. Besides, to organizations planning to send expatriates for international assignment, those responsible for expatriate selection should also consider appropriate selection criteria when choosing expatriates for the assignment. Training should be provided and not just a practice that could be taken for granted by assuming that the expatriates will be able to adjust. As the theories suggest, the stranger the environment, the longer it takes for the expatriate to learn and adjust. Therefore, relevant parties involved should ensure that each play a role in assisting expatriates during the assignment.

The knowledge gained from this study would definitely contribute to new knowledge in expatriation literature about the differences that exist among expatriates (OEs and SIEs) with regard to adjustment of expatriates in hotel industry, as well as those involved in hotel industry (MNHCs and IJVHCs) to better understand the variables that would facilitate and inhibit the adjustment of hotel expatriates. The knowledge gained would also help avoid generalizations that the same variables affect the adjustment of hotel expatriates.

5.5 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

In spite of the significant contributions discussed above, this study also has its own limitations. Thus, this section will address several limitations and this will then be followed by the suggestions for future research.

5.5.1 Research Limitations

The first limitation of the study is the reliance on a single respondent for the independent and dependent variables, which might have contributed to the common method variance. In social sciences, this issue is most noticeable especially when it measures variables that are receptive to perceptual bias. Therefore, when designing the questionnaire survey for the study, attempts were made to minimize same source bias by placing the independent and dependent variables in separate sections of the questionnaire. Furthermore, if the same respondent bias or common method bias was in effect and inflated the correlations among the variables, the self-rated individual, organizational and nonwork variables should have had stronger effects on expatriate adjustment, which in this study, was not the case. Hence, the concern for same respondent bias or common method bias was further reduced.

Secondly, this study also has limitations in its statistical techniques and data as it only looked at only one particular industry (i.e. hotel). Albeit the aggressiveness of hotel companies expanding their businesses abroad, not much is known about hotel expatriates. This is the main reason why the industry was chosen as the subject of study. Another limitation with regard to this is the sample size itself. It is acknowledged that response rates within groups are particularly important for all multivariate analysis. In the present study, the 203 respondents are rather small samples for multivariate analyses and this could lead to some problems when estimating regression weights in relation to hypotheses testing, especially on SEM technique. But due to the time constraints and the small population of expatriates in the industry, the number of respondents was considered appropriate (return rate of more than 70 per cent). Also, owing to the constraints of time and financial resources, the samples of this study are also limited to expatriates located in Peninsular Malaysia. Thus, the generalization of the results (that all expatriates in Malaysian hotel industry) should be made with appropriate caution.

Besides the statistical techniques, data and sample size, there is also a limitation with the instruments utilized in the study. Even though it is acknowledged that the instruments used in the data collection were either adopted or adapted from past research as they had shown high reliability and validity, the instruments were still applied with caution as in hotel industry some of the supports (especially human resource support) could have not been provided by the organizations or they are already available to the expatriates due to the nature of the industry (i.e. car, housing, etc.).

Finally, the cross-sectional nature of the present research could have also contributed towards the limitations of the study. Clearly, a longitudinal research that tracks the adjustment progress and communication activities during expatriation is needed. In addition, statements of causality based on the results of statistical techniques (such as multiple regression and SEM) are useful in making inferences, but must be treated with caution given the correlational nature of the data.

5.5.2 Suggestions for Future Research

This study is meant to enhance our understanding of the issues related to cross-cultural adjustment and expatriation management within the context of hotel industry. It has generated fruitful avenues especially with regard to the differences in adjustment between OEs and SIEs and the influence of country of origin on expatriate adjustment as well as factors predicting hotel expatriates adjustment. Future research should consider exploring further on SIEs and the influence of country of origin, especially in areas other than hotel industry as currently, research on this group of expatriates is relatively scarce. Since the present research has found no significant difference in the pattern of adjustment between OEs and SIEs in hotel industry, future research could be conducted to further examine the relationship, especially the particular phases in which they differ. Besides, research on OEs and SIEs in hotel industry should also consider other extensions by looking at other variables than what were usually studied in the mainstream research on expatriation such as work related issues.

A bigger sample size and a wider representation of expatriates from different countries contribute toward a greater generalizability of research findings. Future research should consider a mixed-method approach in studying expatriation as it would yield more comprehensive findings on expatriation. An interview method would enable a researcher to obtain an in-depth answer to a certain issue in adjustment. For example, an interview with an expatriate about their work role adjustment would enable the researcher to obtain more information about their problems and motivations related to their work in a new cultural environment. As Earley and Peterson (2004) argued, the topic of cultural adjustment remains compelling but incomplete and this group of expatriate should be further explored in studies seeking to explain expatriate adjustment.

In all, scholars and practitioners should focus on the various aspects of supports that can be provided to both the expatriates and their family as this would enhance their adjustment and satisfaction of living and working in a foreign environment.

5.6 Chapter Conclusion

The discussions in this final chapter begin with the overview of the research which highlights the objectives, methods and results of the study. This is followed by lengthy discussions on the results which elaborate the findings in detail. Justifications and explanations of the outcomes of the study are provided. The implications of the study are also discussed. The section is divided into two, the theoretical and practical implications. While the theoretical implications elaborate on the new knowledge gained from the present study, the practical implications highlights on the benefits to the organizations, government and other parties related to the area of study. The last section of the chapter highlights the research limitations and suggestions for future research.

The global economy has force organizations to expand their business across national boundaries. This has increased the movement of people and increased contact among people of different cultural background. To survive, it is important that sojourners acquire appropriate skills and abilities. The increase contact with people from other cultures has also made it imperative for human beings to coordinate their efforts to understand and to get along with people who are difference from us. As pointed out by Samovar et al. (2010), with the increased awareness and understanding, humans can co-exist harmoniously with people different from them. In fact, the differences that exist can actually benefit all of us in many ways. Hence, in ensuring successful cross-cultural adjustment, it is not only the expatriates, visitors or foreigners who have to adjust but it is also the responsibility of the hosts as well. The efforts from both parties will ensure successful cross-cultural adjustment.

In sum, although research on expatriation management has been numerous, the findings from the present research take us to the next level of understanding the expatriate's patterns of adjustment and the role of communication and interaction in facilitating their adjustment. Besides, it also enhances our knowledge of the role of IHRM. This is achieved through careful examinations of data collected on expatriates attached to the Malaysian hotel industry. Expatriates in this industry, especially the

SIEs are relatively under-researched groups as the focus of previous research was normally on OEs of multinational companies of industries other than hotel. Hotel OEs and the high proportion of SIEs give support to the importance of studying further these under-explored groups. It is hoped that the study will be a step further in enhancing our understanding of expatriates in hotel industry.

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APPENDICES

PENGELASAN HOTEL SEHINGGA DISEMBER 2011

SEMENANJUNG MALAYSIA	BINTANG					JUMLAH	APARTMENT			JUMLAH	ORKID			JUMLAH	TIDAK LAYAK	TANGGUH	JUMLAH	GREEN HOTEL	JUMLAH BESAR
	5	4	3	2	1		5	4	3		3	2	1						
PERLIS	0	1	1	0	2	4	0	0	0	0	0	1	2	3	0	1	1	0	8
KEDAH	9	10	16	12	8	55	0	0	0	0	4	6	11	21	2	7	9	2	85
P.PINANG	7	17	8	17	3	52	0	0	0	0	5	16	11	32	14	6	20	1	104
PERAK	1	7	11	20	14	53	0	0	1	1	11	27	30	68	39	10	49	0	171
SELANGOR	13	12	16	17	22	80	0	0	0	0	10	30	14	54	21	24	45	1	179
N.SEMBILAN	0	9	8	5	6	28	0	1	3	4	6	6	6	18	16	3	19	0	69
MELAKA	3	6	12	15	14	50	0	0	1	1	19	27	20	66	11	8	19	0	136
JOHOR	4	8	21	28	20	81	0	0	0	0	25	27	10	62	33	19	52	0	195
PAHANG	3	14	23	22	11	73	0	0	0	0	17	29	32	78	49	10	59	0	210
KELANTAN	1	1	6	13	2	23	0	0	0	0	10	16	13	39	16	8	24	0	86
TERENGGANU	4	3	9	14	4	34	0	0	0	0	19	24	4	47	26	9	35	0	116
JUMLAH	45	88	131	163	106	533	0	1	5	6	126	209	153	488	227	105	332	4	1359

SABAH / SARAWAK	BINTANG					JUMLAH	APARTMENT			JUMLAH	ORKID			JUMLAH	TIDAK LAYAK	TANGGUH	JUMLAH	GREEN HOTEL	JUMLAH BESAR
	5	4	3	2	1		5	4	3		3	2	1						
SABAH	9	14	36	38	38	135	0	0	1	1	27	41	34	102	37	14	51	3	289
SARAWAK	6	13	24	12	16	71	0	0	1	1	23	58	44	125	19	14	33	1	230
JUMLAH	15	27	60	50	54	206	0	0	2	2	50	99	78	227	56	28	84	4	519

WILAYAH PERSEKUTUAN	BINTANG					JUMLAH	APARTMENT			JUMLAH	ORKID			JUMLAH	TIDAK LAYAK	TANGGUH	JUMLAH	GREEN HOTEL	JUMLAH BESAR
	5	4	3	2	1		5	4	3		3	2	1						
K.LUMPUR	24	19	27	34	27	131	2	6	6	14	5	27	24	56	10	18	28	4	229
PUTRAJAYA	2	1	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	4
LABUAN	2	1	1	7	4	15	0	0	0	0	1	0	2	3	1	0	1	0	19
JUMLAH	28	21	28	41	31	149	2	6	6	14	6	27	26	59	11	19	30	4	252
JUMLAH BESAR	**88**	**136**	**219**	**254**	**191**	**888**	**2**	**7**	**13**	**22**	**182**	**335**	**257**	**774**	**294**	**152**	**446**	**12**	**2130**

Catatan :

* *Tidak Layak : Bilangan Bilik kurang dari 10 buah atau tidak mencapai kriteria minimum yang telah ditetapkan*

* *Tangguh : Hotel tidak mempunyai FC, Proses Pengubahsuaian, Pembaharuan Lesen Perniagaan dsb*

* *51 tutup*

PENDAFTARAN HOTEL SEHINGGA DISEMBER 2011

SEMENANJUNG MALAYSIA	JUMLAH PENDAFTARAN	SUDAH DIKELASKAN			BELUM DIKELASKAN	JUMLAH BILIK	JUMLAH HOTEL < 10 BUAH BILIK	***TUTUP
		BINTANG + ORKID	*TIDAK LAYAK	**TANGGUH				
PERLIS	10	7	0	1	2	539	0	0
KEDAH	88	76	2	7	3	8,994	2	1
P.PINANG	110	84	14	6	6	12,493	12	13
PERAK	173	122	39	10	2	8,880	20	12
SELANGOR	183	134	21	24	4	16,966	11	1
N.SEMBILAN	71	50	16	3	2	6,473	7	6
MELAKA	143	117	11	8	7	9,570	26	0
JOHOR	200	143	33	19	5	13,853	10	0
PAHANG	215	151	49	10	5	16,149	25	8
KELANTAN	88	62	16	8	2	1,663	4	2
TERENGGANU	117	81	26	9	1	3,501	6	1
JUMLAH	**1,398**	**1,027**	**227**	**105**	**39**	**99,081**	**123**	**44**
SABAH / SARAWAK	JUMLAH PENDAFTARAN	SUDAH DIKELASKAN			BELUM DIKELASKAN	JUMLAH BILIK	JUMLAH HOTEL < 10 BUAH BILIK	TUTUP
		BINTANG + ORKID	*TIDAK LAYAK	**TANGGUH				
SABAH	292	238	37	14	3	17,274	13	2
SARAWAK	233	197	19	14	3	13,256	7	1
JUMLAH	**525**	**435**	**56**	**28**	**6**	**30,530**	**20**	**3**
WILAYAH PERSEKUTUAN	JUMLAH PENDAFTARAN	SUDAH DIKELASKAN			BELUM DIKELASKAN	JUMLAH BILIK	JUMLAH HOTEL < 10 BUAH BILIK	TUTUP
		BINTANG + ORKID	*TIDAK LAYAK	**TANGGUH				
KUALA LUMPUR	233	201	10	18	4	37,435	1	5
PUTRAJAYA	5	3	0	1	1	904	0	0
LABUAN	24	18	1	0	5	951	1	0
JUMLAH	**262**	**222**	**11**	**19**	**10**	**39,290**	**2**	**5**
JUMLAH BESAR	**2,185**	**1,684**	**294**	**152**	**55**	**168,901**	**145**	**52**

Catatan:

** Tidak Layak : Bilangan Bilik kurang dari 10 buah atau tidak mencapai kriteria minimum yang telah ditetapkan*
*** Tangguh : Hotel tidak mempunyai FC, Proses Pengubahsuaian, Pembaharuan Lesen Perniagaan dsb*
**** Tutup : Sudah tidak beroperasi lagi (di keluarkan dari senarai pendaftaran)*

APPENDIX 3

LIST OF HOTELS IN MALAYSIA
2010-2011

KUALA LUMPUR

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
5-star			
1.	Berjaya Time Square	Jln. Bukit Bintang	03-2117 8000
2.	Carcosa Seri Negara	Tmn. Tasik Perdana, KL	03-2182 1888
3.	Crown Plaza Hotel		03-2148 2322
4.	Crown Princess Intercontinental	Citi Square Centre, Jln. Tun Razak	03-2162 5522
5.	Equatorial Hotel	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2161 7777
6.	Hilton KL	Jln. Stesen	03-2264 2264
7.	Impiana Hotel KLCC	Jln. Pinang	03-2147 1111
8.	Istana Hotel	Jln. Raja Chulan	03-2141 9988
9.	JW Marriot Hotel	Jln. Bukit Bintang	03-2715 9000
10.	KL Hilton/Mutiara	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2142 2122
11.	Legend Hotel	Jln. Putra	03-4042 9888
12.	Le Meredian KL	Jln. Stesen	03-2263 7888
13.	Mandarin Oriental	Lot E Seksyen 58, Jln. Pinang	03-380 8888
14.	New World Renaissance	Jln. Ampang	03-2163 6888
15.	Nikko Hotel	Jln. Ampang	03-2161 1111
16.	Pan Pacific/Best Western	Jln. Putra	03-4042 5555
17.	Park Plaza/Hotel Maya	Jln. Ampang	03-2698 2255
18.	Parkroyal KL	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2142 5588
19.	Regent KL	Jln. Bukit Bintang	03-2141 8000
20.	Renaissance KL	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2162 2233
21.	Ritz-Carlton KL	Jln. Imbi	03-2142 8000
22.	Shangri-La KL	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2032 2388 03-2072 2388
23.	Sheraton Imperial	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2717 9900
24.	Westin	Jln. Bukit Bintang	03-2731 8333
4-star			
25.	Century Hotel	Jln. Bukit Bintang	03-2143 9898
26.	City Villa KL	Jln. Hj. Hussein off Jln. TARahman	03-2692 6077
27.	Concorde Hotel	Jln. Sultan Ismail	03-2144 2200
28.	Dorsett Regency	Jln. Imbi	03-2715 1000
29.	Dynasty	Jln. Ipoh	03-4043 7777
30.	Fairlane	Jln. Walter Grenier	03-2148 6888
31.	Grand Continental	Jln. Belia/Jln. Raja Laut	03-2693 9333
32.	Grand Seasons	Jln. Pahang	03-2697 8888
33.	Melia KL	Jln. Imbi	03-2142 8333
34.	Micasa Hotel Apartment	Jln. Tun Razak	03-2161 8833
35.	Ming Court/Orchid Hotel	Jln. Ampang	03-2161 8888

36.	Quality Hotel	Jln. Raja Laut	03-2693 9233
37.	Vistana	Jln. Lumut off Jln. Ipoh	03-4042 8000

SELANGOR

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
5-star			
1.	Equatorial Bangi	Off Persiaran Bandar, Bandar Baru Bangi	03-8210 2222 (1)
2.	Hyatt Regency Saujana (En. Zul)	SAAS Airport Highway Saujana, Subang	03-7846 1234 (6)
3.	IOI Resort	Putrajaya	03-8943 2233 X
4.	Marriot Putrajaya	Putrajaya	03-8949 8888 X
5.	Mines Beach Resort	Jln. Tasik, Seri Kembangan	03-8943 6688 X
6.	Palace of Golden Horses	Jln. Tasik, Seri Kembangan	03-8943 6688 X
7.	Holiday Inn Glenmarie Resort*	Jln. Usahawan UI Seksyen UI, Shah Alam	03-7803 1000 (2)
8.	Pan Pacific Hotel KLIA	KLIA	03-8787 3333 (2)
9.	PJ Hilton	Jln. Barat, PJ	03-7955 9122 (5)
10.	Pullman	Putrajaya	03-8890 0000 (3)
11.	Shangri-La Putrajaya	Putrajaya	03-8887 8888 (1)
12.	Subang Holiday Villa	Jln. SS 12/1 Subang Jaya	03-5633 8788 (2)
13.	Sunway Resort Hotel	Bandar Sunway	03-7492 8000 (3)
4-star			
14.	Armada PJ	Lorong Utara C, Section 52, PJ	03-7954 6888 X
15.	Concorde Inn KLIA	KLIA	03-8783 3118 X
16.	Concorde Hotel Shah Alam	Shah Alam	03-5512 2200 (1)
17.	Crystal Crown Hotel	Lorong Utara A off Jln. Utara, PJ	03-7958 4422 X
18.	Cyberview Lodge Hotel	Putrajaya	03-8312 7000 (1)
19.	Eastin Hotel	Section 16/11, Jln. Damansara, PJ	03-7665 1111 (2)
20.	Empress Hotel	Jln. Bandar Baru Salak Tinggi, Sepang	03-8706 7777 X
21.	Grand Bluewave Hotel	Shah Alam	03-5031 3388 (1)
22.	Grand Dorsett Subang Hotel	SS12/1 Subang Jaya	03-5031 6060 X
23.	One-World Hotel	Bandar Utama City Centre	03-7681 1111 X
24.	Quality Hotel Shah Alam	Plaza Peransang, Shah Alam	03-5510 3696 X
25.	Royale Bintang	Curve, Mutiara Damansara	03-7843 1111 X

PENANG

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
5-star			
1.	**Cheong Fatt Tze Mansion (Boutique Hotel)**	**Leith Street, Georgetown**	**04-262 5289**
2.	**Lone Pine Hotel (Boutique H.)**	**Batu Ferringhi**	**04-881 1511**
3.	**Bayview Beach Resort**	**Jln. Teluk Bahang, Batu Ferringhi**	**04-881 2123**
4.	**Eastern & Oriental**	**Lebuh Farquhar**	**04-222 2000**
5.	**Equatorial Hotel**	**Jln. Bukit Jambul**	**04-643 8111**
6.	**Evergreen Laurel**	**Persiaran Gurney**	**04-226 9988**
7.	**Ferringhi Beach Resort**	**Jln. Low Yat, Batu Ferringhi**	**04-890 5999**
8.	**Holiday Inn Resort**	**Batu Ferringhi Beach**	**04-881 1601**
9.	**Penang Mutiara Beach Resort**	**Jln. Teluk Bahang**	**04-886 8888**
10.	**Shangri-La Rasa Sayang Resort**	**Batu Ferringhi Beach**	**04-555 5555 04-881 1811**
11.	**Sheraton Penang**	**Jln. Larut**	**04-226 7888**
4-star			
12.	**Bayview Hotel**	**Farquhar Street**	**04-263-3161**
13.	**Berjaya Penang Hotel**	**Midlands Park, Jln. Burmah**	**04-227 7111**
14.	**Cititel Penang**	**Penang Road**	**04-370 1188**
15.	**Copthorne Orchid**	**Tanjung Bungah**	**04-890 3333**
16.	**Crown Prince Hotel**	**Tanjung Bungah**	**04-890 4111**
17.	**Eastin Queensbay**	**Queensbay, Bayan Lepas**	**04-612 1111**
18.	**G Hotel**	**Gurney Mall, Persiaran Gurney**	
19.	**Golden Sands Resort by Shangri-La**	**Batu Ferringhi**	
20.	**Gurney Hotel**	**Persiaran Gurney**	
21.	**Hard Rock Hotel**	**Ferringhi**	
22.	**Hotel Royal Penang**	**Jln. Larut**	**04-226 7888**
23.	**Jerejak Resort and Spa**	**Jerejak Island**	
24.	**Northam All Suites**	**Jln. Sultan Ahmah Shah**	
25.	**Park Royal Penang**	**Jln. Batu Ferringhi**	**04-881 1133**
26.	**Sandy Bay Paradise Hotel**	**Jln. Tanjung Bungah**	**04-899 9999**
27.	**Century Bay Service Suites**	**Bayan Lepas**	
28.	**Shangri-La's Golden Sands Resort**	**Batu Ferringhi Beach**	**04-881 1911**
29.	**Sunway Hotel Seberang Jaya**	**Pusat Bandar Seberang Jaya**	**04-563 6077**
30.	**Sunway Hotel Penang**	**New Lane-McAllister Road)**	**04-229 9988**
31.	**Traders Hotel**	**Jln. Magazine**	**04-262 2622**
32.	**Vistana Penang**	**Bukit Jambul**	**04-646 8000**

LANGKAWI

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
5-star			
1.	**Andaman Langkawi**	**Jln. Teluk Datai**	**04-959 1088**
2.	**Danna Langkawi**	**Pantai Kok**	
3.	**Datai Langkawi**	**Jln. Teluk Datai**	**04-959 2500**
4.	**Four Seasons**	**Tanjung Rhu**	**04-950 8888**
5.	**Mutiara Burau Bay**	**Burau Bay**	**04-959 1061**
6.	**Meritus Pelangi Beach Resort**	**Pantai Cenang**	**04-955 1001**
7.	**Tanjung Rhu Resorts**	**Tanjung Rhu**	**04-959 1033**
8.	**Tanjung Sanctuary Langkawi**	**Pantai Kok**	
9.	**Sheraton Langkawi Beach**	**Pantai Kok, Telok Nibong**	**04-955 1901**
10.	**Westin Langkawi Resort**	**Kuah**	**04-**
4-star			
11.	**Berjaya Langkawi Beach**	**Burau Bay**	**04-959 1888**
12.	**Bay View Hotel**	**Kuah**	**04-966 1818**
13.	**Bon Ton Resort**	**Cenang**	**04-**
14.	**Casa Del Mar**	**Pantai Cenang**	
15.	**Frangipani Langkawi Resort**	**Pantai Tengah**	
16.	**Langkawi Lagoon Resort**	**Pdg. Matsirat**	
17.	**Langkasuka Resort**	**Pdg. Matsirat**	**04-955 6888**
18.	**Holiday Villa Beach Resort**	**Pantai Tengah**	**04-955 1701**
19.	**Rebak Island Resort**	**Rebak Island**	**04-966 5566**
20.	**Temple Tree Resort**	**Pantai Cenang**	
3-star			
25.	**Aseania Resorts**	**Jln. Pantai Tengah**	**04-955 2020**

JOHORE BHARU

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	**Berjaya Tioman Beach Resort**	**PO Box 4, Mersing, 86807 Johor**	**09-419 1000**
2.	**Grand Bluewave Hotel JB**	**9R Jln. Bukit Meldrum, 80300 JB**	**07-221 6666**
3.	**Grand Paragon**	**18 Jln. Harimau, Tmn. Century, 80250 JB**	
4.	**Holiday Inn Crowne Plaza JB**	**Jln. Dato Sulaiman, Taman Century, 80990 JB**	**07-332 4000**
5.	**Hyatt Regency Hotel**	**PO Box 222, Jln. Sg. Chat, 80720 JB**	**07-222 1234**
6.	**Mutiara Hotel JB**	**KB No. 779 Jln. Dato Sulaiman, Taman Century, 80990 JB**	**07-332 3800**
7.	**Pulai Spring Resort**	**KM20 Jln. Pontian Lama 81110, Pulai**	**07-521-2121**
8.	**The Puteri Pacific JB**	**Jln. Abdullah Ibrahim “The Kotaraya”, PO Box 293, 80730**	**07-223 3333**

		JB	
9.	Sofitel Palm Hotel	Jln. Persiaran Golf off Jln. Jumbo, 81250 JB	07-599 6000
10.	Thistle JB	Jln. Sg. Chat, 80720, JB	07-22 9234
	The Zon Regency Hotel	88 Jln. Ibrahim Sultan, Stulang Laut, 80300 JB	
11.	Desaru Impian Resort	PO Box 50, Tg. Penawar, 81907 Kota Tinggi	07-838 9911

TERENGGANU

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	Awana Kijal Beach & Golf Resort	KM28 Jln. Kemaman-Dungun, 24100 Kemaman	09-864 1188
2.	Berjaya Redang Beach Resort	Pulau Redang, PO Box 126, Main Post Office 20928 Kuala Terengganu	09-630 8866
3.	Sutra Beach Resort	Kg. Rhu, Tapai, Marang, 21010 Setiu	09-653 1111
4.	Tasik Kenyir Golf Resort	PO Box 32, Pos Malaysia Kuala Berang, 21700 Kuala Berang	09-666 8888
5.	Primula Beach Resort	Jln. Persinggahan, PO Box 43, 20400 Kuala Terengganu	09-622 2100

MELAKA

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	Equatorial Hotel	Bandar Hilir, 75000 Melaka	06-282 8333
2.	Renaissance Melaka Hotel	Jln. Bendahara 75100 Melaka	06-284 8888
3.	Bayview Hotel	Jln. Bendahara 75100 Melaka	06-283 9888

PAHANG

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	Colmar Tropicale	KM 48 Persimpangan Bertingkat, Lebuhraya Karak, 28750 Bukit Tinggi	09-288 8890
2.	Equatorial Cameron Highlands	Kea Farm, Brinchang, 39100 Cameron Highlands	05-496 1777
3.	Hyatt Regency Kuantan Resort	Telok Cempedak, 25050 Kuantan	09-518 1234
4.	Bukit Tinggi GCC	PO Box 76, Bentong 28797 Pahang	09-288 8890
5.	Cherating Holiday Villa	Lot 1303 Mukim Sg. Karang, Cherating, 26080 Kuantan	09-581 9500
6.	MS Garden Hotel Kuantan	Lot 5 & 10, Lorong Gambut off Jln. Beserah 25300 Kuantan	09-555 5899
7.	Swiss Garden Resort Kuantan	2656-2657, Mukim Sg. Karang, Kwsn. Perindustrian Gebeng, Balok, 26100 Kuantan	09-544 7333

8.	**Impiana Resort Cherating**	**KM32 Jln. Kuantan-Kemaman, 26080 Kuantan**	**09-581 9000**

SARAWAK

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	**Crowne Plaza Riverside Kuching**	**PO Box 2928, Jln. Tunku Abd. Rahman, 93756 Kuching**	**082-247 777**
2.	**Hilton Batang Ai Longhouse Resort**	**c/o Kuching Hilton, PO Box 2396 Jln. Tunku Abd. Rahman, 93748 Kuching**	**082-248 200**
3.	**Holiday Inn Resort Damai Beach**	**Teluk Bandung, Santubong, PO Box 2870 Damai Beach 93756**	**082-846 999**
4.	**Holiday Inn Resort Damai Lagoon**	**Teluk Penyuk, Santubong, 93762 Kuching**	**082-846 900**
5.	**Kuching Hilton**	- **Same as Batang Ai -**	**082-248 200**
6.	**Holiday Inn Kuching**	**Jln. Tunku Abd. Rahman, 93756 Kuching**	**082-423 111**

SABAH

NO.	HOTEL NAME	ADDRESS	TELEPHONE
1.	**Shangri-La Tanjung Aru Resort**	**20 Jln. Aru 88100 Kota Kinabalu**	**088-327 888**
2.	**Shangri-La Rasa RIa Resort**	**PO Box 600 Pantai Dalit, 89208, Tuaran**	**088-792 888**
3.	**Sutera Harbor Resort**	**1 Jln. Sutera Harbor Boulevard 88100 Kota Kinabalu**	**088-318 888**
4.	**Hyatt Regency**	**Jln. Datuk Salleh Sulong 88991 Kota Kinabalu**	**088-221 234**
5.	**Jesselton Hotel**	**PO Box 10401, No. 69 Jln. Gaya, 88000 Kota Kinabalu**	**088 223 333**
6.	**Promenade Hotel**	**4 Lorong Api-Api 3 88000 Kota Kinabalu**	**088-265 555**
7.	**Sandakan Renaissance Hotel**	**KM1 Jln. Utara, PO Box 275, 90007, Sandakan**	**089-213 299**

APPENDIX 4

Dept. of Communication
School of Multimedia Technology and Communication
College of Arts and Sciences
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Sintok, 06010 KEDAH

13 January 2011

The General Manager
Equatorial Hotel Penang
1 Jln. Bukit Jambul
Bayan Lepas, 11900
Pulau Pinang

Dear Sir/Madam

EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT SURVEY

I am a lecturer at Universiti Utara Malaysia and am currently pursuing a research project in expatriate adjustment which focuses on expatriates in the hotel industry. Specifically, the research looks at the factors that inhibit/facilitate the adjustment of expatriates to the Malaysian culture. The research marks an important step forward in our understanding of expatriate adjustment. Over and above any immediate academic merit, the research clearly has usefulness for practitioners (in the hotel industry) as it will provide valuable and useful information to help future expatriates in the process of adjustment towards the Malaysian culture and business and management norms.

For the reasons, I sincerely hope that you would grant me a permission to include expatriates attached to your hotel to participate in the study. At this juncture, I would like to clearly specify that the information requested will not at all reflect the hotel and the management as it specifically focuses on the expatriate experience to the Malaysian culture. Any information given will be used only for the purposes of the study. Responses will be annonymized and unattributed. I will also be happy to provide you with a summary of the findings, if you deem it is important for the hotel development.

In sum, I would be most grateful if you could grant me the permission and contribute to this important and useful research. I would appreciate it very much if you could pass the questionnaire to the expatriates attached to your premise. Responses can be mailed to the self-addressed envelop attached with each set of the questionnaire. If however, you have any questions you would like to clarify with me please feel free to contact me at: lina@uum.edu.my or mobile number: 012-566 1485.

Thank you very much. Your cooperation is very much appreciated.

Yours faithfully

Haslina Halim

Enclosures

APPENDIX 5

Department of Communication
School of Multimedia Technology and Communication
College of Arts and Sciences
Universiti Utara Malaysia
Sintok, 06010
Kedah

20 December 2010

Dear Participant:

This questionnaire is designed to study the factors that facilitate or inhibit your adjustment to this country. The information you provide will help me better understand the problems associated with expatriate adjustment in Malaysia and suggestions be made to relevant authorities. Because you are the one who can give us a correct picture of how you adjust to this country, I request that you respond to the questions frankly and honestly. It will only take you about 20 minutes to complete the survey. Attached, you may also find a copy of a family adjustment survey that needs to be completed by your spouse, if you are married. Please let your spouse to fill up the survey form.

Your response will be kept **strictly confidential** and therefore, your name will not be required. I will be the only person who will have access to the information you provide. In order to ensure the utmost privacy, I have provided an identification number for each participant. This number will be used only for follow-up procedures. The numbers and questionnaires will not be made available to anyone else.

Please complete and return the questionnaire, together with your spouse's response in the enclosed envelope. I will collect the questionnaire the next day.

If required, a summary of the results will be mailed to you after the data are analyzed.

Thank you very much for you time and cooperation. I greatly appreciate your help in furthering this research endeavor.

Sincerely

Haslina Halim

hh/…

Enclosures

APPENDIX 6

SURVEY:
EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

Section 1: About Yourself

Please *circle or write* wherever appropriate.

1. Your age (years)

   1. under 35
   2. 36 – 40
   3. 41 – 45
   4. 46 – 50
   5. over 50

2. Your sex

   1. Female
   2. Male

3. Education

   1. High school
   2. College degree
   3. Bachelor's degree
   4. Graduate degree
   5. Other (specify) ________________

4. Marital status

   1. Married
   2. Single

5. If married, is your family here?

   1. Yes
   2. No

6. Your citizenship

   ____

7. Job status

   1. Managerial, specify, __________
   2. Nonmanagerial, specify, __________

8. How did you come to work in Malaysia?

   1. Sent by parent company
   2. Individual/ voluntary basis

9. How long have you been in Malaysia?

   __________________________ years and

   __________________________ moths

10. Have you had experience working in other foreign countries before?

    1. Yes
    2. No

11. If the answer to Q10 is yes, how many times has it been including the present one?

    1. Once
    2. Twice
    3. Three
    4. More than three times

    (Please specify the country________________)

12. Do you speak other language than your native?

    1. Yes
    2. No

13. If the answer to Q12 is yes, what is your degree of fluency?

1. Very fluent
2. Somewhat fluent
3. Not fluent

14. Describe your ability to speak the native language of this host country. Please circle only one answer that best describes your situation.

1. I do not know the native language of this country.
2. I am limited to very short and simple phrases.
3. I know basic grammatical structure and speak with a limited vocabulary.
4. I understand conversation on simple topics.
5. I am fluent in the language of this host country.

15. Have you had any training prior to expatriation?

1. Yes
2. No

If the answer is YES, go to Q16, if no proceed to Q17.

16. If yes to Q15, please specify the type of training you had.

____

17. Have you ever had problems adjusting to the Malaysian culture?

1. Yes
2. No

If yes, please describe your problems.

____

____

18. How long do you think it takes you to get adjusted?

1. 0 –6 months
2. 7 – 12 months
3. 13 – 18 months
4. More than 18 months

Section II

1. The following are statements that measure your overall adjustment to the host culture. Please indicate the extent to which you adjust to the following statement by *circling* the appropriate number using the scale below.

   (1 = not adjusted at all; 2 = not adjusted; 3 = not sure; 4 = adjusted; 5 = very well adjusted)

1.	Living conditions in general	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Food	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Cost of living	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Entertainment/Recreational facilities and opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Socializing with Malaysians	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Interacting with Malaysians outside of work	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Speaking with Malaysians	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Specific job responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Performance standards and expectations	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Supervisory responsibilities	1	2	3	4	5

2. The following statements measure your personality characteristics that might contribute to your overall adjustment. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with the following statements, by *circling* the appropriate numbers using the scale below.

   (1 = strongly disagree; 2 = somewhat disagree; 3 = neutral; 4 = somewhat agree; 5 = strongly agree)

1.	When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	1	2	3	4	5

4	When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I give up on things before completing them.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I avoid facing difficulties.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Failure just makes me try harder.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I am a self-reliant person.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I give up easily.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	It is difficult for me to make new friends.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him/her to come to me.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.	1	2	3	4	5
21.	When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.	1	2	3	4	5

3. The following are statements about your communicative behaviors. Answer each item as it relates to your general style of communication (the type of communicator you are most often) in social situations. Please indicate your response to each of the items that follow by *circling* the number that best describe your feeling.

   (1 = never true of me; 2 = rarely true of me; 3 = sometimes true of me; 4 = often true of me; 5 = always true of me)

1.	I feel nervous in social situations.	1	2	3	4	5
2.	In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.	1	2	3	4	5
3.	When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense.	1	2	3	4	5
4.	My voice sounds nervous when I talk with others.	1	2	3	4	5
5.	I am relaxed when talking with others.	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I try to make the other person feel good.	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I try to make the other person feel important.	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I try to be warm when communicating with another.	1	2	3	4	5
9.	When I am talking I think about how the other person feels.	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.	1	2	3	4	5
11.	I like to be active in different social groups.	1	2	3	4	5
12.	I enjoy socializing with various groups of people.	1	2	3	4	5
13.	I enjoy meeting new people.	1	2	3	4	5
14.	I find it easy to get along with new people.	1	2	3	4	5
15.	I do not "mix" well at social functions.	1	2	3	4	5
16.	I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.	1	2	3	4	5
18.	I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.	1	2	3	4	5
19.	I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.	1	2	3	4	5
20.	When I self-disclose I know I am revealing	1	2	3	4	5
21.	When speaking I have problems with grammar.	1	2	3	4	5
22.	At times, I don't use appropriate verb tense.	1	2	3	4	5
23.	I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another.	1	2	3	4	5
24.	I sometimes use words incorrectly.	1	2	3	4	5
25.	I have difficulty pronouncing some words.	1	2	3	4	5
26.	When I am anxious, I often make jokes.	1	2	3	4	5
27.	I often make jokes when in tense situations.	1	2	3	4	5

28.	When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.	1	2	3	4	5
29.	When someone makes a negative comment about me I respond with a witty comeback.	1	2	3	4	5
30.	People think I am witty (humorous)	1	2	3	4	5

4. The following statements measure your organization's practices. Please rate the practices described below by *circling* the most appropriate answer that best describe the services that it offers.

(1 = to no extent/not provided, 2 = somewhat not provided; 3 = don't know; 4 = somewhat provided; 5 = to a great extent)

1.	Reimbursement for tax return preparation	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Tax equalization	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Housing differential	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Children's education allowance	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Temporary living allowance	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Goods and services differential	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Transportation differential	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Foreign service premium	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Household furnishing allowance	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Currency protection	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Mobility premium	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Home-leave allowance	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Stop-over allowance	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Subsidized health and fitness facilities	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Hardship premium	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Completion bonus	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Assignment extension bonus	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Extended work week payment	1	2	3	4	5
19.	Emergency leave	1	2	3	4	5

20.	Home leave	1	2	3	4	5
21.	Language training (expatriate)	1	2	3	4	5
22.	Company car/driver	1	2	3	4	5
23.	Assistance with locating new home	1	2	3	4	5
24.	Access to high-quality, western health care	1	2	3	4	5
25.	Club membership	1	2	3	4	5
26.	General personal services (i.e. translation, interpreter, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5
27.	Personal security (expatriate & family)	1	2	3	4	5
28.	General culture-transition training (expatriate)	1	2	3	4	5
29.	Social events	1	2	3	4	5
30.	Career development and repatriation training	1	2	3	4	5
31.	Training for local culture systems (i.e. language and customs (expatriate)	1	2	3	4	5
32.	Orientation to community (expatriate and family)	1	2	3	4	5
33.	Counseling services	1	2	3	4	5
34.	Rest and relaxation leave	1	2	3	4	5
35.	Domestic staff (excluding child care)	1	2	3	4	5
36.	Use of company-owned vacation facilities	1	2	3	4	5
37.	Language training (family)	1	2	3	4	5
38.	Assistance locating schools for children	1	2	3	4	5
39.	General culture-transition training (family)	1	2	3	4	5
40.	Training for local culture customs (family)	1	2	3	4	5
41.	Child-care providers	1	2	3	4	5
42.	Spousal employment in firm	1	2	3	4	5
43.	Assistance locating spousal employment outside firm	1	2	3	4	5

5. The statements below look at the culture differences between your home country and the host country. Please indicate how similar or different the following situations are as compared to your home country, by circling the numbers on the scale.

(1 = very different; 2 = different; 3 = no difference; 4 = similar; 5 = very similar)

1.	Everyday custom that must be followed	1	2	3	4	5
2.	General living conditions	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Using health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Transportation systems used in the count	1	2	3	4	5
5.	General costs of living	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Available quality and types of foods	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Climate	1	2	3	4	5
8.	General housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5

6. Please rate the support you receive from the people in each of the groups provided below.

(1 = not relevant, 2 = not at all; 3 = a little; 4 = somewhat; 5 = very much)

1.	How much does each of these people go out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?					
	a. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Other people at work	1	2	3	4	5
2.	How easy is it to talk with each of the following people?					
	a. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Other people at work	1	2	3	4	5
3.	How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work?					
	a. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Other people at work	1	2	3	4	5

4.	How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your personal problems?					
	a. Your immediate boss	1	2	3	4	5
	b. Other people at work	1	2	3	4	5

THANKS FOR YOUR COOPERATION

IT'S VERY MUCH APPRECIATED

FAMILY ADJUSTMENT SURVEY

Note: This set of questionnaire measures the family adjustment to the Malaysian culture and therefore, **needs to be completed by the spous***e*.

1. Please indicate the extent to which you adjust to the following statement by *circling* the appropriate number using the scale below.

   (1 = not adjusted at all; 2 = not adjusted; 3 = not sure; 4 = adjusted; 5 = very well adjusted

1.	Living conditions in general	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Food	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Cost of living	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Entertainment/Recreation facilities and opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Socializing with Malaysians	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis	1	2	3	4	5

Inter-Item Correlations for Adjustment Variable

	a1	**a2**	**a3**	**a4**	**a5**	**a6**	**a7**	**a8**	**a9**	**a10**	**a11**	**a12**	**a13**	**a14**
a1	-													
a2	.56	-												
a3	.69	.30	-											
a4	.09	.40	.08	-										
a5	.20	.54	.17	.27	-									
a6	.24	.26	.30	.64	.26	-								
a7	.19	.26	.42	.23	.15	.34	-							
a8	.39	.29	.59	.09	.37	.12	.33	-						
a9	.32	.29	.49	-.01	.31	.04	.22	.67	-					
a10	.29	.32	.42	-.06	.37	-.02	.26	.55	.66	-				
a11	.38	.42	.37	.09	.42	.14	.22	.51	.62	.48	-			
a12	.20	.16	.40	.24	.39	.28	.31	.31	.33	.27	.20	-		
a13	.05	.24	.18	.28	.48	.31	.33	.26	.19	.24	.36	.56	-	
a14	.35	.38	.43	.12	.29	.04	.28	.34	.51	.43	.51	.53	.43	-

Inter-Item Correlations for Personality Variable

	b1	**b2**	**b3**	**b4**	**b5**	**b6**	**b7**	**b8**	**b9**	**b10**	**b11**	**b12**	**b13**	**b14**	**b15**	**b16**	**b17**	**b18**	**b19**	**b20**	**b21**	**b22**	**b23**
b1	-																						
b2	.12	-																					
b3	.33	.11	-																				
b4	-.15	.21	.12	-																			
b5	-.23	.16	-.01	.77	-																		
b6	-.10	-.09	-.06	.12	.30	-																	
b7	-.16	-.31	.09	.41	.33	.44	-																
b8	.10	.01	.28	.12	.25	.09	.16	-															
b9	.35	.15	.35	.20	.10	.05	.10	.62	-														
b10	-.29	.06	-.10	.22	.26	.16	.36	-.15	-.29	-													
b11	-.40	-.03	-.11	.20	.29	.23	.31	.01	-.01	.37	-												
b12	-.25	-.03	-.03	.16	.14	.31	.42	-.02	-.08	.58	.50	-											
b13	.00	.10	.20	.18	.05	-.16	.05	.17	.24	.07	.00	-.10	-										
b14	-.08	.11	-.10	.23	.43	.39	.15	.32	.28	.16	.35	.24	.12	-									
b15	.13	-.08	.18	.16	.03	-.36	-.09	.07	-.00	.21	-.04	-.03	.64	-.02	-								
b16	.03	-.17	-.05	-.04	-.07	.23	.24	-.05	-.16	.11	.06	.04	-.13	-.13	-.18	-							
b17	-.26	.01	-.12	.46	.53	.47	.56	.27	.12	.26	.51	.51	-.15	.36	-.26	.23	-						
b18	-.18	.09	-.32	.24	.34	.29	.32	.22	.19	.29	.51	.46	-.02	.47	-.10	-.02	.47	-					
b19	-.04	-.10	-.02	.02	-.01	.04	.05	-.16	-.01	.10	-.05	-.18	.32	-.04	.32	-.26	-.17	-.10	-				
b20	.03	-.09	-.09	.04	-.17	.10	.15	-.15	-.04	.04	-.04	.20	-.11	-.14	-.04	-.21	.05	-.00	.36	-			
b21	-.16	.17	-.15	-.29	-.40	-.08	-.16	-.13	-.11	.03	-.16	-.10	.27	-.20	.13	-.05	-.29	-.14	.10	.10	-		
b22	-.25	.01	-.18	.21	.34	.36	.41	.10	-.12	.41	.18	.44	.01	.12	.01	.07	.45	.27	-.20	-.05	-.19	-	
b23	.21	.23	.33	.18	-.07	-.12	-.16	-.17	.10	-.01	-.20	-.19	.39	.01	.44	-.25	-.22	-.30	.25	.06	.02	-.12	-

Inter-Item Correlations for Interaction Variable

	c1	c2	c3	c4	c5	c6	c7	c8	c9	c10	c11	c12	c13	c14	c15	c16	c17	c18	c19	c20	c21	c22	c23	c24	c25	c26	c27	c28	c29	c30
c1	-																													
c2	.43	-																												
c3	.11	.51	-																											
c4	.16	.49	.55	-																										
c5	-.46	-.17	.28	.17	-																									
c6	.18	.29	.08	.05	.04	-																								
c7	.29	.43	.28	-.12	.04	.77	-																							
c8	-.07	.24	.29	-.09	.01	.65	.57	-																						
c9	-.13	-.17	-.04	.19	.15	.51	.07	.37	-																					
c10	-.13	.37	.07	.02	.09	.76	.60	.69	.53	-																				
c11	-.15	.32	.03	-.11	.26	.70	.72	.59	.28	.86	-																			
c12	-.23	.03	-.26	-.06	.20	.67	.49	.54	.51	.71	.76	-																		
c13	-.28	.13	.20	-.04	.13	.60	.34	.85	.46	.63	.46	.46	-																	
c14	-.63	-.28	-.17	-.06	.38	.24	-.05	.41	.35	.40	.32	.50	.50	-																
c15	.42	.39	.07	.20	-.06	.02	.07	-.06	-.20	-.00	.07	-.14	-.07	-.37	-															
c16	.02	.23	.05	-.20	.06	.67	.72	.42	.15	.44	.47	.49	.49	.02	-.24	-														
c17	.22	.35	.14	-.18	-.19	.51	.79	.27	-.04	.36	.43	.32	.18	-.30	-.11	.83	-													
c18	.23	.05	.08	-.22	-.32	.40	.56	.34	-.03	.03	.08	.21	.22	-.20	-.30	.72	.80	-												
c19	.25	.15	-.26	-.38	-.51	.34	.32	.31	-.23	.14	.07	.14	.34	-.15	-.05	.58	.52	.61	-											
c20	.15	-.33	-.32	-.74	-.26	-.13	.16	-.10	-.42	-.33	-.25	-.23	-.13	-.26	-.12	.33	.38	.50	.60	-										
c21	.41	.42	.33	.66	-.05	.17	-.00	-.08	.21	.12	.07	-.11	-.02	-.24	.55	-.27	-.07	-.22	-.27	-.59	-									
c22	.16	.38	.37	.63	.28	.19	-.00	-.13	.36	.26	.15	-.04	.08	-.06	.39	-.11	-.08	-.37	-.43	-.65	.84	-								
c23	.13	.26	.33	.65	.35	-.04	-.09	-.27	.13	.04	-.02	-.09	-.21	.16	.23	-.33	-.27	-.46	-.62	-.60	.63	.78	-							
c24	.28	.44	.65	.51	.15	-.06	.15	-.04	-.13	.01	.01	-.33	-.09	-.20	.42	-.23	.02	-.16	-.42	-.38	.69	.68	.68	-						
c25	.39	.44	.38	.70	.08	.23	.02	-.09	.31	.18	.07	-.10	-.00	-.19	.48	-.20	-.07	-.26	-.34	-.62	.96	.92	.72	.70	-					
c26	.18	.48	.38	.38	.12	.36	.44	.16	.23	.38	.28	.24	.08	-.19	.19	.33	.32	.08	-.18	-.32	.15	.36	.30	.35	.27	-				
c27	.09	.51	.70	.56	.29	-.04	.18	.18	-.08	.11	.10	-.06	-.02	-.09	.37	-.18	-.04	-.17	-.46	-.47	.32	.35	.46	.68	.36	.64	-			
c28	.23	.45	.33	.37	-.25	.45	.49	.28	.22	.41	.22	.22	.10	-.20	.24	.26	.42	.27	.10	-.14	.20	.13	.06	.23	.23	.69	.48	-		
c29	.03	.35	.33	.44	.22	.43	.35	.13	.27	.41	.42	.20	.08	-.15	.40	.11	.18	-.10	-.17	-.35	.41	.37	.13	.23	.45	.42	.37	.65	-	
c30	-.10	-.05	-.19	.34	.04	.48	-.03	.10	.60	.29	.15	.40	.21	.20	.06	.12	-.14	-.07	-.06	-.41	.17	.19	.01	-.27	.24	.35	-.06	.41	.54	-

Inter-Item Correlations for Social Support Variable

	f1a	**f1b**	**f2a**	**f2b**	**f3a**	**f3b**	**f4a**	**f4b**
f1a	-							
f1b	.63	-						
f2a	.78	.43	-					
f2b	.22	.46	.42	-				
f3a	.59	.51	.63	.45	-			
f3b	.31	.59	.40	.47	.44	-		
f4a	.70	.38	.71	.22	.54	.39	-	
f4b	.29	.34	.23	.10	.19	.51	.39	-

Inter-Item Correlations for Culture Variable

	e1	**e2**	**e3**	**e4**	**e5**	**e6**	**e7**	**e8**
e1	-							
e2	.48	-						
e3	.18	.35	-					
e4	.03	.32	.34	-				
e5	-.02	.43	.37	.44	-			
e6	.23	.39	.34	.28	.52	-		
e7	.14	.18	.36	-.02	.41	.53	-	
e8	.51	.55	.39	.15	.30	.47	.32	-

Inter-Item Correlations for Family Variable

	g1	**g2**	**g3**	**g4**	**g5**	**g6**	**g7**	**g8**	**g9**
g1	-								
g2	.81	-							
g3	.92	.81	-						
g4	.83	.69	.91	-					
g5	.72	.88	.71	.73	-				
g6	.48	.59	.44	.41	.64	-			
g7	.65	.80	.77	.84	.83	.58	-		
g8	.52	.63	.51	.51	.51	.42	.45	-	
g9	.51	.63	.56	.57	.50	.46	.50	.92	-

Item Correlation for Adjustment Variable

No.	Items	α
1.	Living conditions in general	.85
2.	Housing conditions	.84
3.	Food	.84
4.	Shopping	.85
5.	Costs of living	.84
6.	Entertainment/Recreational facilities and Opportunities	.85
7.	Health care facilities	.84
8.	Socializing with Malaysians	.84
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis	.84
10.	Interacting with Malaysians outside of work	.84
11.	Speaking with Malaysians	.84
12.	Specific job responsibilities	.84
13.	Performance standards and expectations	.85
14.	Supervisory responsibilities	.84

Item Correlation for Personality Variable

No.	Items	α
1.	When I make plans, I am certain I can make them work.	.68
2.	One of my problems is that I cannot get down to work when I should.	.65
3.	If I can't do a job the first time, I keep trying until I can.	.65
4.	When I set important goals for myself, I rarely achieve them.	.61
5.	I give on things before completing them.	.62
6.	I avoid facing difficulties.	.62
7.	If something looks too complicated, I will not even bother to try it.	.60
8.	When I have something unpleasant to do, I stick to it until I finish it.	.63
9.	When I decide to do something, I go right to work on it.	.63
10.	When trying to learn something new, I soon give up if I am not initially successful.	.62
11.	When unexpected problems occur, I don't handle them well.	.63
12.	I avoid trying to learn new things when they look too difficult for me.	.62
13.	Failure just makes me try harder.	.63
14.	I feel insecure about my ability to do things.	.62
15.	I am a self-reliant person.	.64

16.	I give up easily.	.66
17.	I do not seem capable of dealing with most problems that come up in life.	.62
18.	It is difficult for me to make new friends.	.62
19.	If I see someone I would like to meet, I go to that person instead of waiting for him/her to come to me.	.66
20.	If I meet someone interesting who is hard to make friends with, I'll soon stop trying to make friends with that person.	.66
21.	When I'm trying to become friends with someone who seems uninterested at first, I don't give up easily.	.68
22.	I do not handle myself well in social gatherings.	.63
23.	I have acquired my friends through my personal abilities at making friends.	.65

Item Correlation for Communication and Interaction Variable

No.	Items	*α*
1.	I feel nervous in social situations.	.84
2.	In most social situations, I feel tense and constrained.	.83
3.	When talking, my posture seems awkward and tense.	.83
4.	My voice sounds nervous when I talk with others.	.83
5.	I am relaxed when talking with others.	.84
6.	I try to make the other person feel good.	.83
7.	I try to make the other person feel important.	.83
8.	I try to be warm when communicating with another.	.83
9.	When I am talking, I think about how the other person feels.	.84
10.	I am verbally and nonverbally supportive of other people.	.83
11.	I like to be active in different social groups.	.83
12.	I enjoy socializing with various groups of people.	.84
13.	I enjoy meeting new people.	.83
14.	I find it easy to get along with new people.	.85
15.	I do not "mix" well at social functions.	.84
16.	I am aware of how intimate my disclosures are.	.83
17.	I am aware of how intimate the disclosures of others are.	.83
18.	I disclose at the same level that others disclose to me.	.84
19.	I know how appropriate my self-disclosures are.	.84
20.	When I self-disclose I know I am revealing.	.87
21.	When speaking I have problems with grammar.	.83
22.	At times, I don't use appropriate verb tense.	.82
23.	I sometimes use one word when I mean to use another.	.83
24.	I sometimes use words incorrectly.	.83
25.	I have difficulty pronouncing some words.	.82
26.	When I am anxious, I often make jokes.	.82
27.	I often make jokes when in tense situations.	.83
28.	When I embarrass myself I often make a joke about it.	.83
29.	When someone makes a negative comment about me I respond with a witty comeback.	.82
30.	People think I am witty (humorous).	.84

Item Correlation for Human Resource Variable

No.	Items	α
1.	Reimbursement for tax return preparation.	.79
2.	Tax equalization.	.79
3.	Housing differential.	.81
4.	Children's education allowance.	.80
5.	Temporary living allowance.	.80
6.	Goods and services differential.	.80
7.	Transportation differential.	.81
8.	Foreign service premium.	.80
9.	Household furnishing allowance.	.80
10.	Currency protection.	.81
11.	Mobility premium.	.80
12.	Home-leave allowance.	.80
13.	Stop-over allowance.	.80
14.	Subsidized health and fitness facilities.	.81
15.	Hardship premium.	.81
16.	Completion bonus.	.81
17.	Assignment extension bonus.	.80
18.	Extended work-week payment.	.81
19.	Emergency leave.	.81
20.	Home leave.	.81
21.	Language training (expatriate).	.80
22.	Company car/driver.	.80
23.	Assistance with locating new home.	.81
24.	Access to high-quality, western health care.	.80
25.	Club membership.	.81
26.	General personal services (i.e. translation, interpreter, etc.)	.81
27.	Personal security (expatriates & family).	.80
28.	General culture-transition training (expatriate).	.80
29.	Social events.	.80
30.	Career development and repatriation training.	.83
31.	Training for local culture systems (i.e. language and customs) for expatriate.	.79
32.	Orientation to community (expatriate and family)	.80
33.	Counseling services.	.80
34.	Rest and relaxation leave.	.80
35.	Domestic staff (excluding child-care).	.80
36.	Use of company-owned vacation facilities.	.81
37.	Language training (family).	.80
38.	Assistance locating schools for children.	.80
39.	General culture-transition training (family).	.80
40.	Training for local culture customs (family).	.80
41.	Child-care providers.	.80
42.	Spousal employment in firm.	.80
43.	Assistance locating spousal employment outside firm.	.80

Item Correlation for Social Support Variable

No.	Items	*α*
1.	How much does each of these people got out of their way to do things to make your work life easier for you?	
	a. Your immediate boss.	.83
	b. Other people at work.	.84
2.	How easy is it to talk with each of the following people?	
	a. Your immediate boss.	.83
	b. Other people at work.	.86
3.	How much can each of these people be relied on when things get tough at work?	
	a. Your immediate boss.	.84
.	b. Other people at work.	.85
4.	How much is each of the following people willing to listen to your personal problem?	.
	a. Your immediate boss.	.84
	b. Other people at work.	.87

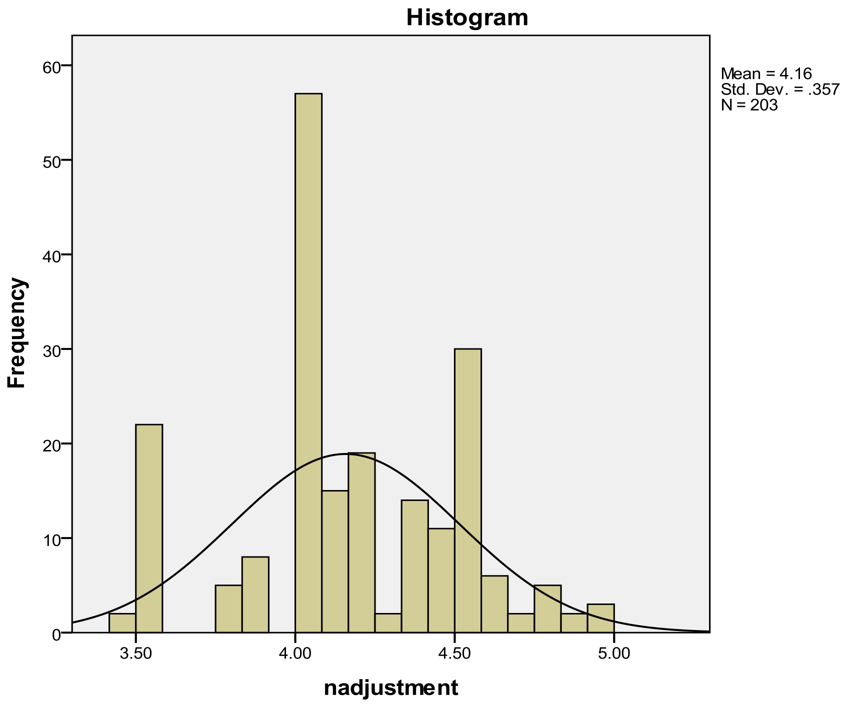
Item Correlation for Culture Distance Variable

No.	Items	*α*
1.	Everyday custom that must be followed.	.79
2.	General living conditions.	.74
3.	Using health care facilities.	.75
4.	Transportation systems used in the country.	.79
5.	General costs of living.	.75
6.	Available quality and types of foods.	.74
7.	Climate.	.77
8.	General housing conditions	.74

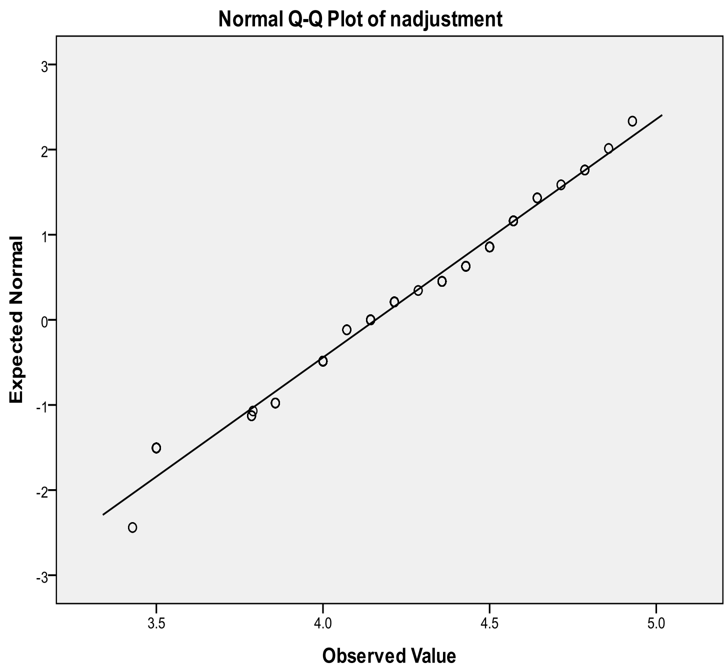
Item Correlation for Family Variable

No.	Items	*α*
1.	Living conditions in general.	.93
2.	Housing conditions.	.93
3.	Food.	.92
4.	Shopping.	.92
5.	Costs of living.	.93
6.	Entertainment/Recreational facilities and opportunities.	.94
7.	Health care facilities.	.93
8.	Socializing with Malaysians.	.94
9.	Interacting with Malaysians on a day-to-day basis.	.94

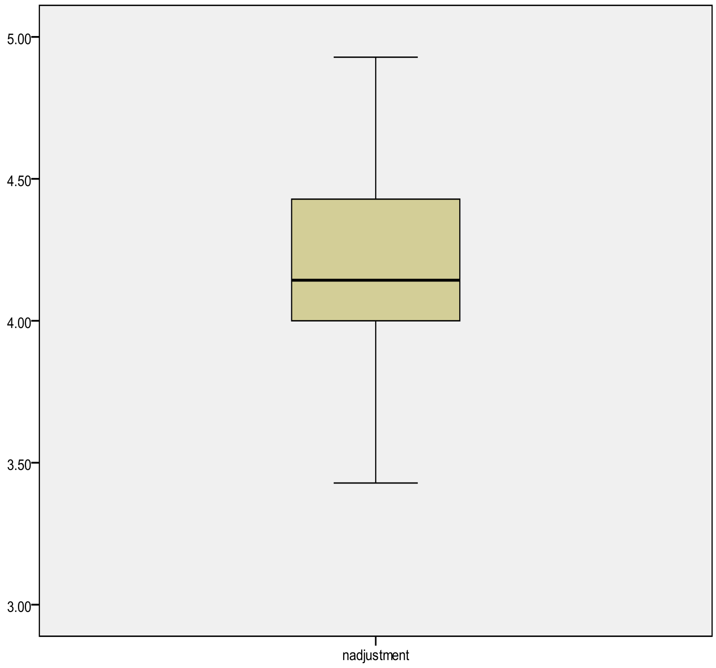
Adjustment Variable



Histogram for Adjustment Variable

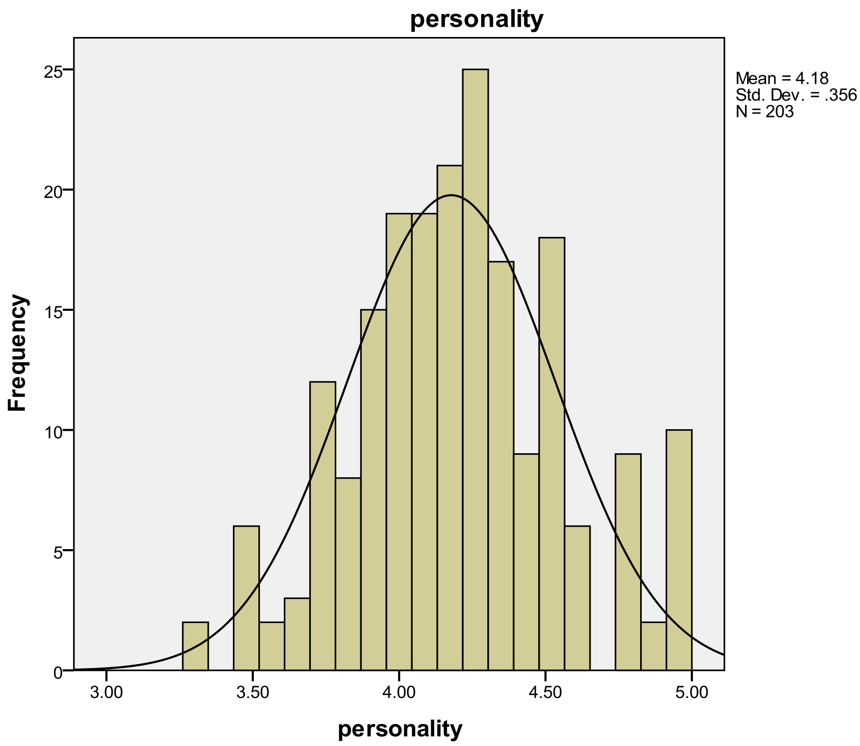


Normal Q-Q Plot for Adjustment Variable

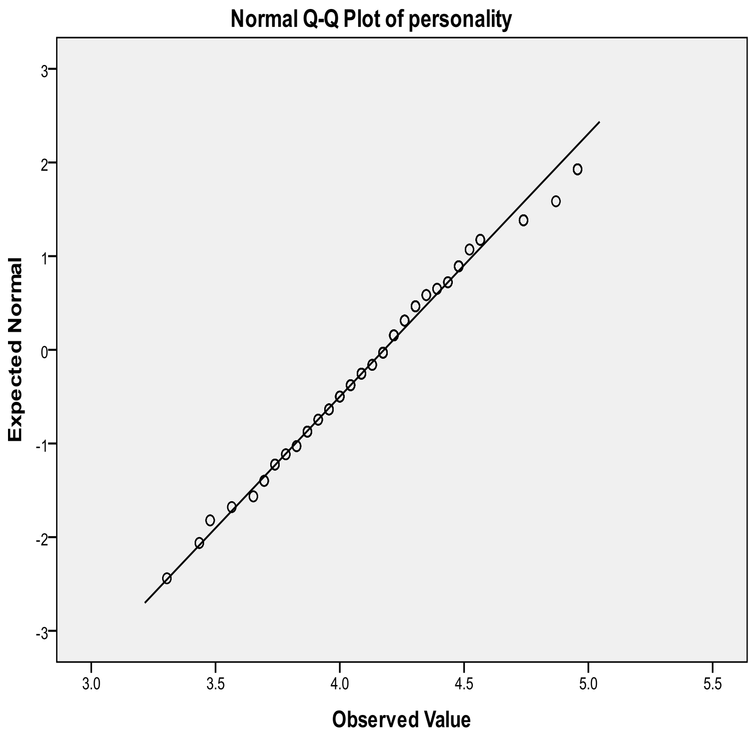


Box Plot for Adjustment Variable

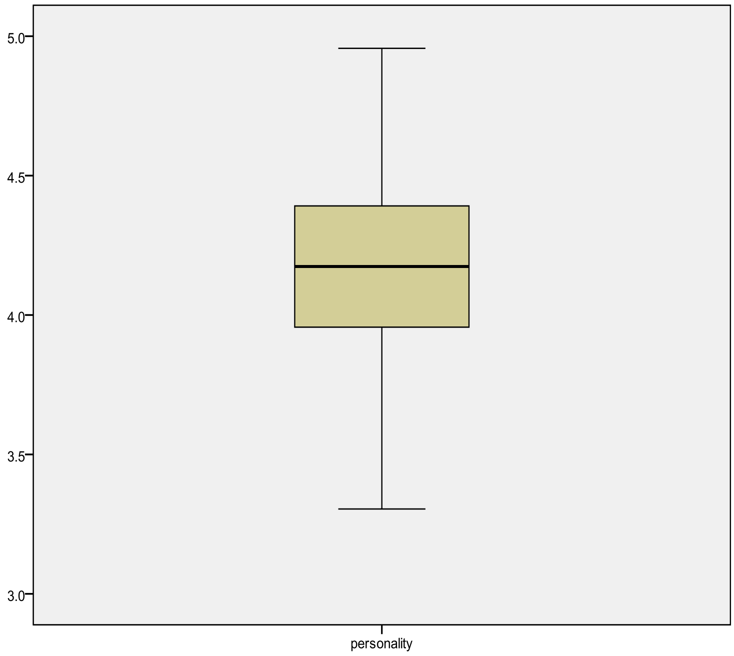
Personality Variable



Histogram for Personality Variable

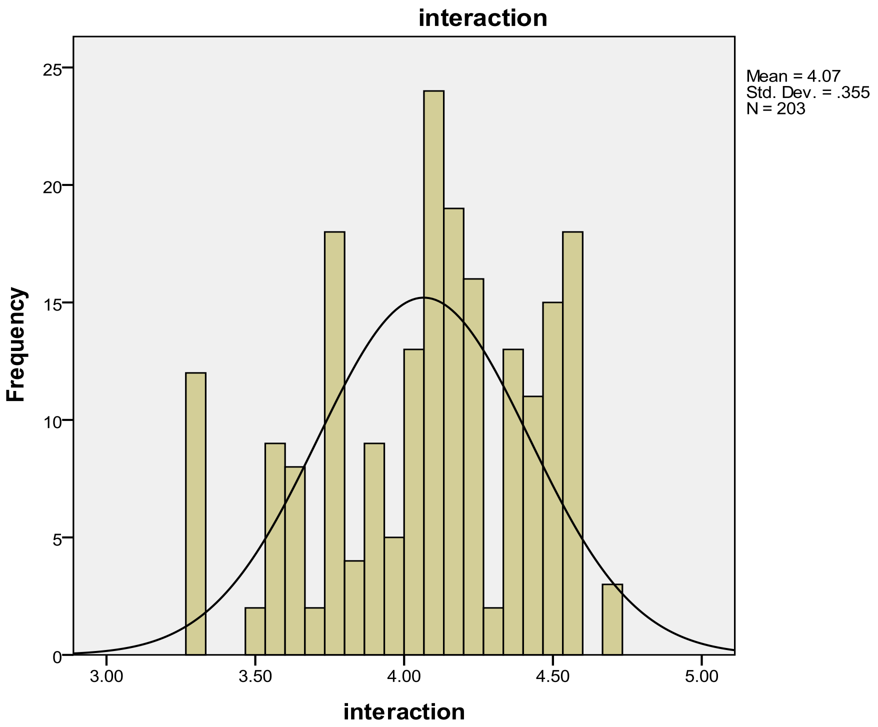


Normal Q-Q Plot for Personality Variable

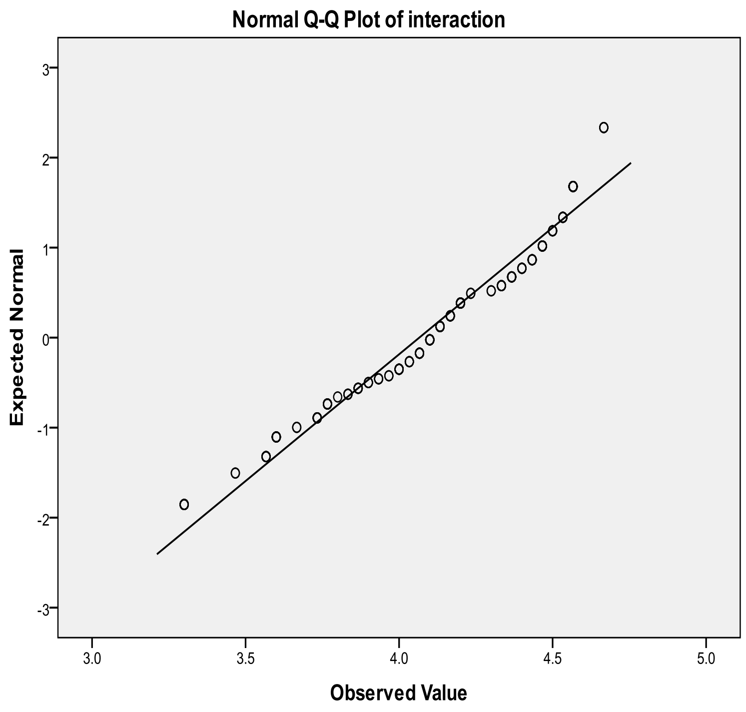


Box plot for Personality Variable

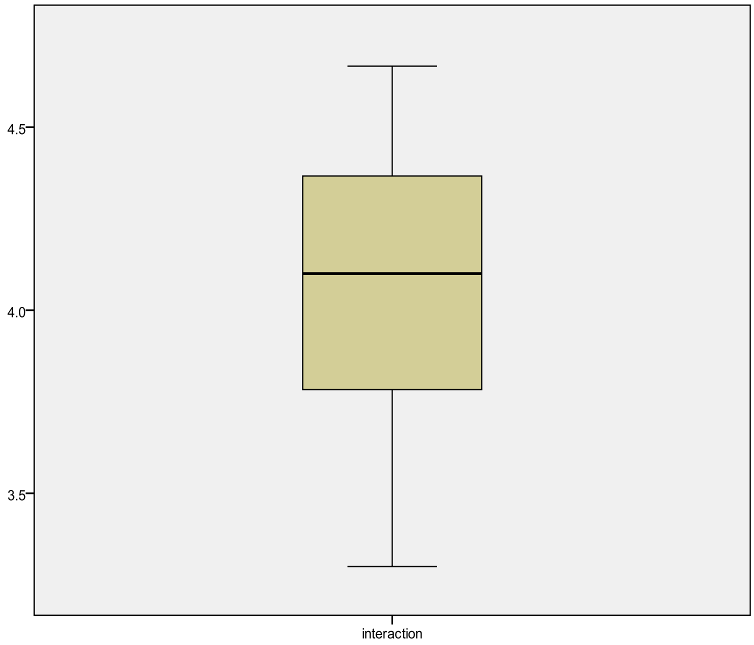
Communication and Interaction Variable



Histogram for Communication and Interaction Variable

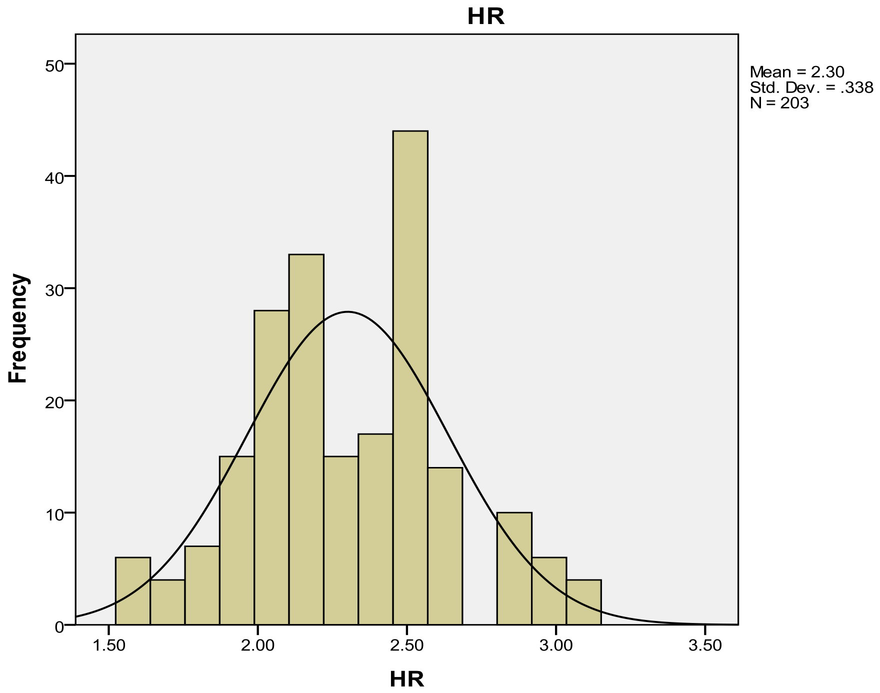


Normal Q-Q Plot for Communication and Interaction Variable

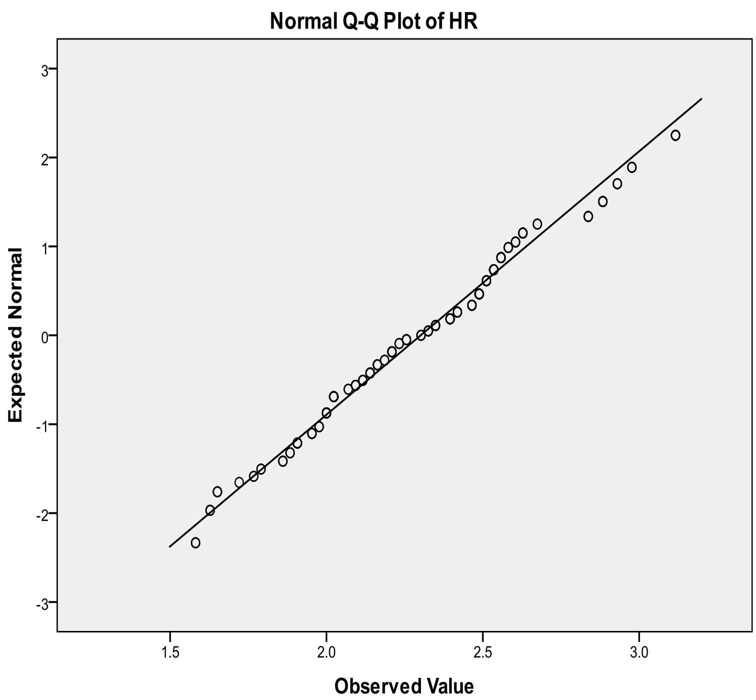


Box Plot for Communication and Interaction Variable

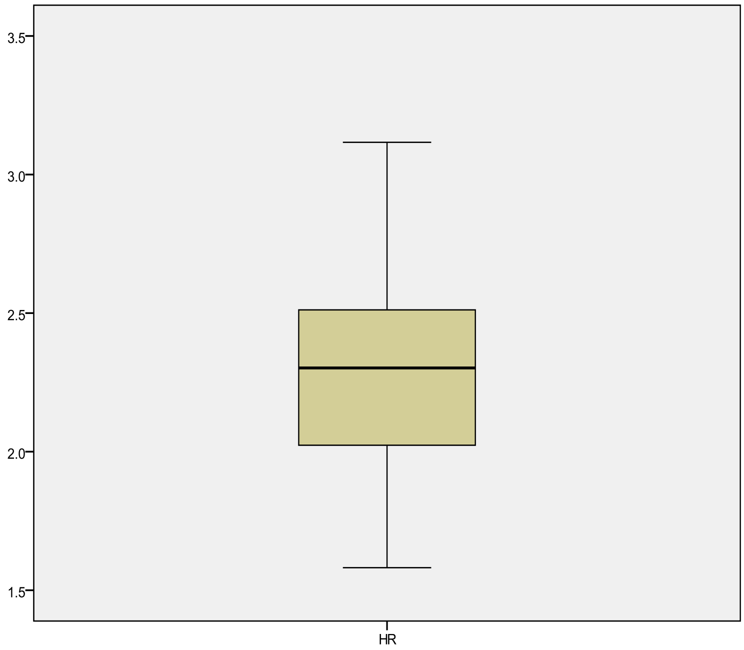
Human Resource Support



Histogram for Human Resource Support

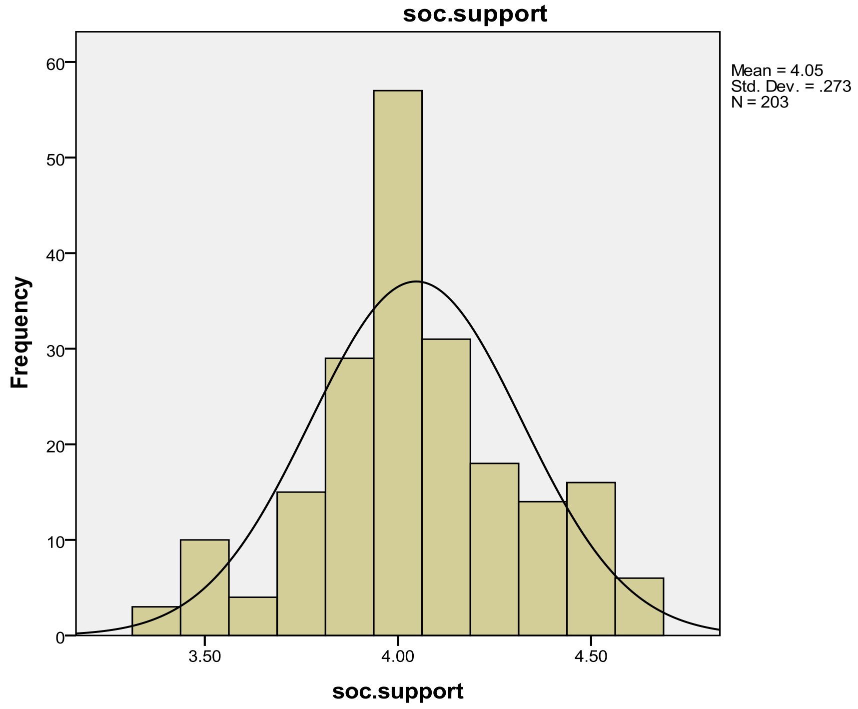


Normal Q-Q Plot for Human Resource Support

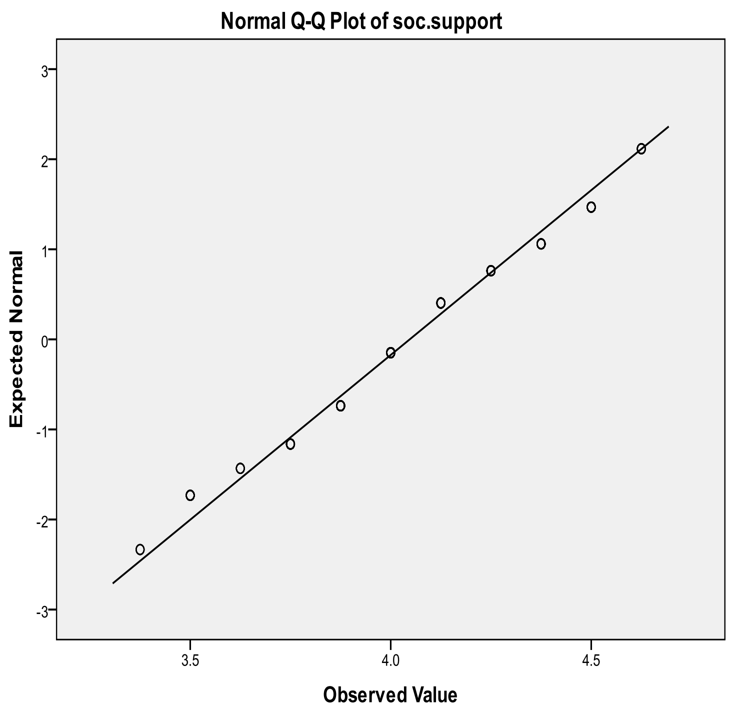


Box Plot for Human Resource Support

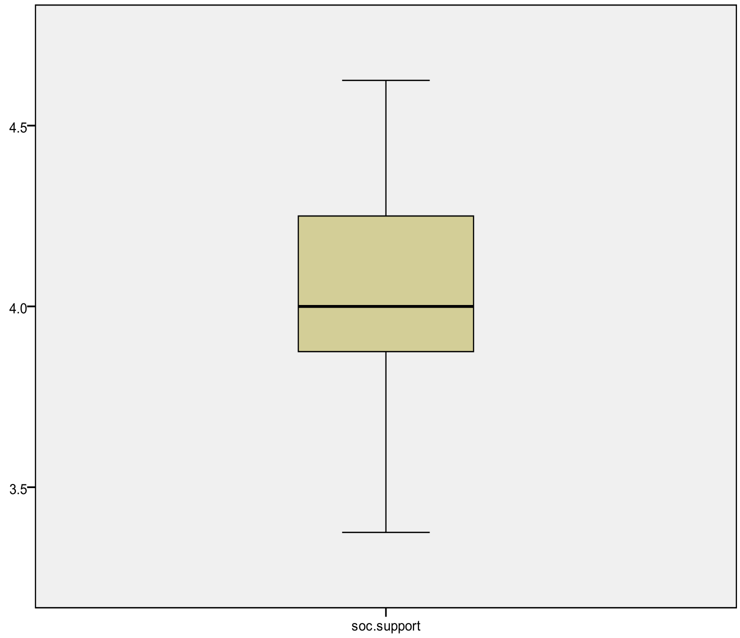
Social Support



Histogram for Social Support Variable

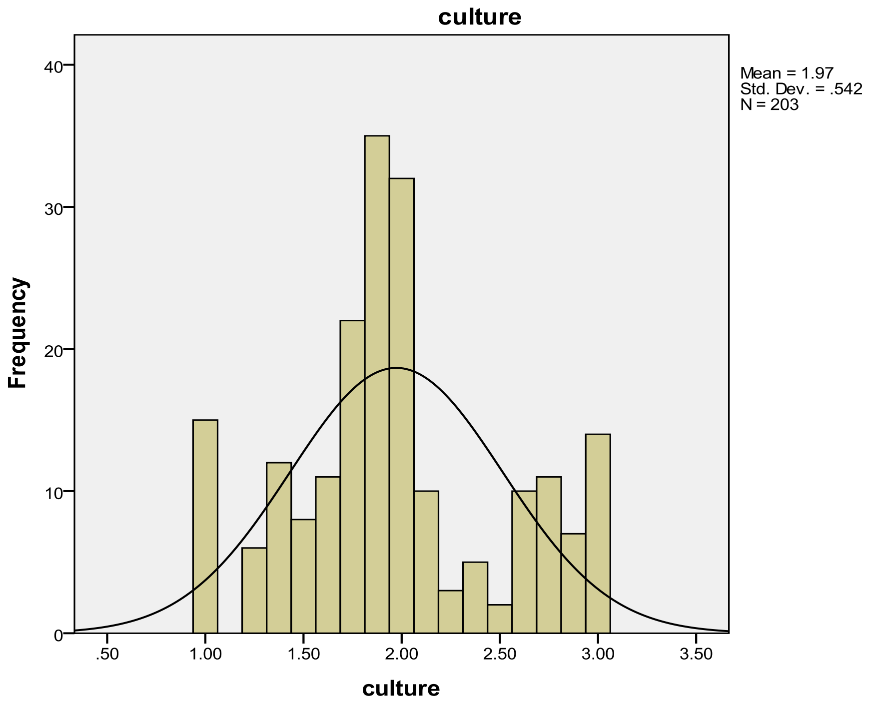


Normal Q-Q Plot for Social Support Variable

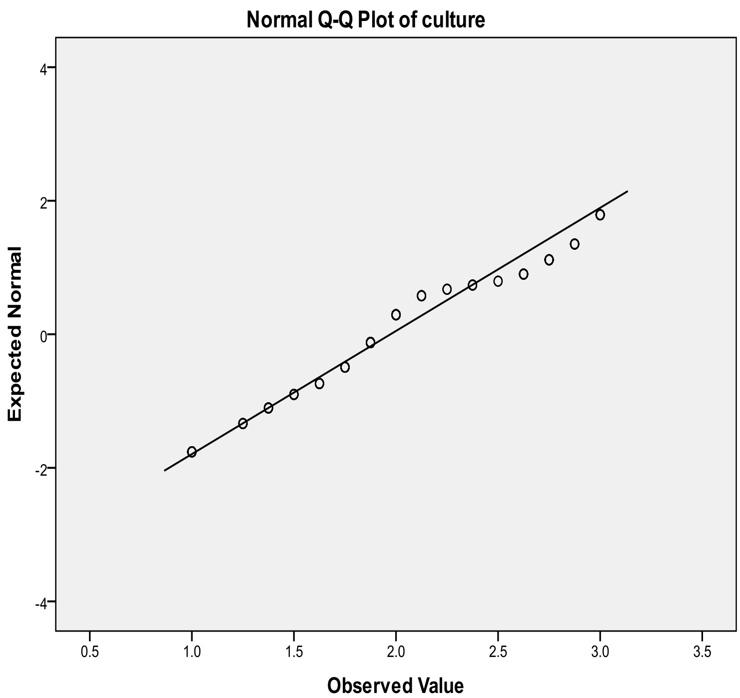


Box Plot for Social Support Variable

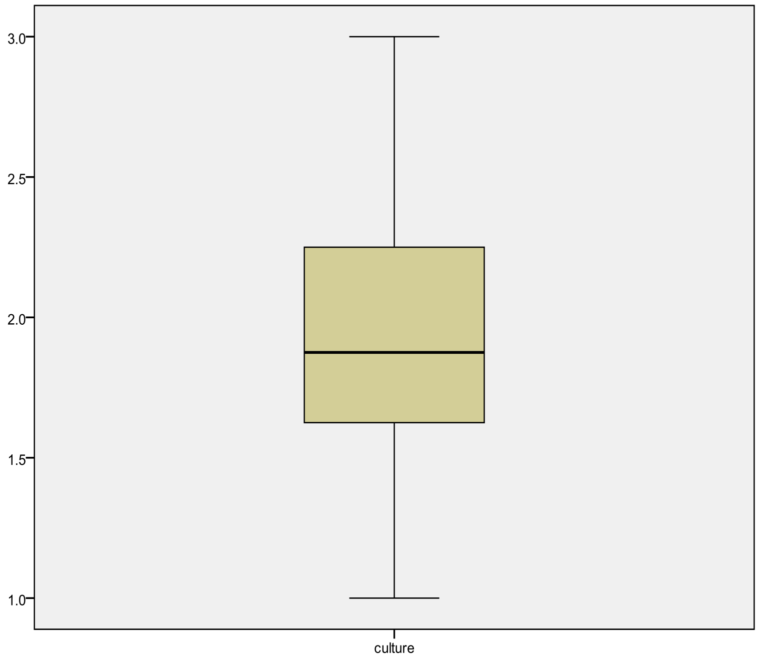
Culture Distance



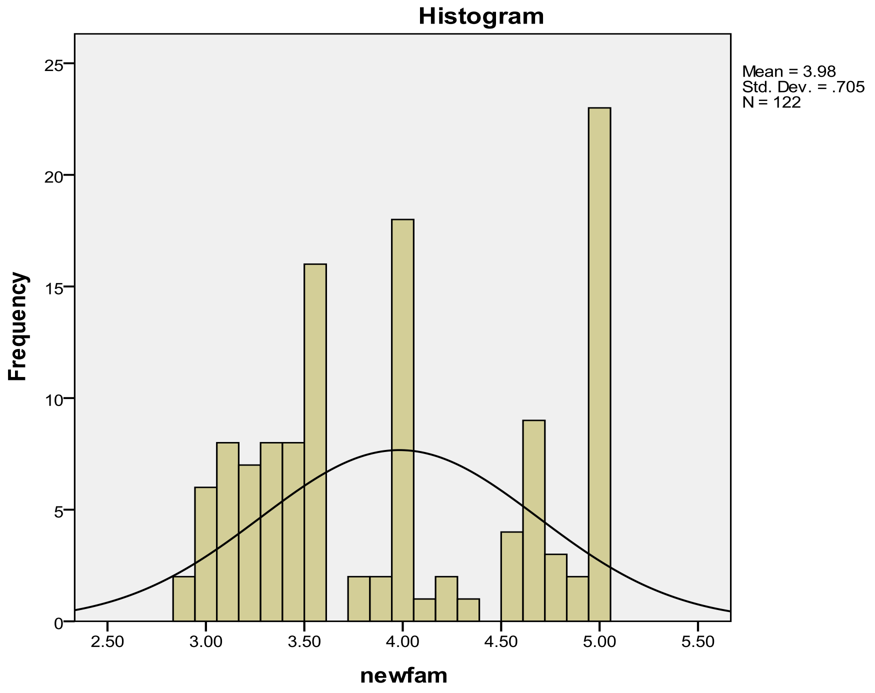
Histogram for Culture Distance Variable



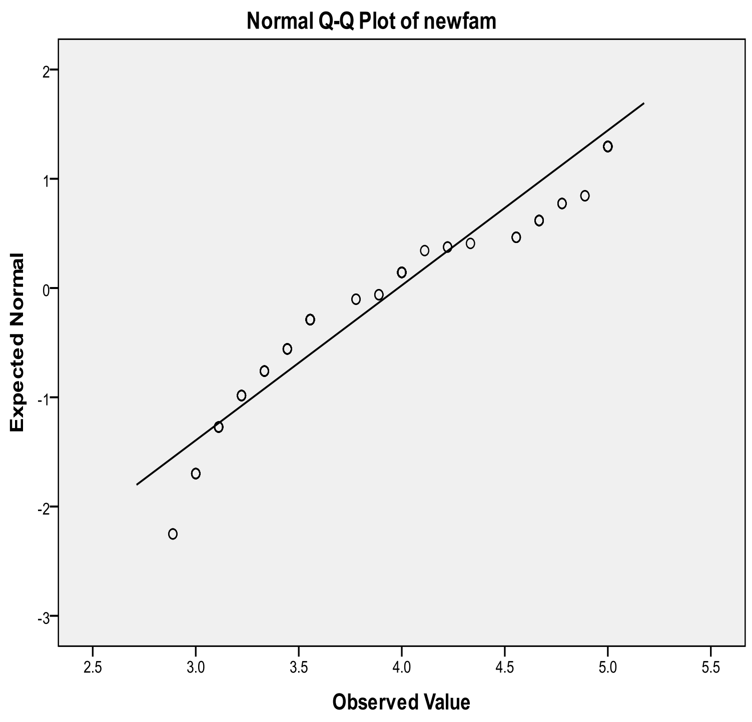
Normal Q-Q Plot for Culture Distance Variable



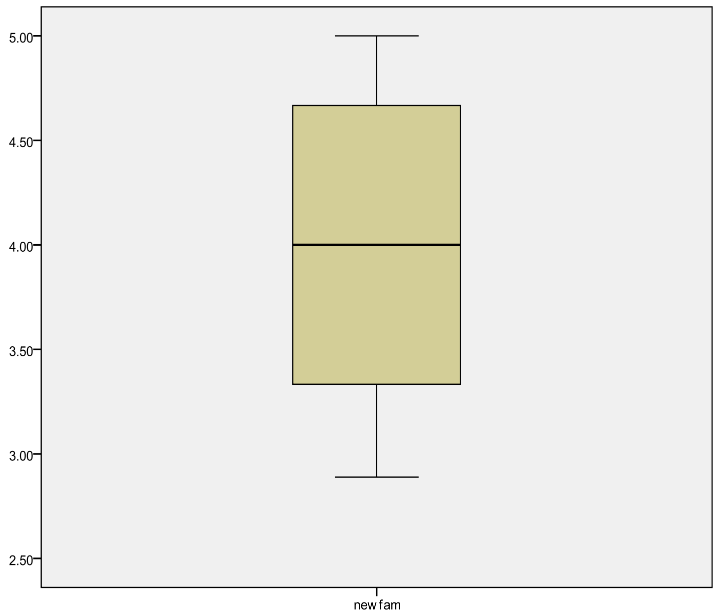
Box Plot for Culture Distance Variable



Histogram for Family Adjustment Variable



Q-Q Plot for Family Adjustment Variable



Box Plot for Family Adjustment Variable

APPENDIX 9 – STRUCTURAL MODEL