HOST COUNTRY NATIONALS TO THE RESCUE: A SOCIAL

CATEGORIZATION APPROACH TO EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

A Dissertation

by

SOO MIN TOH

Submitted to the Office of Graduate Studies of
Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

December 2003

Major Subject: Management

HOST COUNTRY NATIONALS TO THE RESCUE: A SOCIAL

CATEGORIZATION APPROACH TO EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

A Dissertation

by

SOO MIN TOH

Submitted to Texas A&M University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Approved as to style and content by:

Angelo S. DeNisi	Adrienne J. Colella
(Chair of Committee)	(Member)
Michael Wesson	Winfred Arthur, Jr.
(Member)	(Member)

Angelo S. DeNisi
(Head of Department)

December 2003

Major Subject: Management

ABSTRACT

Host Country Nationals to the Rescue: A Social Categorization Approach to

Expatriate Adjustment. (December 2003)

Soo Min Toh, B.B.S., Nanyang Technological University

Chair of Advisory Committee: Dr. Angelo S. DeNisi

The present study proposes a significant role for host country nationals (HCNs) in the expatriate adjustment process. Based on self-categorizaton theory, newcomer socialization research, organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) research, and models of expatriate adjustment, I present a model proposing how social categorization processes influence HCNs' willingness to engage in adjustment-facilitating organizational citizenship behaviors (AOCBs). I further propose that these behaviors have a significant impact on expatriates' adjustment and in turn, other important job-related outcomes of the expatriate. Hypotheses were tested on 115 expatriates and 53 HCNs. Expatriates were contacted directly or via an organizational contact. HCNs were either contacted directly or nominated by their expatriate counterpart to participate in the study. Results reveal support for the main tenets of the model. The willingness to engage in AOCBs was related to outgroup categorization, collectivism, and perceptions of justice. Social support provided by HCNs was found to significantly relate to HCNs' perceptions of their expatriate co-worker's adjustment. Expatriates, however, indicated that spousal adjustment and language ability were more important for their own adjustment. Adjustment was related to other key expatriate outcomes. The research and managerial implications of these results are discussed.

DEDICATION

To Milo, for his unconditional love.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation would not have been made possible if not for the help of many individuals. I would like to thank the faculty and doctoral students at A&M for all the help and support they have shown me over the years. I owe special thanks to my committee members, Winfred Arthur, Adrienne Colella, Michael Wesson, and Jing Zhou. They provided me with great guidance and encouragement throughout the dissertation phase. They were, and still are, always thinking ahead for me to ensure that my work is of the best possible quality. I know they will continue to positively impact their students as they have me.

I am especially grateful to my "big brothers", Todd Dewett, Matthew Semadeni, and Shung Jae Shin, as well as, my "sisters" Tieying Yu and Phyllis Washburn for being there for me in times of crises and in times of celebration. Their courage and generosity have been a great source of inspiration; their friendship, help, and encouragement have made my time in College Station most meaningful and quite unforgettable.

My Chair, Angelo DeNisi, is, without a doubt, owed the greatest debt of gratitude. I owe Angelo a great deal for believing in me and for having the wisdom and foresight to encourage me to pursue my true interests. There was little he thought I could not accomplish and so much he would do to help me achieve my goals. His unending support and guidance have enabled me to pursue a research path that he lets me call my own. Angelo has demonstrated to me what it is to be a great researcher, a nurturing mentor, and more importantly, a wonderful individual. Being his student has been my

greatest honor and privilege. I leave the Ph.D. program with utmost gratitude, respect, and admiration for Angelo.

I also owe special thanks to my biggest fan, David Ma, for his immeasurable support and patience. David was instrumental in my data collection and also a key figure in keeping me sane during the most stressful times. He worked hard at helping me in any way that he could. I am grateful for his strength and his love.

Finally, I am most grateful to my family, especially Mom, for cheering me on and for all their prayers in the last five years since I have been away from home. Last of all, to Milo and Luv, for being the best distractions anyone could possibly ask for.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF TABLES

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Understanding how expatriate adjustment takes place continues to be a key concern of multinational organizations and researchers alike. The high costs and high rates of expatriate failure have long been documented (Aycan, 1997a; Black, 1988; Hays, 1974; Tung, 1987) and research continues to uncover ways in which these can be minimized. Despite the high potential for failure and costs to organizations, more and more organizations are increasingly recognizing the value that international experience can create for the organization (Carpenter, Sanders, & Gregersen, 2001; Light, 1997), and thus continue to deploy expatriates for a number of strategic reasons (Gregersen, Hite, & Black, 1996).

The expatriate adjustment literature has seen significant developments over the past two decades. The earlier literature (Hays, 1974; Tung, 1987) surrounding this concern have been criticized for its atheoretical form (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). However, more recently, comprehensive theoretical frameworks (Black et al., 1991) and numerous insightful empirical studies (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999) have emerged, explicating the process of adjustment, as well as the antecedents and consequences of expatriate adjustment. Various streams of thought in social, as well as industrial and organizational

---

This dissertation follows the style and format of *Academy of Management Journal*.

(I/O) psychology have informed the research in this area. Theories that expatriate adjustment researchers have adopted include personality (see Caligiuri, 2000b), acculturation (Aycan, 1997a; 1997b), work role transition (Nicholson, 1984), stress management (Kraimer et al., 2001), socialization (Feldman, 1976), and sense-making (Louis, 1980a, 1980b). Most of the existing studies on expatriate adjustment, with a few exceptions (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999) have placed the onus of adjusting to the relocation on the expatriate, the spouse's ability to adjust, as well as the policies and practices the organization might adopt to prepare and support the expatriate (Aycan, 1997a, 1997b).

Much less attention, however, has been given to how the expatriate's local colleagues, such as the supervisor, co-workers, and subordinates, can influence the adjustment process despite what existing theoretical models have pointed out (see Black et al., 1991). Black and his colleagues were among the first researchers of expatriate adjustment to indicate a role for the locals whom expatriates interact with in their daily activities at work and outside work. They suggest that the expatriate's local supervisors, co-workers, and subordinates may be the richest sources of information for the expatriate about the expatriate's work, the organization, and the cultural environment (Black, 1988; Black et al., 1991). Another study suggests that the social support that organizational insiders may provide to the expatriate may also positively impact adjustment as well as other job-related outcomes (Kraimer et al., 2001). Hence, there is evidence that the expatriate's local colleagues can have a positive influence on the adjustment process, but their underlying psychological and cognitive processes have yet to be uncovered and

theoretically outlined. These studies provide initial corroborating evidence for domestic

socialization theory about the effects of insider information and support. Yet, little

research has built on these theoretical and empirical foundations, thus causing the role of

host country nationals (HCNs) in the expatriate adjustment models to remain relatively

neglected.

As I will elaborate later, domestic newcomer socialization research may be

fruitfully applied to explicating and informing expatriate adjustment research. I will

explain how the expatriate may be regarded as an organizational newcomer from the

perspective of the host company in which the expatriate is assigned and how the process

of adjustment that they go through is largely similar to the socialization processes

described in domestic studies (Lueke & Svyantek, 2000). Domestic socialization

research has established the key role of organizational "insiders" as socializing agents

for organizational newcomers (Louis, 1980; Louis, Posner, & Powell, 1983; Major,

Kozlowski, Chao, & Gardner, 1995) through the information they provide, as well as the

social support offered to newcomers (Nelson & Quick, 1999). The expatriate may be

considered a newcomer – not to the organization, but to the specific host company

setting. Hence, I will show that domestic socialization research may be an apt theoretical

foundation to build on for the model I propose here.

In the present study, I propose that HCN co-workers can facilitate the adjustment

process through certain organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) extended to

expatriates (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Organ, 1997). In particular, I propose that

information sharing (Louis, 1980), and social support (Nelson & Quick, 1999) behaviors

exhibited on the parts of HCNs are instrumental to the adjustment of expatriates

(Feldman & Bolino, 1999) and constitute what will be referred to in this study as

adjustment-facilitating organizational citizenship behaviors (AOCBs). These socializing

behaviors I have identified are likely to be outside the co-workers' formal job scope

(Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992; Settoon & Mossholder, 2002). This is consistent with

existing OCB taxonomies that identify orienting new people even though it is not

required as "Altruism" (Smith, Organ, & Near, 1983). Hence, HCNs have to be

otherwise motivated to exhibit these behaviors.

In addition, the development of high-quality bi-cultural relationships tends to be

relatively problematic (Aycan, 1997a; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Florkowski & Fogel,

1999). HCNs may possess different values, perceptions, and attributions (Bigoness &

Blakely, 1996; Lincoln & Kalleberg, 1990; Martinko & Douglas, 1999) from expatriates

that may inhibit the development of trust and a mature relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien,

1995). Researchers suggest that HCNs often view expatriate assignees as "outsiders" and

treat them as part of a social outgroup (Aycan, 1997a; Gladwin & Walter, 1980).

Furthermore, the organizational practices pertaining to the relative treatment of

expatriates and HCNs, such as more favorable compensation for the expatriate

(Florkowski & Fogel, 1999), may further plant the seeds of distrust among HCNs about

their expatriate counterparts. As a result, it may be relatively difficult for expatriate

newcomers to become beneficiaries of OCBs exhibited by HCNs.

A significant theoretical framework that can help explain the psychological and

social processes that influence the treatment of expatriates by HCNs is self-

categorization theory (SCT: Pratt, 1998; Turner, 1981, 1985) a theoretical stream that evolved from earlier thoughts on social identification (Tajfel, 1978). This framework is used as a basis to suggest the individual as well as contextual factors that may cause ingroup-outgroup categorizations to develop among HCN co-workers with reference to the expatriates in the host-unit. If nationality becomes a salient attribute by which HCNs derive their social identity from, they may view expatriates as a social outgroup and engage in behaviors consistent with this ingroup-outgroup distinction. Ethnocentric attitudes among HCNs regarding expatriates may also cause national identities to increase and thus lead to outgroup categorization. Furthermore, I propose that the amount of contact HCNs have with their expatriate counterparts as well as the salience of a superordinate identity, such as an organizational identity, may moderate the relationship between the proposed antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of national identities among HCNs.

The perception of expatriates as members of a social outgroup by HCNs on the basis of nationality is proposed to be the prime cause of the unwillingness of HCNs to provide role information to expatriates or offer any form of social support to the expatriate that may facilitate in the adjustment of the expatriate. In addition, I also propose three other factors that may influence the display of AOCBs: the HCNs' perceptions of justice in the organization regarding their pay; the extent to which the organization supports or rewards help provided to expatriates; and the collectivistic values of the HCNs. These factors have been found to positively relate to the display of OCBs among employees in the extant OCB literature (see Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Paine,

and Bachrach (2000) for a review). However, I propose that the likelihood of HCNs displaying AOCBs as a result of these three factors is moderated by intergroup cognitions (i.e., outgroup categorization). These AOCBs are what I propose to be the key factor within the host unit that would influence the overall adjustment of expatriates. Finally, I propose that the extent to which expatriates adjust to their new situation should influence the expatriates' job satisfaction and performance, and reduce their withdrawal intentions.

The present study adopts a relatively unique view of the expatriate adjustment situation. It focuses on the HCN perspective – the emphasis is on the role of organizational members who originate from the host country, such as the expatriate's local supervisor, co-workers, and subordinates. However, to avoid over-complicating my proposed model, I will focus on only one group of HCN organizational insiders, namely, the HCN co-workers of expatriates. This is a valid first step as the domestic socialization research has demonstrated that co-workers can be effective socializing agents (Louis et al., 1983). This is not to say that HCN supervisors and subordinates have a less important socializing role. These employee groups should also have an important part to play. However, to consider all three groups of HCN employees would cause the present model to be unduly complex. Starting with a narrow focus and expanding later to include multiple stakeholders creates a workable path towards increasing our understanding of the role of HCNs within the host unit in the expatriate adjustment process. Thus, I have chosen to focus on the expatriate's HCN co-workers.

The next section highlights the HCN perspective on expatriate adjustment issues and reviews the existing state of research surrounding the role of HCNs in models of expatriate adjustment.

The Role of HCNs in Expatriate Adjustment Research

Currently, HCNs have had a small role in expatriate adjustment models. Until recently, the role of host country employees in the adjustment process has only been theorized and not empirically tested. A few studies have, of late, examined the influence of HCNs on adjustment.

As noted, Black and his colleagues speculated that the support that HCNs may provide to expatriates might significantly influence the likelihood of success for the expatriate (Black, 1988; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Black et al., 1991; Gregersen & Black, 1989). Without the cooperation of the HCNs, they theorize that the expatriate is not likely to be able to perform his or her job well (Gregersen & Black, 1992) or learn the intricacies of the job, the organization, and the new culture. In addition, the expatriate's chances of adjusting to the new role increase when there are available sources of social support (Black, 1990; Gregersen & Black, 1992). Socialization research shows that leaders, subordinates, and co-workers may serve as valuable sources of social support (Louis et al., 1983). The friendship that HCNs extend to the expatriates has been found to help expatriates overcome the stressful period they face while going through the sense-making phase of the adjustment process (Black & Mendenhall, 1990).

Empirical investigations of this phenomenon from the perspective of HCNs have been even scarcer. There are, however, a few exceptions, which have examined how

HCN behaviors and attitudes can influence expatriated adjustment and other related outcomes. Studies find that increased interaction with HCNs reduces role uncertainty, increases performance, increases cross-cultural adjustment, and minimizes intentions to terminate the assignment prematurely (Caligiuri, 2000a; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999) because HCNs possess local knowledge and insights into the organization and the culture and in many cases, the expatriate's work role as well. Support from one's local co-workers has been found to predict expatriate adjustment (Shaffer et al., 1999). On-site mentoring from HCNs, whereby expatriates receive task and career assistance, psycho-social support, and role information from HCNs, may also increase the likelihood of expatriates becoming socialized to the new situation more quickly (Feldman & Bolino, 1999). In terms of attitudes, it has been found that HCNs' ethnocentric attitudes towards expatriates had a negative effect on the work adjustment and commitment of expatriates to the host unit (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). Thus, extant research has provided some evidence supporting the notion that HCNs' behaviors and attitudes can have a significant impact on the expatriate newcomer's adjustment. However, even though it is clear that the HCN organizational members may have a significant socializing role to play in the adjustment process (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999; Kraimer et al., 2001), their characteristics, perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors have not been clearly addressed as factors that may influence the expatriate's ability to adjust to the new role.

Hence, the present study puts forward the HCN perspective. This perspective takes the view from the "other side" of expatriate management, taking into consideration

the role of HCNs in the host unit. Taking into consideration the role of HCNs in the

expatriate adjustment process can help increase our ability to explain the outcomes of

this process. I suggest that it is not enough to focus on expatriate characteristics and

organizational policies, as has traditionally been done, to determine the success of

expatriates. There is a need to consider the HCN colleagues of expatriates to provide

better explanations for organizational phenomena surrounding the expatriate. As noted,

more and more researchers are taking notice of this perspective. However, there is still

much more to be done in this area. Thus, one aim of the present study is to stimulate

research that adopts the HCN perspective.

Next, research has been relatively silent as to the specific behaviors and attitudes

that HCNs may exhibit that directly impact expatriate adjustment. Furthermore, there is

little research concerning the factors that would influence the HCNs' behaviors and

attitudes towards expatriates, which in turn may affect expatriate adjustment. The

domestic socialization research also faces a similar state of affairs (Bauer, Morrison, &

Callister, 1998). Co-workers have been identified to be an important and useful source of

information for organizational newcomers (Louis et al., 1983) and the information they

provide have a positive impact on various socialization aspects (Morrison, 1993a). Even

though the idea of co-workers having a significant role in the socialization process is not

an entirely new idea (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998; Louis, 1983; Morrison,

1993a), the role of HCN co-workers in the expatriate adjustment process has not been

fully addressed in extant research and we have scant understanding of the underlying

psychological and social processes that may be in effect (Kraimer et al., 2001). Other

than suggesting that support from HCNs is beneficial, expatriate adjustment studies have yet to identify the specific behaviors that HCNs could exhibit to aid in the adjustment process. They have also yet to demonstrate the circumstances under which HCNs would display these helping behaviors (for example, provide information or social support to expatriates; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999). Knowing when HCNs are more likely to exhibit helping behaviors is important for organizations as well as researchers so that organizations may take discrete steps to increase the likelihood that these behaviors are performed. Thus, another aim of the present study is to shed light on the role of the HCN in the expatriate adjustment process and advance research in this area.

In sum, expatriate management studies hint at the importance of the HCN perspective, calling for the inclusion of host country elements as endogenous factors in expatriate adjustment models (Aycan, 1997a; Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). The attention given to HCNs has only recently begun and hence, there is a dearth of studies that feature HCNs in expatriate adjustment models.

The next chapter provides a critical review of the existing literature on socialization, expatriate adjustment, and SCT. The major tenets of these theories, any shortcomings of the theories, and their relevance to the proposed model are reviewed (Chapter II). This is followed by a presentation of my proposed model and the hypotheses relevant to the model (Chapter III).

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

This section reviews the central theoretical constructs of the proposed model. First, I review the literature on domestic socialization, which leads into a definition of the expatriate adjustment construct and an analysis of the key models related to the construct. I draw on the domestic socialization literature to establish a parallel in the expatriate adjustment literature and integrate the two bodies of research to inform my model. This is followed by a review of the major expatriate adjustment models. I will focus on the factors that have been found to significantly influence the adjustment of the expatriate. Next, I review the literature on SCT and highlight its relevance to the proposed model. SCT is significant here because it provides the theoretical explanation for when and why HCN co-workers are willing or unwilling to go beyond their call of duty to help expatriates adjust to the host situation.

Relating Domestic Socialization to Expatriate Adjustment

Existing socialization research is highly relevant to expatriate adjustment research because it involves understanding how organizational newcomers come to learn about their jobs and the new environment. Socialization has also been linked to several important organizational outcomes. Among these are: job satisfaction (Ashforth, Saks, & Lee, 1998; Major et al., 1995), organizational commitment (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Ashforth et al., 1998; Klein & Weaver, 2000), performance (Ashford & Taylor, 1990;

Bauer & Green, 1994), and intention to turnover (Ashforth et al., 1998; Major et al.,

1995). These are important organizational concerns as it directly affects the

organization's returns from investing in the newcomer.

Similarly, expatriate adjustment research has been primarily concerned with

minimizing expatriate turnover and poor performance (Tung, 1987). There is much

evidence that notes the substantial losses MNEs incur if an expatriate terminates an

assignment prematurely or underperforms in the assignment (Birdseye & Hill, 1995;

Gregersen & Black, 1990; Naumann, 1992). Many studies also examine how adjustment

will influence the expatriate's job satisfaction and commitment to the organization and

how these, in turn, influence the expatriates intention or desire to turnover (Gregersen,

1992; Gregersen & Black, 1992; Naumann, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).

Furthermore, expatriate adjustment has been treated as a special case of work role

transition (Black et al., 1991) where the expatriate undergoes a degree of change in his

or her job status or content and attempts to adapt to these changes. Thus, because there is

much overlap in the outcomes of interest, as well as in the underlying psychological

processes involved in the work role transition, the research on domestic socialization is

especially relevant to expatriate adjustment research.

The following section presents a discussion on how domestic socialization

research can inform expatriate adjustment models. Any parallels between the two bodies

of research will be demonstrated. I will first define domestic socialization and expatriate

adjustment and then review the antecedents identified by the respective streams of

research shown to predict socialization and expatriate adjustment.

Defining Domestic Socialization

Socialization is a term used frequently without definition. It is often used interchangeably with several like terms such as sense-making, adjustment, and adaptation. A basic definition of organizational socialization refers to it as "the process by which an individual acquires the attitudes, behavior, and knowledge needed to participate as an organizational member" (Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998: 150). Socialization has often been identified as the primary process by which people adapt to new jobs and organizational roles (Chao, O'Leary-Kelly, Wolf, Klein, & Garnder, 1994). A comprehensive definition incorporating the essence of various definitions (including socialization, role-making, organizational transition, and learning) of newcomers attempting to engage and structure their environments is provided by Ashford and Taylor, "Adaptation is the process by which individuals learn, negotiate, enact, and maintain the behaviors appropriate to a given organizational environment" (1990: 4). "Appropriate" here refers to some degree of fit between the behaviors an individual produces and those that are demanded by the environment to achieve valued goals (Ashford & Taylor, 1990).

Organizational newcomers, upon entry, go through an interactive (Ashford & Taylor, 1990) "sense-making" and personal change process to become organizational "insiders" (Louis, 1980). An organizational newcomer may refer to someone who is assuming a new job within the same organization, a similar job in a new organization, or a similar job in a similar type of organization (Bauer et al., 1998) and depending on which form of newcomer he or she is, the challenges faced varies, as well the extent of

adjustment required (Ashford & Taylor, 1990). During entry, newcomers go through a series of entry experiences – surprise, contrast, and change – and based on these experiences, try to make sense of their surroundings (Louis, 1980). As they note in their definition of the adaptation construct, Ashford and Taylor (1990) go beyond outlining the cognitive processes to elaborate on the behaviors that newcomers need to carry out such that they may adapt to the new situation. These include, negotiating desired changes, regulating one's actions based on the negotiated environmental demands, and managing stress (Ashford & Taylor, 1990).

Socialization has also been identified as multidimensional (Chao et al., 1994). Louis (1980) suggests that newcomers need to learn about their jobs and also about the organization's culture. More recently, Chao et al. (1994) detail six dimensions of socialization: performance proficiency, people, politics, language, organizational goals and values, and history. These content areas reflect the various types of learning that may occur during socialization as well as the process of fitting in and mastering one's job (Bauer et al., 1998). The relevance of these dimensions to the socialization experience, however, may be situation-specific, thus, they should not be viewed as exhaustive or similarly important for various types of jobs, organizations, or types of work-role transition (Bauer et al., 1998). In fact, the domestic socialization research has been criticized for its questionable external validity due to the limited range of sample characteristics (in terms of jobs and industries) that have been used in the literature (Bauer et al., 1998). Hence, socialization research as a whole would benefit from testing

of existing theory on a wider array of jobs and industries, and in the present study, national contexts.

Having examined the domestic socialization literature's definitions of the socialization construct, I now turn to the expatriate adjustment literature for a definition of the expatriate adjustment. I propose that the expatriate may be viewed as a type of organizational newcomer and that expatriate adjustment is a simply a special form of socialization that occurs in a specific host unit organizational context.

Defining Expatriate Adjustment

Expatriate adjustment has been variously defined. It has been a widely researched issue in the international management literature as a criterion that interests most multinational companies as it denotes a form of expatriate "success" (Aycan, 1997a). Some of these definitions are discussed here and the major models and findings are reviewed and critically analyzed with a view to provide theoretical support for my proposed model on expatriate adjustment.

Gregersen and Black, for example, view expatriate adjustment as the "degree of psychological comfort" the expatriate feels regarding the new situation (1990: 463). Others define expatriate adjustment as the "*degree of fit* between the expatriate manager and the new environment in both work and non-work domains" (Aycan, 1997a: 436). "Adjustment" in the expatriation context has also been used interchangeably with "socialization" (Feldman & Bolino, 1999), and "adaptation" (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). As noted earlier, socialization has been defined simply as learning the ropes or as

the process by which an individual comes to learn the values, abilities, expected behaviors, and social knowledge needed to for assuming an organizational role and for participating effectively as an organizational member (Louis, 1980). Both the domestic and expatriate definitions imply that some learning about the individual's new role and adaptation are involved in order to become an effective organizational member. Hence, expatriate adjustment may be viewed as the degree to which the expatriate learns and feels comfortable with various aspects of his or her new organizational role.

Like much work on socialization and acculturation, many expatriate adjustment studies have adopted the view that adjustment is multifaceted (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1990; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999). Black (1988) proposes, based on Torbion's (1982) measure of adjustment to everyday life, that expatriate adjustment comprises of three facets - (1) work role, (2) interacting with HCNs, and (3) the general culture and everyday life. Work adjustment is the degree of adjustment an expatriate feels about the job and responsibilities; interaction adjustment refers to the comfort the expatriate feels about interacting with local supervisors, peers, and subordinates, and general adjustment refers to the "comfort an individual feels with various aspects of the host country culture" (Lueke & Svyantek, 2000). General adjustment is synonymous to cross-cultural adjustment of the expatriate, which "involves the gradual development of familiarity, comfort, and proficiency regarding expected behavior and the values and assumptions inherent in the new culture" (Black & Mendenhall, 1990: 118). These facets are consistent with the facets in the acculturation framework - work, socio-cultural, and psychological, respectively (Aycan,

1997b). Studies also find that these three facets are highly intercorrelated (Black, 1988); whereas others go further to suggest that some facets of adjustment precede others (for example, adjustment to the environment and interacting with locals are the most immediate predictors of work adjustment: Aycan, 1997b; Newman, Bhatt, & Gutteridge, 1978). Preliminary findings show that each of these facets differentially predicts different adjustment outcomes and hence should be treated as distinct constructs rather than one overarching, unitary construct (see Parker & McEvoy, 1996). Black et al. (1991) propose that the expatriate adjustment can also be distinguished by stages, or based on when adjustment occurs – *before* the expatriate arrives at the host country (anticipatory adjustment) and *after* the expatriate arrives in the host country (in-country adjustment).

Summary and Conclusions on Adjustment in Domestic and Expatriate Contexts

Clearly, many parallels can be drawn between the domestic concept of socialization and expatriate adjustment. Organizational newcomers, regardless of whether or not relocation to another country is required, need to learn aspects of the job as well as aspects of the cultural and social situation in order to "fit in". Hence, socialization is a learning and "fitting in" process that requires some kind of change or transition within the newcomer over a period of time. In this sense, socialization and expatriate adjustment are synonymous (Black et al, 1990). Expatriate assignments may be viewed as a type of job transfer; an existing employee is re-assigned from the parent company to the host country unit to take on possibly new tasks, a new environment, and

a new role. The tasks involved may range from being completely the same to completely novel, and the context in which these tasks are to be performed would be different (new organizational context and new country). Thus, the expatriate can be viewed as an organizational newcomer with respect to the host organization, although he or she may not necessarily be a new hire of the multinational company. Next, because expatriate assignments constitute a form of work transition, where the expatriate now operates in a different context from before and may be required to perform novel tasks, the process of adjustment that the expatriate undergoes may be considered as a special form of socialization.

Further, both the domestic and expatriate literatures have suggested that there are multiple dimensions to socialization. Whereas expatriate literature suggests three main dimensions, the domestic literature has undergone much more rigorous testing over a long period of time and identifies more finer-grained facets of socialization. However, both suggest that becoming adjusted to the job, the interaction with other organizational insiders, and the culture of the work and larger cultural context are key components of socialization. This indicates significant overlap between the two concepts. Hence, with the domestic and expatriate concepts of adjustment highly similar, and with the domestic socialization literature much more established, the expatriate adjustment research can learn much from the former. The theoretical basis for the domestic literature should be amenable to transfer to a different context, in this case, the host country unit. The nomological network of domestic socialization is likely to be applicable, with some adaptations, to the expatriate and to the host country unit situation. Hence, the present

study also poses as a good test of the transferability of domestic socialization research to the expatriate assignment situation.

One point to note before moving on to my discussion of existing domestic and expatriate adjustment models: Research has found that the three dimensions of expatriate adjustment are significantly intercorrelated (Shaffer et al., 1999). However, each dimension differentially predicts different outcomes and is accounted for by different antecedents (see Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Although distinguishing among these dimensions can help us understand the adjustment process better as it allows researchers to test more fine-grained relationships concerning expatriate adjustment (Kraimer et al., 2001), to date, there have been no consistent findings as to what factors predict which facets of expatriate adjustment or any clear theoretical rationale for why it might be so. Hence, in the present study, all three dimensions of expatriate adjustment will be taken into consideration and their relationships with the proposed antecedents and outcomes of adjustment will be explored rather than hypothesized a priori. Furthermore, as noted, expatriate adjustment can occur at different stages of the assignment. In my model, I only consider the socialization processes that occur after the expatriate arrives at the host unit. Hence, any socialization effects accumulated prior to entry to the host unit will be controlled.

The next section reviews existing domestic socialization and expatriate adjustment models. I identify the major antecedents from both literatures and any gaps within the expatriate adjustment literature that needs to be addressed.

Antecedents of Socialization in Domestic Studies

Researchers have examined several factors that may affect the socialization

process. These factors include various newcomer attributes and behaviors, and

organizational structures and processes (see Bauer et al., 1998). Organizational processes

include socialization tactics (Ashforth et al., 1998; Major et al., 1995; Van Maanen,

1998), recruitment practices (Chatman, 1991), realistic job previews (Dugoni & Ilgen,

1981; Wanous, 1985) and the characteristics of the job itself (Major & Kozlowski,

1997). Newcomer attributes and behaviors include things such as personality (Bauer &

Green, 1994), values (Chatman, 1991), demographics (Ashforth & Saks, 1996), and

proactive information seeking behaviors (Morrison, 1993a; 1993b).

One key theoretical perspective on socialization is the "interactionist"

perspective (Reichers, 1987), where organizational "insiders" act as socializing agents

for organizational newcomers by providing advice, job instructions, and social support

(Louis, 1980; Louis et al., 1983). The frequency of interaction between the newcomer

and organizational insiders is suggested to directly affect the newcomer's establishment

of a situational identity, acquisition of appropriate role behavior, development of work

skills and abilities, adjustment to the work group's norms and values, and sense-making

of the organization's norms, practices, and procedures (Reichers, 1987). Empirical

evidence corroborates this and shows that the relationships of the newcomers with

organizational insiders, such as supervisors and peers, have a significant impact on

discrete socialization outcomes (Chan & Schmitt, 2000; Major et al., 1995; Nelson &

Quick, 1991). Major et al. (1995), for example, find that supervisor and team members'

behaviors predicted socialization of newcomers whereas their role negotiation function

moderated the negative effects of unmet expectations of newcomers on socialization.

Allen, McManus, and Russell (1999) also find that formal peer mentoring relationships

provide social support for newcomers and in turn affect aspects of socialization. Hence,

a key predictor of the socialization of newcomers is the help that they receive from their

colleagues. Yet, researchers note that the "interactionist" perspective has been relatively

neglected (Bauer et al., 1998), with greater emphasis given to the effects of contextual

factors (Ashforth et al., 1998; Klein & Weaver, 2000) or the effects of newcomer

attributes and behaviors (Adkins, 1995; Major & Kozlowski, 1997). Thus, the

conclusions that can be drawn about the nature of the socialization process have been

criticized as being substantially limited (Bauer et al., 1998).

Next, I turn to the research that has been conducted regarding the antecedents of

expatriate adjustment. I discuss the key factors found in the literature identified to have

an influence on an expatriate's adjustment.

Antecedents of Expatriate Adjustment

As noted previously, much of expatriate adjustment research has focused mainly

on the individual and organizational predictors of expatriate adjustment and adjustment

outcomes (Aycan, 1997b) and thus, our knowledge of how these factors influence the

process of adjustment are significant. A comprehensive range of factors have been

proposed by researchers (Arthur & Bennett, 1995). We have seen studies examining

personality characteristics (Caligiuri, 2000a; 2000b); competence, cross-cultural

experience, relational skills, attitudes towards conditions in the host country, motivation,

and personal and family circumstances (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Aycan, 1997b;

Torbiorn, 1982), in particular the adjustment of the spouse (Black & Stephens, 1989;

Gregersen & Black, 1991; Tung, 1987). The other set of factors proposed by research to

influence expatriate adjustment are the organizational factors and the job factors.

Organizational factors may pertain to the home country company and may also refer to

the host country company conditions. Organizational characteristics include features,

such as the structure, availability of support, and organizational policies (Kraimer,

2001), especially human resource practices (Aycan, 1997b). In fact, the understanding

that individual attributes are important in the ultimate success of the expatriate lead to

greater interest in the impact of expatriate policies such as expatriate selection (Caligiuri,

2000b), training (Black & Mendenhall, 1990), and compensation (Black & Gregersen,

1999) on expatriate adjustment among both organizational scientists and managers.

Aspects of the job, in terms of its novelty, ambiguity, conflict, and overload (Black,

1988) also became identified as important factors affecting the expatriate's adjustment to

the work role.

The expatriate adjustment research provides at least three relatively

comprehensive and theoretically-grounded models of expatriate adjustment. One of the

first theoretical models that has since guided research in this area is the model proposed

by Stewart Black and his colleagues (1991). The authors draw on various areas of

research that are related to individual adjustment: organizational socialization, career

transitions and sense making, work role transitions, and relocation. They propose that

actual international adjustment can be facilitated by both anticipatory adjustments, or adjustments made before entry to the new setting, and in-country adjustment, or the adjustments made after the expatriate arrives at the new setting. Hence, they suggest a set of individual, organizational, and job factors that might influence these two stages of adjustment. Their model also distinguishes among the facets of adjustment – work, interaction, and general – and makes specific propositions about the relationships these may have with the various factors. Scant attention, however, was devoted to the role of HCNs with only one proposition pertaining to the influence of social support from local organizational members, such as supervisors and co-workers to the degree of adjustment. They also suggest that this relationship should be strongest with the work aspect of adjustment (see Proposition 14 in Black et al., 1991).

Since its conception, the Black et al. (1990) model has been refined and expanded upon (Aycan, 1997a, 1997b), and as noted earlier, empirical studies have been conducted to test this model. Among these, the most complete tests of the model are by Shaffer et al. (1999) and Kraimer et al. (2001). The Shaffer study confirms the multidimensionality of adjustment and finds that role clarity, cultural novelty, language proficiency, and previous assignments are significantly related to various aspects of adjustment. Consistent with much of the expatriate adjustment studies, it finds that spouse adjustment is the most important factor related to expatriate adjustment, but the study also finds support for the relationship between co-worker social support and expatriates' interaction adjustment. Although the relationships between supervisor social support and the three facets of adjustment are not supported (Shaffer et al., 1999), the

study provides empirical support for the proposition that HCN co-workers can help expatriates learn culturally appropriate norms and behaviors to effectively interact with other HCNs in the host environment.

In the Kraimer et al. (2001) study, the researchers investigate the role of various sources of support: the organization, leader, and the spouse on the expatriate's level of adjustment work performance - both task and contextual. Based on a stress management perspective, they emphasize the role of social support in helping individuals adjust to novel situations. They base their definition of social support on a definition by Leavy (1983: 3) as "the availability of helping relationships and the quality of those relationships" and can be further broken down into aid, affect, and affirmation (Kraimer et al., 2001). Aid refers to providing relevant information and assistance, affect refers to the interpersonal aspect of a supportive relationship, and affirmation refers to the conveying of confidence in the newcomer's abilities to deal with stressful situations. They find that the support received from the organization has direct effects on work and general adjustment and in turn, task and contextual performance. Spousal *support* unexpectedly does not relate to both adjustment and performance. Researchers suggest that spousal *adjustment* may be a better predictor of expatriate adjustment than spousal support and perhaps there are interactive effects of the two that the study did not capture. Social support from the supervisor, indicated by the leader-member exchange between the expatriate and HCN supervisor, was not related to adjustment, but was directly related to the task and contextual performance of the expatriate. Hence, again, we see

that insiders of the host-unit have significant influence on the job-related outcomes or the "success" of the expatriate.

Summary and Conclusions on the Antecedents of Expatriate Adjustment

Expatriate adjustment research has followed the traditions of domestic socialization studies – emphasizing newcomer characteristics and behaviors, and organizational practices as key antecedents of adjustment. The existing models of expatriate adjustment are, in fact, built on socialization literatures (Black et al., 1991). Hence, it is not surprising that the "interactionist" perspective (Reichers, 1987) is also clearly lacking in the expatriate adjustment literature. Only a handful of studies have specified organizational insiders as having an influence on the expatriate adjustment process and these studies consistently find significant positive effects of co-worker and local mentoring relationships on expatriate adjustment and adjustment outcomes (Caligiuri, 2000a; Feldman & Bolino, 1999; Kraimer et al., 2001). Hence, there is evidence pointing to the impact of expatriates' HCN co-workers (Caligiuri, 2000a; Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999).

However, as is the case in the domestic socialization research, there is little knowledge as to how and when this influence occurs (i.e., when insiders will help socialize expatriates, what the specific socializing behaviors are, or how these behaviors affect socialization; Bauer et al., 1998). The domestic socialization research suggests that organizational insiders may facilitate socialization by reducing the uncertainty faced by newcomers and do so through the role information (Louis et al., 1983; Miller &

Jablin, 1991) as well as the social support (Louis et al., 1983; Nelson & Quick, 1991) that they can provide to the newcomers. In the expatriate adjustment literature, there is a dearth of studies examining the specific kinds of behaviors HCN insiders may exhibit to aid the process as well as studies providing theoretically meaningful frameworks to explain what these behaviors are, when they might be performed, and how they might affect the expatriates' adjustment. Hence, the present study aims to address this gap in the literature. I will focus on a specific group of organizational insiders, the expatriate's HCN co-workers, as key socializing agents for the expatriate and identify the behaviors as well as the conditions that increase the likelihood that these behaviors will be exhibited.

Next, I review the theoretical framework used to explain the socio-psychological and behaviors processes of my model. Specifically, I review SCT and the antecedents of social categorization. This theory is relevant to my model as it provides the basis for explaining why HCN co-workers may or may not exhibit the relevant OCBs to aid expatriate adjustment. I propose that the key psychological process that influences the display of OCBs is social categorization. Under certain circumstances, HCNs may perceive expatriates as a social outgroup on the basis of their national identity differences. In my proposed model, social categorization based on national identities may affect the HCN co-workers' willingness to engage in OCBs directed at expatriates. SCT provides theoretical explanations for why this occurs as well as when it may more likely occur.

Research on Self-Categorization Processes

Self-categorization theory (SCT: Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987) evolved directly from earlier ideas on social identity theory (Tajfel, 1982b: see Hogg & Terry, 2001). Self-categorization, or the "segmentation of the world so as to impose an order on the environment and provide a locus of identification for the self" (Taylor & Moghaddam, 1987: 73), pervades organizational life and stems from our tendencies towards simplification of our environment (Tajfel, 1981). Individuals may view themselves, among other things, based on self-categorizations, or cognitive groupings of oneself based on similarity to a class of stimuli and dissimilarity to some other class of stimuli (Turner et al., 1987). Categorization reduces uncertainty about the individuals themselves and others and about how they and others may or ought to behave in specific social contexts (Hogg & Terry, 2001). Thus self-categorizations provide norms that act as guides for members' behavior. Categorization also helps satisfy people's need for positive self-esteem (De Cremer, 2001), as well as need for achieving or maintaining some degree of uniqueness or distinctiveness (Brewer, 1991).

In any particular situation, a given category may be primed by certain situational cues, role or task demands, and target information (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). When this occurs, that category is said to have gained "salience." Salience refers to "a person's awareness of a dimension in defining and describing the self at a given time" (Cota & Dion, 1986: 771). As a particular social category or group gains salience, the awareness of that identity tends to influence the individual's subsequent perceptions and behaviors about himself or herself as well as about other members of the ingroup and outgroup

(Cota & Dion, 1986; Kawakami & Dion, 1993). Members come to view themselves as "interchangeable representatives of some shared social category membership" (Turner, Oakes, Haslam, & McGarty, 1994: 455) and view others outside their social group as embodiments of the relevant prototype, rather than as unique individuals (Brickson & Brewer, 2001).

Self-categorizations are often social, in the sense some level of grouping is involved based on similarities and differences with other individuals, but they can also be personal, whereby self-categorizations are based on one's individual differences with others in one's social ingroup (Turner et al., 1987). Hence, self-categorization can be classified into three levels of abstraction: the superordinate level of an all-encompassing self-categorization, the intermediate or group level of ingroup-outgroup categorization, and the subordinate level of personal self-categorization. In the context of an organization, the most common categories are personal criteria (e.g., demographics, inferred traits and attitudes) and organizational criteria (e.g., organizational structure, positions and roles, physical location, and the nature and quality of the relationship between the perceiver and the other individuals: Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). According to SCT, as a particular categorization gains salience, so does one's identification to that category relative to other possible categories. Next, I examine the conditions that increase the salience of a given social category.

Factors That Increase the Salience of Categories

There are several conditions that may cause a particular social category to become salient and lead to perceptions of ingroup-outgroup social categorizations. First, the categories must be cognitively accessible to the perceiver (Turner et al., 1987). There should be at least two clearly identifiable or salient social categories in the situation (Tajfel, 1978). Distinctiveness theory posits that social categories, or social groups, are most often formed based on their most salient attribute within a given social context (Cota & Dion, 1986; Lansberg, 1988b; McGuire, McGuire, Child, & Fujioka, 1978). Oftentimes, social categorizations are based on simple demographics, such as gender, race, age, ethnicity, because these categories are usually clearly identifiable and easily noticeable in any given situation (Lansberg, 1988; Wharton, 1992). Next, several studies (Cota & Dion, 1986; McGuire, 1984; McGuire et al., 1978) also show that where a particular characteristic in a given social environment is relatively rare or peculiar, the salience of that characteristic is enhanced, thus providing the basis for self-categorization. The salience of a social group may also be increased by the perception of a distinctive outgroup (McGuire et al., 1978). A distinctive outgroup alerts an individual that categorization based on the distinct attributes of that outgroup may be a means of making sense of or simplifying the present social environment.

As noted, distinctiveness may also be ascribed by organizational factors (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). SCT holds that organization-created categories may be a means by which individuals define themselves in certain situations. Organizational roles, organizational practices (e.g., HR practices), or organizational workgroups may

differentiate employees within a given organization into various subgroups (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). Structural factors in the environment influences the "inclusiveness" of group categories, such as few group delineations in a given social context (Lansberg, 1988), or simply sharing a *common fate* with others is sufficient for categorization (Tajfel, 1981). The organization provides the backdrop as well as the cues that render certain attributes relatively salient (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). Even when there are no direct interactions or personal relationships formed with other group members, categorization of the self and others in categories can occur (Locksley, Ortiz, & Hepburn, 1980; Tajfel, 1978). The mere knowledge of being in the same social group is often enough to elicit a common identity and result in category consistent perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors (Brewer & Gardner, 1996). Hence, the way an organization structures itself and its members, may provide plausible bases by which individuals may choose to define their social identities.

Next, to the extent that there is a normative fit between the perceived category and what is represented in reality, that particular category is also more likely to be used as a means of defining oneself (Haslam, Powell, & Turner, 2000; Oakes, Turner, & Haslam, 1991). In other words, the social category has to represent differences between groups on some characteristic, and members of the groups should match the category on the relevant attributes. For example, if we perceive a person as 'English' the normative (e.g., physical appearance, spoken language) and the specific behavioral content has to be congruent with the defining category (Turner et al., 1987). At least one study argues

that the degree of fit may sometimes provide a better account of the occurrence of social

categorization than distinctiveness of distinguishing attributes (Oakes, 1994).

Hence, SCT makes general predictions about what causes certain categorizations

to become salient. SCT also provides insight into the behavioral consequences of self-

categorization. Some of these are reviewed next.

Behavioral Consequences of Self-Categorization

The theories of social identity and self-categorization are most useful for

understanding organizational situations where different social groups exist (Jost &

Elsbach, 2001). It is important to understand intergroup dynamics when social

categorization is present because a member's identification with the category has

important influence on his or her perceptions, cognitions, attitudes, and behavior. People

can be categorized in a multitude of ways. However, not all of these categories are

noticed or attached any form of significance by the players and hence, even though those

possible categories exist, they do not influence an individual's cognition or behavior.

Only categories that are salient and categories that people identify with strongly (relative

to other social identities and personal identities) would have a direct influence on the

way people think and behave, and thus, requires our attention in organizational research.

Hogg and Terry state, "when a specific social identity becomes the salient basis

for self-regulation in a particular context, self-perception and conduct become ingroup

stereotypical and normative, perceptions of relevant outgroup members become

outgroup stereotypical, and intergroup behavior acquires, to varying degrees depending

on the nature of relations between the groups, competitive and discriminatory

properties" (2001: 3). When individuals identify themselves with a particular category,

they tend to behave consistently with their group identity (Cota & Dion, 1986;

Kawakami & Dion, 1993), viewing themselves as indistinguishable from their group

members, and outgroup members as significantly different from themselves (Hogg &

Terry, 2001). Furthermore, people have a fundamental tendency to maintain a level of

positive self-concept. If a significant portion of one's self-concept is derived from one's

social identity, then behaviors used to maintain and/or protect this identity will tend to be

in intergroup terms. Hence, many studies have found, under certain conditions, people

who identify with their social categories engage in ingroup bias and outgroup derogative

and discriminatory behaviors in intergroup settings (Reynolds, Turner, & Haslam, 2000).

**Summary and Conclusions on the Relevance of Self-Categorization Processes in the
Expatriate Context**

SCT provides key theoretical explanations for intergroup relationships and make

several predictions regarding the antecedents and consequences of social categorization.

These theories are particularly relevant to the present study because the processes

described in them are likely to occur in the context of the host unit. As noted, the host

unit presents a situation where social groups may be categorized based on salient

characteristics derived from the employees' nationalities. SCT suggests the conditions

under which categorization would be more likely to occur. It also provides a useful

theoretical foundation for explaining intergroup phenomena that may occur in a host

unit. It could be used to explain why HCNs may be more reluctant to help expatriate newcomers adjust to the new situation when doing so is not formally required or rewarded by the organization. SCT suggests that if an individual perceives a target as a member of an outgroup, he or she would be less willing to help. Thus, in my model, the main factor that influences the willingness of HCNs to engage in socialization behaviors to the benefit of the expatriates is attributed to the level of salience of national identities in the host unit context and the consequent categorization of HCNs and expatriates as the ingroup and outgroup, respectively. However, in addition to categorization processes, I also consider how other organizational as well as individual factors may influence the display of help among HCNs. I draw upon the rich organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) literature to inform my hypotheses.

Having reviewed the major theories to be used in my model, the next chapter presents the development of my research model and the relevant hypotheses. The model is summarized followed by a discussion of each of the hypotheses and their theoretical rationale.

CHAPTER III

THEORY DEVELOPMENT

A process model of expatriate adjustment depicting the interacting role of HCNs and the expatriate in the expatriate adjustment process is presented in Figure 1. When expatriates enter the host environment, they are likely to face a new set of role requirements. Without any previous experience in the new environment and perhaps little prior exposure to foreign cultures, expatriates often experience high levels of role uncertainty and stress (Black, 1988). Expatriates need to undergo a period of adjustment to become comfortable and learn to be effective in their new organizational role. Hence, the literature on socialization is relevant to the expatriate adjustment context. Also, as pointed out in the domestic socialization literature, co-workers are an important part of this process. They are one of several possible categories of socializing agents for organizational newcomers. Unfortunately, organizational insiders, such as the newcomer's co-workers often fail to initiate any form of helping to the newcomers unless specifically required to do so. Thus, they inadvertently contribute to the failure of expatriates in overseas assignments.

Figure 1

Proposed Model of Expatriate Adjustment

```
┌─────────────────────────────────┐
│ ▪ Interpersonal Interaction     │
│ ▪ Organizational Identification │
└─────────────────────────────────┘
                │
                ▼
┌──────────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌─────────────────┐    ┌──────────────┐    ┌─────────────────────┐
│ ▪ Demographic    │    │ Salience of  │    │ Outgroup     │    │ AOCBs:          │    │ Expatriate   │    │ Expatriate Job-     │
│   Differences    │───▶│ Nationality  │───▶│Categorization│───▶│ ▪ Information   │───▶│ Adjustment:  │───▶│ Related             │
│ ▪ Values         │    └──────────────┘    └──────────────┘    │   Sharing       │    │ ▪ Work       │    │ Outcomes:           │
│   Dissimilarity  │                                            │ ▪ Social Support│    │ ▪ Interaction│    │ ▪ Job Satisfaction  │
│ ▪ Ethnocentric   │                        ┌──────────────────┐│                 │    │ ▪ General    │    │ ▪ Withdrawal        │
│   Attitudes      │                        │ ▪ Experienced    ││                 │    └──────────────┘    │   Intentions        │
│ ▪ Pay            │                        │   Justice        ││                 │                        │ ▪ Expatriate        │
│   Discrepancy    │                        │ ▪ Perceived      │▶                 │                        │   Performance       │
└──────────────────┘                        │   Organizational │                                          └─────────────────────┘
                                            │   Support        │
                                            │ ▪ Collectivism   │
                                            └──────────────────┘
```

Drawing from SCT, I propose that the main reason why HCNs may withhold helping behaviors is because they view expatriate newcomers as part of an outgroup. I propose several factors in the host unit increases the salience of national identities and cause HCNs to perceive expatriates as part of a social outgroup. The HCNs' attitudes towards expatriates as well as their perception of the attitudes of the expatriates in the host unit can influence the salience of nationality and in turn lead to outgroup categorization. As shown in Figure 1, I propose that HCN co-workers' perceptions of demographic differences, perceived values dissimilarity, and their ethnocentric attitudes relative to their own culture increase salience of nationality and the likelihood of ingroup-outgroup categorizations based on nationality. HCNs who perceive themselves to be different from expatriates in terms of their physical attributes as well as value systems, and possess ethnocentric attitudes about the expatriate's culture are more likely to perceive national identities and hence, perceive the expatriates as "outsiders". Furthermore, if expatriates also possess similar ethnocentric attitudes towards HCNs, they are more likely to distance themselves from the HCNs and thus, present themselves as part of different group. In addition to perceptual and attitudinal factors, I also propose that structural factors in the host unit can influence national identity salience as well. In particular, I suggest that expatriate HR practices that differentiate between HCNs and expatriates further increase the salience of national identities and further delineate outgroup boundaries. Hence, national identities are likely to gain salience and the categorization of HCNs and expatriates into separate social groups are more likely to occur.

However, the model in Figure 1 shows that there are two potential factors that may moderate the relationship between the antecedents of national identity salience and the actual salience of such an identity in the eyes of the HCNs. They are: the degree of interpersonal interaction between HCNs and expatriates and the HCNs' level of organizational identification. I propose that when there is a high degree of interpersonal interaction between the HCNs and the expatriates (i.e., individual personal identities are become relatively salient), national identities may not increase in salience even though the proposed antecedents are relatively rife. Similarly, if HCNs identify strongly with the organization and tend to perceive expatriates as significant parts of the same organization, they are less likely to perceive a high level of national identity salience even though the proposed antecedents of national identity salience are relatively prevalent.

Next, the present model also suggests that outgroup categorization is one of the main factors that influence the likelihood that HCNs display helping behaviors that aid in the expatriate adjustment process (i.e., AOCBs). Drawing from the domestic socialization literature, the present model proposes that HCN co-workers can help the expatriate reduce role uncertainty and facilitate adjustment. I propose that the role information and social support that HCNs offer directly influence the expatriate's ability to adapt to the job, the cultural environment, and to interacting with the locals. Unless co-workers are assigned as mentors to incoming expatriates, I expect that the AOCBs are unlikely to be included in the formal job description of the HCNs, and hence, they must come from the HCNs' own initiative. Consistent with SCT, I propose that to the extent

that expatriates are considered part of the HCN's social ingroup, they are more likely to

receive the extra help from their host country counterparts, and thus, will be more likely

to adjust. If, however, expatriates are viewed as members of a social outgroup, then the

HCNs are less likely to help the expatriates out and may even engage in negative

behaviors that may ultimately cause the expatriate to fail.

In addition, drawing on existing OCB literature, Figure 1 indicates that

experienced justice, perceived organizational support (POS), and collectivism among

HCNs lead to the display of AOCBs. However, I also propose that the level of outgroup

categorization will moderate these linkages to AOCBs. In general, individuals are more

likely to display OCBs if the aforementioned conditions are present. However, I propose

that they are more likely to display AOCBs, or the OCBs that pertain directly to helping

expatriates adjust if they in fact, tend to perceive the expatriates as part of the same

salient social ingroup. In other words, if HCNs strongly perceive expatriates as part of

the outgroup, they will be less likely to exhibit AOCBs even when they experience high

levels of justice, high levels of POS, and possess highly collectivistic values. If,

however, HCNs perceive expatriates more as part of their social ingroup, they will be

more likely to exhibit AOCBs when they experience high levels of justice, high levels of

POS, and possess highly collectivistic values.

Next, as indicated in Figure 1, I propose that the display of AOCBs on the

HCNs' parts leads to expatriate adjustment. I also explore how the specific AOCBs may

influence facets of expatriate adjustment (i.e., job, interaction with locals in the host

country, and the general cultural environment). Finally, I propose that the extent of the

expatriate's adjustment to his or her job influences his or her job satisfaction, withdrawal

intentions, and performance on the assignment. Again, I explore how the specific facets

of expatriate adjustment influences these outcomes.

Before proceeding further, it is important to note that my model does not assume

that HCN co-workers will always categorize themselves and their expatriate counterparts

based on their national identities. There are multiple ways in which people can define

themselves as well as other people (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1995). HCNs may not

necessarily perceive expatriates as part of a deindividuated whole. It is possible that in a

particular context, HCNs may perceive the expatriates as part of their ingroup and view

each expatriate as a unique individual. However, under certain circumstances, as I will

point out next, HCNs may view their expatriate counterparts more as prototypes of a

salient outgroup. This creates the foundation of my proposed model.

Next, each of the proposed relationships, as depicted in Figure 1, will be

discussed in-depth along with the corresponding theoretical support. My hypotheses are

also presented in the following sections. The discussion of the model starts proposing

that when nationality salience increases, so does the likelihood that outgroup

categorization occurs. This is then followed by a presentation of the key antecedents of

nationality salience among HCNs in the host unit.

Antecedents of the Salience of National Identity among Host Country Nationals

Identity salience refers to "a person's awareness of a dimension in defining and

describing the self at a given time." (Cota & Dion, 1986: 771). SCT theorists suggest

that personal factors as well as situational factors (e.g., organizational context) can create the boundaries for various categories (Cota & Dion, 1986; Mcguire, 1984; McGuire et al., 1978). However, as noted, not all of these attributes may be used to define a social context in any situation. Depending on which of these categories are primed or are salient to the perceiver in that situation, the perceiver is likely to define himself or herself relative to other individuals or groups present in the situation accordingly. When individuals identify themselves with a particular category, they also tend to think consistently with their group identity (Cota & Dion, 1986; Kawakami & Dion, 1993), viewing themselves as indistinguishable from their group members, and outgroup members as significantly different from themselves (Hogg & Terry, 2001). Thus, when a social identity gains salience, individuals are more likely to self-categorize based on that source of identity, perceiving others sharing the same characteristic to be members of a social ingroup and those who do not share that particular attribute to be parts of a social outgroup.

In the context of a host unit, a potential source of social identity may be nationality. Nationality is clearly a latent identity that may be invoked. The basic condition for nationality to gain salience and lead to self-categorization based on national identity is that there is more than one national group present so that comparisons about similarities and differences among members can be made. Thus, in the host unit, there should be the HCNs, and the non-HCNs, or the expatriates.

Several social and organizational factors (both informal and formal) may increase the salience of the HCN's national identity in the context of the host

organization. I propose that demographic differences, value dissimilarities, and pay discrepancies contribute to the salience of the national identities, thus causing HCNs to perceive expatriates as a social outgroup. Because individuals tend to self-categorize based on salient attributes, if national identities gain salience, HCNs are likely to define themselves as members of their national group and the expatriates as members of a different national group. Hence, outgroup categorization occurs.

H1: When the salience of nationality among HCNs increases, the likelihood of outgroup categorization among HCNs also will also increase.

As discussed in Chapter II, research provides several factors that cause a particular social identity to gain salience. Among these, there are several factors that are pertinent in the context of the host unit organization. These include: (1) demographic differences, (2) values dissimilarities, (3) pay discrepancies, and (4) ethnocentric attitudes. These factors are discussed next.

Demographic Differences

As noted, distinctiveness theory (McGuire, 1984) posits that social categories, or social groups, are most often formed based on their most salient attribute within a given social context. Salient social characteristics and the salience of a distinctive outgroup may cede prominence to the corresponding social identity or self-categorization (Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998; Turner, 1981). As a result, social groups are often formed

around basic demographics, such as gender, age, ethnicity, and nationality (McGuire &

Padawer-Singer, 1976). These are often what are immediately apparent to individuals

(Wharton, 1992) and are familiar and easily accessible attributes of any given social

situation (Atkinson, 1986). Hence, physical appearances are often the basis on which

people categorize ethnicity (Liladhar, 1999) and the salience of ethnic categories is

increased by the its distinctiveness (McGuire et al., 1978).

It is thus conceivable that if the HCNs and expatriates are distinctive in

appearances (different hair, eyes, and/or skin color, physical build, language, cultural

values and assumptions, etc.), national identity differences will be salient. In the context

of the host unit, physical, attitudinal, and behavioral differences are likely to be salient,

especially if the expatriates are from a culturally distant country. Expatriates could speak

a different language, have different colored eyes and hair, and have a significantly

different physical build, such as typically the case of an American expatriate in a

Japanese subsidiary. Thus, it is likely that when demographic differences between the

HCN and the expatriate increase, nationality differences will gain salience and thus the

extent of outgroup categorization.

Hypothesis 1a: Demographic differences between HCNs and expatriates,

particularly in terms of physical attributes and spoken language, will increase the

salience of nationality among HCNs and thus, the extent of outgroup

categorization.

Values Dissimilarities

People from different cultures follow a different set of value systems (Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1992). The extent of difference between two nations in terms of their cultural values is also known as "cultural distance" (Triandis, 1994). Greater cultural distance between nationals of different countries may more likely create misunderstandings, reduce communications, and create greater social distance among organizational members (Lau & Murnighan, 1998; Turban & Jones, 1988). This is because people with different values also have different goals and priorities, possess different interpretations of surrounding stimuli, adhere to a different set of norms and practices, and prescribe to a different set of beliefs and attitudes. To the extent that these differences are perceived, the perceivers' perceptions, beliefs, and behaviors towards individuals of that culture may be influenced. Differences in outlooks, perspectives, priorities, and beliefs can easily be perceived either directly through direct interaction or through more indirect means such as a third party or the media (Dixon, 2001). Perceptions of these differences can lead to social categorization based on the differentiating attributes if the difference in values between the perceiver and the (potential) outgroup member is perceived to be greater than the difference in values between the perceiver and his/her ingroup member.

Perceptions of value dissimilarities may lead to outgroup categorization in the host-unit context because it contributes to the salience of different national identities. The greater the perceived dissimilarities, the greater the salience of nationality as a social category as value differences are often attributed to socialization experiences

unique to different countries. Hence, it is likely that more culturally-distant host countries relative to the expatriate's culture brings to bear the differences between the two cultures in terms of their values. This may cause nationality differences to be more salient and lead to outgroup categorization.

> Hypothesis 1b: Dissimilar values between HCNs and expatriates will increase the salience of nationality among HCNs and thus, the extent of outgroup categorization.

Next, I propose that ethnocentric attitudes within the host unit increase the salience of nationality in the particular context. In particular, I propose that ethnocentric attitudes on the both the HCNs' and the expatriates' parts will lead to increased nationality salience.

HCNs' Ethnocentric Attitudes towards Expatriates

The attitudes of HCN co-workers must be conducive to the interaction with expatriate counterparts for any positive relationship to form between them. HCNs may either have a permissive attitude towards the contributions of the expatriate or they may possess more rigid or resistant attitude where HCNs are not interested in or are not willing to accept the culture, knowledge, and skills that expatriates bring with them (Aycan, 1997b). HCN's unwillingness to accept expatriate managers may be a key deterrent to the accumulation of international experience by the expatriate (Hailey, 1994) and the success of the organization's globalization efforts (Zeira, 1979).

Florkowski and Fogel (1999) introduce an interesting construct about how expatriates view the attitudes of HCNs about them, known as perceived host ethnocentrism. I adapt this idea to describe how HCNs may possess such an attitude towards their expatriate subordinates. Such a phenomenon could arise as a result of the host country's resistance or general suspicion of foreign nationals (Aycan, 1997a).

Ethnocentrism could also result from a social group's belief in their group's positive group distinctiveness and their desire to maintain that level of distinctiveness from other groups (Turner, 1985). HCNs may possess feelings of superiority about their own society relative to the expatriate's nationality. HCNs may possess negative stereotypes about the trustworthiness of foreigners, hence, are less inclined to trust the expatriate (McKnight, Cummings, & Chervany, 1998). Thus, HCNs may resist the presence of expatriates in the organization (Hailey, 1996) or disassociate themselves from the expatriates. HCNs often lament that expatriates are sent from the headquarters because headquarters do not trust HCNs to hold important positions, when in fact, the HCNs have the prerequisite knowledge and experience and may sometimes do a better job than an inexperienced expatriate who is unfamiliar with the new role and surroundings. Feelings of frustration ensue when HCNs observe expatriates performing poorly and needing the assistance of HCNs (Hailey, 1996). Hence, ethnocentric attitudes may arise because HCNs feel that they are in fact, better candidates for the job than the expatriate and feel that expatriates are only assigned to those jobs because of their nationality. These feelings may thus invoke the salience of nationality.

Hypothesis 1c: Host ethnocentric attitudes among HCNs will increase the

salience of nationality among HCNs and thus, the extent of outgroup

categorization.

Perceptions of Pay Discrepancies

The final antecedent of national identity salience proposed in my model is the

perception of pay discrepancies caused by expatriate pay policies that differentiate the

HCNs from the expatriates. Expatriate pay can follow one or a mix of several basic

approaches. The most popular approach among U.S. MNEs is the balance-sheet or

home-country based approach (Gould, 1999). A 1999 survey by

PriceWaterhouseCoopers showed that about half of the American companies surveyed

(mostly Fortune 500) used a home-country based expatriate compensation policy,

whereas only about one percent of the surveyed companies chose the host-country based

policy. Even though it tends to be relatively expensive than the host-country based

policy, the home-country based approach tends to be preferred because it allows the

expatriate to maintain a comparable standard of living in the host country to that in the

home country (Black et al., 1998). Incentives, allowances, and perquisites are often

provided towards this end. They often include a foreign-service premium for going on

the overseas assignment and a "hardship" allowance for accepting the inconveniences

that may accompany the assignment (Leung et al., 1996). If expatriates originate from a

relatively developed country, the home-country system is likely to result in a huge

absolute advantage for the expatriate over the HCNs in the host unit for a given job or

position (Harvey, 1993). Hence, substantial differences between the expatriate and the HCN in terms of pay often exist (Beamish, 1998; Gladwin & Walter, 1980).

These substantial differences in pay often clearly differentiate the expatriates from the HCNs, accentuating the presence of the two subgroups, emphasizing any intergroup differences and intragroup similarities, and increasing the salience of national group identities among HCNs (Toh & DeNisi, 2003). With group identities salient, research suggests that members are more likely to think and act in terms of their group identities. When structural categories, in this case, pay differentials, are in line with a salient social category, the category is reinforced and the identity attains greater salience (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). Hence, in the present context, pay levels among HCNs and expatriates may cause social categories based on nationality to become more salient if pay packages do in fact differentiate the locals from the expatriates. Clearly, expatriate pay policies that do not place HCNs at such a clear disadvantage, or that might weaken the perception of any such disadvantage, will make it less likely that national identity becomes salient. The MNE may pay the expatriate according to host country rates, thus reducing the differentiation between the HCNs and the expatriates (Toh & DeNisi, 2003).

Hypothesis 1d: Perceptions of pay differentials between HCNs and expatriates will increase the salience of nationality among HCNs and thus, the extent of outgroup categorization.

In addition to proposing a set of antecedents that directly influence salience of nationality, I offer two identity factors that may moderate this relationship. These are alluded to in the next section.

Moderators of the Relationship between the Antecedents of National Identity Salience and Salience of Nationality among HCNs

I propose two moderating factors that influence the relationship between antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of nationality among HCNs. They are (1) interpersonal interaction, and (2) organizational identity. These moderating factors act to reduce the salience of the national categories in the eyes of the HCNs (i.e., their presence will weaken the relationship between the antecedents and levels of nationality salience).

Interpersonal Interaction

Social identity theorists (Brickson & Brewer, 2001) have suggested that interpersonal interaction with a member of the outgroup can lead to personalization of the outgroup member and increase the salience of those members as individuals rather than as a deindividuated representative of the outgroup. As ingroup members build interpersonal relationships with members of the outgroup, the other's social category identities become a part of what is known about the individual, and inevitably affects knowledge, as well as, feelings about the outgroup as a whole. During contact, individuals may learn more about the outgroup, such as how they are also similar to each

other in certain ways. Thus, they are more likely to make corrections to previously held

negative attitudes and stereotypes held about the outgroup (Pettigrew, 1998).

Furthermore, knowledge of another ingroup member's close relationship with an

outgroup member can lead to more positive intergroup attitudes as it becomes clearer to

ingroup members that outgroup members are not necessarily mere personifications of

their negative stereotypes but individuals who can become friends with ingroup

members (Wright & Ropp, 1997). Hence, greater interpersonal contact with outgroup

members may reduce intergroup cognitions.

        An important aspect of this, however, is that the individual should still be aware

of the other's outgroup identity, but does not use this identity as the basis for interaction

with him or her. This is key because if membership is not sufficiently salient, interaction

may individuate the outgroup member from the outgroup, causing the focal individual to

interpret this outgroup member as atypical of the outgroup. If this occurs, increased level

of affect and greater understanding of the outgroup member resulting from the

interaction will less likely generalize to the rest of the outgroup. Thus, perception of the

outgroup should still be retained, but this perception should not be at the center of the

interaction (Brickson & Brewer, 2001).

        In the context of the host unit, if HCNs interacts with expatriate co-workers at an

interpersonal level, building a one-to-one relationship with them, they may be less likely

to categorize expatriates as a social outgroup. Opportunities for interpersonal interaction

at work or socially might sometimes be few if HCNs and expatriates are segregated by

tasks, projects, or rank, or as noted earlier, the expatriate's inclination to limit

interactions with fellow expatriates (Hailey, 1996). Thus, the relationship between the antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of nationality will be strengthened if the extent of interpersonal interaction among HCNs and expatriates is low because individual-level identities have little opportunity to gain salience over group identities. On the other hand, if interpersonal interaction is high, the factors that lead to the increased salience of nationality will be moderated because interpersonal identities may become more salient as people come to know each other as individuals rather than as members of distinctive social groups. Hence,

> Hypothesis 2a: Interpersonal interaction with expatriates in the host unit will moderate the relationship between the antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of nationality among HCNs, such that increased interpersonal interaction will reduce the effects of the antecedent factors on the salience of nationality and vice versa.

Organizational Identification

In addition to interpersonal interaction, social identity theorists also suggest a form of 'recategorization' of ingroup and outgroup members. One useful superordinate category to reduce the effects of intergroup dynamics is the organizational identity (Kramer, 1991). Enhancing the salience of a superordinate identity reduces the salience of a lower level collective identity (Brickson, 2000). The organization provides a source of identity at a superordinate level. Emphasizing the salience of the organization as a

source of identity attenuates the importance of other sources of identity (Ashforth & Johnson, 2001). Hence, identifying with the larger organization helps to reduce the salience of other possible sub-group identities (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Kramer, 1991).

In the host unit context, if HCNs perceive that the expatriates are also part of the same larger group – the organization, the salience of nationality differences may be ameliorated. In other words, organizational identification may moderate the relationship between the antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of nationality among HCNs. Collective socialization processes put newcomers through a set of common experiences together, creating a "same boat" consciousness at the organizational level (Van Maanen & Schein, 1979), and create convergence in employees' basic attitudes and beliefs that are favorable for the organization (Anakwe & Greenhaus, 1999). As the organization-level category becomes the most salient part of the member's identity, the organization is now included within the domain of the individual's social group (Ashforth & Mael, 1989). Hence, if HCNs have undergone some kind of socialization with the expatriates, and have high levels of organizational identity, national group identities may take a backseat.

> Hypothesis 2b: The salience of the organizational identity among HCNs will moderate the relationship between the antecedents of national identity salience and the salience of nationality among HCNs, such that increased salience of organizational identity will reduce the effects of the antecedent factors on the salience of nationality.

Next, I present the hypotheses that predict the display of AOCBs among HCNs in the host unit context. The purpose of the discussion so far is to lead to the proposition that outgroup categorization will reduce the likelihood that HCNs will engage in AOCBs. In addition, I propose three other individual factors - experienced justice, POS, collectivism - may also influence the likelihood of AOCBs on the part of HCNs.

Predicting the Display of Adjustment-Facilitating Organizational Citizenship Behaviors among HCNs

The next section begins by outlining the specific AOCBs that HCNs can display that may influence the adjustment of expatriates to their new jobs. I discuss two forms of AOCBs – providing role information and providing social support. The hypotheses regarding the relationships between outgroup categorization, experienced justice, POS, and collectivism, and expatriate adjustment follows this discussion. I also present hypotheses pertaining to the interactive effects of these factors on expatriate adjustment.

Adjustment-Facilitating Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The present model proposes that the HCN co-worker has an important influence on the adjustment of the expatriate. Organizational socialization research acknowledges the importance of organizational 'insiders' in the socialization process of newcomers (see Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998). Insiders may include supervisors, co-workers, and mentors (Louis, 1980). It has also been noted that insiders often do not engage in the

behaviors on their own initiative that may aid organizational newcomers to socialize or adjust to the new situation (Morrison, 1993a). Similarly, expatriate adjustment studies have found that HCNs may consciously or subconsciously discriminate against expatriate organizational members by withholding vital technical information, maintaining a social distance, resisting suggestions from the expatriate, and in extreme cases, engaging in hostile behavior towards the expatriate (Florkowski & Fogel, 1999). Thus, in many cases, newcomers need to be proactive in seeking out information in order to adjust to their new environment in order to compensate for the organizational insiders' failure to provide sufficient information (Morrison, 1993a).

Hence, unless HCNs are specifically assigned to expatriates as mentors, it is unlikely that they are required to act as socializing agents for expatriates. Yet, their role is vital for the adjustment of the expatriate newcomers. Specifically, I propose two forms of AOCBs that HCNs may engage in to aid the adjustment of expatriates. They are: (1) providing role information, and (2) offering social support. I propose that these two forms of OCBs can facilitate the expatriates' adjustment

Providing Role Information. Insiders have more experience than the newcomer in the organization and thus, experience fewer surprises in the course of work compared to the newcomer. Even if surprises do arise, insiders usually have sufficient knowledge and history to make sense of the situation and resolve it. In addition, insiders have other insiders to rely on to help them make sense of any surprises they may encounter (Louis, 19890). These are attributes that the newcomer lacks as he/she has not accumulated the

necessary history and knowledge about the organization or acquired the interpretation

schemes and cultural assumptions needed to make sense of specific situations. Hence,

the proactive support provided by the newcomer's co-workers, for example, can help in

the sense-making that occurs as the newcomer tries to adjust to the new situation (Louis

et al., 1983; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

In the context of the host unit, the expatriate faces substantial uncertainty

regarding his or her new role in the organization. The expatriate has to go through a

sense-making process aimed at learning about his or her new role. The information that

insiders, usually the HCNs, may provide to them regarding the new job, the

organization, and the larger cultural environment can help expatriates learn what to

expect, how to interpret various stimuli, and how to behave appropriately in a given

situation. HCNs are most likely to possess such knowledge. However, unless a formal

mentoring relationship is set up between the expatriate newcomer and one (or more)

HCN mentor, it is unlikely that HCNs will have helping expatriates learn about their

roles as part of their job description. Thus, it is important to understand what influences

the display of such behaviors by HCNs.

Offering Social Support. Social support refers to stimuli that lead a person to

believe that he or she is cared for, esteemed, valued, and belongs to a network of

communication and mutual obligation (Kirmeyer & Lin, 1987). It includes the

friendships that provide emotional reassurance, needed information, or instrumental aid

in dealing with stressful situations (Fisher, 1985). No doubt, being a newcomer in a new

organization, or one that is in a foreign country, can be a highly stressful experience. Supportive relationships from people around the newcomer can help him or her deal with unexpected or unpleasant experiences. However, similar to providing role information, providing care and support to another employee is not usually specified in one's job description. HCNs are not usually required to formulate supportive relationships or friendships with the expatriates they work with unless perhaps a mentoring relationship is formalized by the organization. Yet, many expatriate management researchers have noted that these supportive relationships can aid the expatriate in the adjustment process. Hence, again, it is important to outline the conditions that may cause the provision of social support to expatriates from HCNs to more likely occur.

Having identified the AOCBs that are most likely to influence expatriate adjustment, I now turn to my hypotheses regarding the predictors of these behaviors.

Outgroup Categorization

Expatriate adjustment research suggests that HCNs may engage in certain behaviors to facilitate expatriate adjustment or they may display or withhold certain behaviors that may hurt the expatriate's adjustment. The question then lies in "what causes the HCN to aid expatriates in the adjustment process?" I propose that one key influence of the choice to help or withhold help from expatriates is the HCNs' categorization of the expatriates as part of their social ingroup or part of a social outgroup, respectively.

SCT studies have consistently found that ingroup members are treated more favorably than outgroup members. Individuals are more likely to go out of their way to help others viewed as "one of us" rather than others perceived as "different from us." As noted, providing co-workers with specific information as well as offering social support to fellow co-workers are unlikely to be part of an employee's formal job scope. HCNs in the host-unit are also unlikely to have, as part of their job description, a requirement to act as an information source for or be friends to expatriate newcomers. However, I propose that if HCNs view expatriates as part of the same social group, they may be more concerned about their welfare and at the same time, be more motivated to protect or enhance their shared social identity by helping the expatriates adjust and become effective members of the organization. Thus, they will be more likely to exhibit AOCBs. If, however, the HCNs in the host unit are so entrenched in their national identity and adhere to a strict categorization of the expatriates as part of the outgroup, they will be less likely to help and cooperate with expatriates, and more likely to develop antagonistic relationships with them. It is clear this would lead to frustration of the expatriate's ability to carry out his or her duties at the host unit or adjust to other aspects of the new situation. Thus,

Hypothesis 3a: HCNs who categorize expatriates more as members of a social outgroup and less as part of their social ingroup are less likely to engage in AOCBs.

Perceived Justice

Social exchange explanations are offered to understand how justice influences an individual's willingness to engage in citizenship behaviors (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994). When employees perceive fairness in the procedures used to make reward allocation procedures and how these procedures are carried out, they are more likely to exhibit OCBs (Konovsky & Pugh, 1994; Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000; Moorman, 1991). Since OCBs are behaviors outside an individual's prescribed role, if an individual believes that display of such behaviors will not be subject to exploitation, he/she will more likely engage in these behaviors (Moorman, 1991). Similarly, if an individual perceives that the wage dispersion among organizational members is just, he/she is more likely to engage in citizenship behaviors, such as collaborating with co-workers (Pfeffer & Langton, 1993) and working harder to produce products of higher quality (Cowherd & Levine, 1992). Hence, according to existing domestic research on the relationship between experienced justice and OCBs, I propose that HCNs who feel that they have been justly treated by the organization are more likely to exhibit AOCBs.

In objective terms, HCNs are likely to be relatively deprived compared to their expatriate counterparts. As noted earlier, the organizational imperative to reward expatriates handsomely is likely to cause significant pay discrepancies between the HCNs and the expatriates in the host unit. Yet, the justice and relative deprivation (Martin, 1986) research has shown that the presence or even the perception of these differences does not always lead to feelings of injustice and subsequent actions (Martin, 1986; Tajfel, 1982a). For injustice to be experienced, first, it has to be perceived (i.e.,

HCNs must choose expatriates as comparative referents). The outcome in question, in this case, pay, should be one that is desired (Tyler, Boekmann, Smith, & Huo, 1997). HCNs should also feel that they deserve or are entitled to the outcome (Crosby, 1984; Lansberg, 1988a), and HCNs must also feel that the deprivation is not the result of some legitimate consideration, such as higher abilities, skills, performance, or knowledge. If these conditions are met, HCNs are more likely to experience injustice (Toh & DeNisi, 2003) and withhold AOCBs. If on the other hand, injustice is not perceived, HCNs are more likely to exhibit AOCBs, or OCBs that can facilitate expatriate adjustment.

> Hypothesis 3b: HCNs who experience justice are more likely to engage in AOCBs.

Perceived Organizational Support

Perceived organizational support (POS) refers to an employee's global beliefs that the firm cares about their personal well-being and values their contribution to the organization (Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Based on principles of social exchange, POS has been found to relate to perceptions of justice (Masterson et al., 2000), OCBs (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Masterson et al., 2000; Wayne, Shore, & Linden, 1997), absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986), performance (Eisenberger et al., 2001), turnover (Masterson et al., 2000), and affective commitment (Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001). When employees perceive the commitment of the organization to them, they may feel obliged to reciprocate by

increasing their effort exerted towards achieving the organization's goals, especially when the norms of reciprocity or exchange is more greatly adhered to by employees (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Recent research has demonstrated that POS affects job-related outcomes through the individual's felt obligation to care about the organization's welfare and help it achieve its goals, as well as positive mood (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

In the host unit, the HCN is likely to be interested in knowing how much he/she is valued by the organization. Subordinates have needs for praise and approval and to satisfy these needs, thus they develop global beliefs regarding the extent to which the organization values their contribution and cares about them personally (Eisenberger et al., 1986). These beliefs are developed over time and constantly reinforced based on the employee's experience with the organization and the organization's history of reward decisions (Wayne et al., 1997). Benefits available to all regardless of performance are unlikely to be viewed as POS. These benefits, such as investment in the employee and recognition of performance, should be discretionary to be associated with POS (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Wayne et al., 1997). If HCN co-workers perceive that the organization is committed to them and cares about their personal well-being, they will more likely engage in behaviors that support the organization's goals in order to reciprocate its investment in them. The success of an expatriate's assignment is likely to be an important organizational goal given that the expense the MNE puts up for the expatriate is great. The HCN co-worker is not necessarily obliged to expend extraordinary effort to ensure that this newcomer is socialized. However, if the HCN cares about the welfare of the organization and hopes

to contribute to its success, he or she may reciprocate the organization's support by going out of his or her way to ensure that the expatriate adjusts to the new setting.

Hypothesis 3c: HCNs who perceive organizational support are more likely to engage in AOCBs.

Collectivistic Values

Collectivism, as described by Triandis (1994), is characterized by interdependence, ingroup harmony, ingroup embeddeness, duty, and personalized relationships. In general, collectivists care greatly about the welfare of the group and will place group interests above personal interests, even if it means that their own desires and needs are compromised (Wagner & Moch, 1986). They also tend to derive their self-identity from the group more than from their individual uniqueness. Thus, individuals who are collectivistic tend to favor the ingroup (Earley, 1994) more than individuals who are individualistic. As a result, they make relatively clear distinctions between ingroups and outgroups (Earley, 1989; Hofstede, 1980) and tend to behave consistently with such distinctions (Wagner, 1995). They are also more likely to view helping others within their group as part of their moral duty and view prosocial behaviors as normative inrole behaviors (Earley, 1989). If helping behaviors are viewed as an expected part of one's job, those behaviors are more likely to be exhibited (Morrison, 1994). As a result, research has found that collectivists are more likely to exhibit OCBs, such as

interpersonal helping at work, and loyalty to the organization (Moorman & Blakely, 1995).

In the host unit context, if HCNs are highly collectivistic, I expect that they are also more likely to engage in OCBs, particular those behaviors that pertain to helping others, and protecting the welfare of others as well as the organization. The expatriates in the workplace may be likely beneficiaries of the HCNs' proclivity to help others. HCNs may thus be more likely to help the expatriates in whatever way that they can, including providing the needed role information and offering social support to the expatriates. Hence,

Hypothesis 3d: HCNs who are highly collectivistic are more likely to engage in AOCBs.

In addition to the direct effects of outgroup categorization, experienced justice, POS, and collectivism on the likelihood that AOCBs are displayed, I propose a moderating influence of outgroup categorization on the linkage between the latter three factors and the likelihood of HCNs engaging in AOCBs. Hypotheses 3b-3d state that when experienced justice, POS, and collectivism are high, HCNs are more likely to engage in HCNs. I further speculate that outgroup categorization will weaken these three relationships. First, in general, HCNs may be more likely to engage in OCBs in exchange for justice at the workplace. However, I argue that if HCNs view expatriates as outgroups, they will be less likely to exhibit AOCBs, or the OCBs that specifically help

in the socialization of expatriates, even if they experience high levels of justice (or at any level of justice?) than if they viewed expatriates as ingroup members. In other words, experienced justice will have less influence on the likelihood of AOCBs if HCNs perceive expatriates as part of an outgroup than part of their ingroup. Similarly, earlier, I hypothesized that HCNs will exhibit more AOCBs to reciprocate higher levels of POS. However, I argue that this relationship will weaken such that POS will have less influence on the likelihood of AOCBs if HCNs perceive expatriates as part of an outgroup than part of their ingroup. Finally, I argue that when outgroup categorization is high, HCNs tend to exhibit fewer OCBs at higher levels of collectivism than at lower levels of collectivism but when outgroup categorization is low, HCNs tend to exhibit more OCBs at higher levels of collectivism than lower levels of collectivism (criss-cross effect). This is because people who are more collectivistic make clear distinctions between their ingroup and outgroups and at the same time, attach relatively higher emotional significance to their group memberships. Thus, the OCBs they tend to exhibit may more likely be reserved for the benefit of ingroup members and not outgroup members. In sum, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 3e: The relationship between the likelihood of HCNs engaging in AOCBs and outgroup categorization will be moderated by experienced justice, POS, and collectivism.

Effects of Adjustment-Facilitating Organizational Citizenship Behaviors on

Expatriate Adjustment

The present model proposes that the HCN co-worker has an important influence on the adjustment of expatriates. As noted, expatriate adjustment studies have neglected the role of HCNs in the adjustment process (Kraimer et al., 2001; Shaffer et al., 1999). Thus, a main aim of the present study is to highlight the importance of HCNs' role in the adjustment process and the specific behaviors that they may engage in to aid the process. Specifically, I propose that the proactive information and social support provided by the expatriates' co-workers could help in the sense-making that occurs as the newcomer tries to adjust to the new situation (Louis et al., 1983; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992).

Previously, I have discussed how organizational socialization research acknowledges the importance of organizational 'insiders' in the socialization process of newcomers (see Bauer, Morrison, & Callister, 1998) as they are able to provide newcomers with various forms of information, and social support (Morrison, 1993b; Nelson & Quick, 1991; Seers, McGee, Serey, & Graen, 1983; Settoon & Adkins, 1997) that help newcomers learn their organizational roles. In overseas assignments, expatriates often face high levels of role uncertainty as a consequence of the novelty of the new role. They are also likely to come under a large amount of stress from various sources to perform effectively in their new job and adjust to the new setting. It is unlikely that expatriates can undertake their new role effectively without the help of people whom they work with and also have firsthand knowledge of the foreign

environment. Thus, I hypothesize that HCNs have a significant socializing role for expatriate newcomers.

HCNs are likely to have worked in the host unit and have lived in the host country longer than the expatriate. They are more likely to know the intricacies of the organization and the social norms that expatriates are likely to be unfamiliar with. Thus, HCNs are a valuable source of information for expatriates. If HCNs are willing to share this information with expatriates, the expatriates in the host unit are probably better able to learn their role quickly and effectively. Also, it is conceivable that expatriates will encounter situations where they need the cooperation of their co-workers, and extra assistance from them, especially since they are newcomers to the host unit. They are also likely to find that the stress they face in their jobs to be somewhat more manageable if they have people to confide in and share their experiences. I propose that HCNs are an excellent support network for expatriates as they are likely to have the ability to help expatriates out when they need extra assistance or give advice to them regarding other areas of the expatriates' work and social life in the host country. Hence, I hypothesize that the AOCBs of providing information and social support directed at expatriate co-workers by HCNs are likely to be significantly related to expatriate adjustment.

Hypothesis 4: The extent of AOCBs that HCNs engage in will be positively related to the adjustment of the expatriate to his or her new role.

As noted in earlier sections, expatriate adjustment has been found to consist of three facets. A few studies have examined how these three facets are differentially predicted. Hence, in the present study, I will also explore the relationships between the two types of AOCBs on work, interaction, and general adjustment, respectively. In addition, exploratory analyses will be conducted to test for any relationship that may be present in the data between the facets of expatriate adjustment on the proposed expatriate adjustment outcomes. No specific hypotheses about these relationships will be presented.

Finally, the next section presents my hypotheses regarding the attitudinal, cognitive, and behavioral outcomes of expatriate adjustment.

The Effect of Expatriate Adjustment on Adjustment Outcomes

Clearly, whether or not expatriates adjust to the host situation will impact their attitudes and cognitions about the assignment, as well as their behaviors. I propose that expatriate adjustment will influence expatriates' job satisfaction, intentions to withdraw from the assignment, and performance on the assignment. These outcomes are particularly important for the expatriate as well as their colleagues and the MNE. I discuss these next.

Job Satisfaction

Locke defines job satisfaction as a "pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experience" (1976: 1300). A positive

evaluation of the job or job experience is likely to result as the incumbent experiences adjustment to the work role and experiences fewer role stressors. With adjustment to their new role at the host unit, expatriates may view themselves as "functioning members of their organizations" (Lance, Vandenberg, & Self, 2000) and may derive satisfaction from the work experience. Hence, consistent with existing expatriate adjustment studies (Aryee & Stone, 1996), if the expatriate becomes psychologically comfortable in the new role and, therefore adjusted to the job's role requirements, he/she is more likely to experience job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 5: Expatriates who are adjusted to the new situation are more likely to experience job satisfaction.

Withdrawal Intentions

Voluntary turnover occurs when the expatriate quits the assignment or the organization before the completion of the assignment, and hence, turnover could be either external (leaving the organization) or internal (changing jobs within the organization; Naumann, 1993). Research suggests that the most immediate precursor of actual employee turnover is the employee's intention to quit (Hom & Hulin, 1981). When employees are unable to adjust to the work role, their linkage with the organization is likely to be weak (Mowday, Porter, & Steers, 1982), and the psychological discomfort they experience may cause them to react by withdrawing themselves from the distressing situation, either physically or psychologically. Studies

on expatriate management have suggested a link between intentions to turnover and aspects of the job, as well as work environment (Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Naumann, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Work adjustment has also been found to be positively related to the expatriate's intention to stay in the overseas assignment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Gregersen & Black, 1990).

However, research finds that many expatriates do not actually leave the assignment even though they wanted to (Adler, 1986). Hence, withdrawal of expatriates from the expatriate assignment may more often occur as an intention to terminate the assignment than the actual act of termination. Thus, I hypothesize:

Hypothesis 6: Expatriates who are adjusted to the new situation are less likely to possess withdrawal intentions.

Expatriate Performance

Finally, the outcome that most MNEs are concerned about is that of the expatriate's performance on the overseas assignment. As discussed earlier, the performance construct consists of two subdomains – task performance and contextual performance and these subdomains are predicted by different factors (Motowidlo & Van Scotter, 1994). Recent expatriate studies have considered both of these subdomains as opposed to focusing on task performance (Caligiuri, 1997; Kraimer et al., 2001). Expatriates have been found to be higher performers if they were well adjusted at work (Aryee & Stone, 1996; Kraimer et al., 2001). Domestic adjustment research also finds

that more socialized individuals tend to be more productive (Bauer & Green, 1994). In their study, however, Kraimer and colleagues (2001) did not find a significant relationship between work adjustment and expatriate's contextual performance even though both dimensions were relevant performance aspects of an expatriate's job. Thus, based on these findings, I suggest:

Hypothesis 7: Expatriates who adjust to the new situation will display higher levels of performance.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

This chapter details the procedures, describes the sample and research measures, and discusses the statistical analyses used to test the hypotheses presented in Chapter III.

Sample

Data from 114 expatriates and 53 HCNs were collected. Expatriates represented 24 nationalities (see Table 1). Fifty-nine percent of the respondents were male (65 males). The average organizational tenure was 3.51 years (SD = 3.34 years). Sixty-seven percent of the respondents reported having undergone some form of pre-departure orientation/training provided by the organization. The average size of the overall expatriate workforce of the organizations represented by the respondents was 97 expatriates (SD = 352 expatriates). Thirty-seven percent of the expatriates held junior level positions, 25% held middle-level, 26% held senior-level, and 4% held above senior level positions.

TABLE 1

Nationalities Represented By Expatriates

Nationality of Expatriates	Percentage of Expatriates (%)
America	13.9
Australia	3.5
Brazil	0.9
Canada	5.2
People's Republic of China	16.5

TABLE 1 Continued

Nationality of Expatriates	Percentage of Expatriates (%)
Columbia	0.9
Finland	0.9
Germany	0.9
Great Britain	0.9
Hong Kong	0.9
India	5.2
Indonesia	1.7
Ireland	0.9
Kenya	0.9
South Korea	10.4
Malaysia	12.2
Philippines	6.1
Russia	0.9
Singapore	6.1
Switzerland	1.7
Taiwan	0.9
Thailand	0.9
Tunisia	0.9
Turkey	1.7
Not reported	5.2
Total	100.0

The HCNs surveyed represented five different countries, namely U.S., Vietnam, Malaysia, Singapore, and Japan (Table 2 lists the number of HCNs from each country). About half (51%) of the HCNs who reported their gender were male. The average age of the total sample was 33 years and their average tenure at the organization was 5.33 years ($SD = 5.77$ years) with a range of 2 months to up to 25 years. Eighty-four percent of the respondents have worked with expatriates and foreign nationals previously. Respondents averaged 10 months ($SD = 4$ months) of contact with expatriates and foreign nationals.

Thirty-six percent of the respondents held junior level positions, 34% held middle level positions, 9% held senior level positions, and 6% held above senior level positions.

TABLE 2

Nationalities Represented by HCNs

Nationality of HCNs	Percentage of HCNs (%)
America	58.5
Canada	5.7
Japan	1.9
Malaysia	3.8
Singapore	18.9
Vietnam	1.9
Not reported	9.4
Total	100.0

Procedures

Data were collected from expatriates and HCN co-workers (see Appendix 1 and 2 for a copy of the expatriate and HCN questionnaires). Responses to the expatriate questionnaire were solicited in several ways: 1) through a public list serve comprising of international HR professionals and expatriates (International-HR); 2) through a contact person within the organization; and 3) using direct requests to expatriates known to me. The criteria for selecting expatriates were that they had to be currently on assignment in a country outside their home country and that they had at least one HCN co-worker. Requests for participation were sent to expatriates via electronic mail. The message

stated the nature of the research and requested the recipient's participation. Respondents either completed an online, an electronic, or a physical version of the surveys. The expatriate respondents were requested to forward a second survey designed for a HCN to a local co-worker (i.e., a HCN whom they worked with the most in the organization). In some cases, if it was clear that the HCN was a co-worker of an expatriate, the HCN was contacted directly and requested to forward the expatriate survey to their expatriate co-worker. The selection criterion for HCNs was that they had to be currently co-workers of expatriates. Responses were returned either via the internet, email, or mail.

Measures

Variables were measured from the HCN co-worker (indicated by 'HCN' in parentheses) as well as from the expatriate (indicated by 'E' in parentheses). Twenty measures were collected from HCNs and 21 (including 3 control variables) were collected from expatriates.

Demographic Differences (HCN, E)

Demographic differences were operationalized by three items measuring physical dissimilarity (2 items) and language dissimilarity (1 item). Participants indicated, on a scale from "1 = very dissimilar to 7 = very similar", the extent to which they perceived themselves to be similar to the expatriates in their organizations relative to their physical characteristics and ethnicity, and spoken language. These items were reverse-scored to

reflect dissimilarity. Cronbach's alpha estimate for internal reliability of the ratings for physical dissimilarity was .82 for the HCN sample and .72 for the expatriate sample.

Values Dissimilarity (HCN, E)

One item is used to measure values similarity. HCNs indicated, on a scale from "1 = very dissimilar to 7 = very similar", the extent to which they perceived themselves to be similar to the expatriates in their organizations in terms of the personal values. This item was reverse-scored.

Ethnocentric Attitudes towards Expatriates (HCN)

Zeira's (1979) measure of ethnocentric beliefs was adapted to measure HCNs' ethnocentric attitudes towards expatriates. The 4-item scale (see Appendix 1) asked the extent to which HCNs agree (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) that foreign nationals should be familiar with the local culture, adhere to local patterns of behavior, proficient in the host country language, knowledgeable of the host country's social characteristics, and familiar with the history of the host country. Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .68. There was no reliability estimate reported in Zeira's paper and no one else, to my knowledge, has used his scale to examine ethnocentric attitudes in such a context. Clearly, this scale needs to be better developed or substituted in future studies.

Ethnocentric Attitudes towards HCNs (E)

Expatriates completed Florkowski and Fogel's (1999) ethnocentrism towards the

host culture measure that consists of three items measured on a 7-point Likert type scale.

Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .72.

Pay Discrepancy (HCN, E)

Respondents were asked to indicate on an ordinal scale whether they thought

they were paid less than the expatriate (1), equal to the expatriate (2), or more than the

expatriate (3). This variable was then dummy coded to create 2 dummy variables

(paydis1, paydis3) where Paydis1 was given a value of 1 when respondents indicated

that they were paid *less* than the expatriate, and zero if they were paid otherwise; and

Paydis3 was given a value of 1 when respondents indicated that they were paid *more*

than the expatriate and zero otherwise.

Interpersonal Interaction (HCN, E)

Brown et al.'s (1999) measure of the *quality* and *quantity* of contact with an

outgroup member (Brown, Vivian, & Hewstone, 1999) was adapted. The 5-item scale

asked respondents to indicate, on a scale of '1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree',

the extent to which they viewed the relationship as formal, friendly, in addition to the

extent to which they worked closely with the expatriate (HCN if the respondent was an

expatriate), spend much time with the expatriate at work (HCN), and saw each other.

Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .73 for the HCN

sample and .67 for the expatriate sample.

Organizational Identification (HCN, E)

Smidts, Pruyn, and Van Riel's (2001) 5-item measure of organizational identification scale was adopted. Items were measured on a scale of '1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree'. Sample items included, "I feel strong ties with my organization" and "I experience a strong sense of belonging to my organization." These items were based on the concept of social identity (Tajfel, 1978) and on existing scales in the literature (Abrams, 1992; Cheney, 1983; Doosje, Ellemers, & Spears, 1995). The scale includes both cognitive and affective elements. Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .92 for the HCN sample and .89 for the expatriate sample.

Experienced Justice (HCN)

The procedural justice, performance-based distributive justice, and comparative distributive justice scales adapted by Leung et al. (1996) from existing justice scales were used to measure experienced justice. Procedural justice is a 7-item scale, distributive a 5-item scale, and comparative distributive justice is a 3-item scale. The questions were based on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Sample items for procedural justice included, "I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures (used to arrive at my pay package)," "Those procedures have been free of bias", and "Those procedures have been based on accurate information". Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability for the ratings was

.77 for this scale. Sample items for distributive justice included, "I am fairly paid

considering my job responsibilities", and "I am fairly paid for the amount of effort I put

forth". Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .96 for

this scale. Since I was only interested in the comparative justice perceived by HCNs

relative to the expatriates in the organization, I used only one out of the three items

developed by Leung et al. (1996) to measure the extent to which the HCNs agreed that

they were fairly rewarded in comparison to the expatriate employees in their

organization.

Perceived Organizational Support (HCN)

The eight-item short form of the Survey of Perceived Organizational Support was

adopted (Eisenberger et al., 1997; Rhoades et al., 2001). Respondents indicated, on a 7-

point Likert type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree,) the extent of their

agreement with each item. Internal consistency reliability for the ratings of this scale has

been found to be very good (a = .90; Rhoades et al., 2001) and was found to be .87 in the

current study. Sample items included, "My organization cares about my opinions", "My

organization strongly considers my goals and values", and "Help is available from my

organization when I have a problem."

Collectivism (HCN)

This was a 5-item scale adapted from Clugston, Howell, and Dorfman (2000).

Respondents answered on a 7-point Likert type scale with 1 = 'strongly disagree' and 7

= 'strongly agree'. Sample items included, "Group welfare is more important than individual rewards," and "Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success." Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the scale was .81.

Providing Role Information (HCN, E)

This was a 5-item measure rated on a 7-point scale, regarding the extent to which HCNs provide the five different types of role information identified by Morrison (1993a: see Appendix I & II). Items were measured on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Questions ask to what extent various types of information such as information on the behaviors and attitudes valued and expected by the organization, information on how to perform specific aspects of the job, information on how appropriate the expatriate's social behavior at work is. Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .89 for both the HCN and the expatriate sample.

Offering Social Support (HCN, E)

Caplan et al.'s (1980) measure of social support is a 4-item assessing the extent to which others, in this case co-workers, (1) make worklife easier, (2) are easy to talk to (3) will help when things get tough, and (4) are willing to listen to personal problems was used. Questions were asked on a 7-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Internal consistency reliability of the ratings has been found to be above .72 in other studies (see Ganster, Fusilier, & Mayes, 1986; Seers et al., 1983). The

current study found Cronbach's alpha estimate for internal reliability to be .79 for the

HCN sample and .75 for the expatriate sample.

Salience of Nationality (HCN, E)

The salience of nationality measure comprised of 2 items from Brown et al.

(1999) measuring membership salience. Responses were measured on a 7-point Likert

type scale. Items asked, "How often do you make references to one another's

country/nationality in your encounters with the expatriates (HCN) in the organization?";

and "How much do you consider the expatriates in the organization 'typical' of someone

of their national group?" The internal reliability of this scale has never been tested,

however. Salience of an identity scales are relatively rare as salience is often assumed

rather than measured. In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha estimates for the

internal reliability of the ratings were low at .65 for the HCN sample and .65 for the

expatriate sample.

Outgroup Categorization (HCN)

I combined two scales to measure categorization from the perspectives of both

the HCN and the expatriate. Three items asked expatriates (HCNs) the extent to which

they consider the HCNs (expatriates) as "one of them" and expatriates (HCNs) in the

host unit to be "one of us", the extent to which expatriates (HCNs) are more similar to

other expatriates (HCNs) in the host unit than they are similar to HCNs (expatriates), the

extent to which they perceive themselves and the expatriates (HCNs) as belonging to the

same group, separate groups, or as separate individuals in the host unit (Gaertner,

Dovidio, Anastasio, Bachman, & Rust, 1993). I also adapted Greenland and Brown's

(1999) 5-item scale (alpha = .72: Greenland & Brown, 1999) intergroup categorization

scale that asks respondents to report the extent to which they were aware of 'nationalities

and culture' in a given social situation. The Cronbach's alpha estimate for internal

reliability was .74 for the HCN sample and .75 for the expatriate sample.

Expatriate Adjustment (HCN, E)

The dependent variable, expatriate adjustment was assessed by Black and

Stephen's (1989) scale consisting of eleven 7-point (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly

agree) Likert-type items that measured adjustment to work, general environment, and

interactions with HCNs. Work adjustment was measured by two items indicating the

extent to which the expatriate was adjusted to his/her job responsibilities and working

with local co-workers (a = .76 for expatriates; a = .76 for HCNs). Interaction adjustment

was measured by 3 items indicating the extent to which the expatriate was adjusted to

things such as interacting with the locals in general, working with locals outside the

organization, and supervising local subordinates (a = .75 for expatriates; a = .68 for

HCNs). General adjustment was measured by six items indicating the extent to which

expatriates were adjusted to things such as the transportation system in the host country

and the general living conditions in the host country (a = .82 for expatriates; a = .86 for

HCNs).

Job Satisfaction (E)

I adopted the 18-item scale developed by Brayfield and Rothe (1951) by

selecting 10 items from this scale. The internal consistency reliability of the short scale

has been found to be good in other studies (a = .86; Aryee & Stone, 1996). Respondents

indicated on a 7-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree). The

Cronbach's alpha estimate for the internal reliability of the ratings was .84.

Withdrawal Intentions (E)

This was a 3-item scale adapted from Caliguiri (1997). Respondents indicated on

a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) the

extent to which they agreed that they are actively looking for a job outside the current

organization, they would leave the current organization as soon as they can find a better

job, and am seriously thinking about quitting the job. The internal consistency reliability

of the ratings was .83.

Expatriate Performance (E)

The measure developed by Kraimer et al. (2001) that tapped both expatriate task

performance and contextual performance was used. Task performance was measured by

three items asking expatriates to rate their overall performance, and their own

performance at work on the dimensions of technical competence and meeting job objectives. Contextual performance was measured by four items asking expatriates to rate their own performance at work on the dimensions such as interacting with co-workers, understanding the organization's goals, and establishing relationships with key host-country contacts. The Cronbach internal consistency reliabilities of the ratings were .81 and .85 for the task performance and contextual performance scales, respectively.

Control Variables

Spouse adjustment (E). Shaffer et al.'s (1999) 3-item scale measured on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) was used. The internal consistency reliability for this scale has been previously found to be very good (a = .92; Shaffer et al., 1999). In the present study, the Cronbach estimate of the internal consistency reliability of the ratings was .88. Only the expatriate responded to this scale. To avoid losing data from respondents who were not married without causing any alteration of the estimates of relationships among other variables, the mean for this variable (spouse adjustment) was used for those expatriates who were not married (see Shaffer et al., 1999).

Time in host country (E). Expatriates were asked the amount of time they have spent working in the host country. These values ranged from 2 months to 30 years with a median of 3 years and a mean of 4.41 years ($\underline{SD}$ = 4.47 years).

Language ability (E). One item asked the extent to which the expatriates felt they spoke the host country language well (Kraimer et al., 2001). This was measured on a 7-point scale. The mean level of language proficiency was 4.86 ($\underline{SD}$ = 1.91).

Analyses

Except for Hypothesis 1 (where correlational analysis was applied), all the hypotheses were tested using multiple regression analysis. Where applicable, both HCN and expatriate samples were used. Specifically, Hypotheses 1, 1a-1b, 2a-2b, 3a, and 4 were tested using both samples. Hypotheses 3b to 3d were tested using only the HCN sample, and Hypotheses 5 to 7 were tested using only the expatriate sample. Due to the small sample size of the HCN respondent pool, the criterion for significance was taken as .10 to lower the probability of committing type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is 'true'). This would give the tests a power of roughly .50.

To test Hypothesis 1, salience of nationality was correlated against outgroup categorization. Hypotheses 1a to 1d involve the antecedents of salience, namely demographic differences, values dissimilarity, ethnocentric attitudes, and pay discrepancy, salience of nationality, as well as outgroup categorization. These hypotheses were tested using mediated regression analysis following standard procedures (Baron & Kenny, 1986; James & Brett, 1984), with salience of nationality tested as a mediator of the effects of the antecedents on outgroup categorization.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b dealt with the interaction effects of interpersonal interaction and organizational identification on the relationship between salience of nationality among HCNs and outgroup categorization. Hierarchical regression was used to determine if the interaction had a significant influence on the relationships. First order variables, in this case, the antecedents and the moderators, are entered into the regression

equation first, followed by the interaction term. The independent variables were centered

before creating the interaction terms. Centering was done to reduce the effects of

multicollinearity (Aiken & West, 1991).

Hypotheses 3a to 3d were tested using multiple regression with all the factors

identified to affect the display of information sharing and social support to the

expatriates were entered into the same equation with information sharing or social

support as the dependent variable. Hypothesis 3e involves the interaction effects of

outgroup categorization and collectivism, POS, and perceived justice. Separate

hierarchical regressions were conducted for each interaction effect. As before, the

independent variables were centered before being combined to form the interaction

terms.

Hypotheses 4 examined how information sharing and social support would

influence the expatriate's adjustment in terms of work, interaction, and general

environment. The hypothesis was tested using multiple regression with separate

equations for each aspect of adjustment. Hypotheses 5 to 7 examined how adjustment

facets would affect outcomes of performance (both task and contextual), job satisfaction,

and intentions to quit. Time spent in the host country, spouse adjustment, and language

ability were entered in these equations as control variables.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the tests of all the hypotheses. Table 3 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations of the variables measured with the HCN sample. The sample sizes ranged from 48 to 53 due to missing data. Table 4 reports the means, standard deviations, correlations of the variables measured with the expatriate sample. The sample sizes ranged from 107 to 114 due to missing data.

The items that measured all the 20 test variables using the HCN sample were entered into a principle components factor analysis to determine if a single factor exists (implying the presence of serious common method variance). The un-rotated factor solution extracted 18 factors, with the largest factor accounting for about 18% of the total variance. Most of the factors were lined up according to the measures. However, it appeared to be that the items measuring organizational identification and outgroup categorization were manifesting a similar factor, although in opposite directions. More apparent was that the three justice measures, procedural, distributive, and comparative justice appeared to share a significant amount of common variance. Hence, to minimize multicollinearity and redundancy, I will consider only procedural justice in my analyses.

TABLE 3

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations of the Variables Measured with the HCN Sample

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
1. Physical Dissimilarity	4.77	1.36																			
2. Language Dissimilarity	3.73	1.20	.36																		
3. Values Dissimilarity	2.75	1.01	-.02	.13																	
4. Ethnocentric Attitude	4.53	.88	-.43	-.23	-.20																
5. Negative Pay Discrepancy	.28	.45	-.19	-.32	-.06	.06															
6. Positive Pay Discrepancy	.09	.30	.23	-.16	-.19	.06	-.20														
7. Interpersonal Interaction	5.59	.82	.11	.15	-.25	.03	-.02	.07													
8. Organizational Identification	5.22	1.16	-.03	-.04	-.52	.20	-.20	.27	.16												
9. Salience of Nationality	3.29	1.38	-.17	-.15	-.07	.42	.26	-.04	-.06	-.09											
10. Outgroup Categorization	3.47	1.11	-.12	.07	.44	.15	.07	-.10	-.40	-.37	.46										
11. Procedural Justice	4.05	1.03	-.22	-.12	-.10	.17	.02	.11	-.13	.50	.24	.14									
12. Distributive Justice	4.20	1.54	-.34	-.13	-.10	.17	-.09	.12	-.27	.39	.12	.03	.71								
13. Comparative Justice	4.40	1.34	-.17	.00	.00	-.07	-.34	.13	-.21	.32	.07	.07	.64	.78							
14. POS	4.93	1.07	.18	.26	-.40	.04	-.22	.33	.25	.72	-.31	-.40	.24	.10	.06						
15. Collectivism	4.30	1.13	.07	.12	-.35	.24	.05	.02	-.01	.32	.06	.09	.28	.23	.06	.31					
16. Information Sharing	3.15	1.34	.06	.25	-.20	.21	-.10	.10	.36	.12	.10	.07	-.02	-.19	-.13	.20	.29				
17. Social Support	5.44	.85	-.16	.15	-.36	.12	-.01	-.09	.51	.44	-.19	-.51	-.02	.02	.01	.42	.11	.26			
18. Work Adjustment	6.13	.70	.15	.13	-.24	-.20	-.09	-.02	.43	.19	-.29	-.49	-.17	.01	.09	.28	-.04	-.06	.44		
19. Interaction Adjustment	5.40	.87	-.06	.03	-.20	-.05	.01	.10	.45	.22	-.09	-.29	.03	.04	.12	.22	.02	.04	.41	.64	
20. General Adjustment	5.71	.84	-.11	.18	-.12	.06	.04	.15	.49	.01	.11	-.17	.02	.02	-.02	.04	.03	.04	.38	.46	.55

Correlations greater than .23 are significant at p < .10; Correlations greater than .28 are significant at p < .05; Correlations greater than .35 are significant at p < .01.

TABLE 4

Means, Standard Deviations, Correlations of the Variables Measured with the Expatriate Sample

	Mean	S.D.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Physical Dissimilarity	4.32	1.57																				
2. Values Dissimilarity	4.73	1.27	.37																			
3. Ethnocentric Attitude	1.91	1.04	-.14	.13																		
4. Negative Pay Disc.	.17	.38	-.06	-.01	.34																	
5. Positive Pay Disc.	.25	.44	.01	.18	.00	-.27																
6. Interpersonal Interaction	5.26	.92	-.06	.02	-.17	-.08	.06															
7. Org Identification	5.11	1.02	-.00	-.26	-.10	-.16	.13	.10														
8. Salience of Nationality	3.64	1.17	-.02	.13	.10	.01	.01	.07	.08													
9. Outgroup Categorization	4.11	1.13	.02	.26	.19	.07	-.13	-.14	-.11	.39												
10. Information Sharing	3.80	1.41	-.04	-.01	.11	.01	-.04	.35	.01	.20	.00											
11. Social Support	5.20	1.08	.12	-.01	-.18	-.06	-.01	.42	.15	-.17	-.28	.34										
12. Work Adjustment	5.99	.75	.24	.06	-.14	-.17	.09	.12	.07	-.08	.00	-.02	.13									
13. Interaction Adjustment	5.24	.98	-.13	-.25	-.22	-.04	-.06	.17	.05	-.20	-.30	.03	.20	.25								
14. General Adjustment	5.56	.95	-.04	-.20	-.15	-.05	-.03	.07	.08	-.17	-.33	-.06	.10	.15	.53							
15. Assignmt. Satisfaction	5.12	.89	.03	-.16	-.35	-.27	.13	.12	.55	-.14	-.24	-.03	.16	.29	.15	.06						
16. Withdrawal Intentions	2.92	1.62	.01	.20	.30	.32	-.05	-.03	-.42	-.05	.16	-.04	-.17	-.06	-.12	-.03	-.46					
17. Work Performance	5.20	.93	.08	-.13	-.18	-.22	.15	-.05	.26	-.06	-.07	-.16	-.04	.37	.19	.32	.19	-.05				
18. Contextual Perform.	5.16	.97	.04	-.28	-.20	-.23	.03	.04	.35	-.09	-.26	-.07	.10	.38	.50	.47	.23	-.18	.67			
Control Variables																						
19. Spouse Adjustment	4.37	4.73	-.05	-.21	-.09	-.11	.12	.03	.25	-.13	-.24	-.14	.04	.10	.26	.24	.14	-.10	.20	.20		
20. Time Spent in Host Country	4.37	1.34	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.13	-.04	.09	.05	-.11	-.11	-.13	-.03	.17	.26	.26	.12	.13	.19	.18	.28	
21. Language Ability	4.87	1.92	-.03	-.07	-.20	-.18	.04	.03	.14	-.22	-.31	-.13	.05	.14	.35	.33	.13	-.08	.25	.33	.18	.25

Correlations greater than .15 are significant at $p < .10$; Correlations greater than .18 are significant at $p < .05$; Correlations greater than .25 are significant at $p < .01$.

Similarly, the items measuring the seventeen test variables and three control variables of the expatriate sample were factor analyzed using principle components. The un-rotated factor solution extracted 20 factors. Most of the factors were in line with their measures. I found that the two types of AOCB measured reflected some degree of forming a common factor ($\underline{r}$ = .34, p < .01).

Hypothesis 1 states that as the salience of nationality among HCN co-workers increases, the extent to which HCN co-workers categorize expatriates as outgroup members will increase. The correlation coefficient for the relationship between salience of nationality and outgroup categorization was .46 (p < .01). This relationship was also replicated in the expatriate sample (r = .40, p < .01). Hence, Hypothesis 1 was supported.

Hypotheses 1a to 1d dealt with the antecedents of salience of nationality and the mediating effect of salience of nationality on the relationship between the antecedents and outgroup categorization. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), there are three steps to be carried out in tests of mediation. First I determined whether the antecedent in question accounted for a significant variation in the proposed mediator (salience of nationality). Next, I tested if the antecedent accounted for significant variation in the dependent variable (outgroup categorization). Finally, I tested if the effect of the antecedent in question on outgroup categorization decreases (partial mediation) or becomes insignificant (full mediation) when the effect of the mediator is partialled.

Examining the zero-order correlations between the independent variables and dependent variables (see Table 3) revealed that three out of the ten correlations were significant (p < .10). Ethnocentric attitudes (r = .42, p < .01) and negative pay

discrepancy ($r = .26$, $p < .10$) were significantly positively related to salience of nationality. The remaining variables, demographic differences, values dissimilarity, and positive pay discrepancy had relationships with salience in the hypothesized direction although these relationships were not statistically significant. Values dissimilarity was the only antecedent that had a direct and positive relationship with outgroup categorization ($r = .44$, $p < .01$). Based on the procedures suggested by Baron and Kenny (1986), the lack of significant correlations between the independent variable with the mediator and the dependent variable implied that no potential mediation effects were present. However, this does indicate that certain factors, such as values dissimilarity, had a direct effect on outgroup categorization independent of salience of nationality, whereas antecedents such as ethnocentric attitudes, and negative pay discrepancy, had direct effects on salience. Thus, even though the effects of some of these antecedents (e.g., values dissimilarity) were not mediated by salience of nationality, they were still important influencing outgroup categorization.

I tested the above hypotheses with the expatriate sample. I examined how demographic dissimilarity, values dissimilarity, ethnocentric attitudes, and pay discrepancy affected salience and/or categorization. I found direct effects for values dissimilarity and ethnocentric attitudes on categorization only. Again, this provided some indication that certain perceptions of dissimilarity and ethnocentrism had a direct influence on an individual's perceptions of categorization independent of salience.

In sum, the evidence from both samples indicate that Hypothesis 1a (demographic differences) was not supported (i.e., perceived demographic differences

did not significantly affect perceptions of salience or extent of categorization).

Hypothesis 1b was partially supported (in both samples) – both HCNs' and expatriates'

perceptions of values dissimilarity had a significant effect on outgroup categorization,

but this effect was not mediated by salience of nationality. Hypothesis 1c was also

partially supported. In the HCN sample, ethnocentric attitudes had a significant effect on

salience of nationality but had no direct or mediated effect on categorization. In the

expatriate sample, ethnocentric attitudes had an effect on categorization but not on

salience. Similarly, Hypothesis 1d was partially supported – only negative pay

discrepancy was significantly related to salience of nationality in the HCN sample, but

was not significantly related to categorization. No effects were found for positive pay

discrepancy. No evidence of pay discrepancy effects on salience or categorization was

found in the expatriate sample. Overall, the results show that ethnocentric attitudes and

negative pay discrepancy had significant positive relationships with salience, whereas

values dissimilarity had a significant positive effect on outgroup categorization,

independent of salience.

Table 5 reports the results of regression analyses for Hypotheses 2a and 2b.

Hypothesis 2a involved the moderating effect of interpersonal interaction on the

relationship between the four key antecedents of salience on the salience of nationality. I

found significant interactions between interpersonal interaction with physical

dissimilarity (B = -.44, t = -1.76, p < .10), and ethnocentric attitudes (B = .61, t = 2.29, p

< .05), which explained respectively 6% and 8% more variance in the salience of

nationality than the independent variables alone. The interaction of interpersonal

TABLE 5

TABLE 5

Results of Multiple Regression Tests of Moderation (Interpersonal Interaction)

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Physical Dissimilarity	-.17	-.08								
Language Dissimilarity			-.16	-.07						
Values Dissimilarity					-.13	-.11				
Ethnocentric Attitudes							.67**	.63**		
Negative Pay Discrepancy									.74	4.63
Positive Pay Discrepancy									.07	.78
Interpersonal Interaction	-.07	-.02	-.06	-.07	-.14	-.14	-.12	-.09	-.10	.09
Physical Dissimilarity*Interpersonal Interaction		-.40+								
Language Dissimilarity*Interpersonal Interaction				-.22						
Values Dissimilarity*Interpersonal Interaction						-.15				
Ethnocentric Attitudes*Interpersonal Interaction								.61*		
Negative Pay Discrepancy*Interpersonal Interaction										-.70
Positive Pay Discrepancy*Interpersonal Interaction										-.13
ΔR^2	.03	.06+	.02	.02	.01	.01	.18**	.08*	.06	.03
Total R^2	.03	.09+	.02	.04	.01	.02	.18**	.27**	.06	.09

+ p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01
Beta weights are shown.

interaction with language dissimilarity, values dissimilarity, and pay discrepancy were

not significant. Hence, Hypothesis 2a was partially supported.

To understand the nature of the interactions, the significant interaction effects are

plotted below (see Figure 2 and Figure 3).

FIGURE 2

**Moderating Effect of Interpersonal Interaction on the Relationship between
Demographic Dissimilarity and Salience of Nationality**
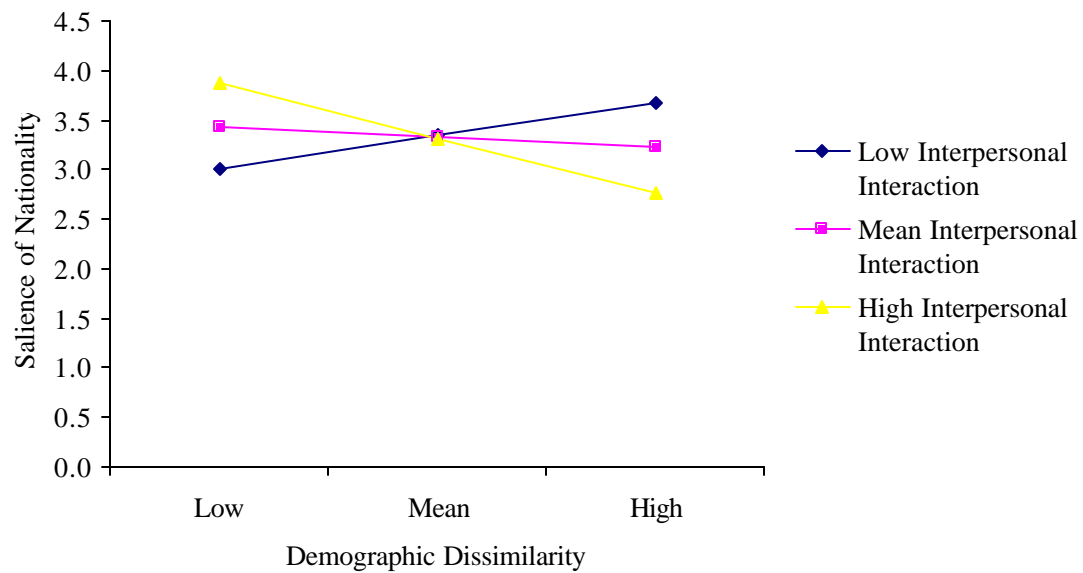
Values of physical dissimilarity and interpersonal interaction were plotted at

minus one standard deviation, plus one standard deviation, and mean values of each

variable. The interaction, shown in Figure 2, indicated a disordinal interaction

(crossover; Aiken & West, 1991). Specifically, at higher levels of perceived

dissimilarity, nationality was viewed as less salient when interpersonal interaction was

high than when interpersonal interaction was low. Conversely, at lower levels of

perceived dissimilarity, nationality was viewed as more salient when interpersonal interaction was high than when interpersonal interaction was low.

The regression lines indicated the relationship between ethnocentric attitudes and salience of nationality at the mean, plus one, and minus one standard deviation were also plotted (see Figure 3). Again, the interaction was disordinal (crossover; Aiken & West, 1991). The plot revealed that at higher levels of ethnocentric attitude, salience of nationality was higher when interpersonal interaction was high than when interpersonal interaction was low. On the other hand, at lower levels of ethnocentric attitude, salience of nationality was lower when interpersonal interaction was high than when interpersonal interaction was low.

FIGURE 3

Moderating Effect of Interpersonal Interaction on the Relationship between Ethnocentric Attitude and Salience of Nationality
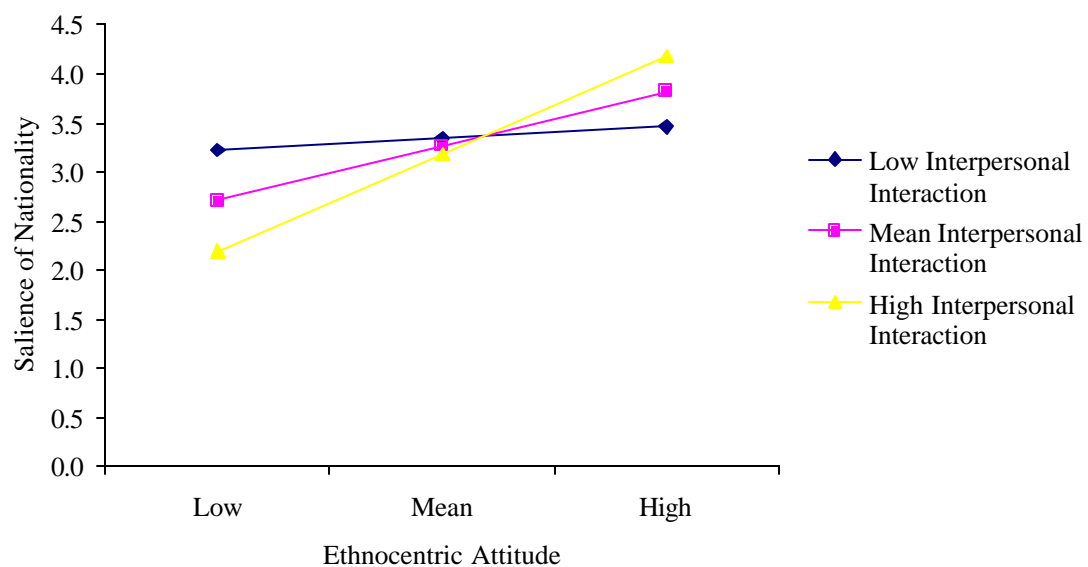
Hypothesis 2b involved the moderating effect of organizational identification on the relationship between the four key antecedents of salience on the salience of nationality. None of the interaction terms were significant (see Appendix 3). Hence, Hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Hypotheses 2a and 2b were also tested on the expatriate sample. No support was found for these hypotheses (see Appendix 4 and 5).

Hypotheses 3a to 3d dealt with the how outgroup categorization affects AOCBs (information sharing and social support), as well as how perceived justice, POS, and levels of collectivism would influence the display of AOCBs. Correlational analyses reveal that outgroup categorization was not significantly related to information sharing ($r = .07$, n.s.), but was significantly related to social support ($r = -.51$, $p < .01$). Perceived procedural justice was related neither to information sharing ($r = -.02$, n.s.), nor to social support ($r = -.02$, n.s.). Perceived organizational support was not related to information sharing ($r = .20$, n.s.), but was significantly related to social support ($r = .43$, $p < .01$). Collectivism was significantly related to information sharing ($r = .29$, $p < .05$), but not to social support ($r = .11$, n.s). Multiple regression analysis (see Tables 6 and 7) found that outgroup categorization had no effect on information sharing, but explained a significant amount of the variance in social support ($ß = -.39$, $t = -3.91$, $p < .01$). Hence, Hypothesis 3a was partially supported.

Hypothesis 3a was also tested on the expatriate sample to determine if their perceptions of categorization affected the level of information and support they received from the HCNs. Consistent with what was found in the HCN sample, outgroup

categorization was negatively related to social support (r = -.28, 0 < .01) but not related to information sharing (r = .00, n.s.).

In terms of Hypothesis 3b, I found no effect of perceived justice on both information sharing and social support. Hence, Hypothesis 3b was not supported. Similar to Hypothesis 3a, POS was significantly related to social support but not information sharing. Hence, Hypothesis 3c was partially supported. Finally, collectivism explained significant amount of the variance in information sharing (ß = .39, t = 2.17, p < .05), but had no effect on social support. Hence, Hypothesis 3d was partially supported.

In addition to having direct effects on AOCBs, Hypothesis 3e stated that perceived justice, POS, and collectivism would moderate the relationship between outgroup categorization and the display of AOCBs. Hierarchical regression analyses were conducted with outgroup categorization and the moderating variable in question entered into the first step, followed by the interaction term comprising of the two independent variables entered in the second step (see Tables 6 and 7).

TABLE 6
Results of Multiple Regression Tests (Information Sharing)

$^+ p < .10$, $* p < .05$, $** p < .01$

Predictors	H3a to 3d	Hypotheses 3e (Perceived Justice)		Hypotheses 3e (POS)		Hypotheses 3e (Collectivism)	
		Step 1	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**
Outgroup Categorization	.03	-.03	-.05	.14	.12	-.02	-.03
Perceived Justice	-.18	-.05	.03				
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	.14			.30	.30		
Collectivism	.34*					.39*	.37*
Outgroup Categorization* Perceived Justice			.46*				
Outgroup Categorization*POS					-.17		
Outgroup Categorization*Collectivism							.07
$? R^2$	.15	.00	.14*	.05	.02	$.11^+$	.01
Total R^2	.15	.00	$.14^+$	.05	.07	$.11^+$	.12

Standardized beta coefficients are shown for H3a to 3d. Centered beta weights are shown for H3e.

The analyses revealed that all except one of the interaction effects tested on information sharing and social support were non-significant. Only the interaction between procedural justice and outgroup categorization (B = .46, $R^2? = .14$, $p < .05$) had a significant effect on information sharing. Hence, there was weak support for Hypothesis 3e.

TABLE 7
Results of Multiple Regression Tests (Social Support)

Predictors	H3a to 3d	Hypotheses 3e (Perceived Justice)		Hypotheses 3e (POS)		Hypotheses 3e (Collectivism)	
		Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Outgroup Categorization	-.52**	-.45**	-.45**	-.40**	-.41**	-.48**	-.48**
Perceived Justice	-.03	.05	.05				
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	.19			.16^{+}	.16^{+}		
Collectivism	.14					.12	.11
Outgroup Categorization* Perceived Justice			.01				
Outgroup Categorization*POS					-.09		
Outgroup Categorization*Collectivism							.06
? R^2	.41**	.36**	.00	.42**	.01	.41**	.01
Total R^2	.41**	.36**	.36**	.42**	.43**	.41**	.42**

$^{+}$ $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
Standardized beta coefficients are shown for H3a to 3d. Centered beta weights are shown for H3e.

To understand the nature of the interaction, the simple slopes of outgroup categorization and information sharing at the mean, and one standard deviation above and below the mean level of procedural justice are plotted (see Figure 4).

FIGURE 4

Moderating Effect of Procedural Justice on the Relationship between Outgroup Categorization and Information Sharing
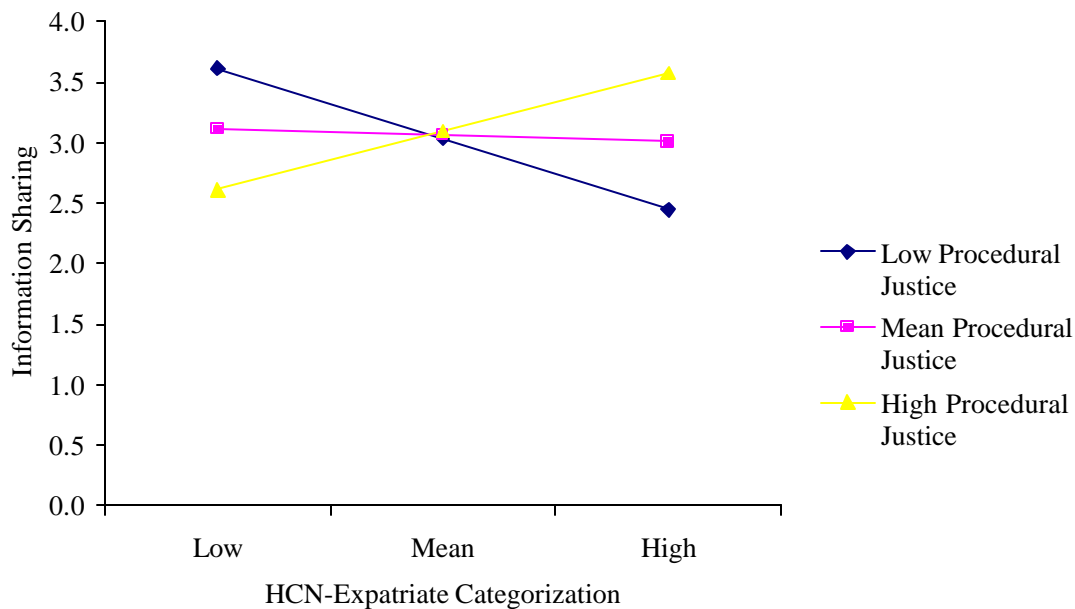
The plot revealed that outgroup categorization lead to more information sharing when procedural justice was high but lead to less information sharing when procedural justice was low. Hence, HCNs shared more information if they categorized more when procedural justice was high than when it was low. However, HCNs tended to share less information if they categorized less when procedural justice was high than when procedural justice was low.

Separate analyses were conducted on the dimensions of expatriate adjustment – work, interaction, and general adjustment – to test the extent to which adjustment will be influenced by the display of AOCBs by HCNs (Hypothesis 4). Regression analyses revealed that social support significantly influenced work adjustment ($ß = .49$, $t = 3.73$, p

< .01), interaction adjustment (ß = .43, t = 3.15, p < .01), and general adjustment (ß =

.40, t = 2.92, p < .01). No significant influence of information sharing was found on the

three dimensions of expatriate adjustment (see Table 8). Hence, these results lend partial

support Hypothesis 4 implying that only certain forms of AOCBs have a significant

effect on adjustment.

TABLE 8

Results of Multiple Regression (Expatriate Adjustment – HCN Sample)

	Hypothesis 4 Expatriate Adjustment		
Predictors	Work Adjustment	Interaction Adjustment	General Adjustment
Information Sharing	-.19	-.07	-.07
Social Support	.49**	.43**	.40**
Total R^2	.22**	.17*	.15*

[+] p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01
Standardized beta coefficients are shown.

Similar analyses were run on the expatriate sample to determine if expatriates

agreed that information shared and social support provided by HCN co-workers aided

their adjustment. Three control variables were included in the equations – amount of

time spent in the host country, spouse adjustment, and language ability (Kraimer et al.,

2001) before entering the two AOCB factors (see Table 9). Results show that

information sharing and social support do not significantly explain any variance in the

three dimensions of expatriate adjustment beyond the three control variables. This

indicated that expatriates did not view AOCBs as important in their adjustment.

TABLE 9

Results of Multiple Regression (Expatriate Adjustment – Expatriate Sample)

| Predictors | Hypothesis 4 Expatriate Adjustment | | | | | |
| | Work Adjustment | | Interaction Adjustment | | General Adjustment | |
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Control Variables:						
Time Spent in Host Country	.16	.16	.14	$.16^+$	$.18^+$	$.19^+$
Spouse Adjustment	.07	.07	$.17^+$	$.17^+$	$.16^+$	$.16^+$
Language Ability	.08	.07	.28**	.27**	.28**	.27**
Information Sharing		-.00		.07		.03
Social Support		.11		.13		.92
$? R^2$	.05	.01	.18**	.03	.20**	.01
Total R^2	.05	.07	.18**	.21**	.20**	.21**

$^+$ p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01

Standardized beta coefficients are shown.

Hypothesis 5 stated that expatriates who are adjusted to the new situation are more likely to experience assignment satisfaction. Regression analyses revealed that work adjustment was significantly related to assignment satisfaction ($ß = .25$, $t = 2.63$, p < .05) but not interaction or general adjustment. Hence, Hypothesis 5 was supported (see Table 10).

Hypothesis 6 stated that expatriates who are adjusted to the new situation are less likely to possess withdrawal intentions. No support was found for this hypothesis. None of the adjustment dimensions significantly related to expatriate intentions to quit (see Table 10). The summaries of the hypotheses and the results of tests of the hypotheses are presented in Tables 11 and 12.

TABLE 10

Results of Multiple Regression (Hypotheses 5 to Hypotheses 7)

Predictors	Hypothesis 5 Assignment Satisfaction	Hypothesis 6 Intentions to Quit	Hypothesis 7 Assignment Performance	
			Work	**Contextual**
Work Adjustment	.25*	-.02	.34**	.26**
Interaction Adjustment	.06	-.11	-.05	.22*
General Adjustment	.04	-.01	.30**	.36**
Total R^2	.08*	.01	.21**	.40**

[+] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
Standardized beta coefficients are shown.

TABLE 11

Summary of Results (HCN Sample)

Independent Variables	Results
1. Salience of nationality (+) Outgroup categorization	Supported
1a. Demographic differences (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported
1b. Value dissimilarity (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported – Direct effect on outgroup categorization
1c. Ethnocentric attitudes (-) Salience of nationality	Supported
1d. Pay discrepancy (-) Salience of nationality	Supported for negative pay discrepancy
2a. Antecedents of salience*Interpersonal interaction	Supported for physical dissimilarity and ethnocentric attitudes
2b. Antecedents of salience*Organizational identification	Not Supported
3a. Outgroup categorization (-) AOCBs	Supported for social support
3b. Perceived procedural justice (+) AOCBs	Not Supported
3c. Perceived organizational support (+) AOCBs	Not Supported
3d. Collectivism (+) AOCBs	Supported for information sharing

TABLE 11 Continued

Independent Variables	Results
3e. Interaction of Outgroup categorization with perceived procedural justice, POS, and collectivism	Supported for interaction between outgroup categorization and perceived procedural justice on information sharing
4. AOCBs (+) Expatriate Adjustment	Supported for social support

TABLE 12

Summary of Results (Expatriate Sample)

Independent Variables	Results
1. Salience of nationality (+) Outgroup categorization	Supported
1a. Demographic differences (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported
1b. Value dissimilarity (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported – Direct effect on outgroup categorization
1c. Ethnocentric attitudes (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported – Direct effect on outgroup categorization
1d. Pay discrepancy (-) Salience of nationality	Not Supported
2a. Antecedents of salience*Interpersonal interaction	Not Supported
2b. Antecedents of salience*Organizational identification	Not Supported
3a. Outgroup categorization (-) AOCBs	Supported for social support
4. AOCBs (+) Expatriate Adjustment	Not Supported
5. Expatriate Adjustment (+) Job satisfaction	Supported for work adjustment
6. Expatriate Adjustment (-) Withdrawal intentions	Not Supported
7. Expatriate Adjustment (+) Performance	Supported for work and general adjustment on work performance; Supported for work, interaction, and general adjustment on contextual performance

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSION

This chapter summarizes the main results, and highlights the major contributions and implications of the study. It concludes with some limitations of the current study and also several suggestions for future research.

Overview of Results

The present study was based on a model depicting how HCNs' performance of AOCBs would influence expatriate adjustment and other key job-related outcomes. The main premise of the model was that salience of nationality, caused by perceptions of difference and ethnocentric attitudes, heightens HCNs' perceptions of expatriates as outgroup members. The model proposed that categorization of expatriates as outgroup is a key factor affecting HCNs' willingness to engage in AOCBs and that these AOCBs, specifically information sharing and social support, will have a positive influence on the expatriate's adjustment to the new role as well as to other outcomes, such as assignment satisfaction, intentions to withdraw from the overseas position, and performance.

The results suggest that HCNs have a potentially important role to play by way of the information they share and the social support they avail to the expatriates in their organization. These behaviors have important implications for the expatriates' adjustment to their new job, to interacting with other locals, and to the general cultural environment, as well as to other job-related outcomes such as the expatriate's

satisfaction with the job and overall performance. The results also show that social

categorization processes are in play and have a significant influence on HCNs' behavior

towards the expatriates. Overall, the results indicate support for the main tenets of the

proposed model, despite its largely exploratory nature. The findings have been

encouraging. However, there were also several aspects of the proposed model that

yielded unexpected results. These are elaborated next.

Predictors of Salience of Nationality

The model proposes several antecedents of salience of nationality, namely

demographic differences, values dissimilarity, ethnocentric attitudes, and perceptions of

pay discrepancy. The results revealed strong support for the relationship between

ethnocentric attitudes and salience of nationality, both among HCNs and among the

expatriates. Hence, if employees possess cultural superiority notions, they are also more

likely to be conscious of their own nationality as well as others within the organization.

HCNs in the sample also reported higher levels of salience when they felt that they were

paid less than the expatriates in their organization. Lower pay packages in comparison

with the expatriates in the organization, again, clearly highlights nationality differences.

Other perceptions of differences (demographic, values, and positive pay

discrepancy), however, did not have a significant influence on levels of salience. There

are several possible explanations for the weakness of the effects of perceived differences

on salience of nationality. One obvious possibility is that the size of the effects of these

factors may be too small to detect with the given level of power in the HCN sample of

only 53 respondents. However, these factors were also not significant when tested on a larger expatriate sample of 115. Hence, lack of power is possible explanation but may not be quite likely in the present case.

A second possible explanation is that perceived differences may not be the key mechanism in play or that other factors not captured may have interacted with the antecedents outlined. Individual attitudes, (ethnocentrism), however, quite clearly appeared to have a much stronger influence on salience than perceived differences. The lack of strong support for how perceptions of pay discrepancy, for example, may be due to the respondents not viewing the wage discrepancy as a result of competitive resource allocation (i.e., the higher pay for expatriates was not a direct result of lower pay for HCNs or vice versa). It has been suggested that intergroup cognitions and competition are more likely to occur when their outcomes are interdependent (Brewer, 2000). It is possible that our HCNs did not view this to be true and thus, pay discrepancy did not highlight nationality differences in the present context.

It is also possible that the types of differences that should lead to salience of nationality have not all been captured and that there are possibly other factors that are in play that paint a much more complex picture. Although many studies have suggested that physical differences are often most differentiating because they are most apparent to individuals, it was not true in the present sample. Perhaps the differences in demographics may be large, but they may not be unique or rare in the sense that they make expatriates "stand out" in the social situation. The organizations sampled may be comprised of large numbers of expatriate and locals of different ethnicity, different

physical attributes, and different value systems. Thus, these attributes may not necessarily be distinctive in the eyes of the HCNs and the expatriates in my sample such that they help draw clear lines between the expatriates and locals. The social environment is one that is rich in complex and dynamic stimuli - it is often not a simple task to identify the characteristics that might cause certain identities to be salient – people may view themselves as similar or dissimilar in almost infinite ways and what differences or similarities are most relevant to a particular individual is often not easily determined (Austin, 1977).

Another possibility is that the proposed antecedents of salience may in fact have a direct relationship with outgroup categorization instead. I found this to be the case for values dissimilarity, where in both samples, the factor had a significant positive relationship with outgroup categorization (HCN: r = .44, p < .01; Expatriate: r = .26, p < .01). To further the second possibility of other existing antecedents, I was able to observe a significant positive relationship between perceived cultural novelty and outgroup categorization among expatriates (r = .23, p < .05). Again, this indicates that there may be other antecedents not accounted for and that these may have a direct influence on categorization instead of an indirect influence through salience.

Other more interesting and somewhat unexpected results were also found with regards to how the antecedents of salience interacted with different levels of identity to affect salience of nationality. The results revealed that when demographic differences were high, higher levels of interpersonal interaction lead to lower levels of salience than lower levels of interpersonal interaction. However, when demographic differences were

perceived to be low, higher levels of interpersonal interaction lead to higher levels of salience than lower levels of interpersonal interaction. These results suggested that getting to know and view expatriates as individuals through social interactions at work and better informal relationship were helpful in reducing salience when dissimilarity was perceived to be very high. But when similarity between HCNs and expatriates were perceived instead, their differences become more apparent through extensive social interactions. Thus, contact with the expatriates caused HCNs to become more aware of the differences between themselves and the expatriates and that these differences were significantly greater than the similarities they perceived to share with other HCNs. Consequently, nationality as a category becomes more salient.

This finding provides qualified support for conventional social identity thinking that the salience of an identity at one level (e.g., interpersonal or individual) would lower the salience of the identity at another level (e.g., group, organization, national). The evidence suggests that interpersonal interaction could allow members to see former outgroup members as individuals with unique characteristics not necessarily shared or typical of the outgroup, thus blurring the ingroup-outgroup distinction. This finding supports social identity theory's main hypothesis. However, the results also revealed that interpersonal interaction could lead to "undesirable" outcomes, such as the discovery of attributes that separates the outgroup member from the ingroup. The interaction allowed social comparisons to take place. It provided opportunities for HCNs to realize that expatriates are quite different from themselves as well as the other HCNs in the organization, and that these differences are far larger than the differences perceived to

exist among the expatriates. Hence, interpersonal interaction could increase salience of nationality rather than increase the salience of interpersonal or interaction identities (Brickson, 2000; Brickson & Brewer, 2001).

The interaction between ethnocentric attitudes and interpersonal interaction on salience of nationality painted the same picture. As before, this result revealed that interpersonal interaction could have vastly different effects at different levels of a given attitude or perception. At high levels of ethnocentrism, greater levels of interpersonal interaction lead to higher levels of salience than did lower levels of interpersonal interaction; whereas at low levels of ethnocentrism, greater interpersonal interaction lead to lower levels of salience than did lower levels of interpersonal interaction. It is not clear, nor has it been noted in the literature, however, what causes interpersonal interaction to enhance salience in certain instances and ameliorate salience in other instances. In general, it has been assumed that interpersonal interaction would reduce the salience of collective identities, not enhance it as was revealed in the present study.

Another level of identity that was investigated was organizational identification. In both samples, this factor had no significant influence, nor did it interact with any of the antecedents of salience to affect levels of nationality salience. This was unexpected. It is possible that this was due to the deficient measure of organizational identification used. More on this is elaborated in the "Limitations" section.

In sum, the results suggest that in the HCN sample, only certain types of perceived dissimilarity, namely perceived negative pay discrepancy, and ethnocentric attitudes lead to higher levels of salience of nationality. Among expatriates, it was

ethnocentric attitudes that had an effect on salience. However, both groups agreed on the effects of perceived values dissimilarity on outgroup categorization – significant relationships between the two variables were found in both samples. In addition, interpersonal interaction moderated the relationship between salience of nationality and demographic differences, as well as ethnocentric attitudes. The results suggest that interpersonal interaction could lead to lower levels of salience when perceived differences were high, but could also lead to higher levels of salience when perceived differences were low. These results indicate that highlighting other levels of identity does not necessarily lead to reduced salience of a particular level of identity.

Predictors of Outgroup Categorization

The results indicated strong support for the hypothesized relationship between the salience of nationality and the degree to which HCNs and expatriates viewed each other as belonging to separate social groups (i.e., outgroup categorization). Consistent with self-categorization theory, salient categories lead to greater discrimination between ingroups and outgroups. As noted earlier, values dissimilarity appeared to be strongly associated with higher levels of outgroup categorization. When individuals from different cultures interact with each other and through the course of their interaction realize that they do no necessarily view various aspects of their work and personal lives in the same way, they may begin also to see that they are in fact representative of different cultures and thus, representative of different social groups. Individuals tend to assume similarity about people (projected similarity) even in the face of ostensible

differences. Perhaps only when conflicts or misunderstandings arise as a result of different values perspectives would individuals become aware of their differences. The significant relationship between cultural novelty and expatriates' outgroup categorization levels lends further credence to this hypothesis.

Predictors of Adjustment Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The model proposed several factors. Outgroup categorization, POS, perceived justice, and collectivism were identified as key antecedents of AOCBs. Both HCNs and expatriates reported that when national categorizations were high, HCNs tended to provide less social support to the expatriate. Again, this provided support for the main tenet of social identity theory, which suggests that individuals are more likely to support members of their ingroup than individuals viewed as outside of their ingroup. This ingroup bias was clearly found in both groups of employees. No support was found for the relationship between categorization and information sharing, however. The significant influence of outgroup categorization on social support rather than information sharing could imply that categorization processes are more concerned with who gets included in the individual's ingroup. When an individual is included in the ingroup, his or her welfare becomes a concern of the members and forms part of the social network within the group. Social support is the display of friendship and caring, and also the extension of one's social networks to the beneficiary to improve the welfare of the beneficiary. Thus, it is likely that the most immediate consequence of categorization is the provision of social support to take care of the member's social and psychological

welfare, rather than the support that has a more direct benefit to member's work performance.

Whereas outgroup categorization was the key factor affecting the display of social support to expatriates, collectivism was the main driving force behind the display of information sharing. Collectivists view group goals and group success as more important compared to individual goals and individual success. The relationship between collectivism and information sharing is quite expectedly strong because the goal of information sharing is to facilitate the performance of the expatriate's assignment. The ability of the expatriate to carry out his or her own job is likely to have a significant impact on the overall group performance and success. Hence, HCNs who care about the groups outcomes would more likely help the expatriate as it may have an indirect impact on the group's welfare.

No relationship was found between POS and AOCBs. Studies on the relationship between POS and OCBs have suggested that when employees believe that the organization cares for them, they usually reciprocate this concern with higher levels of OCBs. However, it is useful to note that these OCBs are generally directed towards the organization, rather than towards other individuals within the organization. For example, expressing higher levels of commitment to the organization, and engaging on their own initiative desirable behaviors, such as innovation on behalf of the organization in the absence of anticipated reward or personal recognition, and providing constructive anonymous suggestions for helping the organization (Eisenberger et al., 1990). These citizenship behaviors are clearly directed more towards the organization, rather than to

other employees within the organization. Hence, the organization's commitment to the employees is normally reciprocated by the employees' commitment and support to the *organization* (Eisenberger et al., 1986) and not to other *individuals* within the organization, such as the co-workers. The OCBs examined in my study pertain more specifically to helping behaviors directed at other individuals. The lack of association between POS and AOCBs could indicate that POS increase OCBs at any level besides the organization, where the support originated from. According to the basic rule of social exchange, perhaps a more direct form of support from the expatriate to the HCN may more likely lead to reciprocal support from the HCN to the expatriate.

There was also no main effect found of perceived justice on HCNs' display of AOCBs. The literature suggests that perceptions of justice leads to higher levels of OCBs (Moorman, 1991). Again, this could be because HCNs are less likely to reciprocate organizational fairness with helping behaviors directed at the expatriates in their organization, but rather to the organization with greater levels of commitment, work performance or job satisfaction (Leung et al., 1996). However, a significant interaction effect of justice on the relationship indicated that the relationship between justice and AOCB might be less straightforward. Specifically, when HCNs categorized expatriates as outgroup members, they were more likely to provide expatriates with role information only when they also perceived that they were being treated fairly by the organization and were less likely to be taken advantage of by the organization. Hence, justice had a positive effect on the relationship between categorization and information sharing. However, when HCNs viewed expatriates less as outgroup members, lower

levels of justice lead to more information sharing by HCNs than higher levels of justice. This phenomenon could be an indication of what Henri Tajfel referred to as the "same fate mentality", where individuals who suffered similar treatment tended to "band together" and help each other by nature of their shared fate. It is possible that when HCNs felt that both they and expatriates were similarly mistreated by the organization in terms of unfair reward allocation procedures, a feeling of camaraderie may have developed and led HCNs to be more willing to help out a fellow co-worker. Whereas when HCNs felt that other employees in their organization were also treated fairly by the organization, there was less perceived need to help each other out. Thus, the positive effects of justice only applied when outgroup categorization was high – a case where if HCNs felt that they were being taken advantage of by the organization, they would be less likely to help outgroup members than if they felt that they were justly treated. When outgroup categorization was low, it was injustice that caused HCNs to feel justified in helping fellow co-workers.

Predictors of Expatriate Adjustment and Other Key Outcomes

Overall, there is a strong indication that AOCBs facilitate adjustment. However, the results suggest that all AOCBs were not created equal – only social support was related to expatriate adjustment, information sharing was not. One possible reason for this is that HCNs may lack the necessary role information pertaining to the expatriate's job. Limited knowledge of the expatriate's job or perhaps merely being on par with the expatriate in terms of their task proficiency (for example, both HCN and expatriate

started on the job at the same time), they might be in less of a position to provide information helpful to the expatriate. The empirical evidence corroborates this claim – the mean levels of information sharing at about 3.5 (3.15 in the case of HCNs) on a 7-point scale whereas the mean levels of social support were consistently above 5 in both the HCN and expatriate samples. In cases where HCNs did provide information to expatriates on their own accord, the information may not have been what the expatriates needed to aid their adjustment. Hence, the amount of information provided to the expatriate did not influence expatriate adjustment.

Interestingly, the receipt of AOCBs was not related to expatriate reports of adjustment. The expatriates perceived the benefits of AOCBs differently than HCNs. They viewed the adjustment of their spouse and being proficient in the local language as key to their adjustment, rather than the amount of information and social support shared by their HCN co-workers. Thus, we see a situation where HCNs believe that their help is useful, but the expatriates view it otherwise. Perhaps the reason for this inconsistency is that the information and support shared by the HCNs, were just not the ones that were viewed as useful by the expatriates. Further, the emphasis by expatriates on spousal adjustment may suggest a possibility that HCNs' help might be put to better use if they were directed at helping the spouse adjust.

In terms of downstream outcomes of the expatriate, there was also evidence that the extent to which expatriates were adjusted was related to the expatriates' assignment satisfaction and work, as well as contextual performance. Withdrawal intentions were not related to adjustment to the new role. However, it was significantly related to

assignment satisfaction and contextual performance. This could be an indication that the expatriate's decision to quit may be a result of the level of satisfaction they experience on the job as well as their ability to do well in the non-task specific aspects of their jobs. These factors may cause expatriates to become more attached to the organization and to their jobs and minimize thoughts of returning to their home countries early.

Overall, these results indicate a significant role for HCNs in the expatriate adjustment process – they suggest that the behaviors that HCNs exhibit or withhold have significant direct and indirect relationships with important expatriate outcomes.

Contributions to the Literature

The current study adds to the existing body of research on expatriate adjustment in several ways. First, it represents an attempt to advance the research on expatriate adjustment that adopts the HCN perspective. The omission of the HCN's perspective in existing models has resulted in a one-sided view of the expatriate adjustment process that only focuses on the expatriate and the organization. HCNs are significant organizational stakeholders. Incorporating the HCN perspective and the underlying psychological and social processes experienced by HCNs in the host unit, can lead to more veritable theoretical models of expatriate adjustment. In particular, the present study indicated that depending who's perspective one takes, social support provided by HCNs may or may not have an effect on adjustment.

This study also breaks new ground by considering information sharing and social support as OCBs that facilitate the adjustment of expatriates. I introduce the idea of

AOCBs, or the specific behaviors HCNs initiate that could aid the expatriate during the adjustment phase. These behaviors have been suggested elsewhere to be beneficial to newcomer socialization, but little work has been done to explain when these behaviors are more likely to occur. In addition, the OCB literature often assume that OCBs have a host of benefits, but have to explicitly determine if these behaviors in fact significantly improve tangible outcomes. Existing research on helping behaviors are relatively mute on the effects of OCBs on the outcomes of other organizational members. Much of it is interested in how these behaviors influence the individual outcomes of the performer, such as performance ratings and the organizational rewards received, or in terms of how the organization may become more effective as a result (see Podsakoff et al., 2000). The present model considers how a set of OCBs may influence the outcomes of their beneficiaries. In the current study, the results revealed that particular AOCBs directed at the expatriate, do have perceived benefits for the recipient.

Another major contribution of this study is that it integrates four major bodies of literature in organizational behavior – socialization, self-categorization, OCB, and expatriate management. I turn to the domestic socialization literature to demonstrate the importance of the HCN's role in expatriate adjustment and suggest that there are specific behaviors that HCNs may carry out to facilitate adjustment. I draw on SCT, as well as existing research on OCBs to predict when HCNs are more likely to help in the adjustment process. SCT has yet to be applied to expatriate adjustment research. Doing so is fruitful as it allows us to examine the social dynamics in a context that often consists of at least two groups that are identifiable by their nationalities (see Toh &

DeNisi, 2003). These theories may provide researchers with a means to understand the socio-psychological processes that govern the behavior of HCNs and expatriates in the host unit situation and help predict the antecedents and consequences of intergroup cognitions and behaviors. The integration of established psychological theories with existing expatriate adjustment models make for a more enriched understanding of the expatriate adjustment process.

The results indicated that the role of POS and justice on displays of OCBs were not quite consistent with established knowledge. Perceived organizational support did not lead to more display of AOCBs. Under certain situations, less justice actually lead to more positive outcomes. These are interesting discoveries that warrant further research. It also indicates a need for OCB theories to be tested on wider range of samples and that existing theories should not be assumed to operate in the same way across all contexts.

The present study also tested relationships that are usually assumed by researchers. The factors that lead to salience for example, are hardly tested in existing research. Many studies manipulate salience in experimental settings, or simply assume or measure salience, rather than testing antecedents of salience. The present study revealed that attitudes towards the outgroup have important implications for intergroup cognitions and behaviors. Perceptions of differences, however, had less consistent influence. Thus, the present study also revealed the complexity of understanding the antecedents of salience. However, it has taken a significant step towards an important direction.

In terms of methodology, the present study also contributes to both existing socialization research as well as expatriate management. The latter body of work, in particular, has been suffered criticisms for its poor theoretical foundations and rigor of the methodologies employed. With few exception (Adkins & Russell, 1997: looked both the supervisor's and the subordinate's perspective), the domestic socialization research has neglected to survey other organizational stakeholders that are relevant to the newcomer's socialization. It has relied on self-reports and based their conclusions on the perceptions of the newcomer only. This may render the some of the conclusions questionable, as what is perceived may not necessarily be what is and self-reports are often prone to bias of various forms (e.g., social desirability bias, retrospective bias, etc.). This methodological shortcoming also holds for the studies done in the expatriate management literature. The studies described have been influential in stimulating a HCN perspective on expatriate adjustment and represent important first steps in the understanding of the HCN role. However, almost none of these studies actually solicited responses from the HCNs. Expatriates have been the only source of data for these studies and thus, the impact of HCNs are seen through the eyes of the expatriate and not captured directly from the perspective of HCNs (Caligiuiri, 2000a; Florkowski & Fogel, 2001; Kraimer et al., 2001). The behaviors and attitudes suggested to influence expatriate adjustment are based on the perceptions of expatriates and not what the HCN actually does and feels. This is hardly surprising as collecting data from the expatriate is by itself a daunting task. Collecting data from multiple employee groups would be even more difficult. Yet, to understand the phenomenon more deeply and accurately, the

HCNs' perceptions, attitudes, and behaviors should be directly measured. This is even more pertinent in a situation where the individuals involved come from different backgrounds, as their differences could lead to different perceptions or attributions about any single stimulus (Farh, Earley, & Lin, 1997). In the present study, I found this to be important because the results revealed that the perspectives of HCNs and expatriates do differ significantly. By surveying both HCNs and expatriates, I was able to uncover these differences in perspectives.

Limitations

The present study suffered from a set of limitations. Some of the measures were less than ideal. For example, the measure of salience of nationality may be somewhat deficient even though it was a measure used in the literature. It was a 2-item measure asking respondents the extent to which their actions were influenced by nationality, and the extent to which they viewed the expatriate as typical of the outgroup. Perhaps, other measures could be used as well to supplement this measure. Some studies use the "identity" and "public" subscales of Crocker and Luhtanen's Collective Social Esteem Scale to measure salience of a particular identity (Ros, Huici, & Gomez, 2000). This could be included in future investigations. Similarly, the measure used to operationalize organizational identification may have poor construct validity. This could have lead to the lack of showing by organizational identification in the final analysis because the measure provided by Smidts et al. (2001) pertained to ties and belongingness, but it does not capture the extent to which the respondent felt that other individuals in the

organization, such as their co-workers, were also part of this identity. Hence, the individual may be highly identified with the organization but if they do not include their expatriate or local co-workers in this identity (i.e, viewing all their fellow employees, expatriate or local, as part of a superordinate group), their actions towards their co-workers are less likely to be affected by their identification with the organization. A third measure, which in retrospect, also proved less than ideal was the measure of information sharing. Although the measure captures all the main forms of information suggested to be important for newcomer socialization, it did not capture the spontaneity of its occurrence, i.e., unlike the social support measure, respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which they provided those five categories of information, rather than the extent to which they were willing to share that information as and when they were required by the expatriate.

Another key limitation was sample size. With N's of 53 HCNs and 115 expatriates, there is a possibility that there was insufficient power to detect the relationships. In addition, the way in which HCN data was collected might have also introduced some bias in the results. Much of this data (35 out of 53) was collected through nominations made by the expatriate. The expatriate made the nomination by sending his or her HCN co-worker, whom they worked with the most, the local survey. However, it is possible that the expatriates who did so had a better relationship with the HCN co-worker than the ones who did not nominate anyone. Empirical evidence indicated that expatriates who nominated HCNs were less ethnocentric, received more social support, interacted with HCNs more, and were more adjusted than expatriates who

did not nominate HCNs. Hence, there is evidence that part of the HCN sample may be biased.

The amount of time the HCN had interacted with the expatriate in the organization was also not taken into account in the study. It is possible that some of the expatriates in my sample had been in the host country previously before joining their present organizations or before they held their present positions. Thus, the expatriate may already have had some previous experience in the country or the organization and thus, requires less support from the HCN co-worker. This factor could affect the strength of the relationship between AOCBs and expatriate adjustment.

Finally, the model presented and tested here may have left out important factors in the expatriate adjustment process. The present work is highly preliminary – there is little precedence in the literature that addresses how HCNs perceive expatriates and how these perceptions may influence their behaviors. Few studies have considered what HCNs think are important for expatriate adjustment and thus, there is a need to uncover what causes HCNs to facilitate or frustrate the process. Better models clearly need to be developed.

Implications for Practice

The results provide several practical implications. It demonstrated that social categorization processes are in play and that they have a significant role in determining HCNs' behaviors in multinational organizations. It has indicated that categorization influences HCNs' willingness to help expatriates out. Thus, it is important for

organizations to carefully manage how HCNs define their workplace. As indicated by the results, greater interpersonal interaction can influence the levels of group identity. Social identity theorists have suggested that highlighting relational identity is most effective for reducing the salience of collective identities (Brickson, 2000). Hence, when ingroup-outgroup dynamics are prevalent, organizations should encourage interaction among HCNs and expatriates as it could help dispel perceptual stereotypes of each other. This could be accomplished formally through job designs that allow opportunities for expatriates to work together, or informally through social functions in and outside the organization that brings the two groups of employees together. Given the opportunity to realize that their expatriate co-workers are unique individuals rather than a typical representative of their nationality, HCNs will likely be more open to help socialize expatriates to the new environment.

In addition to encouraging interaction, organizations should also encourage dialogue between HCNs and the expatriates regarding what information or what types of support the expatriate needs most to adjust to the new environment. On the organization's part, it should consult existing or previous expatriates to understand ways in which HCNs can facilitate the process. It is clear from the results that the HCNs feel that they can help, but it is possible that the ways in which they have done so may not be as critical based on the needs of the expatriate. The results also indicated that spouse adjustment is still key to expatriate adjustment. Perhaps a first step in roping in help from HCNs is to enlist HCNs to help out in making the spouse feel comfortable in the new environment.

Organizations could also do more to minimize leaving helping behaviors on the HCNs' parts to chance. Organizations could formalize socializing relationships between the expatriate and the HCN co-worker. They could implement formal "buddy" programs that would formally reward and encourage HCNs to help expatriates out during the initial adjustment stage. This could help overcome initial perceptual biases HCNs may hold about the expatriates, or any reservations they might have about helping expatriates out. In this way, both the expatriate and the HCN can develop meaningful working and social relations more in a more secure and effective way.

Finally, much research has proposed the importance of preparing expatriates with various training programs such as cultural sensitivity, language, communication, etc., to ensure that the expatriate is well-equipped with the necessary skills for the assignment. While this is important (Kraimer, 1999), the present model suggests that HCNs may need to be "prepared" as well. HCNs need to be made aware of the differences and similarities in cultural values, assumptions, communication styles, and attributions between the expatriate's culture and the local culture. The reason for the use of expatriates could be more clearly articulated and explained to HCN co-workers to minimize possible ethnocentrism or resentment towards the expatriate. The results show that ethnocentric attitudes persist and have a significant influence on subsequent reactions to expatriates, same with perceptions of values dissimilarity. Culture sensitivity training could be very useful in these contexts to help dispel undesirable or inappropriate attitudes and perceptions, thus facilitating healthier interactions for both the HCNs and the expatriates.

Future Research

The results provide several potential avenues for further investigation. First, research needs to do more to uncover the factors that lead to the salience of certain levels of identities as salience obviously has important implications for employee behavior. What causes certain categorizations to become more salient? What causes some differences to be significant and others to be ignored? Do these differences interact with one another to influence salience? The literature suggests that the use of interdependent goals, for example, can influence ingroup-outgroup discrimination (Gaertner et al., 2000). In the present context, the extent to which HCNs and expatriates share superordinate goals could influence the salience of nationality. Understanding what leads to salience of nationality certainly warrants further research.

We see here that categorization influences HCNs' choice of helping expatriates out. Quite possibly, there are other behavioral implications as well. For example, would categorization processes also influence HCNs' willingness to work cooperatively with expatriates? How would it influence HCNs' treatment towards other HCNs? How would it affect HCNs' feelings and commitment toward their jobs and to the organization? These are important questions for organizations as well as organizational scientists.

How perceptions of organizational support and justice influence employees' reactions also warrants further investigation. We saw that these factors did not have the effects as suggested by the established literature. It would be valuable to identify the contingencies that cause these factors to work differently. The results also highlight the

importance of testing established theories in different contexts, such as one as unique as the multinational organization.

Whereas this study drew upon self-categorization theory and OCB research to identify antecedents of AOCBs, perhaps individual differences may also have a significant influence on the display of AOCBs. Personality theory, for example, could help inform future models. Similarly, it would be important to understand if there are other individual attributes, such as previous experience overseas, competencies on the job, and communication skills of the HCN would influence their decisions to help in the socialization of expatriates.

Finally, as mentioned in the introduction of this study, I have chosen to focus on how HCN co-workers would affect expatriates' outcomes. Future research should expand this focus to include local supervisors as well as local subordinates to shed light on how these groups of employees could also influence adjustment. The relationships that expatriates develop with these local stakeholders could have a significant influence on their outcomes as well as the outcomes of these groups. The introduction of other theoretical frameworks, such as leader-member-exchange, could be instrumental in understanding these relationships. Future research should also continue to emphasize the use of multiple sources of data rather than solely on the expatriate. As the results of the present study revealed, different sources often have rather different perspectives on the same phenomenon. It is important to note that the expatriate does not exist in a vacuous environment, and thus, should not be studied as so.

In conclusion, this study examined how social categorization processes influence HCNs' willingness to socialize expatriates. It has indicated an important role for HCNs in the expatriate adjustment process. The results in the present study showed that the social support that HCNs provided expatriates were associated with higher levels of expatriate adjustment. They also indicated that in the given context, making available social support to the expatriate is more beneficial to adjustment than is having role-related information provided to the expatriate. Expatriates, on the other hand, believe otherwise and identified that their spouse's adjustment and their language ability are key to their adjustment. Expatriate adjustment, in turn, has important implications for assignment satisfaction and performance. Even though not all of it was supported, the present model is an important first step towards a better understanding of the adjustment process. Clearly, there are several exciting avenues for research that have not been tapped. It is my hope that the results of the present study stimulate more questions and excitement in expatriate adjustment research.

REFERENCES

Abrams, D. 1992. Processes of social identification. In G. M. Brakwell (Ed.), *Social psychology of identity and the self-concept*: 57-100. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Adkins, C. L. 1995. Previous work experience and organizational socialization: A longitudinal examination. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(3): 839-862.

Adkins, C. L., & Russell, C. J. 1997. Supervisor-subordinate work value congruence and subordinate performance: A pilot study. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 12(2): 205-218.

Adler, N. J. 1986. *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Boston, MA: Kent Pub. Co.

Allen, T. D., McManus, S. E., & Russell, J. E. A. 1999. Newcomer socialization and stress: Formal peer relationships as a source of support. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 54(3): 453-470.

Anakwe, U. P., & Greenhaus, J. H. 1999. Effective socialization of employees: Socialization content perspective. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 11(3): 315-329.

Arthur, W., Jr., & Bennett, W., Jr. 1995. The international assignee: The relative importance of factors perceived to contribute to success. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(1): 99-114.

Ashford, S. J., & Taylor, M. S. 1990. Adaptation to work transitions: An integrative approach. In G. R. Ferris, & K. M. Rowland (Eds.), *Research in personnel and human resource management*, Vol. 8: 1-41. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Ashforth, B. E., & Humphrey, R. H. 1995. Labelling processes in the organization: Constructing the individual. In L. L. Cummings, & B. M. Staw (Eds.), *Research in organizational behavior*, Vol. 17: 413-461. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Ashforth, B. E., & Mael, F. 1989. Social identity theory and the organization. *Academy of Management Review*, 14(1): 20-39.

Ashforth, B. E., & Saks, A. M. 1996. Socialization tactics: Longitudinal effects on newcomer adjustment. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(1): 149-178.

Ashforth, B. E., Saks, A. M., & Lee, R. T. 1998. Socialization and newcomer adjustment - The role of organizational context. *Human Relations*, 51(7): 897-926.

Atkinson, M. L. 1986. The perception of social categories: Implications for the social comparison process. In J. M. Olson, C. P. Herman, & M. P. Zanna (Eds.), *Relative deprivation and social comparison: The Ontario symposium*: 181-200. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Austin, W. 1977. Equity theory and social comparison processes. In J. M. Suls, & R. L. Miller (Eds.), *Social comparison processes: Theoretical and empirical perspectives*: 279-306. Washington, DC: Hemisphere.

Aycan, Z. 1997a. Acculturation of expatriate managers: A process model of adjustment and performance. In Z. Aycan (Ed.), *New approaches to employee management*, Vol. 4: 1-40. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Aycan, Z. 1997b. Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: Individual and organizaitonal level predictors. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(4): 434-456.

Bauer, T. N., & Green, S. G. 1994. Effect of newcomer involvement in work-related activities: A longitudinal study of socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(2): 211-223.

Bauer, T. N., Morrison, E. W., & Callister, R. R. 1998. Organizational socialization: A review and directions for future research. In G. R. Ferris (Ed.), *Research in personnel & human resources management*, Vol. 16: 149-214. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Beamish, P. W. 1998. Equity joint ventures in China: Compensation and motivation. *Ivey Business Quarterly*, 63: 67-68.

Bigoness, W. J., & Blakely, G. L. 1996. A cross-national study of managerial values. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4): 739-752.

Birdseye, M. G., & Hill, J. S. 1995. Individual, organizational/work and environmental influences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 26(4): 787-813.

Black, J. S. 1988. Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(2): 277-284.

Black, J. S., & Gregersen, H. B. 1999. The right way to manage expats. *Harvard Business Review*, 77(2): 52-62.

Black, J. S., & Mendenhall, M. 1990. Cross-cultural training effectiveness: A review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review*, 15(1): 113-136.

Black, J. S., Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. 1991. Toward a comprehensive model of international adjustment: An integration of multiple theoretical perspectives. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(2): 291-317.

Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. 1989. The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment and intent to stay in Pacific Rim overseas assignments. *Journal of Management*, 15(4): 529-544.

Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. 1951. An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 35: 307-311.

Brewer, M. B. 1991. The social self: On being the same and different at the same time. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin*, 17(5): 475-482.

Brewer, M. B. 2000. Superordinate goals versus superordinate identity as bases of intergroup cooperation. In D. Capozza, & R. Brown (Eds.), *Social identity processes*: 117-132. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Brewer, M. B., & Gardner, W. 1996. Who is this "we"? Levels of collective identity and self representations. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 71(1): 83-93.

Brickson, S. 2000. The impact of identity orientation individual and organizational outcomes in demographically diverse settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 25(1): 82-101.

Brickson, S., & Brewer, M. B. 2001. Identity orientation and intergroup relations in organizations. In M. A. Hogg, & D. J. Terry (Eds.), *Social identity processes in organizational contexts*: 49-66. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Brown, R., Vivian, J., & Hewstone, M. 1999. Changing attitudes through intergroup contact: The effects of group membership salience. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 29(5): 741-764.

Caligiuri, P. 1997. Assessing expatriate success: Beyond just "being there". In Z. Aycan (Ed.), *New approaches to employee management*, Vol. 4: 117-140. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Caligiuri, P. 2000a. Selecting expatriates for personality characteristics: A moderating effect of personality on the relationship between host national contact and cross-cultural adjustment. *Management International Review*, 40(1): 61-80.

Caligiuri, P. M. 2000b. The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate's desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1): 67-88.

Caplan, R. D., Cobb, S., French, J. R. P. J., Van Harrison, R., & Pinneau, S. R. J. 1980. *Job demands and worker health: Main effects and occupational differences.* Ann Arbor, MI: The University of Michigan.

Carpenter, M. A., Sanders, W. G., & Gregersen, H. B. 2001. Bundling human capital with organizational context: The impact of international assignment experience on multinational firm performance and CEO pay. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(3): 493-511.

Chan, D., & Schmitt, N. 2000. Interindividual differences in intraindividual changes in proactivity during organizational entry: A latent growth modeling approach to understanding newcomer adaptation. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(2): 190-210.

Chao, G. T., O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., Wolf, S., Klein, H. J., & Garnder, P. D. 1994. Organizational socialization: Its contents and consequences. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(5): 730-743.

Chatman, J. A. 1991. Matching people and organizations: Selection and socialization in public accounting firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 36(3): 459-484.

Cheney, G. 1983. The rhetoric of identification and the study of organizational communication. *Quarterly Journal of Speech*, 69(2): 143-158.

Clugston, M., Howell, J. P., & Dorfman, P. W. 2000. Does cultural socialization predict multiple bases and foci of commitment? *Journal of Management*, 26(1): 5-30.

Cota, A. A., & Dion, K. L. 1986. Salience of gender and sex composition of ad hoc groups: An experimental test of distinctiveness theory. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 50(4): 770-776.

Cowherd, D. M., & Levine, D. I. 1992. Product quality and pay equity between lower-level employees and top management: An investigation of distributive justice theory. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 37(2): 302-320.

Crosby, F. 1984. Relative deprivation in organizational settings. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 6: 51-93.

De Cremer, D. 2001. Relations of self-esteem concerns, group identification, and self-stereotyping to in-group favoritism. *Journal of Social Psychology*, Special Issue:. Vol 141(3): 389-400.

Dixon, T. L. 2001. Social cognition and racial stereotyping in television: Consequences for transculturalism. In V. H. Milhouse, M. K. Asante, & P. Nwosu (Eds.), *Transcultural realities : Interdisciplinary perspectives on cross-cultural relations*: 215-224. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Doosje, B., Ellemers, N., & Spears, R. 1995. Perceived intragroup variability as a function of group status and identification. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 31: 410-436.

Dugoni, B. L., & Ilgen, D. R. 1981. Realistic job previews and the adjustment of new employees. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24(3): 579-592.

Earley, P. C. 1989. Social loafing and collectivism: A comparison of the United States and the People's Republic of China. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 34(4): 565-581.

Earley, P. C. 1994. Self or group? Cultural effects of training on self-efficacy and performance. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 39(1): 89-117.

Eisenberger, R., Armeli, S., Rexwinkel, B., Lynch, P. D., & Rhoades, L. 2001. Reciprocation of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1): 42-51.

Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. 1997. Perceived organizational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(5): 812-820.

Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. 1986. Perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3): 500-507.

Farh, J.-L., Earley, P. C., & Lin, S.-C. 1997. Impetus for action: A cultural analysis of justice and organizational citizenship behavior in Chinese society. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 42(3): 421-444.

Feldman, D. C. 1976. A contingency theory of socialization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(3): 433-452.

Feldman, D. C., & Bolino, M. C. 1999. The impact of on-site mentoring on expatriate socialization: A structural equation modelling approach. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(1): 54-71.

Fisher, C. D. 1985. Social support and adjustment to work: A longitudinal study. *Journal of Management*, 11(3): 39-53.

Florkowski, G. W., & Fogel, D. S. 1999. Expatriate adjustment and commitment: The role of host-unit treatment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(5): 782-807.

Gaertner, S. L., Dovidio, J. F., Anastasio, P. A., Bachman, B. A., & Rust, M. C. 1993. The common ingroup identity model: Recategorization and the reduction of intergroup bias. In W. Stroebe, & M. Hewstone (Eds.), *European review of social psychology*, Vol. 4: 1-26. New York: Wiley.

Gaertner, S. L., Dovidio, J. F., Nier, J. A., Banker, B. S., Ward, C. M., Houlette, M., & Loux, S. 2000. The common ingroup identity model for reducing intergroup bias: Progress and challenges. In D. Capozza, & R. Brown (Eds.), *Social identity processes*: 133-148. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ganster, D. C., Fusilier, M. R., & Mayes, B. T. 1986. Role of social support in the experience of stress at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(1): 102-110.

Gladwin, T. N., & Walter, I. 1980. *Multinationals under fire : Lessons in the management of conflict*. New York: Wiley.

Graen, G., & Uhl-Bien, M. 1995. Relationship-based approach to leadership: Development of leader-member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership over 25 years: Applying a multi-level multi-domain perspective. *Leadership Quarterly (Special Issue: The multiple-level approaches)*, 6(2): 219-247.

Greenland, K., & Brown, R. 1999. Categorization and intergroup anxiety in contact between British and Japanese nationals. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 29(4): 503-521.

Gregersen, H. B. 1992. Commitments to a parent company and a local work unit during repatriation. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(1): 29-54.

Gregersen, H. B., & Black, J. S. 1992. Antecedents to commitment to a parent company and a foreign operation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(1): 65-90.

Gregersen, H. B., & Black, S. J. 1990. A multifaceted approach to expatriate retention. *Group & Organization Studies*, 15(4): 461-485.

Gregersen, H. B., & Black, S. J. 1991. The other half of the picture: Antecedents of spouse cross-cultural adjustment. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 22(3): 461-476.

Gregersen, H. B., Hite, J. M., & Black, J. S. 1996. Expatriate performance appraisal in US multinational firms. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(4): 711-738.

Hailey, J. 1996. The expatriate myth: Cross-cultural perceptions of expatriate managers. *The International Executive*, 38(2): 255-271.

Haslam, S. A., Powell, C., & Turner, J. C. 2000. Social identity, self-categorization, and work motivation: Rethinking the contribution of the group to positive and sustainable organisational outcomes. *Applied Psychology: An International Review. Special Issue: Work motivation: Theory, research and practice.*, 49(3): 319-339.

Hays, R. D. 1974. Expatriate selection: Insuring success and avoiding failure. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 5(1): 25-37.

Hofstede, G. H. 1980. *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related values*. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. 2001. *Social identity processes in organizational contexts*. Philadelphia: Psychology Press.

Hom, P. W., & Hulin, C. L. 1981. A competitive test of the prediction of reenlistment of several models. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 66: 23-29.

Jost, J. T., & Elsbach, K. D. 2001. How status and power differences erode personal and social identities at work: A system justification critique of organizaitonal applications of social identity theory. In M. A. Hogg, & D. J. Terry (Eds.), *Social identity processes in organizational contexts*: 181-196. Philadelphia, PA: Psychology Press.

Kawakami, K., & Dion, K. L. 1993. The impact of salient self-identities on relative deprivation and action intentions. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 23(5): 525-540.

Kirmeyer, S. L., & Lin, T.-R. 1987. Social support: Its relationship to observed communication with peers and superiors. *Academy of Management Journal*, 30(1): 138-151.

Klein, H. J., & Weaver, N. A. 2000. The effectiveness of an organizational-level orientation training program in the socialization of new hires. *Personnel Psychology*, 53(1): 47-66.

Konovsky, M. A., & Pugh, S. D. 1994. Citizenship behavior and social exchange. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3): 656-669.

Kraimer, M. L., Wayne, S. J., & Jaworski, R. A. 2001. Sources of support and expatriate performance: The mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(1): 71-99.

Kramer, R. M. 1991. Intergroup relations and organizational dilemmas: The role of categorization processes. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 13: 191-228.

Lance, C. E., Vandenberg, R. J., & Self, R. M. 2000. Latent growth models of individual change: The case of newcomer adjustment. *Organizational Behavior & Human Decision Processes*, 83(1): 107-140.

Lansberg, I. 1988a. Social categorization, entitlement, and justice in organizations: Contextual determinants and cognitive underpinnings. *Human Relations*, 41(12): 871-899.

Lansberg, I. 1988b. Social categorization, entitlement, and justice in organizations: Contextual determinants and cognitive underpinnings. *Human Relations*, 41(12): 871-899.

Lau, D. C., & Murnighan, J. K. 1998. Demographic diversity and faultlines: The compositional dynamics of organizational groups. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(2): 325-340.

Leung, K., Smith, P. B., Wang, Z., & Sun, H. 1996. Job satisfaction in joint ventures hotels in China: An organizational justice analysis. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 27(5): 947-962.

Light, D. A. 1997. Getting the most out of their experience. *Harvard Business Review*, 75(6): 20.

Liladhar, J. 1999. Racial categories: Appearance and othering. *Feminism & Psychology*, 9(2): 239-242.

Lincoln, J. R., & Kalleberg, A. L. 1990. *Culture, control, and commitment : A study of work organization and work attitudes in the United States and Japan*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Locke, E. A. 1976. The nature and causes of job satisfaction. In M. C. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*: 1297-1349. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally College Pub.

Locksley, A., Ortiz, V., & Hepburn, C. 1980. Social categorization and discriminatory behavior: Extinguishing the minimal intergroup discrimination effect. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 39(5): 773-783.

Louis, M. R. 1980. Surprise and sense making: What newcomers experience in entering unfamiliar organizational settings. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 25(2): 226-251.

Louis, M. R., Posner, B. Z., & Powell, G. N. 1983. The availability and helpfulness of socialization practices. *Personnel Psychology*, 36(4): 857-866.

Lueke, S. B., & Svyantek, D. J. 2000. Organizational socialization in the host country: The missing link in reducing expatriate turnover. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 8(4): 380-400.

Major, D. A., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. 1997. Newcomer information seeking - individual and contextual influences. *International Journal of Selection & Assessment*, 5(1): 16-28.

Major, D. A., Kozlowski, S. W. J., Chao, G. T., & Gardner, P. D. 1995. A longitudinal investigation of newcomer expectations, early socialization outcomes, and the moderating effects of role development factors. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 80(3): 418-431.

Martin, J. 1986. The tolerance of injustice. In J. M. Olson, C. P. Herman, & M. P. Zanna (Eds.), *Relative deprivation and social comparison: The Ontario symposium*, Vol. 4: 217-242. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Martinko, M. J., & Douglas, S. 1999. Culture and expatriate failure: An attributional explication. *International Journal of Organizational Analysis*, 7(3): 265-263.

Masterson, S. S., Lewis, K., Goldman, B. M., & Taylor, M. S. 2000. Integrating justice and social exchange: The differing effects of fair procedures and treatment on work relationships. *Academy of Management Journal*, 43(4): 738-748.

McGuire, W. J. 1984. Search for the self: Going beyond self-esteem and the reactive self. In R. A. Zucker, J. Aronoff, & A. I. Rabin (Eds.), *Personality and the prediction of behavior*: 73-120. New York: Academic Press.

McGuire, W. J., McGuire, C. V., Child, P., & Fujioka, T. 1978. Salience of ethnicity in the spontaneous self-concept as a function of one's ethnic distinctiveness in the social environment. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 36(5): 511-520.

McGuire, W. J., & Padawer-Singer, A. 1976. Trait salience in the spontaneous self-concept. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 33(6): 743-754.

McKnight, D. H., Cummings, L. L., & Chervany, N. L. 1998. Initial trust formation in new organizational relationships. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3): 473-490.

Mehra, A., Kilduff, M., & Brass, D. J. 1998. At the margins: A distinctiveness approach to the social identity and social networks of underrepresented groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 41(4): 441-452.

Miller, V. D., & Jablin, F. M. 1991. Information seeking during organizational entry: Influences, tactics, and a model of the process. *Academy of Management Review*, 16(1): 92-120.

Moorman, R. H. 1991. Relationship between organizational justice and organizational citizenship behaviors: Do fairness perceptions influence employee citizenship? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 76(6): 845-855.

Moorman, R. H., & Blakely, G. L. 1995. Individualism collectivism as an individual difference predictor of organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(2): 127-142.

Morrison, E. W. 1993a. Longitudinal study of the effects of information seeking on newcomer socialization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(2): 173-183.

Morrison, E. W. 1993b. Newcomer information seeking: Exploring types, modes, sources, and outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(3): 557-589.

Morrison, E. W. 1994. Role definitions and organizational citizenship behavior: The importance of the employee's perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(6): 1543-1567.

Motowidlo, S. J., & Van Scotter, J. R. 1994. Evidence that task performance should be distinguished from contextual performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 79(4): 475-480.

Mowday, R. T., Porter, L. W., & Steers, R. M. 1982. *Employee-organization linkages: The psychology of commitment, absenteeism, and turnover*. New York: Academic Press.

Naumann, E. 1992. A conceptual model of expatriate turnover. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(3): 499-531.

Naumann, E. 1993. Organizational predictors of expatriate job satisfaction. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(1): 61-80.

Nelson, D. L., & Quick, J. C. 1991. Social support and newcomer adjustment in organizations: Attachment theory at work? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 12(6): 543-554.

Nelson, D. L., & Quick, J. C. 1999. Social support and newcomer adjustment in organizations: Attachment theory at work? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 12(6): 543-564.

Newman, J., Bhatt, B., & Gutteridge, T. 1978. Determinants of expatriate effectiveness: A theoretical and empirical vacuum. *Academy of Management Review*, 3(3): 655-661.

Nicholson, N. 1984. A theory of work role transitions. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29(2): 172-191.

Oakes, P. J. 1994. The effects of fit versus novelty on the salience of social categories: A response to Biernat and Vescio (1993). *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 30(4): 390-398.

Oakes, P. J., Turner, J. C., & Haslam, S. A. 1991. Perceiving people as group members: The role of fit in the salience of social categorizations. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 30(2): 125-144.

Ostroff, C., & Kozlowski, S. W. J. 1992. Organizational socialization as a learning process: The role of information acquisition. *Personnel Psychology*, 45(4): 849-874.

Pettigrew, T. F. 1998. Intergroup contact theory. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 49(1): 65-83.

Pfeffer, J., & Langton, N. 1993. The effect of wage dispersion on satisfaction, productivity, and working collaboratively: Evidence from college and university faculty. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 38(3): 382-407.

Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Paine, J. B., & Bachrach, D. G. 2000. Organizational citizenship behaviors: A critical review of the theoretical and empirical literature and suggestions for future research. *Journal of Management*, 26(3): 513-563.

Pratt, M. G. 1998. To be or not to be: Central questions in organizational identification. In D. A. Whetten, & P. C. Godfrey (Eds.), *Identity in organizations : Building theory through conversations*: 171-207. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Reichers, A. E. 1987. An interactionist perspective on newcomer socialization rates. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(2): 278-287.

Reynolds, K. J., Turner, J. C., & Haslam, S. A. 2000. When are we better than them and they worse than us? A closer look at social discrimination in positive and negative domains. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 78(1): 64-80.

Rhoades, J. A., Eisenberger, R., & Armeli, S. 2001. Affective commitment to the organization: The contribution of perceived organizational support. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(5): 825-836.

Ros, M., Huici, C., & Gomez, A. 2000. Comparative identity, category salience and intergroup relations. In D. Capozza, & R. Brown (Eds.), *Social identity processes*: 81-95. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Schwartz, S. H. 1992. Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. In M. P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in experimental social psychology*, Vol. 25: 1-65. Orlando, FL: Academic Press.

Seers, A., McGee, G. W., Serey, T. T., & Graen, G. B. 1983. The interaction of job stress and social support: A strong inference investigation. *Academy of Management Journal*, 26(2): 273-284.

Settoon, R. P., & Adkins, C. L. 1997. Newcomer socialization: The role of supervisors, coworkers, friends and family members. *Journal of Business & Psychology*, 11(4): 507-515.

Settoon, R. P., & Mossholder, K. W. 2002. Relationship quality and relationship context as antecedents of person- and task-focused interpersonal citizenship behavior. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(2): 255-267.

Shaffer, M. A., & Harrison, D. A. 1998. Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel Psychology*, 51(1): 87-118.

Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Gilley, K. M. 1999. Dimensions, determinants, and differences in the expatriate adjustment process. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 30(3): 557-581.

Smidts, A., Pruyn, A. T. H., & van Riel, C. B. M. 2001. The impact of employee communication and perceived external prestige on organizational identification. *Academy of Management Journal*, 44(5): 1051-1062.

Smith, C. A., Organ, D. W., & Near, J. P. 1983. Organizational citizenship behavior: Its nature and antecedents. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 68: 653-663.

Tajfel, H. 1978. *Differentiation between social groups : Studies in the social psychology of intergroup relations*. New York: Academic Press.

Tajfel, H. 1981. *Human groups and social categories : Studies in social psychology*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H. 1982a. *Social identity and intergroup relations*. New York: Cambridge University Press.

Tajfel, H. 1982b. Social psychology of intergroup relations. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 33: 1-39.

Taylor, D. M., & Moghaddam, F. M. 1987. *Theories of intergroup relations : International social psychological perspectives*. New York: Praeger.

Toh, S. M., & DeNisi, A. S. 2003. Host country national (HCN) reactions to expatriate pay policies: A proposed model and implications. *Academy of Management Review*, 28(4): 606-621.

Torbiorn, I. 1982. *Living abroad : Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting*. New York: Wiley.

Triandis, H. C. 1994. *Culture and social behavior*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Tung, R. L. 1987. Expatriate assignments: Enhancing success and minimizing failure. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1(2): 117-125.

Turban, D. B., & Jones, A. P. 1988. Supervisor-subordinate similarity: Types, effects, and mechanisms. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 73(2): 228-234.

Turner, J. C. 1981. The experimental social psychology of intergroup behavior. In J. C. Turner, & H. Giles (Eds.), *Intergroup behavior*: 66-101. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Turner, J. C. 1985. Social categorization and the self-concept: A social cognitive theory of group behavior. In E. J. Lawler (Ed.), *Advances in group processes*, Vol. 2: 77-122. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Turner, J. C., Hogg, M. A., Oakes, P. J., Reicher, S. D., & Wetherell, M. S. 1987. *Rediscovering the social group : Self-categorization theory*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.

Turner, J. C., Oakes, P. J., Haslam, S. A., & McGarty, C. 1994. Self and collective: Cognition and social context. *Personality & Social Psychology Bulletin. Special Issue: The self and the collective.*, 20(5): 454-463.

Tyler, T. R., Boekmann, R. J., Smith, H. J., & Huo, Y. J. 1997. *Social justice in a diverse society*. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Van Maanen, J. 1998. People processing: Strategies of organizational socialization. *Organizational Dynamics*, 7(1): 18.

Van Maanen, J., & Schein, E. H. 1979. Toward a theory of organizational socialization. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 1: 209-264.

Wagner, J. A., III. 1995. Studies of individualism-collectivism: Effects on cooperation in groups. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38(1): 152-172.

Wagner, J. A., III, & Moch, M. K. 1986. Individualism-collectivism: Concept and measure. *Group and Organization Studies*, 11: 280-303.

Wanous, J. P. 1985. A meta-analysis of realistic job preview experiments. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 70(4): 706-719.

Wayne, S. J., Shore, L. M., & Linden, R. C. 1997. Perceived organizational support and leader-member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 40(1): 82-111.

Wharton, A. S. 1992. The social construction of gender and race in organizations: A social identity and group mobilization perspective. In S. B. Bacharach (Ed.), *Research in the sociology of organizations*, Vol. 10: 55-84. Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.

Wright, S. C., & Ropp, S. A. 1997. The extended contact effect: Knowledge of cross-groups friendships and prejudice. *Journal of Personality & Social Psychology*, 73(1): 73-90.

APPENDIX I

Survey for Expatriates

<u>Research on Expatriates and Foreign National Workers</u>

This survey is part of an ongoing program of organizational research conducted from the Department of Management at Texas A&M University. The general purpose of the research is to better understand what expatriates or foreign national workers think and feel about their jobs and how those thoughts and feelings are related to various attitudes and behaviors. *You are being asked to participate by completing the enclosed survey form.* Please return the survey directly to us by saving your responses directly in the survey document and emailing the file back to me at: smtoh@sympatico.ca. You may also mail or fax the survey to me at the address/fax number found at the bottom of the page. *Your participation in the research is important for the overall success of the project, and we greatly appreciate your help!*

To collect additional information, we have enclosed a second survey (labeled "Local Survey") and ask that, if you are able to, to pass this survey on to <u>a local co-worker in your organization whom you work with the most</u> to complete (this local co-worker should be the same person you will refer to when answering the questions in your survey). Getting the response from the local co-worker is *not critical* and does not affect your participation. Your participation in our survey is most important to us. We sincerely ask that you complete our survey even if a co-worker's participation is not obtained.

We assure you that ***complete confidentiality*** is guaranteed. Each survey will be identifiable only by your <u>initials</u>, which we ask that you provide at the beginning of the survey. No one at your organization will ever have access to the responses you provide. All of your responses will be held in the strictest of confidence, and only the primary researchers will ever have access to them.

This is the most crucial part of the project. Your participation is vital to the success of the project, and we very much appreciate your help. Please read the instructions carefully, don't leave any questions unanswered, and be as honest and open as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to call us at (979) 845-2381 or email us at smtoh@sympatico.ca.

Thank you very much for your help!

A) Please enter <u>your</u> first initial and surname in one word (e.g., John Smith: js): ___

B) Please enter the first initial and surname in one word (e.g., John Smith: js) of <u>the local co-worker whom you work with the most in your organization</u>. This should be the same person you will refer to when answering questions regarding a particular local co-worker in your workplace: ___

I) The following questions ask you to think about a local co-worker whom you work with the most in your organization. Using the scale below, please state the answer that best describes your interaction with this person in the boxes provided:

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

1. I see this person often
2. I work closely with this person
3. I spend much time with this person at work
4. I regard this person as a casual acquaintance
5. I am on friendly terms with this person
6. My relationship with this person is very formal
7. We meet as mere individuals rather than members of our respective national groups, whenever I come into contact with this person
8. I am aware of our respective nationalities when I am in contact with this person
9. I see this person as typical of people in his/her nationality
10. Overall, I feel that we meet as two people belonging to two different cultural groups
11. I am aware of our respective cultures when I am in contact with this person
12. I consider this person as "one of them" and the other foreign nationals/expatriates in the organization to be "one of us"
13. This person is more similar to other locals in the organization than they are similar to the foreign nationals/expatriates in the organization
14. I view the foreign nationals/expatriates and the locals in the organization as belonging to the same group

II) Using the scale below, please indicate how often your local co-worker:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	**Very Infrequently**	**Infrequently**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Very Frequently**	**Always**

15. Provides you with information on the behaviors and attitudes that your organization values and expects
16. Provides you with information on how to perform specific aspects of your job
17. Provides you with information on what is expected in your job
18. Provides you with information on how well you am performing in your job
19. Provides you with information on how appropriate your social behavior at work is
20. Helps to make work life easier for you at his/her own accord
21. Is easy to talk to
22. Will help when things get tough without being asked
23. Is willing to listen to your personal problems if you approached him/her

III) The following statements refer to typical aspects of your current job. Please indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree that you are <u>adjusted</u> to the following dimensions:

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

24. Job and responsibilities
25. Working with local co-workers
26. The transportation system in the host country
27. Working with the locals outside your organization
28. The food in the host country
29. The weather in the host country
30. Interacting with the locals in general
31. Shopping in the host country
32. Supervising local subordinates
33. Generally living in the host country
34. The entertainment available in the host country

IV) Using the scale below, please rate your own performance at work on the following dimensions:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Poor	**Poor**	**Fair**	**Good**	**Very Good**	**Excellent**	**Outstanding**

35. Technical competence
36. Meeting job objectives
37. Adapting to the organization's customs and norms
38. Establishing relationships with key host-country contacts
39. Interacting with co-workers
40. Understanding the organization's goals
41. Overall job performance

V) Please indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

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

42. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored
43. I consider my job rather unpleasant
44. I enjoy my work more than my leisure
45. Most of the time, I have to force myself to go to work
46. I am satisfied with my job for the time being
47. I definitely dislike my work
48. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
49. Each day of work seems like it will never end
50. I find real enjoyment in my work
51. I am disappointed I ever took this job
52. I am actively looking for a job outside my current organization
53. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my current organization
54. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job
55. I would like to return to my home country
56. Overall, I am similar to the locals in my organization in terms of our physical attributes
57. I am similar in ethnicity with the locals in my organization
58. Overall, I have similar personal values with the locals in my organization
59. Overall, I have a similar work style with the locals in my organization

60. Little can be learned from individuals from other countries
61. I dislike to work with individuals from other countries
62. I cannot accept cultural differences which arise in cross-cultural exchanges at work
63. I speak the local language well
64. I feel strong ties with my organization
65. 1 experience a strong sense of belonging to my organization
66. I feel proud to work for my organization
67. I am sufficiently acknowledged in my organization
68. I am glad to be a member of my organization
69. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards
70. Group success is more important than individual success
71. Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group
72. Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer
73. Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success
74. My organization cares about my opinions
75. My organization really cares about my well-being
76. My organization strongly considers my goals and values
77. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem
78. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part
79. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me
80. My organization shows very little concern for me
81. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor
82. During my interactions with the locals in the organization, my decisions and actions are influenced by my national identity
83. I often make references to one another's country/nationality in my encounters with the locals in the organization
84. I often acknowledge or think about the fact that I am a foreign national
85. My spouse feels he/she belongs in the host country
86. My spouse feels comfortable in the host country
87. My spouse feels At home in the host country

VI) Using the scale below, please indicate how different the following aspects of the host country's culture are compared to your home country?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Similar	**Similar**	**Somewhat Similar**	**Neutral**	**Somewhat Dissimilar**	**Dissimilar**	**Very Dissimilar**

88. The everyday customs that must be followed
89. General living conditions
90. Using health care facilities
91. Transportation systems used in the country
92. General living costs
93. Available quality and types of food
94. Climate
95. General housing conditions

VII) Please check the most appropriate answer. Overall, compared to the locals in my organization, my pay is:

☐	☐	☐
Less than what locals are paid	**Equal to what locals are paid**	**Greater than what locals are paid**

Please tell us more about yourself:

How long have you worked in the present organization: ___ years

Your Gender: ☐ Male ☐ Female   Your Age: ___ years

Your nationality: ___   Occupation: ___

Position at work: ☐ Junior ☐ Middle ☐ Senior ☐ Above Senior

How many expatriates/foreign nationals are there in your present organization? ___

How long has it been since you started working in this country? ___ years

What languages are you proficient in? ___

Have you undergone any form of orientation/training provided by your organization before or after you started on this overseas job?   ☐ YES ☐ NO

And if so, please indicate on a scale of 1 to 7 (1=Very Unhelpful; 7=Very Helpful) this orientation/ training was in helping you to adjust to your new job: ___

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!!!

APPENDIX II

Survey for HCNs

Research on Expatriates and Foreign National Workers

This survey is part of an ongoing program of organizational research conducted from the Department of Management at Texas A&M University. The general purpose of the research is to better understand what workers think and feel about their jobs in organizations that hire expatriates/foreign workers and how those thoughts and feelings are related to various attitudes and behaviors. *You are being asked to participate by completing the enclosed survey form.* On some of the questions, you are asked to think about the expatriate/foreign national co-worker who requested you to complete this survey.

Please return the survey directly to us by saving your responses directly in the survey document and emailing the file back to me at: smtoh@sympatico.ca . You may also mail or fax the survey to me at the address/fax number found at the bottom of the page. *Your participation in the research is important for the overall success of the project, and we greatly appreciate your help!*

We assure you that *complete confidentiality* is guaranteed. Each survey will be identifiable only by your initials, which we ask that you provide at the beginning of the survey. No one at your organization will ever have access to the responses you provide. We assure you that all of your responses will be held in the strictest of confidence, and no one, other than the primary researchers, will ever have access to them.

This is the most crucial part of the project. Your participation is vital to the success of the project, and we very much appreciate your help. Please read the instructions carefully, don't leave any questions unanswered, and be as honest and open as possible. If you have any questions, please feel free to call us at (979) 845-2381, or email us at smtoh@sympatico.ca.

Thank you very much for your help!

A) Please enter your initials (e.g., John A. Smith: jas): ___

B) Please enter the initials (e.g., John A. Smith: jas) of the expatriate/foreign national co-worker whom you work with the most in your organization. This should be the same person who sent you the survey and also will be whom you refer to when answering questions regarding a particular expatriate/foreign national co-worker in your workplace:

___

I) The following questions ask you to think about the specific expatriate/foreign national co-worker who requested you to complete this form. Using the scale below, please state the answer that best describes your interaction with this person in the boxes provided:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neither Agree/ Disagree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

1. I see this person often
2. I work closely with this person
3. I spend much time with this person at work
4. I regard this person as a casual acquaintance
5. I am on friendly terms with this person
6. My relationship with this person is very formal
7. We meet as mere individuals rather than members of our respective national groups, whenever I come into contact with this person
8. I am aware of our respective nationalities when I am in contact with this person
9. I see this person as typical of people in his/her nationality
10. Overall, I feel that we meet as two people belonging to two different cultural groups
11. I am aware of our respective cultures when I am in contact with this person
12. I consider this person as "one of them" and the other locals in the organization to be "one of us"
13. This person is more similar to other foreign nationals in the organization than they are similar to the locals in the organization
14. I view the locals and the foreign nationals in the organization as belonging to the same group

II) Using the scale below, please indicate how often you do the following:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Never	**Very Infrequently**	**Infrequently**	**Sometimes**	**Frequently**	**Very Frequently**	**Always**

15. Provide your foreign national co-worker with information on the behaviors and attitudes that your organization values and expects
16. Provide your foreign national co-worker with information on how to perform specific aspects of his/her job
17. Provide your foreign national co-worker with information on what is expected in his/her job
18. Provide your foreign national co-worker with information on how well he/she is performing in his/her job
19. Provide your foreign national co-worker with information on how appropriate his/her social behavior at work is
20. Help to make work life easier for him/her at your own accord
21. Are easy to talk to
22. Will help when things get tough without being asked
23. Are willing to listen to his/her personal problems if approached

III) The following statements refer to typical aspects of the expatriate/foreign national co-worker's job. Please indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree that this person is adjusted to the following dimensions:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neither Agree/ Disagree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

24. Job and responsibilities
25. Working with local co-workers
26. The transportation system in the host country
27. Working with the locals outside your organization
28. The food in the host country
29. The weather in the host country
30. Interacting with the locals in general
31. Shopping in the host country
32. Supervising local subordinates
33. Generally living in the host country
34. The entertainment available in the host country

IV) Please indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree with the following statements:

1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Neither Agree/ Disagree	5 Somewhat Agree	6 Agree	7 Strongly Agree

35. Overall, I am similar to the foreign employees/expatriates in my organization in terms of our physical attributes
36. I am similar in ethnicity with the foreign employees/expatriates in my organization
37. Overall, I have similar personal values with the foreign employees/expatriates in my organization
38. Overall, I have a similar work style with the foreign employees/expatriates in my organization
39. Foreign nationals should be thoroughly familiar with the local culture
40. Foreign nationals should adhere to local patterns of behavior
41. Foreign nationals should be proficient in the host country language
42. Foreign nationals should have knowledge of the host country's social characteristics
43. Foreign nationals should be familiar with the history of the host country
44. I feel strong ties with my organization
45. 1 experience a strong sense of belonging to my organization
46. I feel proud to work for my organization
47. I am sufficiently acknowledged in my organization
48. I am glad to be a member of my organization
49. Group welfare is more important than individual rewards
50. Group success is more important than individual success
51. Employees should only pursue their goals after considering the welfare of the group
52. Managers should encourage group loyalty even if individual goals suffer
53. Individuals may be expected to give up their goals in order to benefit group success
54. My organization cares about my opinions
55. My organization really cares about my well-being
56. My organization strongly considers my goals and values
57. Help is available from my organization when I have a problem
58. My organization would forgive an honest mistake on my part
59. If given the opportunity, my organization would take advantage of me
60. My organization shows very little concern for me
61. My organization is willing to help me if I need a special favor

62. During my interactions with the foreign nationals in the organization, my decisions and actions are influenced by my national identity
63. I often make references to one another's country/nationality in my encounters with the foreign nationals in the organization
64. I often acknowledge or think about the fact that I am a local
65. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored
66. I consider my job rather unpleasant
67. I enjoy my work more than my leisure
68. Most of the time, I have to force myself to go to work
69. I am satisfied with my job for the time being
70. I definitely dislike my work
71. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
72. Each day of work seems like it will never end
73. I find real enjoyment in my work
74. I am disappointed I ever took this job

V) Indicate the most appropriate answer using the check boxes. Overall, compared to the locals in my organization, my pay is:

☐	☐	☐
Less than what locals are paid	**Equal to what locals are paid**	**Greater than what locals are paid**

VI) Please consider the pay you receive from your organization as well as the procedures that are used to arrive at your pay package. Indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you agree with the following statements.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Somewhat Disagree**	**Neither Agree/ Disagree**	**Somewhat Agree**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**

76. I have been able to express my views and feelings during those procedures
77. I had influence over the pay package arrived at by those procedures
78. The procedures have been applied consistently
79. Those procedures have been free of bias
80. Those procedures have been based on accurate information
81. I have been able to appeal the pay package arrived at by those procedures
82. Those procedures upheld ethical and moral standards
83. I am fairly paid considering my job responsibilities
84. I am fairly paid for the amount of effort I put forth

85. I am fairly paid for the work that I have done well
86. I am fairly paid in view of the amount of experience that I have
87. I am fairly paid for the stresses and strains of my job
88. I am fairly rewarded in comparison to the expatriate employees in my organization
89. I am fairly rewarded in comparison to the local employees in other multinational companies
90. I am fairly rewarded in comparison to the local employees in local companies

VII) Please indicate, using the scale below, the extent to which you are similar on the following characteristics:

1 Very Dissimilar	2 Dissimilar	3 Somewhat Dissimilar	4 Neither Dissimilar/ Similar	5 Somewhat Similar	6 Similar	7 Very Similar

91. Eye color
92. Hair color
93. Skin color
94. Weight
95. Height
96. Spoken language

_____

Please tell us more about yourself:

How long have you worked in the present organization: ___ years

Your Gender: ☐ Male   ☐ Female   Your Age: ___ years

Your nationality: _____   Occupation: _____

Position at work: ☐ Junior ☐ Middle ☐ Senior ☐ Above Senior

How many expatriates/foreign nationals are there in your present organization? ___

What languages are you proficient in? _____

Have you worked with expatriates/foreign nationals previously?   ☐ YES ☐ NO

And if so, how long have you been working with expatriates/foreign nationals? ___ years

Are you involved in any form of mentoring/orientation programs designed to facilitate the adjustment of the expatriates/foreign nationals in your organization? ☐ YES   ☐ NO

THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR YOUR PARTICIPATION!!!

APPENDIX III

Results of Multiple Regression Tests of Moderation (Organizational Identification)

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4		Model 5	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Physical Dissimilarity	-.18	-.14								
Language Dissimilarity			-.17	-.07						
Values Dissimilarity					-.23	-.24				
Ethnocentric Attitudes							.72**	.75**		
Negative Pay Discrepancy										
Positive Pay Discrepancy										
Organizational Identification	-.11	-.08	-.11	-.08	-.21	-.22	-.22	-.25		
Physical Dissimilarity*Organizational Identification		-.09								
Language Dissimilarity*Organizational Identification				-.19						
Values Dissimilarity*Organizational Identification						.07				
Ethnocentric Attitudes*Organizational Identification								.09		
Negative Pay Discrepancy*Organizational Identification										
Positive Pay Discrepancy*Organizational Identification										
ΔR^2	.04	.01	.03	.02	.03	.03	.21**	.01		
Total R^2	.04	.04	.03	.05	.03	.03	.21**	.22		

[+] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$
Beta weights were used.

Results of Multiple Regression Tests of Moderation (Interpersonal Interaction)

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Demographic Dissimilarity	-.00	-.01						
Values Dissimilarity			.12	.13				
Ethnocentric Attitudes					.14	.17		
Negative Pay Discrepancy							.07	.05
Positive Pay Discrepancy							.04	.05
Interpersonal Interaction	.09	.16	.09	.18	.12	.11	.10	.14
Demographic Dissimilarity*Interpersonal Interaction		-.09						
Values Dissimilarity*Interpersonal Interaction				.07				
Ethnocentric Attitudes*Interpersonal Interaction						.05		
Negative Pay Discrepancy*Interpersonal Interaction								-.16
Positive Pay Discrepancy*Interpersonal Interaction								-.10
? R^2	.01	.01	.02	.03	.02	.01	.01	.00
Total R^2	.01	.02	.02	.03	.02	.02	.01	.01

[+] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Beta weights were used.

Results of Multiple Regression Tests of Moderation (Organizational Identification)

Predictors	Model 1		Model 2		Model 3		Model 4	
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2	Step 1	Step 2
Demographic Dissimilarity	-.01	-.02						
Values Dissimilarity			.15	.15				
Ethnocentric Attitudes					.13	.11		
Negative Pay Discrepancy							.09	.16
Positive Pay Discrepancy							.03	.02
Organizational Identification	.09	.14	.14	.05	.11	.10	.10	.06
Demographic Dissimilarity*Organizational Identification		.03						
Values Dissimilarity*Organizational Identification				-.06				
Ethnocentric Attitudes*Organizational Identification						-.07		
Negative Pay Discrepancy*Organizational Identification								.24
Positive Pay Discrepancy*Organizational Identification								.08
? R^2	.01	.00	.03	.01	.02	.00	.01	.00
Total R^2	.01	.01	.03	.04	.02	.02	.01	.01

[+] $p < .10$, * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$

Beta weights were used.

APPENDIX VI

Factor Solution for HCN Sample

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Physical Dissimilarity 1	.35	-.32	.22	-.06	.01	**.57**	.30	-.15	.00	-.03	.07	-.20	.09	.03	.26	.08	-.05	-.01
Physical Dissimilarity 2	.33	-.11	.08	-.23	.24	.44	**.52**	-.02	.24	-.08	-.14	-.18	-.03	.26	.00	.01	.18	-.08
Language Dissimilarity	**-.55**	.11	-.26	-.10	.06	.21	-.12	.07	.07	.47	-.17	.19	.19	.00	.14	.03	.24	-.16
Values Dissimilarity	.27	-.20	.16	.03	-.04	**.48**	.21	.51	.15	.22	.20	.04	.15	-.02	.19	.12	.08	-.01
Ethnocentric Attitudes 1	-.28	.24	.28	.04	.26	**-.42**	-.37	.04	.24	-.06	.36	-.25	.05	.03	.11	.02	.04	-.04
Ethnocentric Attitudes 2	.06	.03	.28	.21	.28	**-.54**	.20	.11	.07	-.34	-.04	.17	-.33	.02	-.03	-.13	.11	-.07
Ethnocentric Attitudes 3	.23	-.09	.03	-.10	.22	**-.45**	-.07	.41	.11	.42	-.09	-.06	-.11	.03	.04	.36	.11	.25
Ethnocentric Attitudes 4	.04	.06	.16	-.01	.22	**-.41**	.32	.29	.11	-.21	.21	.26	-.12	-.19	.25	.25	-.06	-.31
Negative Pay Discrepancy	-.30	-.15	.17	.04	.11	-.17	-.05	**-.52**	-.03	.16	.38	-.03	.27	.14	.08	-.23	.19	.08
Positive Pay Discrepancy	.32	.08	.01	.09	.51	.14	.22	-.34	-.17	-.28	**-.40**	-.05	-.12	.00	-.22	.10	-.02	.06
Interpersonal Interaction 1	.26	**-.55**	-.09	.34	.01	.09	-.06	-.03	.11	.28	-.16	.22	-.43	.20	-.05	.04	-.14	.04
Interpersonal Interaction 2	.27	**-.45**	.21	.39	-.28	-.02	.01	-.24	.00	.23	.03	.19	-.32	.25	.05	.10	-.16	-.07
Interpersonal Interaction 3	.25	**-.46**	.27	.45	-.23	-.11	-.13	-.29	-.03	.09	.08	.05	-.12	.26	.04	.06	-.08	-.15
Interpersonal Interaction 4	**.53**	-.30	-.18	.39	-.05	.15	.05	.33	.10	-.12	-.13	-.12	-.02	-.09	-.20	-.22	.00	-.10
Interpersonal Interaction 5	**.69**	.35	.14	-.02	.17	-.25	.16	-.13	.29	-.23	-.03	.11	-.13	-.13	.09	.02	-.10	.03
Organizational Identification 1	**.71**	.36	.10	-.08	.05	-.35	.03	-.03	.36	-.03	-.08	.07	-.04	-.21	-.03	.06	.01	.06
Organizational Identification 2	**.70**	.41	.01	-.17	.06	.01	.08	-.03	.09	.17	-.06	.26	.10	-.12	.01	-.25	.07	-.03
Organizational Identification 3	**.69**	.27	-.07	-.26	-.17	.00	-.05	-.03	.01	.02	.15	-.12	.00	-.04	-.06	-.05	-.13	.09
Organizational Identification 4	**.73**	.39	.04	-.20	.04	-.12	.04	-.16	.28	-.01	-.23	-.13	.03	.01	.04	-.04	.03	.16
Organizational Identification 5	**.57**	-.14	-.46	-.05	-.03	.04	.20	-.03	.08	.22	.06	-.26	-.02	-.03	-.02	.19	.29	-.21
Salience of Nationality 1	-.13	.16	.17	**.48**	.39	-.14	.10	-.12	.29	-.17	-.15	-.21	.13	.31	-.09	.03	.02	.15
Salience of Nationality 2	**-.53**	.18	.19	.52	-.06	-.01	.13	.14	.36	-.21	.09	-.04	.08	.11	.10	.04	.10	.06
Outgroup Categorization 1	**-.49**	.04	.05	.21	.15	.24	-.17	.26	.21	-.04	.11	.34	.07	.21	-.25	.09	-.06	-.06
Outgroup Categorization 2	-.03	-.05	.14	.33	.22	-.23	**.71**	-.01	-.02	.16	.24	-.03	-.11	.10	-.24	-.08	.05	-.04
Outgroup Categorization 3	**-.52**	.25	.19	.26	.04	.22	.17	-.04	.31	.24	.12	.27	.06	-.13	-.06	.02	-.07	.27

Outgroup Categorization 4	**-.42**	.14	.22	.28	.25	.33	-.03	.36	.10	-.10	.32	.15	.10	.05	-.28	.03	-.07	-.06
Outgroup Categorization 5	**-.53**	.29	.47	.13	.14	.04	-.08	-.09	.26	.12	-.12	.18	.32	-.18	-.06	.02	-.04	.15
Outgroup Categorization 6	**-.45**	.32	.28	.02	.16	.12	.28	.16	.01	.27	-.09	-.04	-.04	-.05	-.15	-.39	-.06	.07
Outgroup Categorization 7	**-.38**	.28	.39	-.08	.17	.15	-.37	-.20	-.01	-.04	-.03	.01	-.21	-.25	.00	.20	.01	-.07
Procedural Justice 1	.26	**.41**	.27	-.22	.01	.25	.37	-.29	-.20	.13	.18	.06	.18	-.15	.00	.26	-.14	-.02
Procedural Justice 2	.19	.31	.15	-.18	.48	-.06	-.17	-.40	-.19	.31	.15	.07	.17	.07	-.13	-.01	-.16	-.09
Procedural Justice 3	-.03	**.65**	-.15	.47	-.04	.10	-.14	.05	.14	-.01	-.10	-.01	.01	.21	.31	-.08	-.08	-.01
Procedural Justice 4	.04	**.59**	-.23	.44	-.12	-.07	-.27	.03	.41	.04	.15	-.02	.06	.11	.12	-.03	.03	-.21
Procedural Justice 5	.19	**.56**	-.24	.35	-.12	.07	-.30	-.21	.23	.02	-.01	-.19	.09	.18	-.17	.05	.05	-.16
Procedural Justice 6	.27	**.44**	.37	.00	.40	-.08	-.09	-.06	-.19	.33	-.10	.10	.02	.14	.22	-.05	-.14	.05
Procedural Justice 7	.01	**.74**	.00	.37	-.24	.13	.13	-.18	.07	-.13	-.16	.12	.03	.01	.05	.08	.02	-.07
Distributive Justice 1	.15	**.77**	-.16	.24	-.08	-.14	-.04	-.06	-.16	.20	-.04	-.14	-.07	.00	-.11	-.04	.26	.02
Distributive Justice 2	.13	**.83**	-.17	.16	.01	-.02	.11	.09	-.33	-.02	.11	-.11	.04	-.09	.01	.05	.02	.12
Distributive Justice 3	.13	**.79**	-.23	.26	.03	.02	.09	.01	-.32	-.05	.10	-.10	-.11	.01	.14	-.04	-.05	.05
Distributive Justice 4	.07	**.72**	-.06	.33	.00	-.07	.03	.09	-.34	.04	.26	.11	-.23	.06	.06	.06	-.05	.01
Distributive Justice 5	.30	**.74**	-.20	.12	.24	-.09	.10	.05	-.16	.07	.16	-.15	.10	.03	.07	.16	.11	-.03
Comparative Justice 1	.27	**.53**	-.43	.26	-.11	-.13	.07	.24	-.11	.10	-.16	-.11	.04	.07	-.23	-.07	-.13	-.01
Comparative Justice 2	.13	**.75**	-.26	.32	-.13	.17	-.03	.02	-.17	-.16	.01	.11	-.02	.15	-.03	.15	-.03	.17
Comparative Justice 3	.11	**.71**	-.11	.27	-.28	.21	.24	.00	-.10	-.19	-.06	.26	.16	-.01	.01	.04	.08	.04
Organizational Support 1	**.58**	.15	.45	.00	-.11	.21	-.23	-.14	.23	-.08	.20	-.18	-.17	-.24	-.14	.00	.05	-.11
Organizational Support 2	**.51**	.22	.34	.01	-.20	.37	-.09	.05	-.03	.08	.29	-.04	-.28	-.21	-.17	-.06	-.08	.04
Organizational Support 3	.44	.33	**.46**	.21	-.16	.22	-.15	.19	.06	.20	.02	-.16	-.22	-.20	-.02	-.14	.04	.08
Organizational Support 4	.07	.07	**.76**	.15	-.06	-.03	-.10	.13	-.08	-.15	-.17	-.14	.03	-.34	.13	-.03	.07	-.13
Organizational Support 5	-.22	.21	**.58**	.17	.25	.16	-.27	.16	-.18	-.15	-.02	-.13	-.17	.06	.25	-.10	.01	.11
Organizational Support 6	**.62**	-.01	.38	-.25	.26	.18	-.08	.04	-.22	-.12	.16	.01	.19	.21	.07	-.06	.01	-.13
Organizational Support 7	**.75**	.26	.17	-.21	.29	.11	-.02	.12	.14	-.06	-.12	.18	.01	.04	.00	-.18	-.12	-.04
Organizational Support 8	**.73**	.25	.33	-.16	.20	.09	-.08	-.08	.09	.08	-.02	.24	.01	.11	.06	-.08	.06	-.21
Collectivism 1	**.65**	.18	-.07	-.40	.24	.15	-.05	.13	.22	-.04	.09	.04	.17	.11	-.01	.07	-.23	-.07
Collectivism 2	**.74**	.15	-.11	-.26	-.08	-.04	-.15	.22	.31	.30	-.05	-.15	-.02	.01	-.02	-.06	-.10	.09
Collectivism 3	**.50**	-.10	.35	-.14	-.02	.26	-.21	.22	-.31	-.21	-.22	.04	-.06	.21	-.01	.04	.27	.10

Collectivism 4	**.70**	.24	-.03	-.27	-.13	.16	-.08	.00	.01	.11	-.14	.28	-.22	.15	.01	.14	.23	-.08
Collectivism 5	.38	-.23	-.09	-.14	**.64**	-.20	-.18	.15	-.11	-.06	-.02	-.10	.26	.00	-.08	.18	.15	.12
Information Sharing 1	.35	-.32	**.49**	.31	-.31	-.05	.01	.23	-.02	.08	-.09	-.10	.19	.12	-.06	.25	.03	.05
Information Sharing 2	.37	-.20	**.59**	.38	-.16	-.30	-.02	-.07	.01	-.08	-.11	.01	.16	-.01	-.15	.11	-.06	-.04
Information Sharing 3	.26	-.21	**.65**	.29	-.13	-.17	.06	.08	-.17	.16	-.09	-.09	.25	-.04	-.21	-.03	.00	-.04
Information Sharing 4	.30	-.10	**.49**	.17	-.10	-.27	-.01	.27	-.39	.17	-.06	-.03	.21	.09	-.14	-.01	-.17	-.06
Information Sharing 5	-.05	-.14	**.68**	.39	-.20	.03	.25	-.11	-.10	.02	-.07	-.08	.15	-.04	.30	.01	-.08	-.06
Social Support 1	**.49**	-.11	.47	.14	-.33	-.14	.06	-.13	.06	.10	.09	-.01	.06	.10	-.06	-.17	.34	.04
Social Support 2	**.68**	-.29	-.28	-.09	-.14	-.10	.04	.06	-.01	-.30	.19	.09	.26	.14	.00	-.22	-.10	.01
Social Support 3	**.62**	-.19	-.05	-.01	-.20	-.45	.13	.02	-.01	.10	.28	.09	.02	.15	.10	-.02	.03	.05
Social Support 4	**.55**	-.32	-.37	.11	-.12	.09	.04	.02	.09	-.08	.34	-.13	.16	-.09	-.07	.20	-.25	.12
Work Adjustment 1	**.45**	-.27	-.31	.18	-.11	.00	-.07	.10	-.05	-.17	.16	.31	.28	-.11	.18	-.27	.20	.13
Work Adjustment 2	**.61**	-.37	-.36	.27	-.01	-.01	-.27	.08	-.17	-.09	-.01	.02	-.03	.03	.15	-.07	-.19	.12
Interaction Adjustment 1	.12	-.36	-.38	**.44**	.11	-.08	.24	-.01	-.04	.25	-.15	-.04	.02	-.27	.24	-.03	.07	.00
Interaction Adjustment 2	.44	-.44	.09	.17	.20	.08	-.18	-.14	-.13	-.10	.08	**.50**	.01	-.08	-.06	.13	.20	.16
Interaction Adjustment 3	.18	-.22	-.14	**.53**	.33	.13	-.08	.19	-.06	.07	-.40	-.06	.20	.01	.19	-.03	-.16	-.11
General Adjustment 1	.04	-.35	-.28	.39	**.58**	.07	.06	-.02	-.01	.22	.12	.02	-.19	-.09	.01	-.20	-.06	-.16
General Adjustment 2	.25	-.11	-.31	**.57**	.17	.01	-.17	.06	-.24	.01	.06	.23	.09	-.26	-.23	.04	.22	-.20
General Adjustment 3	.37	-.39	.07	**.45**	.24	.27	.04	-.13	.13	.01	.19	.07	-.15	.00	.06	.03	.11	.36
General Adjustment 4	**.37**	-.07	-.25	.31	-.23	-.13	-.04	-.32	.16	.04	-.33	.20	.30	-.24	-.02	.09	-.13	-.02
General Adjustment 5	.37	-.42	-.31	**.52**	.29	.05	-.11	-.08	-.02	.04	.10	-.16	-.06	-.24	.09	-.03	-.04	.06
General Adjustment 6	.28	-.36	-.17	**.49**	.25	.35	-.15	-.21	.05	-.10	.08	-.32	.05	-.02	-.05	.08	.07	-.08

Extraction Method: Principles Components

18 Components Extracted

APPENDIX VII

Factor Solution for Expatriate Sample

Items	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
Physical Dissimilarity 1	.02	.02	.18	-.14	-.31	-.26	.39	.27	.12	.25	-.27	-.07	.09	-.20	.08	.32	-.01	-.01	.15	-.18
Physical Dissimilarity 2	.10	.11	-.05	.04	-.40	-.41	.43	.33	.03	.26	-.04	-.08	-.06	.02	.09	.15	-.08	-.01	.26	.01
Values Dissimilarity	-.21	.10	.01	.04	-.37	-.10	.30	.30	.33	.40	.06	.07	.10	.06	-.05	-.04	-.08	.12	.05	.12
Ethnocentric Attitudes 1	-.45	.03	.15	.03	.48	.14	.25	.16	-.12	-.14	.13	.10	.14	.25	.02	-.03	.09	.03	.06	-.02
Ethnocentric Attitudes 2	-.32	.01	-.16	.08	.50	-.08	.28	.11	-.09	.20	.23	.29	.14	.20	.09	-.19	.26	.01	-.07	-.01
Ethnocentric Attitudes 3	-.24	-.04	.06	.08	.61	.08	.26	.05	.07	-.07	.20	.32	-.05	.09	.14	-.07	-.28	-.07	.07	.11
Negative Pay Discrepancy	-.34	-.08	.09	.00	.21	.26	.24	.32	-.24	-.22	.02	.03	.30	-.19	.12	-.09	.12	-.18	.14	-.09
Positive Pay Discrepancy	.15	.04	-.02	-.04	.12	-.23	.05	.06	.47	.10	.35	.23	-.18	-.23	-.20	-.20	.04	.26	-.11	.17
Interpersonal Interaction 1	.20	-.43	.43	.12	-.17	-.16	-.39	.17	.16	-.18	.15	-.16	.13	-.07	.00	-.11	-.13	-.16	.19	.11
Interpersonal Interaction 2	.14	-.15	.59	.05	.04	.01	-.26	.19	.40	.07	.12	.09	.25	-.17	.02	.00	-.26	-.01	-.02	-.10
Interpersonal Interaction 3	.06	-.24	.62	.18	.10	.07	-.31	-.07	.27	-.07	.24	-.06	.22	-.20	-.13	.01	-.10	-.14	.14	-.03
Interpersonal Interaction 4	.25	-.03	.32	-.03	-.25	-.05	-.33	-.02	-.39	-.17	-.17	.16	.04	-.09	.19	-.11	-.10	.33	-.07	-.03
Interpersonal Interaction 5	.32	-.04	.16	-.30	-.41	-.05	-.18	.01	.14	.06	.23	.07	.19	.14	.29	-.09	.27	-.09	-.04	-.03
Org Identification 1	.63	-.35	-.09	.17	.29	-.27	.05	.00	.09	.10	.05	.01	.11	-.04	.15	.01	-.05	.14	-.02	-.06
Org Identification 2	.64	-.42	-.03	.25	.34	-.22	.05	-.01	-.01	.03	.03	.01	.04	.02	.04	.10	.00	.13	-.07	-.07
Org Identification 3	.52	-.41	.00	.27	.38	-.02	.13	.23	-.17	.00	.00	-.04	.18	-.03	-.12	-.08	-.11	.16	-.09	-.19
Org Identification 4	.55	-.41	-.01	.08	.37	.01	.00	.30	.02	-.05	-.04	-.08	.08	-.09	.03	.16	.01	-.03	-.08	-.01
Org Identification 5	.54	-.40	-.10	.21	.32	-.05	.10	.31	-.13	.06	-.07	-.13	.12	-.03	-.06	-.05	-.12	.16	-.05	-.14
Salience of Nationality 1	-.35	.03	-.01	.45	.01	.12	-.24	.02	.35	.12	-.30	.10	.36	.20	-.04	-.08	.15	.10	-.12	.02
Salience of Nationality 2	-.41	.04	-.03	.32	-.28	.19	-.03	.19	.12	-.12	-.11	-.19	.32	-.02	.16	-.06	.32	.08	.07	.11
Outgroup Categorization 1	-.34	.00	-.09	.44	-.03	.41	-.03	.13	-.04	.10	.31	.24	.03	.09	-.15	.34	.00	.05	-.01	-.03
Outgroup Categorization 2	-.15	.12	-.09	.41	-.27	-.19	-.21	.07	-.21	.05	.47	.02	-.05	-.01	.03	.18	.23	.11	-.09	.00
Outgroup Categorization 3	-.20	-.17	-.18	.48	-.20	.28	-.20	.17	-.13	.33	-.16	-.25	-.07	.12	.04	-.08	-.08	.07	-.04	.08
Outgroup Categorization 4	-.27	.00	-.13	.47	-.12	.30	-.20	.16	-.36	.23	.20	-.03	-.03	-.03	-.01	.27	-.10	.23	.04	.07
Outgroup Categorization 5	-.29	-.13	-.01	.47	.13	.05	.15	.19	.03	.30	-.25	.01	-.22	.05	.10	-.23	-.17	-.28	-.01	.21

Outgroup Categorization 6	.13	-.19	.00	.29	.11	-.18	-.18	-.07	-.03	.40	.14	-.11	.02	.22	.24	-.14	-.11	-.28	-.17	.00
Outgroup Categorization 7	-.11	.08	-.38	.39	-.33	.12	.13	.03	.03	.05	.19	-.27	.07	-.26	.21	-.04	-.03	-.03	.10	-.04
Information Sharing 1	-.04	-.38	.58	.00	.05	-.06	.18	-.18	-.13	.05	.20	.01	-.27	-.16	.11	.05	.08	.00	-.02	-.03
Information Sharing 2	-.19	-.28	.60	.07	.03	.09	.19	-.32	.14	.15	-.09	-.06	-.23	.13	.03	.07	.08	.01	-.08	-.01
Information Sharing 3	-.14	-.26	.67	.18	-.01	.16	.22	-.25	.08	.10	-.02	-.04	-.20	.16	-.04	.07	.16	.11	.03	-.10
Information Sharing 4	.06	-.26	.70	.17	.09	.01	.07	-.20	-.02	.09	-.09	-.22	-.04	.09	.11	.13	.15	.08	.04	-.13
Information Sharing 5	-.14	-.35	.65	.06	.16	-.02	.08	-.06	.00	-.08	.07	-.10	-.08	-.17	.09	.11	.16	-.08	-.01	.17
Social Support 1	-.09	-.13	.55	-.03	-.17	-.14	.19	.24	-.01	-.06	-.23	-.02	.01	.04	-.15	.07	-.08	.08	-.29	.35
Social Support 2	.16	-.08	.53	-.19	-.24	-.17	.09	.23	-.37	.02	.02	.19	.07	.13	-.02	-.06	.08	-.28	.07	.07
Social Support 3	.13	-.17	.60	.03	-.22	-.07	.08	.16	-.28	.05	-.12	.16	.05	-.01	.00	.02	-.06	.18	-.18	.15
Social Support 4	.35	-.21	.51	-.10	-.25	-.09	-.13	.13	-.26	-.09	.16	.18	-.02	.14	.22	-.11	-.01	.18	.10	.04
Work Adjustment 1	.35	.28	.10	.29	-.27	.02	.04	.21	.03	.05	.18	.19	-.21	.29	-.23	.07	.07	-.19	.12	-.16
Work Adjustment 2	.31	.31	.37	.20	-.37	.21	.04	.06	.09	.12	-.11	.37	.01	.06	-.22	-.09	-.10	-.02	.06	-.13
Interaction Adjustment 1	.27	.47	.26	-.14	-.07	.15	.04	.10	.08	-.07	.19	-.26	.03	.28	.13	-.25	-.30	.07	.10	.02
Interaction Adjustment 2	.24	.47	.19	-.03	-.07	.39	-.11	-.18	-.07	.31	.06	.21	.08	-.12	.24	-.13	-.08	.05	.04	.13
Interaction Adjustment 3	.39	.57	.05	.01	.13	.03	.09	.03	.23	-.05	.14	-.30	-.20	.13	-.02	.01	-.01	.22	.05	-.09
General Adjustment 1	.16	.55	.23	-.20	-.01	-.01	.16	.09	.13	-.12	.21	-.27	.13	.24	-.17	-.12	.11	.12	.04	.11
General Adjustment 2	.32	.30	.07	-.23	-.01	.42	-.15	-.16	-.19	.44	.18	.06	-.05	-.23	-.01	.01	.06	-.11	.01	-.16
General Adjustment 3	.39	.44	.17	.07	.22	.24	.28	.03	-.24	.09	.02	-.32	.14	-.09	-.10	-.02	.13	.05	.06	.23
General Adjustment 4	.27	.46	.41	.01	.15	.28	.07	-.06	-.16	.09	-.09	-.15	.09	-.26	-.28	-.13	.09	-.06	-.15	.06
General Adjustment 5	.53	.36	.16	.04	-.10	.29	.19	-.06	-.13	-.15	.11	.03	.23	-.06	-.21	.17	-.13	-.14	-.14	.06
General Adjustment 6	.33	.47	.04	.05	.28	.11	.06	-.17	-.12	-.09	.04	-.32	-.02	.15	.23	.15	-.23	.03	.17	.12
Work Performance 1	.34	.36	-.02	.43	-.15	-.27	-.09	.24	-.06	-.29	.16	-.07	-.08	.03	.13	.02	.11	-.13	-.20	.05
Work Performance 2	.33	.60	-.10	.29	-.11	-.19	-.01	.07	.05	-.28	.03	.02	-.08	-.03	-.05	.06	.06	.06	-.14	.12
Work Performance 3	.38	.54	.04	.26	-.04	-.13	.12	-.15	.07	.04	-.22	.06	.06	-.07	.04	.17	-.12	-.11	-.15	-.13
Contextual Performance 1	.48	.50	.15	.33	.15	-.01	.07	-.19	.11	.19	-.21	.07	.07	-.19	.11	-.12	.04	-.01	.03	-.05
Contextual Performance 2	.44	.43	.33	.39	.03	.04	.02	-.10	.01	-.14	-.16	.19	-.03	.02	.03	-.10	.00	-.02	.18	-.13
Contextual Performance 3	.37	.20	-.03	.51	.19	-.35	-.02	-.16	-.06	-.16	.02	.11	-.14	.05	.00	.12	.04	-.25	.09	.04
Contextual Performance 4	.50	.46	-.04	.48	.05	-.21	.03	-.03	-.02	-.21	-.02	.14	-.07	-.19	.05	-.11	.08	-.05	.02	.03
Assignment Satisfaction 1	.50	-.17	-.08	.11	-.07	.27	-.07	.06	.31	-.19	-.11	.02	-.12	-.03	.30	.08	.09	.06	-.06	.01

Assignment Satisfaction 2	.72	-.33	-.19	-.03	-.14	.12	.03	.06	-.04	-.01	-.04	-.04	.05	.11	-.10	-.15	.04	-.03	-.04	-.23
Assignment Satisfaction 3	.18	-.35	.03	.24	.06	.39	.10	.27	.21	-.08	-.06	-.09	-.31	-.07	.06	-.23	.26	.00	.01	-.06
Assignment Satisfaction 4	.44	.09	.02	-.23	.04	.18	.22	-.08	.27	-.07	.11	.13	.34	.17	.23	.35	.00	.00	-.06	.02
Assignment Satisfaction 5	.51	-.38	-.11	.13	-.23	.17	.06	-.07	.06	-.27	-.23	.07	-.06	.10	-.21	-.02	.10	.01	.20	.12
Assignment Satisfaction 6	.60	-.47	-.21	-.14	-.17	.27	.19	.13	-.07	-.10	.03	.04	.03	.13	-.06	.01	-.01	-.15	.00	.03
Assignment Satisfaction 7	.64	-.38	-.12	-.02	-.04	.39	-.03	-.06	.07	-.07	-.04	.10	-.17	.16	.05	.09	.01	.02	.13	.21
Assignment Satisfaction 8	.37	-.09	-.39	-.10	-.05	.08	.30	-.08	.07	.07	.02	.29	.07	-.34	.21	.02	.14	.04	.10	.28
Assignment Satisfaction 9	.69	-.38	-.19	-.02	-.14	.30	.04	.02	.08	-.03	.03	.09	-.23	-.01	.10	.02	-.07	.09	-.01	.04
Assignment Satisfaction 10	.59	-.31	-.38	-.14	-.18	.15	.02	-.01	-.03	-.03	.08	.02	-.03	.03	-.11	.00	-.16	-.03	-.11	.07
Withdrawal Intentions 1	-.46	.10	.16	-.19	.03	.20	-.03	.47	.06	-.23	.00	-.04	-.25	-.14	.24	.09	-.09	-.13	-.08	-.12
Withdrawal Intentions 2	-.54	.32	.09	.04	.00	.19	.02	.36	-.08	-.26	-.14	.14	-.22	-.10	.07	-.10	-.08	.02	-.07	-.11
Withdrawal Intentions 3	-.47	.53	.23	-.13	.17	.14	.01	.20	.16	-.12	.02	.13	-.19	-.05	.11	.09	-.12	.19	-.04	-.08
Withdrawal Intentions 4	-.53	.05	-.05	.26	.11	.00	-.17	-.22	.00	-.19	-.34	.21	.18	.20	.12	.16	-.10	.06	.13	.11
Spouse Adjustment 1	.26	.30	.04	-.22	.36	.03	-.39	.42	.06	.10	-.20	.06	-.01	.03	-.09	.15	.26	.06	.18	-.10
Spouse Adjustment 2	.38	.14	-.03	-.24	.38	-.11	-.40	.24	-.09	.27	-.11	.04	-.06	-.03	-.04	.20	.07	-.09	.13	.22
Spouse Adjustment 3	.44	.26	.12	-.26	.41	-.12	-.36	.25	.00	.23	-.13	-.01	-.19	.06	-.05	.01	.09	.04	.16	.15
Time Spent in Host Country	.28	.32	.05	-.26	.06	.21	-.09	.18	.18	.10	-.11	-.07	-.03	.15	.16	.14	.07	-.24	-.45	.01
Language Ability	.48	.36	-.09	-.23	-.11	-.17	.10	-.02	-.24	.11	-.16	.06	.01	.12	.23	-.17	.08	.14	-.05	-.12

Extraction Method: Principles Components
20 Components Extracted

VITA

SOO MIN TOH

PERMANENT ADDRESS

Department of Management
University of Toronto at Mississauga
2259 Mississauga Road North
Mississauga, Ontario, Canada L5L 1C6

EDUCATION

Ph.D in Business Administration, December 2003
Major: Management
Concentration: Human Resources/ Organizational Behavior
Texas A&M University

B.B.S., August 1997
Major: Human Resource Management
Nanyang Technological University, Singapore

RESEARCH

Toh, S. M., & DeNisi, A. S. 2003. Host country national reactions to expatriate pay
policies: A model and implications. *Academy of Management Review,* 28(4): 606-
621.

Toh, S. M., & DeNisi, A. S. Host country nationals: The missing key to expatriate
success and failure? *Academy of Management Executive (Submitted).*

Dewett, T., Shin, S. J., Toh, S. M., & Semadeni, M. Doctoral student research as a
creative endeavor. *Academy of Management Learning & Education (Submitted).*