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Cultural Adjustment and Work-Family Conflict of Expatriate Couples

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“One’s destination is never a place,
but a new way of seeing things.”

- *Henry Miller*

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Table of Contents

1. Expatriates – Living and Working in a Foreign Context.....	6
1.1 Modes of Global Mobility.....	6
1.1.1 Assigned and Self-Initiated Expatriates	6
1.1.2 Recent Findings: The Diversity of Global Mobility	9
1.1.3 Migration and Expatriation.....	12
1.2 Global Mobility and Career.....	13
1.2.1 Career as a Driving Factor for Expatriation?	13
1.2.2 Career Success of Expatriates – The Boundaryless Career Concept	14
2. Adjusting to the Foreign Culture	16
2.1 Domestic versus International Relocation.....	16
2.2 The Three Dimensions of Cultural Adjustment	17
2.2.1 Antecedents of Cultural Adjustment.....	18
2.3 The Other Half of the Picture: Accompanying Spouses.....	19
2.3.1 Adjusting Each Other.....	20
2.4 The Importance of Successful Adjustment.....	21
2.4 Differences in Adjustment Between Groups.....	22
3. Being Culturally Smart.....	23
3.1 Definition of the Concept of Cultural Intelligence	23
3.1.1 Metacognitive Aspect of CQ – Control.....	23
3.1.2 The Cognitive Aspect of CQ – Comprehension	24
3.1.3 Motivational CQ – Drive	25
3.1.4 Behavioral CQ - Action	26
3.2 The Effects of Cultural Intelligence	27
3.2.1 Intelligent Adjustment	27
3.2.2 Intelligent Performance	28
4. Combining Work and Family	30
4.1 What is Work-Family Conflict?	30
4.1.1 Sources of Conflicts.....	30
4.1.2 Directions of Conflict.....	32
4.1.3 What Predicts the Conflict.....	32
4.1.4 Consequences of Work-Family Conflict	35
4.2 Expatriates and Work-Family Conflict	36
5. Research Questions and Hypotheses.....	38

6. Method	41
6.1 Procedure.....	41
6.1.1 Pre-Test.....	42
6.2 Instruments	43
6.2.1 Cultural Adjustment	43
6.2.2 Cultural Intelligence	44
6.2.3 Work-Family Conflict	45
6.3 Description of the Sample	46
6.3.1 The Group of Organizational Expatriates	47
6.3.2 The Group of Self-Initiated Expatriates.....	48
7. Results	49
7.1 Descriptive Statistics	49
7.1.1 Cultural Adjustment.....	49
7.1.2 Cultural Intelligence	50
7.1.3 Work-Family Conflict.....	51
7.1.4 Language Proficiency and Relationship Quality	52
7.2 Testing of the Hypotheses	53
7.2.1 Influences on Cultural Adjustment	55
7.2.2 Influences on Work-Family Conflict	59
7.2.3 Influences on Relationship Quality	62
8 Discussion	63
8.1 Conclusion.....	63
8.2 Limitations and Implications	66
Reference List.....	68
List of Figures	73
List of Tables.....	73
Correlation Matrices	75
Detailed Results of Regression Analyses	83
Survey – Expatriate Version	92
Survey – Partner Version	98
Abstract English Version	102
Abstract German Version	104

Theoretical Background

1. Expatriates – Living and Working in a Foreign Context

The world in which we live in becomes more and more globalized. This brings many advantages, but also challenges, especially in the workplace. Companies seek business opportunities not only in their countries of origin, but venture into new frontiers around the globe to keep up with their international competition. For employees across the world this means an increase in international mobility as personnel is needed onsite. The UN Migrant Stock of 2008 states that international migration has seen a constant increase of between 9 and 37 percent in the last 20 years. The analysts expected the number to further increase by about 10% in the period between 2005 and 2010 (United Nations, 2009). These numbers prove that the group of people taking their careers abroad is ever-growing. This is also reflected in the large body of research articles published about the various aspects of this experience in the last 10-20 years. However, many aspects are still to be discussed and thoroughly researched. An overview of what has been found out so far will be given in the next chapters.

1.1 Modes of Global Mobility

1.1.1 Assigned and Self-Initiated Expatriates

Working and living in a foreign country has become a part of the career path of many employees around the world. The international experience thereby gained is more and more seen as an important asset by companies and employees alike (Biemann & Andresen, 2010). The term used to describe this group of people is called “expatriate”, which is defined by the Oxford English

Dictionary as “a person living outside their native country” (Expatriate, n.d.). Initially, researchers interested in the topic concentrated on the “classic” expatriates: the ones on an assignment by an international company or organization. These would typically be sent to another country by their company or organization, the initiative for the move thus does not come from the expatriate him- or herself (Inkson, Pringle, Arthur, & Barry, 1997; Suutari & Brewster, 2000).

In recent publications though, the focus shifted to another group of expatriates who move independently and through their own volition. These individuals are, upon decision by a consensus of researchers in 2009, called “Self-Initiated Expatriates/Expatriation (SIE)” (Doherty, Richardson, & Thorn, 2013).

Inkson, Pringle, Arthur and Barry (1997) published the first article distinguishing between “Overseas Experience (OE)” and “Assigned Expatriation (AE)” and thus were the first to shed a light on an alternative way of relocation to another country. They saw the differences mainly in the goals regarding the job abroad, the initiative for the move, the career type and the source of funding. According to them individuals pursuing OE seemed to be more driven by a lust for adventure and a curiosity about other cultures, whereas AE is more motivated by career development within the company that gave the assignment. Goals thus differ between the groups: where OE is more about the experience and personal growth, the goals of persons on AE are more career-related.

Later, Suutari and Brewster (2000) published another article defining a group they call “Self-Initiated Foreign Work Experience (SFE)”. They criticize that Inkson et al. mostly concentrate on young individuals who leave their home country for travel, work and life abroad, a phenomenon that they see as more common in New Zealand, the country in which Inkson et al. conducted their

study. Suutari and Brewster used a sample of Finnish expatriates for their study, thus adding a new point of view on SFE/OE. Just as Inkson et al. suggested, Suutari and Brewster see the goals and motivations of the two groups as discriminating factors. They distinguish assigned expatriates as mostly advanced and highly skilled employees of a company, whereas people who seek SFE could be at any point of their career. Their findings suggest however, that SFE should be viewed as a number of subgroups rather than a homogeneous big group. Within their sample of Finnish nationals living abroad they identified 6 different subgroups that all vary to some extent in motives, goals, personal background and employment situation. The group of “Young Opportunists” for example consists of young individuals in their early career stage; hence their employment situation differs in salary and job level from that of the other groups. They mostly have a travel background, which distinguishes them from another group: the “Job Seekers” who moved abroad out of economic necessities because their job prospects in their home country were unsatisfactory. The “Officials”, another group that the authors identified in their sample, belong to an international organization (e.g. United Nations) and work abroad because of their wish for internationalization. Since they are backed by an institution, their economic status is mostly better than that of the other groups. “Localized Professionals” consist of expatriates who have personal reasons to stay permanently in their chosen host country such as marriage to a host country national. Their career orientation is less developed than that of other groups and their employment situation as well as salary varies to a high degree. The group of “International Experts” in contrast consists of professionals in management or expert positions who work for different employers in different countries. Their motives are mostly based on career development and less on personal matters. The last group Suutari and Brewster identified are “Dual Career Couples” where one of the partners is

working on an assignment and the accompanying partner seeks employment in the host country.

Altogether, Suutari and Brewster added a new and important facet to the research on Self-Initiated moves abroad by pointing out the heterogeneity of the group.

Biemann and Andresen also strived to further distinguish assigned expatriation and SIE. In 2010 they conducted a study with a sample of German professionals who worked on a management or executive level abroad. Their analysis is more focused on the different career orientations and attitudes of the two groups. As the main distinguishing factor between the groups they find that self-initiated expatriates tended to be more motivated to change organizations, thus having different attitudes to international mobility. In regards to career expectations the authors found that self-initiated expatriates tended to have a slightly higher expectation of their international experience to benefit them in the long run. Their career orientation in general seemed to stay stable in the course of their career, while assigned expatriates' career orientation decreased with age.

1.1.2 Recent Findings: The Diversity of Global Mobility

As these three examples of studies about self-initiated expatriates show, the characteristics found vary depending on the chosen sample. This made defining who self-initiated expatriates actually are a difficult task. In a very recent paper from 2013, Doherty, Richardson and Thorn make an attempt to unite the existing literature into a more coherent concept of self-initiated expatriation. They point out that "[...] the concept of SIEs has predominantly been driven by and emerged from the data in a constructionist mode rather than having been based on theoretically-driven a priori assumptions about the construct

parameters.” (Doherty, Richardson & Thorn, 2013, p. 100). This circumstance, paired with the discoveries of new forms of global mobility such as “Flexpatriates” or “Organizational SIEs”, has led to a very vague definition of SIEs. Doherty, Richardson and Thorn attempt to clarify the situation by contrasting the different types of global mobility in the literature so far, concentrating on 8 factors for distinction: initiation (who initiated the move?), goals (what is the desired outcome?), funding (what and who enables the move abroad?), focus (what are the motives for the move?), career agenda (which is the career stage and what impact on the career will the move have?), intended duration (how long will the stay be?), employment (what is the kind of engagement?) and occupational category (what is the occupation type?). Their detailed findings are displayed in Figure 1.

The authors suggest that initiation is the main distinguishing factor for the different constructs, with Flexpatriates and (assigned) expatriates on one end of the spectrum as their move is initiated by a company or organization and Migrants, SIEs and International Students on the other side of the spectrum because they initiate the move themselves. Summed up, the authors see SIEs as a heterogeneous group of individuals who initiate their move abroad themselves, are not backed by a company or organization and plan to stay in the host country for an indefinite amount of time (Doherty et al., 2013).

Dimension	Corporate focus					Individual focus		
	Short-term/ Flexpatriate	Expatriate	Organizational SIE/ Secondment	Self-initiated Expatriate	OE	International students		Migration
Initiation	Company directed	Company directed	Self, but with company sponsorship	Self	Self	Family/ self	Family migration plan	Family/ self
Goals	Company projects	Company projects	Company projects	Individual	Individual	Individual	Family	Family/ individual
Funding	Company salary & expenses	Company salary & expenses	Some relocation assistance	Private	Private	Private	Private	Private
Focus	Career	Career	Career	Career/Adventure	Career/Adventure	Education	Migration	Migration
Career impetus	Structured/ Traditional	Structured/ Traditional	Structured/ Traditional	Planned	Opportunistic	Developing	Developing	Developing
Intended Duration	Short, non-residential	Non-permanent	Non-permanent	Non-permanent	Non-permanent	Non-permanent	Leading to Permanent	Permanent
Employment	Regular	Regular	Regular	Regular	Casual	Casual, if any	Casual, if any	Any
Occupational Category	Usually Professional	Usually Professional	Usually Professional	Any	Any	None	None	Any

Figure 1. A spectrum of global mobility. Adapted from "Self-initiated expatriation and self-initiated expatriates: Clarification of the research stream," by N. Doherty, J. Richardson & K. Thorn, 2013, *Career Development International*, 18 (1), p. 105, Copyright 2013 by Emerald Group Publishing Limited. Adapted with permission.

1.1.3 Migration and Expatriation

In their strive to define the different modes of global mobility, Doherty, Richardson and Thorn mention the fact that researchers so far mostly assumed SIEs to be highly skilled and educated individuals in management or executive positions. This assumption is also addressed by Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry (2013) who discuss the differences between Migrants and SIEs. They point out that the distinctions in the literature between Migrants and SIEs - two groups that have a lot in common as both are initiating their move themselves, are not backed by organizations or companies and the duration of their stay is indefinite - are mostly based on stereotypical assumptions rather than an objective theoretical framework (Al Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013). A common assumption seems to be that Migrants always come from less developed countries moving to a developed country out of economic necessity. SIEs in contrast are commonly portrayed as coming from a developed country. Also, the role of the SIEs is presented as a more active one since the literature concentrating on this group talks about an active choice to relocate and career motives. In the case of Migrants the literature is more concerned about under- or unemployment and general boundaries that Migrants encounter during their move abroad, thus portraying them in a lesser advantaged position (Ariss & Crowley-Henry, 2013).

Due to the lack of theoretical backing, the authors propose that future research concentrates on highly skilled Migrants and lesser skilled SIEs alike to further the knowledge about those groups. Doherty, Richardson and Thorn (2013) encourage the same for further research projects as their paper shows how diverse the field of internationally mobile individuals has become in the past years. To capture and identify all individual forms of global mobility and deepen the understanding of the different subgroups that are already

discovered, future research has to be constructed as diverse as the population it studies.

1.2 Global Mobility and Career

1.2.1 Career as a Driving Factor for Expatriation?

With the advancement in research about the differences between the different groups of globally mobile individuals, some researchers also took a closer look at aspects of their career.

Stahl, Miller & Tung (2002) targeted the career concepts and expectations of assigned expatriates and found that a majority of these expatriates expected their move abroad to have a beneficial effect on their career and that it also provided an opportunity to improve their professional skills.

Doherty, Dickmann and Mills (2011) examined the factors that motivate both assigned and SIEs to relocate, particularly taking career motivations into account. Their findings suggest that for assigned expatriates an important factor that drove them was the expectation to further their career through the experience they gained during their time abroad, thus corroborating the conclusion of Stahl, Miller & Tung from 2002 (Doherty, Dickmann, & Mills, 2011). SIEs in contrast seemed less driven by career considerations but more by factors within the host country. Concerning their career motivation the authors state that “[...] career fits within their life-trajectory rather than driving it.” (Doherty, Dickmann & Mills, 2011, p. 607).

An earlier study by Richardson and Mallon (2005) examining the career implications of SIE also concluded that although the participants were expecting their international experience as a possible benefit in their career, the

main motivators for them were related to adventure and general life change (Richardson & Mallon, 2005). This is in line with the findings of Inkson et al. (1997) in their original article on SIEs.

1.2.2 Career Success of Expatriates – The Boundaryless Career Concept

Although assigned expatriates expect their move abroad to benefit their career, studies conducted between 1990 and 2000 show that this beneficial effect does not always occur. Black et al. (1999) concluded that 77% of assigned expatriates had the feeling that their international assignment had a negative effect on their career instead. Stahl (2000) found that expatriates upon return from their assignment often do not find suitable positions and there are no sufficient possibilities to progress in their company.

Since these studies are now more than 10 years old and the rapid growth in literature concerning international mobility in the labor market worldwide shows that international experience is of increasing relevance, the prospects for the present time might have changed. A survey by the international consulting company Deloitte (2010) concerning policies and trends in Talent Management showed that companies are fully aware of the globalization of the labor market. Other surveys, e.g. by Roland Berger (2012), another internationally established consulting company identify globalization as one of the key topics for the future. Thus, the actual situation of assigned expatriates might have changed in the last years as companies expand their view of the world and the labor market.

For the case of the SIEs Cao, Hirschi and Deller (2012) point out that there is no study evaluating the actual career success of this group. They present a theoretical framework for future research to further investigate the matter,

proposing three factors (protean career attitude, cultural adjustment and career network) that form the career capital for SIEs. Protean career attitude is a concept that stresses the internal success of career rather than the external one, e.g. the progression inside a company. The focus is on skills acquired throughout the career, requiring the individual to be self-driven by their own values and views concerning their career, rather than the ones that their company dictates (Cao, Hirschi, & Deller, 2012).

This is closely related to the concept of boundaryless careers which also stresses the agency and self-directedness of individuals in their career progression contrasting it with the until then mostly dominant organizational career in which an individual progressed within a single company, thus following the guidelines this company provided. Following a boundaryless career path, an individual works for more than one company and is looking to gather skills and experiences throughout different employments (Inkson, Gunz, Ganesh, & Roper, 2012).

Researchers like Biemann and Andresen (2010) have made the connection between this concept and the career progression of SIEs. The higher number of changes of organization that the SIEs in their sample showed in comparison to the relatively lower number in the cases of assigned expatriates led the authors to believe that SIEs are to be seen as a subgroup of those following a boundaryless career.

Doherty, Dickmann and Mills (2011) conclude that SIEs show a more protean career attitude (stressing factors concerning their personal growth more than career development in general) and assigned expatriates are to be considered to follow a boundaryless career since their career behavior is more based on what the organization provides. This might also be the reason why, although researchers show that assigned expatriates did not see a positive effect of their

international experience for their career progression within their company (Black et al., 1999), they were still willing to undergo the move abroad, possibly motivated by the personal gain they would have through it and thus following a boundaryless career path (Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002).

2. Adjusting to the Foreign Culture

2.1 Domestic versus International Relocation

Relocation, be it in a domestic or in an international setting, is a challenging and often stressful process. In both settings the individual has to adjust to a new environment, both in the work setting and in the non-work setting, while leaving behind friends and relatives. Relocation means rebuilding social networks, orienting oneself in a new work environment and adjusting to a new home environment as well. The difficulty in international relocation is that the individual is faced by a new challenge: the culture of the host country, which can significantly differ from that of their home country. Culture is, according to the most popular definition of Hofstede (2003), “[...] the collective programming of the mind that distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p. 9) and presents itself in the form of values, rituals or symbols. Since these are unique to the respective groups, an expatriate moving to a foreign country can be puzzled upon facing the different environment. They thus have to adjust to that new environment.

Black, Mendenhall & Oddou (1991) compared domestic and international relocation studies to provide a framework for the adjustment process of assigned expatriates. They conclude that although the literature about domestic

relocation provides a helpful basis when investigating international adjustment, there are qualitative differences between the two.

Both are a disruption of personal routine which causes uncertainty that the individuals try to reduce, but in the international context this uncertainty is enhanced by the cultural differences that have to be faced. Black et al. give an illustrating example:

“For example, although a person might argue that adjusting to people from New England is difficult when that individual is from southern California, there is a substantial difference in degree, if not kind, between that interaction and interacting with people from China, whose language, religion, political system, values, daily customs, family structure, economic system and general world view are significantly different from those in the United States.” (Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991, p. 305).

2.2 The Three Dimensions of Cultural Adjustment

Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) present the most popular and until today most frequently used model of the cultural adjustment process. They propose three dimensions: First, the general adjustment to the host-country (e.g. adjustment to housing situation, food, entertainment or health care facilities), second, the interaction with host-country nationals (inside and outside from work), and third, the work adjustment. This multifactorial model has been successfully tested and validated by Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley (1999), along with the developed scale (Cultural Adjustment Scale, CAS) to measure the concept.

2.2.1 Antecedents of Cultural Adjustment

To further investigate the framework and thus get a more comprehensive image on how the adjustment process works, it is important to take a look at influencing factors. Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer and Luk (2005) presented a meta-analysis of the existing adjustment literature, presenting an overview of antecedents and outcomes of the adjustment process.

Integrating a vast number of studies concerning different aspects of the expatriate experience, they identified factors influencing the adjustment process. The strongest factor in their analysis was proficiency in the language of the host country. Throughout the analyzed studies, there was a strong link between general adjustment and language proficiency, although it did not seem to influence work adjustment. Another factor that most studies regarded as important for the adjustment process was previous experience of living in a foreign country. Surprisingly though, there was only a minimal connection throughout the studies, though the effect seems to be increasing over time (i.e.: the longer the length of stay in the host country, the more important), thus making previous experience a contributing, but not necessarily decisive factor. Further on, the authors found relational skills as individual variable as important in the facilitation of adjustment.

In regards to the work adjustment of expatriates, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. concluded from their analysis that role clarity and realistic job expectations are the main contributing factors, as well as organizational support by the company.

Another important general factor identified and analyzed was culture novelty. Suggested as influence by other authors before (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Guzzo, Noonan, & Elron, 1994), culture novelty refers to the differences

between cultures. These differences are in some cases so large that they make it harder to adjust oneself to the foreign culture (Torbiorn, 1982).

2.3 The Other Half of the Picture: Accompanying Spouses

Another important non-work factor influencing cultural adjustment of expatriates is the successful adjustment of their accompanying spouse.

For spouses, the transition to another country is mostly significantly harder. They give up their career, their social network and have to adjust to a new role abroad. While their partner on assignment has a network and structure provided by his or her job in the new country, spouses have mostly no support in building new networks of their own (Black & Gregersen, 1991). Shaffer and Harrison even call the adjustment process a “loss and then a reclarification or reestablishment of identity for spouses” (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001, p. 250). Their in-depth analysis on factors underlying the adjustment process for spouses showed that most of the influencing factors were the same as for expatriates, although family support seemed to have a higher importance. Language proficiency was also proven to be of high influence, thus highlighting the beneficial effects of pre-departure training.

Unemployment is another factor that spouses struggle with, especially if they have had a successful career in their home country that they were forced to give up for the move abroad (Harvey, Novicevic, & Breland, 2009; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005). Some companies now include support for the accompanying partners of their employees on assignment, but the success of these programs is still to be evaluated.

2.3.1 Adjusting Each Other

Maladjustment of the partner and/or family is viewed as one of the main reasons why assignments fail (Black & Stephens, 1989). This was later supported by Shaffer and Harrison (1998) who found spouse adjustment as important influence on the intention to quit of their partner on assignment. These findings show how important it is to look at the “other half of the picture” as Black & Gregersen call it in the title of their article (1991).

But not only does the adjustment of the partner play a role for the intention to quit an assignment, but it also influences the cultural adjustment of the expatriate. In their meta-analysis, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. proved spousal adjustment to be the most influencing factor on all 3 dimensions of their partner’s adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Dora, 2005). Black and Stephens (1989) already found a negative relationship between the partners’ cultural adjustment. Takeuchi, Yun and Tesluk (2002) conducted a more in-depth analysis of the relationship between spousal and expatriate adjustment and found a more positive effect: They examined possible spillover effects between partners in a sample of Japanese assigned expatriates, finding cultural adjustment to be a reciprocal process where both partners benefit from each other.

A limitation to all of the above mentioned studies is, though, that all of them were conducted with a sample of Organizational Expatriates. As mentioned in the definition of this group, they mostly do not make the decision to move abroad themselves, but are rather being sent on an assignment by an organization. Self-Initiated Expatriates make this life changing decision out of their own volition, so it could be expected that this makes a difference in the dynamics of the adjustment process as presented above. Unfortunately, there are not yet any studies examining this.

2.4 The Importance of Successful Adjustment

Regarding the impact that cultural adjustment has on different outcomes for expatriates, most studies have focused on performance, intention to terminate assignment and in seldom cases also on well-being.

The most confirmed outcome of adjustment is performance. Several authors studied the impact of all three dimensions of adjustment on job performance of expatriates (Hechanova, Beehr, & Christiansen, 2003; Kraimer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005; Tucker, Bonial, & Lahti, 2004) and all found significant correlations, especially with work adjustment. This was also supported in the meta-analysis of a large number of studies undergone by Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. in 2005.

Another important outcome is the intent to quit an assignment, as early termination is a high cost factor for the organizations. Here again all three dimensions of adjustment were found to have a significant impact (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova et al., 2003). The better adjusted expatriates are, the less they think about quitting their assignment.

Psychological well-being, as important as it might seem as it has an impact on all areas of life, has hardly been systemically measured, but rather been implied as an outcome of successful expatriation by most researchers. Selmer (1998) is among the few who measured the construct in expatriates. His findings suggest a correlation between all three factors of adjustment and general well-being.

2.4 Differences in Adjustment Between Groups

As noted before, the modes of global mobility are diverse, which means that the motives and characteristics differ between the individual groups of mobile individuals. These differences could affect how the adjustment process is undergone. Unfortunately most studies of cultural adjustment mainly focus on the assigned expatriates. Data on SIEs or other groups are sparse to non-existent. Peltkorpi and Froese (2009) are so far the only researchers who conducted a comparison study with SIEs and assigned expatriates, showing that there are indeed significant differences in the adjustment process. Throughout their sample SIEs were better adjusted in all three areas. The authors explained this by the different motivations of the two groups. SIEs mostly pick the country they want to live in by themselves and thus have a higher motivation and interest to interact with the new culture. These findings underline the importance of a distinction between different types of global mobility when researching cultural adjustment.

3. Being Culturally Smart

3.1 Definition of the Concept of Cultural Intelligence

While there is now a more or less comprehensive picture on how individuals undergo the adjustment process, the question why some people manage this process better than others has not been fully answered, yet. Earley and Ang (2003) published their framework on a concept called “Cultural Intelligence (CQ)” in an attempt to answer this question. They define CQ as “[...] an individual’s capability to function and manage effectively in culturally diverse settings” (Ang et al., 2007, p. 336). As opposed to other concepts of intelligence, CQ is a culture-free concept, aimed to describe how people act in intercultural situations (Ang et al., 2007). In theory, individuals with high CQ should be more capable to manage in culturally different settings, although there is yet a lot of empirical research to be done to prove this point, since the concept is relatively new and publications to date concentrate more on the conceptualization (Van Dyne et al., 2012)

The concept of CQ is rooted in the theory of intelligence suggested by Sternberg (Sternberg and Dettermann, 1986). His theory sees intelligence as based in both mental (metacognitive, motivational and cognition) and behavioral capabilities (overt actions of the individual). Analogue to that, Earley and Ang (2003) propose CQ as consisting of metacognitive, motivational, cognitive and behavioral aspects. An explanation of each is given in the following.

3.1.1 Metacognitive Aspect of CQ – Control

In order to be able to successfully interact with other cultures, one must have a level of information about the respective culture. The metacognitive facet of CQ

is responsible for identifying, acquiring and evaluating cultural knowledge in the environment. It is also the instance that has a general awareness of differences between cultures, thus its task is to constantly interpret and evaluate intercultural situations (Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2012). A person with high metacognitive CQ is observant in cultural interactions to constantly broaden his or her base of knowledge, questions his or her own assumptions on other cultures and is generally aware of differences between cultures, as well as on the impact his or her own culture has in an interaction.

Van Dyne et al. presented an extended version of the CQ concept in 2012. Their work is the first to expand the model by adding subdimensions to the 4 main facets. They argued for adding the dimensions planning, awareness and checking to the metacognitive factor: *Planning* refers to the advance preparation of a cultural encounter by developing strategies and action plans to achieve certain objectives, based on the cultural knowledge available. *Awareness* means real-time cultural thinking while interacting, taking into account the own cultural background, the knowledge about the culture of the other party, their behavior and the way these elements interact in an encounter. Thus, it is a process of sense making. *Checking* as third instance is responsible for the constant examination of the outside reality with its possible new inputs and the inner mental theory of the situation. The goal is to form a mental map that most accurately shows the real terrain of the cultural situation (Van Dyne et al., 2012)

3.1.2 The Cognitive Aspect of CQ – Comprehension

While metacognitive CQ describes the higher-order cognitions (control and regulation), cognitive CQ contains the knowledge about cultures. This knowledge can be specific for one cultural group (e.g. behavior patterns, conventions, knowledge about social or economic situation) or on a more

general level (e.g. basic framework of what cultural values are and a general awareness that cultures differ). Cognitive CQ is an important component of successful cultural interaction as a solid knowledge structure provides the necessary basis for each interaction. A person with high cognitive CQ thus has a broad and well-structured base of knowledge on cultures and understands that there are differences between cultures, as well as what these differences are (Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2012).

Subdimensions later added by Van Dyne et al. are context-specific and culture-general knowledge. *Culture-general knowledge* includes knowing about dimensions in which cultures could differ and by that providing a category system to facilitate the detection and storing of new cultural information. *Context-specific knowledge* in turn describes the manifestations of these differences for specific cultural groups. It provides the basis to effectively react to these differences (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

3.1.3 Motivational CQ – Drive

This aspect of CQ is the driving force behind cultural interaction, as it describes the direction of attention and energy toward acquiring information about and functioning in cultural settings. Ang et al. (2007), as well as Van Dyne et al. (2012) point out the importance of agentic control of affect, cognition and behavior for this function, since situations in which cultural differences occur are often marked by uncertainty and other obstacles. In order to overcome those, a strong agentic control is necessary. A level of intrinsic motivation - i.e. a genuine interest in culture - is another important prerequisite. Having a high motivational CQ hence means being able to direct energy and attention toward cross-cultural interaction.

Van Dyne et al. (2012) define self-efficacy to adjust and intrinsic plus extrinsic interest as important subdimensions of the concept. *Intrinsic interest* is the valuing and interest in the cultural experience itself. A person with high intrinsic interest in cultural interaction therefore finds satisfaction in having an encounter with another culture. In contrast to that, *extrinsic interest* is the expectation and interest in a de facto outcome or incentive of a cultural encounter. These can be the furthering of a career, a reputation gain or other benefits that come for example with international work assignments. *Self-efficacy to adjust* describes a person's confidence in and capability of successful adjustment to a new culture and interaction with host country nationals (Van Dyne et al., 2012).

3.1.4 Behavioral CQ - Action

Acquiring knowledge, structuring and understanding it and the motivation to do so provide the basis for this last facet of CQ: putting the knowledge into action and overcome own behavioral habits. Behavioral CQ therefore describes the capability of exhibiting the appropriate actions in a cultural situation. These actions can be verbal or non-verbal. A key to high Behavioral CQ is having a broad repertoire of behaviors to choose from according to react flexibly to the specific necessities that arise from cultural differences (Earley & Ang, 2003; Van Dyne et al., 2012).

Additions of Van Dyne et al. (2012) include the three dimensions of verbal and non-verbal behavior as well as speech acts. *Verbal behavior* refers to the ability to change tone, speed, volume and other characteristics of speech (e.g. warmth, accent, formality, pauses and so forth). *Non-verbal behavior* is the flexibility in using communication means that don't require words, like gesture, facial expression or general body language. It also includes the awareness of

differences in personal space or eye contact as these can differ significantly between cultures (e.g. kiss on the cheek as greeting versus a formal bow). *Speech acts* are another important instrument in cross-cultural communication. Expressing gratitude, apologies, disagreement or general requests are phrased very differently between cultures. Their expression varies in directness, force and the use of the respective words.

3.2 The Effects of Cultural Intelligence

Thanks to the development of the corresponding instrument to measure CQ, the Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS) (Ang et al., 2007), it was possible to collect empirical data to support the concept. Research so far concentrated on different aspects of the expatriate experience, e.g. cultural adjustment or job performance. The results as explained above are a promising addition to the research on the expatriate experience, especially since a recent study shows that at least the cognitive and behavioral facets of CQ can be enhanced through training (Rehg, Gundlach, & Grigorian, 2012). Companies thus might be able to implement specific measures to aid employees who work in an international setting.

3.2.1 Intelligent Adjustment

With cultural adjustment being such a key element to successful life abroad (Black et al., 1991), it is important for companies and globally mobile individuals alike to know which factors influence the process. Cultural Intelligence as a capability seems to be a very promising factor as numerous studies found a significant relationship between all aspects of CQ and the three dimensions of cultural adjustment (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang et al.,

2007; Lee & Sukoco, 2010; Templer, Tay, & Chandrasekar, 2006). Abdul Malek & Budhwar explain this relationship with the reduction of uncertainty that high CQ provides. Since uncertainty seems to be the most stressing characteristic of the international experience, culturally intelligent individuals are capable to minimize the stress by gathering information, translate these into accurate behavior in interactions and thus successfully adjust.

Lee and Sukoco (2010) discovered an interesting relationship between cultural adjustment, previous experience abroad and CQ. Surprisingly, their findings suggest CQ being a moderating factor: Only if a person has a high CQ is there a positive influence of previous experience on the adjustment. The authors explain this relationship with the belief of experienced expatriates to be very knowledgeable in cross-cultural issues, although they have a low CQ. They thus disregard or oversee new cultural information which aggravates their adjustment. This might explain the mixed findings regarding the importance of previous experience for the adjustment process.

3.2.2 Intelligent Performance

Given the costs that are connected with the dispatch of an employee abroad (e.g. costs for relocation or granting of special benefits), the issue of performance is a central one that companies have to take into consideration when assigning an employee to a foreign country. While the relationship between cultural adjustment and expatriate performance has already been proven (Kraimer et al., 2001; Stahl & Caligiuri, 2005), it is still necessary to further explore and understand the mechanisms in place.

Researchers explored a possible effect of CQ in the relationship between cultural adjustment and expatriate performance. The evidence so far points indeed to dimensions of CQ being an agent to enhance performance: Ang et al.

(2007) for example found a significant effect of metacognitive and behavioral CQ on the task performance of expatriates. The ability to identify and pick up cultural information, as well as the ability to modify ones behavior hence seems to have a positive influence on the success in the work environment for expatriates. These findings were later replicated .

Abdul Malek and Budhwar (2013) further examined the relationship between the three constructs. Their more in-depth analysis of the interactions between each subdimension of CQ (in case of this study, though, they defined the subdimensions as interaction and awareness), cultural adjustment and task performance revealed a more detailed view. In their sample interactional CQ had a significant effect on performance. This effect supposedly lies in the establishment of good relations with host country coworkers, who thus can provide support. Furthermore, Awareness CQ (defined as the awareness of cultural differences between cultural groups and the taking into account of these differences) showed a positive relationship with all three dimensions of cultural adjustment.

Although most studies so far found CQ to play a role for expatriate performance, it has to be noted that task performance is a concept that is difficult to measure. Ratings from superiors versus the expatriates themselves might show different results, as Ang et al. (2007) point out in the discussion of their findings. However, considering the relationship between cultural adjustment and performance of expatriates and the supposed positive effect of CQ on cultural adjustment, it is likely that further studies will verify the influence of CQ on performance.

4. Combining Work and Family

4.1 What is Work-Family Conflict?

Considering the time that adults spend in both the family and the work environment, it is no wonder that researchers have a great interest in these two domains of everyday life. Since the 1980s this interest in the two fields, that until then have mostly been studied separately, has spread to the question how and why these two important fields interact with each other (Frone, Russell, & Cooper, 1992; Frone, Yardley, & Markel, 1997; Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

4.1.1 Sources of Conflicts

Throughout our lives, we all move between different environments and settings. Each of these requires us to enact in a certain type of behavior or *role* that stems from the different demands that we are challenged with. Be it the role of a husband, a sales manager, a friend or a parent: with every single one of them comes a set of behaviors, demands from the outside and an interpretation of these by the person him- or herself (Hall, 1972). If the demands of one role are in competition of another role's demands, a conflict arises. Participating and acting in one role – e.g. that of a mother – might contradict the engaging in another role - e.g. that of a career woman –, thus causing an interrole conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). Following that line of thought, work-family conflict (short: WFC in the following) is most commonly defined as:

“(...) a form of interrole conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect. That is, participation in the work (family) role is made more difficult by virtue of participation in the family (work) role.”
(Greenhaus, 1985, p. 77)

In his analysis Greenhaus identifies 3 different forms of conflict between the two areas: *time-*, *behavior-* and *strain-based* which are explained in the following.

Time is naturally a limited resource, so its use has to be planned and divided between activities during the day. A *time-based* conflict between roles can occur if too much time is spent fulfilling one role and by that not leaving sufficient time to fulfill another, for example if there is a need to work overtime while having a small child at home. Greenhaus distinguishes between not being physically able to engage in two roles at once, e.g. being at work and thus not being able to be at home, and the preoccupation with one role while engaging in another, e.g. being at home while worrying about unfinished tasks at the workplace.

Both the environments at work and outside of work have their demands. Be it a job with a lot of responsibilities or the establishment of a new relationship, fulfilling these demands can be stressful. The struggle to fulfill them in both domains can lead to a *strain-based* conflict if one role is more demanding than the other. The caused strain can manifest itself in anxiety, tension, fatigue or depression (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985) and thus have an influence on the quality of life.

Attached to the roles that are to be fulfilled in all areas of life and work are different characteristics that are displayed through behavior patterns. Men for example often exhibit certain behaviors in the work context such as aggressiveness, self-reliance or objectivity. While this might help their career, these behaviors might not be as helpful at home in the interaction with their families or significant others. Behaviors that are appropriate and expected in one domain but not in the other can thus lead to a *behavior-based* conflict (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985).

4.1.2 Directions of Conflict

Next to looking at the different sources of conflict between the different environments, it is also important to distinguish the directions of the conflict, i.e. what conflicts with what. Research since the 1990s has included a bi-directionality of the concept, notably Frone, Russell and Cooper (1992) in their comprehensive model of WFC. Next to the until then mostly researched interference of work with the family life (work-to-family conflict), they also included the possible interference of family life with the work domain (family-to-work conflict) (Frone et al., 1992).

This distinction is not only important to understand the whole scale of the work-family interface, but empirical research also shows a reciprocal relationship between both directions (Frone et al., 1992). Not fulfilling the obligations of one role (e.g. working too much and because of that neglecting the partner at home) leads to these unfulfilled obligations interfering with other roles (e.g. the partner is frustrated and shows this in confrontations which can occupy the mind and distract from tasks due at work), a so-called spillover effect.

4.1.3 What Predicts the Conflict

With the diversification of the directions and dimensions of WFC, the understanding of what are influencing factors or predictors of these conflicts has also broadened.

Frone, Yardley and Markel (1997) include distal (indirect) and proximal (direct) predictors in their comprehensive model. As proximal predictors, they include the *time* devoted to either the family- or the work-role and *distress* related to the

characteristics of these roles. These are analogue to Greenhaus' (1985) sources of conflict (time- and strain-based).

A third proximal predictor is *role overload*, which could be characterized as both time- and strain-based predictor as it describes a situation where an individual is overwhelmed by demands of either the work- or the family-role, which could be based on scarce time and can also be a cause for emotional distress.

As distal predictors, Frone et al. postulated *within-role factors* for each domain, such as supervisor support for WFC and family or spousal support for FWC. They are defined as indirect predictors as they influence the perceived conflict via the proximal predictors time, role distress and role overload.

Although the predictors can all be directly linked to either the conflict between work and family, or family and work, the authors point out that the two directions of conflicts are not to be strictly separated because of a likely spillover between the two. Based on that, Frone et al. included both directions of conflict as indirect predictor for the respective other one. For example, a conflict between work and family, caused by work overload as proximal predictor, can in turn lead to family distress, which then can cause a family-work conflict. Or, a conflict between family and work, caused by family time commitment, can lead to work overload, which can in turn lead to work-family conflict (see figure).

Adams, King and King (1996) tested a model with social support and involvement as predictors for a conflict between the domains. They also found social support to be an important influence on both work-family and family-work conflict. Interestingly, though, the results showed that a high involvement (or high importance) of the work domain did lead to a higher level of WFC, while a high involvement in the family domain did not lead to FWC (Adams, King, & King, 1996).

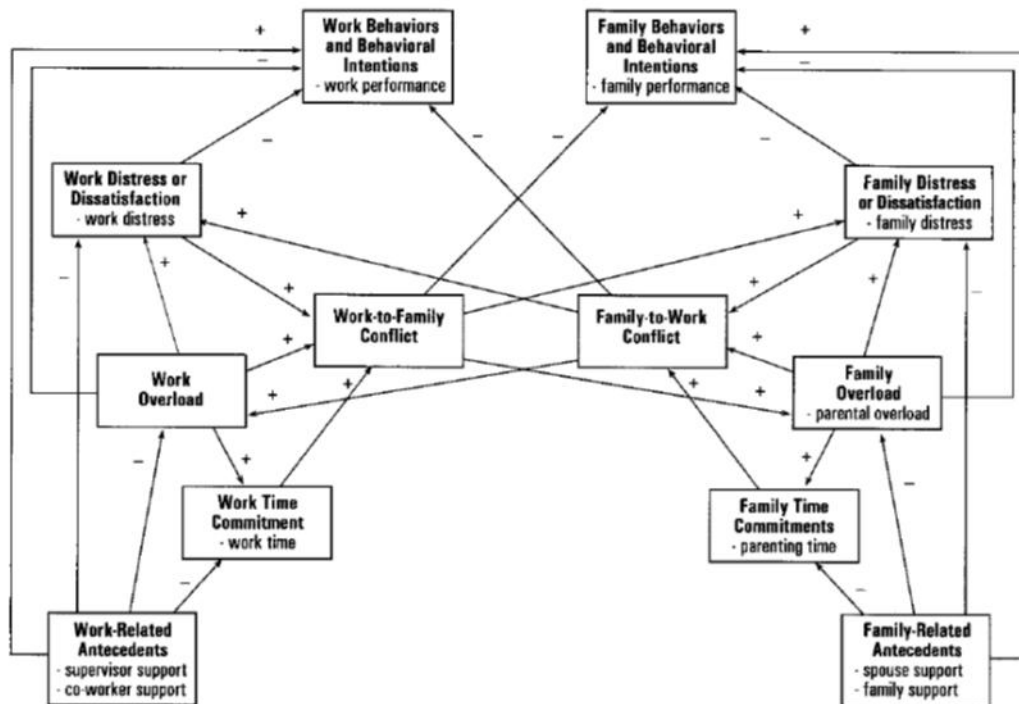


Figure 2: Conceptual Model of the Work-Family Interface. Reprinted from: "Developing and testing an integrative model of the work-family interface," by Frone, M.R., Yardley, J.K. & Markel, K.S., 1997, *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 50, p.147. Copyright 1997 by Academic Press. Reprinted with permission.

Next to the involvement in the work domain, the amount of hours worked per week also turned out to be an influential factor for work-family conflict. Dex & Bond (2005) found that working 48 hours or more per week had the strongest influence on the measures of work-family conflict (Dex & Bond, 2005).

It was already pointed out that there are spillover effects in the work-family interface. The importance of social support as a predictor of both WFC and FWC, though, also points into the direction of crossover effects, i.e. one individual (e.g. the spouse) influencing another (e.g. the husband or wife). McAllister, Thornock, Hammond, Holmes and Hill investigated whether a couple's emotional intimacy predicted perceived WFC and FWC. Their findings suggest that couples with higher intimacy ratings did indeed experience lesser WFC and FWC, supporting the crossover theory (McAllister, Thornock, Hammond, Holmes, & Hill, 2012).

The study of Bakker, Demerouti and Burke (2009) proved a crossover effect in the other direction as well: They found workaholism, which is related to WFC, to be of strong influence on the relationship quality of the partner, as he or she is receiving less support from the workaholic spouse (Bakker, Demerouti, & Burke, 2009).

4.1.4 Consequences of Work-Family Conflict

In a review of previous studies, Allen, Herst, Bruck & Stutton (2000) investigated and categorized the different possible outcomes of WFC. They suggest a distinction between work-related, non-work related and stress-related outcomes (see table).

Table 1: Consequences of WFC

Work-Related Outcomes	Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, Intention to Turnover, Absenteeism, Job Performance, Career Satisfaction, Career Stress
Non-Work Related Outcomes	Life Satisfaction, Marital Satisfaction, Family Satisfaction, Family Performance, Leisure Satisfaction
Stress-Related Outcomes	General Psychological Strain, Somatic/Physical Symptoms, Depression, Substance Abuse, Burnout, Work-Related Stress, Family-Related Stress

4.2 Expatriates and Work-Family Conflict

In the previous chapters it was already outlined that expatriates and their families face big challenges: Moving to a new cultural environment, starting a new job, losing the social network at home, etc. Thinking back to the predictors of WFC and FWC mentioned in chapter 4.1.2, one can easily see that expatriates are probably prone to a number of them. Theories as to why that is will be discussed in the following.

So far, only very few studies were conducted about WFC and FWC of expatriates and those few only take OEs into account. Caligiuri, Hyland and Joshi (1998) were the first to theorize about work-family theories applied to expatriate families, but they did not test the suggested model empirically. According to their model, the family's cross-cultural adjustment has a spillover effect on the expatriate's work performance. Also, they deduct that expatriates might experience that their new role at their workplace and the role they have to fulfill at home become incompatible due to long hours of work, time spent to learn new cultural behaviors and socializing with host-country nationals (Caligiuri, Hyland, & Joshi, 1998).

Shaffer and Harrison (1998) conducted a study to investigate withdrawal intentions from an international assignment, including the possible influence of the spouse in their complex model. Results suggest that satisfaction with non-work factors had a direct influence on the intention to quit the assignment. This satisfaction in turn was influenced by the family responsibility of the expatriate (which can be very high as the family needs assistance in adjusting to the new environment) and the adjustment of the spouse (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). These results are in accordance with the spillover and crossover effects in the research about WFC and FWC.

Later, Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley and Luk (2001) re-investigated the model, this time explicitly mentioning work-family conflict as possible source for the intention to quit the assignment. They explain the risk of expatriates to experience WFC with inter-role conflicts, analogue to Greenhaus (1985). The expatriate has to fulfill the responsibilities of his new job and is less available at home and thus not able to give support to the partner. The partner in turn is faced with a higher load of responsibility at home and

thus facing the danger of maladjustment and unhappiness and is not able to give support to the expatriate. Caring for the maladjusted spouse then can be another strain for the expatriate.

Investigating the relationship between WFC, FWC and intention to quit the assignment in a sample of over 300 OEs, they found a strong influence of both directions of conflict on the intention to quit (Shaffer, Harrison, Gilley, & Luk, 2001).

Summarized, these three publications and the research about expatriates suggest that a) assigned expatriates are indeed prone to WFC due to the stressful nature of their move abroad and the challenges they and their accompanying family members face because of the adjustment, b) there are likely spillover effects between the home and the work environment of expatriates (non-work satisfaction influences intention to quit assignment) and c) there are crossover effects between expatriates and their partners in cultural adjustment and non-work satisfaction.

So far, no study has taken other groups of globally mobile individuals into account. This is probably due to the relatively new distinction between the groups, as well as the characterization of families on an assignment. Mostly only one partner is working, whereas the accompanying partner struggles with un- or underemployment, a situation that can be the cause of distress for both partners (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001).

The role of cultural adjustment of both partners for WFC has also never directly been included as a measure, but was mostly implied (e.g. higher family responsibility of the expatriate because he or she has to help the family adjust).

5. Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the literature presented in the previous chapters, this thesis investigates the cultural adjustment of expatriate couples. Specifically, it tries to prove that the maladjustment of the accompanying partner can be a cause for conflict between the work and family domain for the mainly working expatriate.

The following paragraphs will describe the hypotheses that will be investigated. Since the aim of the study also is to take a closer look at the differences between the two groups of expatriates (SIE and OE), all hypotheses will be tested for both respectively.

As a disclaimer concerning the wording used in this analysis it is important to state that although in theory both partners can be called expatriates from a theoretical point of view, for the sake of distinguishing between them, the term “expatriate” is used for the partner who is working the most amount of hours and “partner” for the respective spouse.

The first step to understanding the mechanisms in play is to examine which factors are influencing cultural adjustment for both partners. At least for Organizational Expatriates these have been examined before (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, & Luk, 2005), but for accompanying partners and especially for Self-Initiated Expatriates the research basis is still small. The first hypothesis is therefore:

H1: The more previous experience, the longer the stay in the host country and the higher the language proficiency, the higher the cultural adjustment of both expatriates and accompanying partners.

Due to its apparent contribution to the cultural adjustment process (Abdul Malek & Budhwar, 2013; Ang et al., 2007), the concept of cultural intelligence will also be included in this work:

H2: The higher the cultural intelligence, the better the adjustment of both expatriates and accompanying partners.

Another important influencing factor is the adjustment of the accompanying partner. This effect has been found in Organizational Expatriates, but has not yet been investigated in Self-Initiated Expatriates. Due to their different characteristics, especially the difference in voluntariness of moving, it is to be expected, that the dynamics between SIE partners could be different from that of OE Partners.

H3: The higher the cultural adjustment of the partner, the higher the cultural adjustment of the expatriate.

Next to investigating what contributes to the cultural adjustment process and how partners influence each other in the process, this thesis takes a look at a possible outcome of this dynamic. A move to another country is a stressful experience with high demands in both the family and the work domain. The expatriate has to adjust to a new work environment and the spouse has to adjust to the new life mostly without a social support system. Maladjustment of the accompanying partner is already proven to have a strong effect on the intention to quit an assignment and seems to also effect the non-work satisfaction of the expatriate (Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). Also, maladjustment with its severe negative consequences like depression, loneliness and general dissatisfaction in life can inhibit the maladjusted spouse from giving social support to their partner, which can enhance the conflict between work and family.

Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley took this dynamic into account in their later analysis from 2001 as a possible explanation for why expatriates might be prone to work-family conflict, but did not test the direct influence of spousal adjustment on perceived work-family conflict of their partners.

This thesis thus strives to investigate the effect that the cultural adjustment of both expatriate and accompanying spouse has on perceived work-family conflict of the mainly working expatriate (both for SIEs and OEs):

H4: The lower the cultural adjustment of the partner, the higher the work-family conflict of the expatriate.

H5: The lower the cultural adjustment of the expatriate, the higher his or her work-family conflict.

Last, this thesis will look at another possible outcome of the adjustment process of both partners. As already mentioned, being maladjusted can have a negative influence on life satisfaction, can take a toll on the family life and with that possibly as well on the relationship quality.

H6: The lower the cultural adjustment, the lower the relationship quality.

The research questions and respective hypotheses are summarized in the above displayed model:

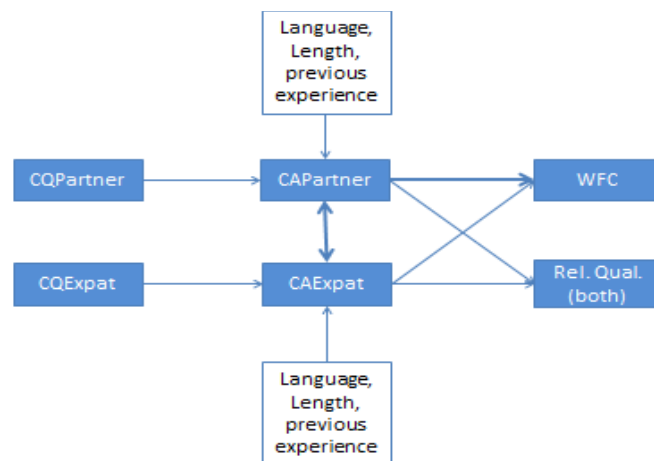


Figure 3: Research Model

Empirical Study

6. Method

6.1 Procedure

The cross-sectional study was conducted by using a survey with two parts, one for the mainly working expatriate and another shorter one for the accompanying partner. It was distributed both as an online and paper version between July and September 2013. The paper version was mostly distributed by personal approach of possible candidates in Guatemala, where the original study was supposed to take place. Due to the lack of possible candidates, though, the online version (hosted by www.soscisurvey.de) was posted in expatriate groups and websites throughout social networking sites worldwide (such as www.linkedin.com, www.xing.com or www.internations.org) as well as through different organizations (such as Families in Global Transition (FIGT)) that took an interest in the study.

The invitation text, including a link to the first part of the survey, addressed expatriate couples worldwide with the following conditions for participation:

- Both partners had to be from a country other than their host country
- At least one of them had to work at least 10 hours/week

It also mentioned the second part of the survey, which was accessible through a link at the end of the first part. As reward for the participation a summary of the findings was offered. A contact email address was also part of the invitation to participate, as well as of the online survey. Since there were many other invitations to surveys on the platforms, the affiliation to the University of Vienna and the character of this thesis was mentioned to identify it as academic

work and distinguish it especially from small surveys conducted by single individuals or consulting companies.

After the initial posting of the survey in July the invitation to participate was posted again around the end of August/beginning of September to reach more participants.

Both partners of a couple were asked to indicate a code consisting of their initials and birth years. This was necessary to be able to link one to another and thus to make sure that only verified couples would be included in the analysis. It was specifically noted that the indication of the code would not compromise the anonymity of the data.

6.1.1 Pre-Test

Before distributing both versions of the survey, a pre-test with 3 expatriate couples was conducted in May 2013. All six individuals were recruited through personal approach in Guatemala and had mother languages other than English (4 German, 2 Korean) to test if the survey was easy to understand. Each individual alone was asked to fill out the paper version of the survey in the presence of the researcher and was encouraged to voice all thoughts about the survey aloud during the process. All participants found the survey easy to fill out and understood the instructions and items. Only the phrasing of the introduction of the code to coordinate the partners was criticized and thus modified minimally for better understanding.

6.2 Instruments

The survey consisted of two parts. One was designed for the expatriate; the other was designed for his or her partner to accommodate the specific characteristics of both. Since unemployment appears to be a common condition for the accompanying partner (Shaffer & Harrison, 2001), the work aspects, such as work adjustment and work-family conflict, were only included for the expatriate.

6.2.1 Cultural Adjustment

The instrument used to measure cultural adjustment was the Cultural Adjustment Scale (CAS) developed by Black & Stephens (1989). It is based on the 3 dimensions of cultural adjustment (general, interaction and work) and is the most used to measure cultural adjustment throughout the literature. It has also been validated in a study with over 350 participants worldwide (Shaffer, Harrison, & Gilley, 1999).

In sum it contains 14 items, 7 to measure general adjustment, 4 to measure interaction adjustment and 3 to measure work adjustment. The participants are asked to rate how adjusted or unadjusted they feel in different aspects (e.g. housing conditions, food, speaking with host country nationals or work responsibilities) on a 7-point Likert scale with 1 meaning “totally unadjusted” and 7 meaning “fully adjusted”.

A reduced 9 item version was used for the spouses in the second part of the survey which excluded the 3 items of work adjustment and 1 item of interaction adjustment that was referring to the work environment. This is according to previous studies examining the adjustment of expatriates and their spouses, namely the one from Black & Stephens in 1989.

The respective Cronbach's Alpha values indicating the reliability or internal consistency (i.e.: that all items of a subscale measure the same latent variable) are displayed in the table further down. Generally, all values $>.7$ can be seen as sufficiently reliable, which is the case for all subscales of the CAS.

Table 2: Cronbach's Alpha for CAS

Expatriate Version	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
General Adjustment	$\alpha = .88$	7
Interaction Adjustment	$\alpha = .93$	4
Work Adjustment	$\alpha = .93$	3
Partner Version		
General Adjustment	$\alpha = .98$	7
Interaction Adjustment	$\alpha = .96$	2

6.2.2 Cultural Intelligence

To measure the concept of cultural intelligence (CQ) the "Cultural Intelligence Scale (CQS)" was used (Ang et al., 2007). It was composed by the same researchers who initially introduced the theory of CQ, so it takes all 4 areas into account: Metacognitive CQ, Cognitive CQ, Motivational CQ and Behavioral CQ.

In sum the scale consists of 20 items. 4 measure Metacognitive CQ, 6 measure Cognitive CQ, 5 measure Motivational CQ and 5 Behavioral CQ. Each item is composed of a statement to which the respondent has to agree or disagree on a 7 point Likert scale. The statements refer for example to a level of knowledge (e.g.: "I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures"), an attitude (e.g.: "I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.") or a

behavior (e.g.: "I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.") related to intercultural situations.

Both partners were given the full version of the scale since none of the items related to the work environment.

The reliability rates were very satisfactory since all were far above the critical level of .7 (see table 3).

Table 3: Cronbach's Alpha for CQS

Expatriate Version	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Metacognitive CQ	$\alpha = .93$	4
Cognitive CQ	$\alpha = .88$	6
Motivational CQ	$\alpha = .95$	5
Behavioral CQ	$\alpha = .95$	5
Partner Version		
Metacognitive CQ	$\alpha = .86$	4
Cognitive CQ	$\alpha = .90$	6
Motivational CQ	$\alpha = .95$	5
Behavioral CQ	$\alpha = .93$	5

6.2.3 Work-Family Conflict

The third instrument used for the survey was the Work-Family Conflict Scale designed by Carlson et al. (2000). It measures the two directions (work interference with family, WIF, and family interference with work, FIW) and three forms of conflict (time-, strain- and behavior-based) and thus delivers a comprehensive image of six possible dimensions of work-family conflict.

The scale consists of 18 items (3 for each dimension), each a formulated statement to which the respondent can agree or disagree on a 5-point Likert

scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree), for example: “My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.”

The instrument was tested and validated in three studies with 5 different samples, altogether with a number of 1211 participants. It is popular among researchers because it includes both directions and all three forms of conflict, thus making it possible to analyze any of the 6 dimensions in more detail.

Since the items of this instrument are clearly work-related, the scale was only used in the version for the expatriate.

Just as the other two scales used in the survey, the reliability rates for the Work-Family Conflict Scale were far above the critical level and thus absolutely satisfactory (see table 4).

Table 4: Cronbach's Alpha for Work-Family Conflict Scale

	Cronbach's Alpha	Number of Items
Time-based WIF	$\alpha = .90$	3
Strain-based WIF	$\alpha = .91$	3
Behavior-based WIF	$\alpha = .88$	3
Time-based FIW	$\alpha = .90$	3
Strain-based FIW	$\alpha = .92$	3
Behavior-based FIW	$\alpha = .89$	3

6.3 Description of the Sample

Altogether, the first part of the survey was filled out by 121 expatriates, but the second part by only 80 partners. Thus, 80 couples were included in the statistical analysis, stemming from 34 different countries and living in 29 different host countries.

By asking if the person was sent by an organization or company a distinction could be made between OEs and SIEs. In sum 38 couples (47,5%) belonged to the group of OEs and 42 couples (52,5%) were SIEs. Both groups will be described separately in the following, since most of the statistical analysis looked at both groups separately.

6.3.1 The Group of Organizational Expatriates

In the group of OEs (n=38) 65,8% of the responding expatriates were male, 34,2% female with an average age of 42 years (SD=10.5; range between 24 and 63 years). The vast majority, 89,5%, held at least a Bachelor's degree. The average hours worked per week were 43,4 (SD=9.5) with a maximum of 75 hours and a minimum of 15 hours. 57,9% already had previous experience in living abroad. On average the participating OEs were abroad for 33,63 months at the time of the survey (SD=34.5), but the range was between 1 and 158 months. This is beneficial for the analysis, as it captures all stages of the cultural adjustment process.

Their partners (n=38, distribution of sex vice versa as all couples were heterosexual) were on average 41,1 years old (SD=10.25; range between 24 and 62 years) and also very well educated (81,5% held a Bachelor's or Master's degree). Only 36,8% had previous experience of living abroad. They worked a significant amount of hours less than their spouses with an average of 15,2 hours per week (SD=12.6; range between 0 and 40 hours). More than a third (34,2%) only worked 5 hours or less per week, which supports the analysis of Shaffer and Harrison (2001) that accompanying partners often struggle with un- or underemployment.

6.3.2 The Group of Self-Initiated Expatriates

The age of the participating expatriates ($n=42$) ranged from 24 to 71 years with an average of 39,5 ($SD=10.9$). Compared to the sample of OEs, the distribution of gender was more even with 52,4% female and 47,6% male participants. The education level was also very high with 85,7% having a Bachelor's degree or higher. Average hours worked per week were with 34,1 ($SD=11.8$; range between 8 and 60 hours) lower than that of the OEs, the length abroad was with 62,3 months longer ($SD=90.9$; range between 1 and 490 months). 54,8% of the SIEs had experience in living abroad.

The partners of the SIEs ($n=42$) were on average 39,8 years old ($SD=10.4$; range between 25 and 61), 76,2% held a Bachelor's degree or higher and worked on average 26,1 hours per week ($SD=15.1$; range between 0 and 50). Only 16,7% worked 5 hours or less, the majority worked more hours. Un- and underemployment thus seems to be less of a problem for partners of SIEs than for those of OEs. Only 23,8% had already lived abroad.

7. Results

7.1 Descriptive Statistics

7.1.1 Cultural Adjustment

The means and standard deviation of the cultural adjustment measures for expatriates of both groups are displayed in the following table.

Table 5: M and SD of Cultural Adjustment Measures for Expatriates

	OE (n=38)	SIE (n=42)
General Adjustment	M = 5.07; SD = 1.01	M = 5.22; SD = 1.25
Interaction Adjustment	M = 4.07; SD = 1.29	M = 4.44; SD = 1.87
Work Adjustment	M = 5.11; SD = 1.19	M = 5.09; SD = 1.49

To test if the differences in the means of both groups differ significantly, a t-test was conducted. The results showed no significant difference in any of the three dimensions.

The partners of the OEs and SIEs answered a shorter version of the CAS, lacking the work adjustment dimension. Means and standard deviation of their results are displayed further down.

Table 6: M and SD of Cultural Adjustment Measures for Partners

	OE Partner (n=38)	SIE Partner (n=42)
General Adjustment	M = 4.09; SD = 1.65	M = 5.02; SD = 1.38
Interaction Adjustment	M = 2.62; SD = 1.54	M = 3.60; SD = 1.57

Results of a t-test comparing the means of the partners of both groups show that they differ significantly in both dimensions of cultural adjustment (General Adjustment: $t(78) = -2,74$, $p < .01$; Interaction Adjustment: $t(78) = -2,81$, $p < .01$) with

partners of SIEs scoring on average higher in both dimensions than their OE counterparts.

Comparing the means between the expatriates and their partners for each group, t-tests revealed significant differences: OEs had scored on average higher than their partners in both General ($t(74)=3,14$, $p<.01$) and Interaction Adjustment ($t(74)=4,49$, $p<.01$). SIEs and their partners, however, only differed in Interaction Adjustment ($t(82)=2,34$, $p=.05$) where SIEs had the higher means.

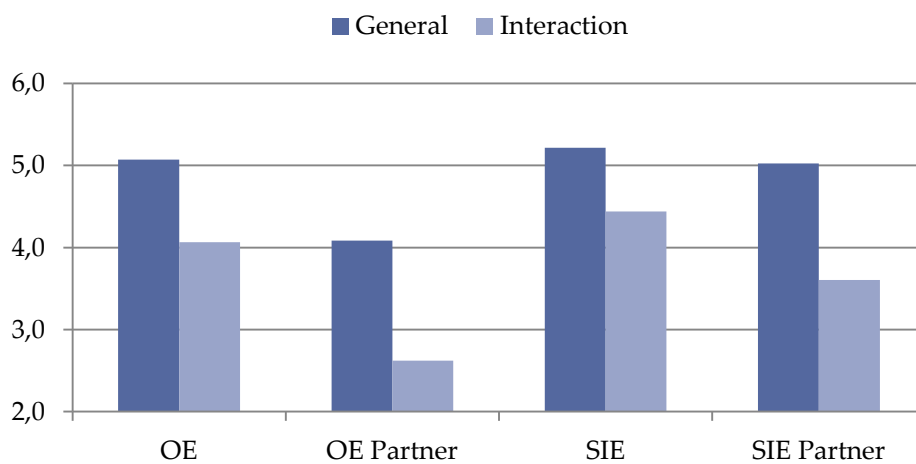


Figure 4: Means of Cultural Adjustment between groups

7.1.2 Cultural Intelligence

Table 7 displays the means and standard deviations of both partners and expatriates in both groups.

Examining the differences in the means between the expatriates, a t-test revealed that SIEs had higher average scores in both Cognitive ($t(78)= -2,59$, $p<.05$) and Motivational CQ ($t(78)= -2,44$, $p<.05$). Comparing the means of the partners between the two groups revealed no significant difference.

A closer look at the couples in each group revealed that OE couples only differed significantly in Cognitive CQ ($t(74) = -2.44, p < .05$), where the partners had the higher average score. SIE couples differed in Behavioral CQ ($t(82) = 2.59, p < .05$). Here, the expatriate reached the higher average.

Table 7: M and SD of Cultural Intelligence Measures

	OE (n=38)	OE Partner (n=38)	SIE (n=42)	SIE Partner (n=42)
Metacognitive	M = 4.63 SD = 1.27	M = 4.89 SD = 0.87	M = 4.14 SD = 1.23	M = 5.23 SD = 0.97
Cognitive	M = 3.99 SD = 1.00	M = 4.55 SD = 1.02	M = 4.60 SD = 1.12	M = 4.81 SD = 0.93
Motivational	M = 4.66 SD = 1.61	M = 4.71 SD = 1.29	M = 5.84 SD = 1.36	M = 4.97 SD = 1.34
Behavioral	M = 3.28; SD = 1.21	M = 3.61 SD = 1.06	M = 4.69 SD = 1.47	M = 3.96 SD = 1.09

7.1.3 Work-Family Conflict

In the survey version for the expatriate a measure of work-family conflict was included. The average scores and the standard deviations of the 6 resulting dimensions of work-family conflict are presented in table 8.

Here again the differences in the means were tested for their significance, using a t-test. Apparently, SIEs had significantly lower means in time ($t(78) = 5.77, p < .01$), strain ($t(78) = 4.79, p < .01$) and behavior based WIF ($t(78) = 3.40, p < .01$).

Table 8: M and SD of Work-Family Conflict

	OE (n=38)	SIE (n=42)
WIF Time based	M=3.50; SD=1.06	M=2.21; SD=0.92
FIW Time based	M=2.85; SD=0.84	M=2.41; SD=1.10
WIF Strain based	M=3.31; SD=1.01	M=2.24; SD=0.96
FIW Strain based	M=2.76; SD=1.09	M=2.28; SD=1.21
WIF Behavior based	M=2.96; SD=0.80	M=2.25; SD=1.06
FIW Behavior based	M=2.55; SD=0.81	M=2.33; SD=1.17

7.1.4 Language Proficiency and Relationship Quality

All participants of the survey were asked to rate how fluently they speak the language of their host country on a scale of 1 (not at all fluently) to 5 (very fluently). Means and standard deviation are presented below. T-tests revealed no significant differences between the groups or between the partners in the groups.

Table 9: M and SD of Language Proficiency

	OE (n=38)	OE Partner (n=38)	SIE (n=42)	SIE Partner (n=38)
Language	M = 2.68	M = 2.61	M = 3.07	M = 3.07
Proficiency	SD = 1.14	SD = 1.33	SD = 1.31	SD = 1.09

A global item regarding the relationship quality was also part of both survey versions. Participants were asked to rate their satisfaction with their current relationship on a scale of 1 (not at all satisfied) to 5 (very satisfied).

Results showed that SIEs were on average more satisfied in their relationships than OEs (OE: M=3.18; SD=1.11 and SIE: M=3.90; SD=1.08). This difference in the means proved significant ($t(78) = -2.94, p < .01$). The same was found for their

partners (OE partners: $M=3.00$; $SD=1.12$ and SIE Partners: $M=3.76$; $SD=1.14$): SIE partners were significantly more satisfied in their relationship than their OE counterparts

($t(78) = -3.01, p < .01$). The means of expatriate and their partner did not differ significantly in either of the two groups.

7.2 Testing of the Hypotheses

The 6 hypotheses of this study are concerned with three areas: 1. What influences cultural adjustment, both the expatriates' and the partners', 2. What influences WFC for the expatriate and 3. How is the relationship quality affected by cultural adjustment.

All hypotheses examine the influence of different predictor variables (e.g. language proficiency, dimensions of CQ, cultural adjustment of the spouse) on an outcome variable (e.g. cultural adjustment, WFC measures). The most suitable and widely used method of statistical analysis for this is a multiple regression analysis as it examines how well the collected data fits the model of a linear relationship.

To conduct a multiple regression analysis certain requirements have to be met (Field, 2009):

First, the predictors have to be distributed on a continuous (i.e., can be expressed by numbers) or dichotomous spectrum. For the predictors used in this analysis this is the case.

Second, the predictors cannot be highly correlated with each other. This is called multicollinearity. To avoid this, the tolerance level should be above 0.2 and the variance inflation factor (VIF) should be less than 10.

Third, it requires that the variances of the standard errors of all predictor values are homogenous. This is called homoscedasticity and can, for larger samples, be judged by looking at the scatter plot.

Fourth, the residuals cannot be correlated with each other (autocorrelation). To check if this is the case, the Durbin-Watson-Test is calculated. The resulting coefficient should have a value between 1.5 and 2.5.

In all regressions calculated for the hypotheses, a hierarchical entry method was chosen as the research base for most influencing factors was already there and predictors could be added guided by theory. The analysis was made using SPSS 19.

Since there were in sum 4 regression analyses (OE, OE partner, SIE and SIE partner) to conduct for each dependent variable and due to the large number of dimensions of each examined construct (i.e. cultural adjustment with two/three dimensions, cultural intelligence with four dimensions and WFC with six dimensions), only the significant results will be presented in the following chapters. Complete tables showing all results can be found in the attachment.

7.2.1 Influences on Cultural Adjustment

Some cases had to be excluded from the analyses since they would have distorted the regression as outliers. A closer examination revealed that these outliers were the result of a tendency for extreme answering behavior (i.e.: frequently choosing the maximum or minimum of the response scale). For the exact number of cases and more detailed results consult tables 14-17 in the appendix. Durbin-Watson statistic and VIF were both satisfactory in all analyses and there were no visible patterns in the scatter plot, so the results could all be interpreted. Correlation matrices can be found in tables 10-13.

H1: The more previous experience, the longer the stay in the host country and the higher the language proficiency, the higher the cultural adjustment of both expatriates and accompanying partners.

Organizational Expatriates:

The proposed predictors alone proved to be a bad fit for General Adjustment ($R^2 = -.075$). For Interaction Adjustment however, language proficiency ($\beta = .56, p < .01$) and previous experience ($\beta = .36, p < .05$) seemed to be important factors. The model explained 26,1% of the variance in the data for this dimension of cultural adjustment. For Work Adjustment the previous experience was the most influencing factor ($\beta = -.40, p < .05$). The negative Beta value means that the more experience the OE has, the worse he or she adjusts to the work. Altogether though, the model only explained 13,2% of the variance.

Partners of Organizational Expatriates:

For the General Adjustment, language seemed to be a very important factor ($\beta = .45, p < .01$) and the model was a much better fit than for the OEs with $R^2 = .356$. Looking at the Interaction Adjustment, language

proficiency showed to be of very great importance ($\beta=.73$, $p<.001$). The model explained almost half of the variance in the data with $R^2=.486$ and is thus already a good fit for the data.

Self-Initiated Expatriates:

None of the three factors stood out for General Adjustment and the model only explained 15,4% of the variance, so they alone do not seem to be sufficient. Previous experience ($\beta=.39$, $p<.01$) and language proficiency ($\beta=.35$, $p<.05$) were standing out as predictors of Interaction Adjustment and overall the model was a very good fit with $R^2=.435$. For Work Adjustment the length of stay abroad had significant influence ($\beta=.43$, $p<.01$) and the three predictors explained 24,1% of variance.

Partners of Self-Initiated Expatriates:

Just as for their expatriate partners, none of the factors stood out and the model explained only 15,9% of variance for General Adjustment. In the case of Interaction Adjustment the model fit well with $R^2=.387$ and language proficiency as outstanding factor ($\beta=.52$, $p<.001$).

In the second step of the regression analyses, all 4 aspects of CQ were added into the model to examine the following hypothesis:

H2: The higher the cultural intelligence, the better the adjustment of both expatriates and accompanying partners.

Organizational Expatriates:

Including the CQ measures into the analyses improved the model for General Adjustment significantly ($\Delta R^2=.488$), showing Metacognitive CQ as most influencing predictor ($\beta=.69$, $p<.01$). For Interaction Adjustment however, the contribution of the CQ measures was minimal and language proficiency remained the most important influence. The model for Work Adjustment was significantly improved by adding CQ measures ($\Delta R^2=.496$). Influencing factor next to Cognitive CQ ($\beta=.39$, $p<.01$) was Behavioral CQ, though surprisingly with a negative Beta value: $\beta=-.74$, $p<.001$. This means that the higher the Behavioral CQ value, the lower the Work Adjustment.

Partners of Organizational Expatriates:

For both General and Interaction Adjustment, adding the CQ measures improved the model significantly (General: $\Delta R^2=.339$, Interaction: $\Delta R^2=.190$), but none of the factors stood out.

Self-Initiated Expatriates:

There was no significant improvement of the model in either of the three dimensions of cultural adjustment.

Partners of Self-Initiated Expatriates:

Contrary to their expatriate partners, there was a significant improvement of the model for General Adjustment ($\Delta R^2=.493$) with Metacognitive CQ as outstanding predictor ($\beta=.32, p<.05$). For Interaction Adjustment the model improved slightly ($\Delta R^2=.164$).

To examine the next hypothesis, the cultural adjustment dimensions of the respective partners were added in a third step to examine their predictive value in the model.

H3: The higher the cultural adjustment of the partner, the higher the cultural adjustment of the expatriate.

Organizational Expatriates:

Contrary to previous findings, the cultural adjustment measures of their spouses did not add significantly to any of the dimensions of the expatriates' adjustment (General: $\Delta R^2=.047$, Interaction: $\Delta R^2=.074$ and Work: $\Delta R^2=.003$).

Partners of Organizational Expatriates:

The same was the case with the partners. Adding the cultural adjustment measures of their expatriate partner did not improve the fit of the model significantly (General: $\Delta R^2=.036$, Interaction: $\Delta R^2=.038$).

Self-Initiated Expatriates:

For SIEs though, their partner's cultural adjustment measures did improve the model at least for General ($\Delta R^2=.144$) and Interaction

Adjustment ($\Delta R^2=.084$), though not Work Adjustment ($\Delta R^2=.037$). Influencing predictor for General Adjustment was the partner's General Adjustment ($\beta=.48$, $p<.05$) and for Interaction Adjustment the partner's Interaction Adjustment ($\beta=.40$, $p<.05$).

Partners of Self-Initiated Expatriates:

There was no significant improvement of the model for General Adjustment, but for Interaction Adjustment with $\Delta R^2=.127$. Interestingly, the most influencing factor was the Work Adjustment of the expatriate partner ($\beta=.33$, $p<.05$).

7.2.2 Influences on Work-Family Conflict

After looking at what influences cultural adjustment, the next analyses examined if cultural adjustment in turn works as a predictor variable for work-family conflict.

H4: The lower the cultural adjustment of the partner, the higher the work-family conflict of the expatriate.

In the first step of the analysis a number of moderating variables were tested for their contribution to the model. These factors were sex, age, education, hours worked (both the expatriate's and the partner's) and relationship length. The second step included the measures of cultural adjustment of the accompanying partner. Here again, all requirements were met with no patterns in the scatter plot and acceptable VIF and Durbin-Watson statistics. Results are shown in detail in tables 20-23 in the attachment and the correlation matrices can be found in tables 18 and 19.

Organizational Expatriates:

The suggested moderator variables in step 1 mostly explained the variance in the data of WIF well with values of R^2 ranging from .283 to .431 and hours worked by the expatriate as influential factor. Adding cultural adjustment measures of the partner did not improve either of the models significantly. The other direction of the conflict, FIW, could not be explained by the moderator variables and the addition of cultural adjustment measures of the partner improved the model only for strain-based FIW with $\Delta R^2=.303$. General Adjustment of the partner proved to be the most influential factor with $\beta=-.71, p<.05$.

Self-Initiated Expatriates:

Similar results were found in the case of the SIEs. WIF measures could be more or less well explained by the moderator variables (age, relationship length and hours worked of the expatriate as important influences) and the addition of CA measures of their partners did not improve the fit of the models, except in the case of strain-based WIF. Here the model was significantly improved ($\Delta R^2=.190$) and General Adjustment stood out as influencing factor ($\beta=-.61, p<.05$). FIW measures were, again with the exception of strain-based FIW, not well explained by neither the moderators, nor the cultural adjustment measures. For strain-based FIW, though, the model improved significantly ($\Delta R^2=.241$) and both General ($\beta=-.72, p<.01$) and Interaction Adjustment stood out, though the latter surprisingly with a positive Beta value ($\beta=-.39, p<.05$), meaning that the better adjusted the partner is in that area, the more strain-based FIW the expatriate is experiencing.

H5: The lower the cultural adjustment of the expatriate, the higher his or her work-family conflict.

Before calculating regression analyses for this hypothesis, the correlations between the cultural adjustment and WFC measures were examined (see tables 24 and 25 in the attachment and table 27 below). Since they were only significant for FIW Strain in the case of the OEs, a regression analysis was only calculated for this relationship. The results showed that, although the model improved significantly ($\Delta R^2=.321$) by adding the CA measures to the moderator variables used for H4, it was with $R^2=.210$ still not explaining enough variance to be significant. For the complete results, please consult table 26 in the appendix.

Table 27: Correlation between Cultural Adjustment Expatriate and WFC

	Time		Strain		Behavior	
	WIF	FIW	WIF	FIW	WIF	FIW
OE						
General	.09	-.14	-.01	-.34*	-.24	.06
Interaction	.24	-.17	.09	-.52**	-.10	-.20*
Work	-.11	-.37*	-.28	-.16	.07	.32
SIE						
General	.02	-.06	-.25	-.34*	.13	.19
Interaction	.25	.07	-.05	-.04	.10	.08
Work	.10	-.07	.02	-.19	.24	.18

*Note: *= $p<.05$, **= $p<.01$*

7.2.3 Influences on Relationship Quality

The last examined hypothesis is concerned with another possible outcome of cultural adjustment of both expatriates and their partners. Regression analyses were calculated to see if the relationship quality of both partners in both groups was influenced by their respective cultural adjustment. The results for the OE couples are shown in table 28, those for the SIE couples in table 29.

Table 28: Results of Regression Analysis - Relationship Quality of OE Couples

	Expatriate			Partner		
	<i>B</i>	SE of <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	SE of <i>B</i>	β
General Adj. Partner	.26	.18	.38	.22	.16	.32
Interaction Adj. Partner	.16	.19	.22	.35	.16	.48*
General Adj.	-.26	.18	-.24	-.17	.15	-.15
Interaction Adj.	.06	.12	.07	.06	.10	.07
Work Adj.	.45	.13	.48**	.22	.11	.24
	$R^2=.427***$			$R^2=.590***$		

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

As the results show, the model is a good fit, especially for the partners of OEs, where it explains 59% of the variance in the data. The better they are adjusted in the interaction dimension, the better their perceived relationship quality. For the OEs their adjustment in the workplace is the more important factor.

Table 29: Results of Regression Analysis - Relationship Quality of SIE Couples

	Expatriate			Partner		
	<i>B</i>	SE of <i>B</i>	β	<i>B</i>	SE of <i>B</i>	β
General Adj. Partner	.38	.16	.48*	.52	.16	.64**
Interaction Adj. Partner	.13	.15	.19	.17	.15	.23
General Adj.	-.46	.17	-.53*	-.32	.17	-.35
Interaction Adj.	-.21	.11	-.36	-.16	.11	-.26
Work Adj.	.21	.12	.29	.16	.12	.21
	R ² =.301**			R ² =.401***		

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

For the SIE couples the model did also fit well, though slightly less variance is explained by it than for the OE couples. General Adjustment of the partner proved to be an important predictor for both spouses. For the OE his or her own General Adjustment was also influential.

8 Discussion

8.1 Conclusion

This academic work had several purposes. Next to answering the central questions outlined in chapter 5, it was also supposed to further distinguish between different groups of globally mobile individuals. The sensibility of this distinction is supported by the significant differences found between SIEs and OEs and their respective partners in this sample. The following discussion of the results and the interpretation of the findings therefore have to be done for each group (OE and SIE, expatriate and partner) separately.

While former findings suggest that SIEs adjust better than OEs (Peltokorpi & Froese, 2009), this could not be supported in the current study. It was, however,

found for their partners, where SIE spouses scored higher on all adjustment dimensions. The difficult role for partners of OEs that was already described by Shaffer & Harrison (2001) could only be confirmed for this sample, as OE partners did not only have the lowest adjustment score of all, they also worked the fewest hours and a lower perceived relationship quality than their SIE counterparts.

Regarding the antecedents of cultural adjustment (previous experience, language proficiency, length abroad and Cultural Intelligence were tested for their contribution) the findings were partly in contrast to prior research.

The meta-analysis of Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al. (2005) revealed language proficiency as most important factor. For General Adjustment, however, this was only the case for partners of OEs, for Work Adjustment it was of no importance for either SIEs or OEs. It was far more important for all groups in the dimension of Interaction Adjustment, which makes sense as language is the basis of communication with host-country nationals.

Cultural Intelligence clearly was an influencing predictor of General Adjustment for all but for SIEs. For them none of the suggested predictors sufficiently explained General Adjustment, pointing out how under-researched this group still is. Cultural Intelligence, especially the Metacognitive dimension, seems to be of more importance for the accompanying partners in both groups than for the expatriates.

Altogether, length of stay and Cultural Intelligence were not strongly related to all cultural adjustment dimensions in all groups, so Hypotheses 1 and 2 can only partly be supported.

In a next step, the cultural adjustment measures of the partners were taken into account. Previous research (Black & Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri, Hyland, Joshi, & Bross, 1998; Shaffer & Harrison, 2001; Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002) suggests a

crossover effect from one to another. This was only partly confirmed in the results. OE couples did not affect each other in any of the dimensions; SIE couples did, although apparently the partner had a stronger influence on the SIE than vice versa. This surprises, especially because OE couples were used as samples in all of the aforementioned research, but it could explain the difference in the adjustment quality between the OE partners as they do not seem to benefit from each other as the SIE couples do. Interesting was also that Interaction Adjustment of SIE partners was mainly influenced by the work adjustment of the SIE. It might be that the workplace of the SIE provides opportunities for social contacts to the partner.

It seems in general that SIE couples provide a stronger support to each other. Their relationship quality is higher than that of OE couples, they influence each other more in the cultural adjustment process and SIEs also experience slightly less FWC and significantly less WFC than their OE counterparts. This might be due to the voluntariness of the move. SIE couples probably make the deliberate decision to move abroad together and thus might be more motivated to “work together”. For WFC, though, it was probably also an important influence that SIEs worked on average less than OEs as this could be a beneficial factor.

As far as the influence of cultural adjustment measures on WFC and FWC goes, the results revealed an influence of the partner’s General Adjustment only for the dimension of strain-based FIW. This was found for both OEs and SIEs. Maladjustment can be the cause for lower general well-being and thus probably negative emotions. It might hence be that a maladjusted spouse provides a source for distress in the home environment, causing an inter-role conflict for the expatriate who needs to take care of the partner, but also needs to function in and adapt to his work. Interestingly, time-based dimensions of both WFC and FWC were not affected by the partner’s adjustment, although it could be expected, especially for the OEs who a) work long hours and thus have less

time to care for their partner and b) have lesser adjusted partners who might need more support.

For hypothesis 5 it was surprising to see that all cultural adjustment measures of the expatriates themselves had no influence on any of the 6 WFC and FWC dimensions, not even Work Adjustment, a factor that could theoretically be the source for dissatisfaction in the workplace, which according to Frone et al. (1997) can be one possible predictor of WFC. Apparently, though, amount of hours worked per week remained the most important influence. Hypothesis 5 thus was not supported.

Last, the link between relationship quality and cultural adjustment was investigated. For OE couples the cultural adjustment (for each partner their own) was a very important influence on the perceived relationship quality. This might be another indicator for the strain-based FIW that the OE is experiencing. A maladjusted partner is unhappy in the relationship and this can be the cause for the FIW. The same goes for SIE couples, though for them the influence was a little weaker. Also, other than for OEs, SIEs were influenced by their partner's General Adjustment and not only their own adjustment measures. This is another indicator that SIE couples influence each other more than OE couples.

8.2 Limitations and Implications

In the following some factors have to be mentioned that limit the results of this study. First, the design of this study is cross-sectional which does not allow for a causal interpretation of the results. Longitudinal studies, examining the development of the relationships found in this thesis have to be made in order to fully be able to understand the mechanisms in play.

Second, the sample size, though comparable to other studies that investigate expatriate couples (Black & Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri et al., 1998), was probably not big enough to give weight to the results found as it was split into 4 groups with 42 or 38 participants per group. This might also explain some results that deviate from former research (e.g. no reciprocal relationship of cultural adjustment for OE couples). As mentioned in the procedure description, expatriates are a target for many surveys and the online platforms are full with invitations to participate. Offering some form of reward might have increased the number of participants.

Results show, though, that the distinction between SIEs and OEs makes sense as the groups differ in a lot of measures. This also calls for more research on the characteristics and interdependence of SIEs, especially since their number seems to be growing.

Third, the relationship between relationship quality and cultural adjustment proved to be strong in this sample. However, relationship quality was only measured with one global item. Future studies should further investigate the different dimensions of relationship quality to fully understand the mechanisms behind.

Altogether, the results show again how big of a challenge a move abroad is and that it takes a toll in both the work and the family life. Organizations that send their employees on an assignment should provide support – especially to the accompanying partner - to help avoid a conflict between work and family domains for their employee. OE couples should be prepared for the impact that the adjustment process has on their relationship and tap into the source of support that they can be for each other, as SIE couples in this study seemed to do.

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List of Figures

Figure 1: A spectrum of global mobility

Figure 2: Conceptual Model of the Work-Family Interface

Figure 3: Research Model

Figure 4: Means of Cultural Adjustment between groups

List of Tables

Table 1: Consequences of WFC

Table 2: Cronbach's alpha for CAS

Table 3: Cronbach's Alpha for CQS

Table 4: Cronbach's Alpha for Work-Family Conflict Scale

Table 5: M and SD of Cultural Adjustment Measures for Expatriates

Table 6: M and SD of Cultural Adjustment Measures for Partners

Table 7: M and SD of Cultural Intelligence Measures

Table 8: M and SD of Work-Family Conflict

Table 9: M and SD of Language Proficiency

Table 10: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for OEs

Table 11: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for SIEs

Table 12: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for OE Partners

Table 13: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for SIE Partners

Table 14: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of OEs

Table 15: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of SIEs

Table 16: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of OE Partners

Table 17: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of SIE Partners

Table 18: Correlations WFC, FWC and Moderators for OEs

Table 19: Correlations WFC, FWC and Moderators for SIEs

Table 20: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on WIF for OEs

Table 21: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on FIW for OEs

Table 22: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on WIF for SIEs

Table 23: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on FIW for SIEs

Table 24: Correlations WFC, FWC and Cultural Adjustment for OEs

Table 25: Correlations WFC, FWC and Cultural Adjustment for SIEs

Table 26: Multiple Regression Analysis FIW Strain for OEs

Table 27: Correlation between Cultural Adjustment Expatriate and WFC

Table 28: Results of Regression Analysis - Relationship Quality of OE Couples

Table 29: Results of Regression Analysis - Relationship Quality of SIE Couples

Appendix

Correlation Matrices:

Table 10: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for OEs

N=38	Previous experience	Language Proficiency	Length Abroad	Metacogn. CQ	Cognitive CQ	Motivational CQ	Behavioral CQ	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner	General Adj. Expatriate	Interaction Adj. Expatriate	Work Adj. Expatriate
Previous experience	-											
Language Proficiency	-.42**	-										
Length Abroad	-.12	.15	-									
Metacogn. CQ	-.09	.01	-.26	-								
Cognitive CQ	.23	.08	-.13	.58**	-							
Motivational CQ	.07	.01	-.21	.73**	.55**	-						
Behavioral CQ	-.02	-.08	-.34*	.62**	.31	.72**	-					
General Adj. Partner	-.26	.23	.38*	.35*	.26	.24	.09	-				
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.08	.30	.43**	.27	.32	.27	.09	.87**	-			
General Adj. Expatriate	-.03	-.01	.06	.53**	.46**	.26	.12	.34*	.23	-		
Interaction Adj. Expatriate	.02	.36*	.19	.19	.37*	.23	.09	.36*	.28	.41*	-	
Work Adj. Expatriate	-.26	-.04	-.26	.36*	.33*	.24	.03	.13	.04	.48**	.12	-

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

Table 11: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for SIEs

N=42	Previous experience	Language Proficiency	Length Abroad	Metacogn. CQ	Cognitive CQ	Motivational CQ	Behavioral CQ	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner	General Adj. Expatriate	Interaction Adj. Expatriate	Work Adj. Expatriate
Previous experience	-											
Language Proficiency	.32*	-										
Length Abroad	.27	.36*	-									
Metacogn. CQ	-.03	.31*	.18	-								
Cognitive CQ	.20	.33*	.31*	.81**	-							
Motivational CQ	.23	.37*	.09	.78**	.76**	-						
Behavioral CQ	.03	.17	.14	.78**	.62**	.65**	-					
General Adj. Partner	.12	.25	.32*	.24	.24	.24	.25	-				
Interaction Adj. Partner	.22	.42**	.38*	.26	.38*	.33*	.30	.68**	-			
General Adj. Expatriate	.26	.40**	.34*	.29	.41**	.44*	.22	.54**	.43**	-		
Interaction Adj. Expatriate	.51**	.56**	.41**	.34*	.43**	.42**	.39*	.33*	.59**	.56**	-	
Work Adj. Expatriate	.07	.37*	.43**	.16	.22	.15	.18	.27	.39**	.56**	.49**	-

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

Table 12: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for OE Partners

N=38	Previous experience	Language Proficiency	Length Abroad	Metacogn. CQ	Cognitive CQ	Motivational CQ	Behavioral CQ	General Adj. Expatriate	Interaction Adj. Expatriate	Work Adj. Expatriate	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner
Previous experience	-											
Language Proficiency	-.44**	-										
Length Abroad	-.35*	.28	-									
Metacogn. CQ	-.41*	.53**	.36*	-								
Cognitive CQ	-.48**	.54**	.40*	.85**	-							
Motivational CQ	-.42**	.49**	.39*	.74**	.83**	-						
Behavioral CQ	-.40*	.54**	.19	.58**	.68**	.64**	-					
General Adj. Expatriate	-.13	-.07	.06	.17	.33*	.34*	.23	-				
Interaction Adj. Expatriate	-.14	.19	.21	.42**	.41*	.41*	.14	.41*	-			
Work Adj. Expatriate	-.02	-.06	-.23	.01	.06	.10	.21	.48**	.12	-		
General Adj. Partner	-.40*	.56**	.36*	.68**	.70**	.67**	.61*	.34*	.36*	.13	-	
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.15	.66**	.39*	.58**	.62**	.58**	.59**	.23	.28	.04	.87**	-

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

Table 13: Correlations Cultural Adjustment for SIE Partners

N=42	Previous experience	Language Proficiency	Length Abroad	Metacogn. CQ	Cognitive CQ	Motivational CQ	Behavioral CQ	General Adj. Expatriate	Interaction Adj. Expatriate	Work Adj. Expatriate	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner
Previous experience	-											
Language Proficiency	-.02	-										
Length Abroad	.08	.29	-									
Metacogn. CQ	-.10	.27	.19	-								
Cognitive CQ	-.04	.31*	-.04	.65**	-							
Motivational CQ	.01	.08	-.20	.55**	.76**	-						
Behavioral CQ	-.18	.33*	.07	.51**	.74**	.62**	-					
General Adj. Expatriate	-.19	.32*	.38*	.20	.29	.13	.28	-				
Interaction Adj. Expatriate	.00	.45**	.47**	.22	.21	.16	.36*	.56**	-			
Work Adj. Expatriate	-.09	.27	.39*	.01	.01	-.17	.03	.56**	.49**	-		
General Adj. Partner	-.12	.36*	.32*	.66**	.57**	.53**	.56**	.54**	.33*	.27	-	
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.11	.58**	.40**	.47**	.50**	.32*	.55**	.43**	.59**	.39**	.68**	-

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

Table 18: Correlations WFC, FWC and Moderators for OEs

N=38	Age	Sex	Education	Rel. Length	Hours Expatriate	Hours Partner	WIF Time	FIW Time	WIF Strain	FIW Strain	WIF Behavior	FIW Behavior
Age	-											
Sex	-.20	-										
Education	.04	.02	-									
Rel. Length	.51**	.03	.12	-								
Hours Expatriate	.31	.19	.09	-.15	-							
Hours Partner	.19	-.33*	.24	.13	-.21	-						
WIF Time	.37*	-.17	.17	-.10	.60**	-.02	-					
FIW Time	-.13	-.24	-.06	-.03	-.36*	.04	.02	-				
WIF Strain	.43**	-.30	.05	-.12	.49**	.00	.72**	-.09	-			
FIW Strain	-.20	-.09	-.10	-.04	-.10	-.36*	-.01	.32*	.08	-		
WIF Behavior	.09	.18	.18	-.25	.56**	-.15	.30	-.21	.26	.00	-	
FIW Behavior	-.33*	.22	-.01	-.30	.24	-.35*	.07	.06	-.22	.15	.38*	-

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

Table 19: Correlations WFC, FWC and Moderators for SLEs

N=42	Age	Sex	Education	Rel. Length	Hours Expatriate	Hours Partner	WIF Time	FIW Time	WIF Strain	FIW Strain	WIF Behavior	FIW Behavior
Age	-											
Sex	.34*	-										
Education	-.40**	-.19	-									
Rel. Length	.75**	.25	-.29	-								
Hours Expatriate	.13	.25	-.27	-.10	-							
Hours Partner	.26	-.25	.12	.04	.08	-						
WIF Time	.26	.47**	-.18	.12	.47**	.00	-					
FIW Time	.11	.25	-.12	-.02	.06	-.24	.40**	-				
WIF Strain	.28	.25	-.31*	-.04	.37*	.10	.68**	.42**	-			
FIW Strain	.14	.35*	.00	-.10	-.03	-.20	.25	.61**	.53**	-		
WIF Behavior	.27	.21	-.27	-.08	.25	.04	.47**	.42**	.47**	.25	-	
FIW Behavior	.23	.25	-.15	-.07	.29	-.06	-.04	.38*	.47**	.45**	.44**	-

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

Table 24: Correlations WFC, FWC and Cultural Adjustment for OEs

N=38	General Adj.	Interaction Adj.	Work Adj.	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner	WIF Time	FIW Time	WIF Strain	FIW Strain	WIF Behavior	FIW Behavior
General Adj.	-										
Expatriate Interaction Adj.	.41*	-									
Expatriate Work Adj.	.48**	.12	-								
General Adj. Partner	.34*	.36*	.13	-							
Interaction Adj. Partner	.23	.28	.04	.87**	-						
WIF Time	.05	.25	-.12	.02	-.02	-					
FIW Time	-.15	-.13	-.41*	-.23	-.29	.02	-				
WIF Strain	-.04	.08	-.23	-.01	-.01	.72**	-.09	-			
FIW Strain	-.39*	-.53**	-.18	-.63**	-.59**	-.01	.32*	.08	-		
WIF Behavior	-.21	-.13	.12	-.18	-.07	.30	-.21	.26	.00	-	
FIW Behavior	.03	-.19	.26	-.31	-.31	.07	.06	-.22	.15	.38*	-

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

Table 25: Correlations WFC, FWC and Cultural Adjustment for SLEs

N=42	General Adj.	Interaction Adj.	Work Adj.	General Adj. Partner	Interaction Adj. Partner	WIF Time	FIW Time	WIF Strain	FIW Strain	WIF Behavior	FIW Behavior
General Adj.	-										
Expatriate Interaction Adj.	.56**	-									
Expatriate Work Adj.	.56**	.49**	-								
General Adj. Expatriate Partner	.54**	.33*	.27	-							
Interaction Adj. Partner	.43**	.59**	.40**	.68**	-						
WIF Time	.02	.25	.10	-.19	-.14	-					
FIW Time	-.06	.07	-.07	-.39*	-.25	.40**	-				
WIF Strain	-.25	-.05	.02	-.36*	-.22	.68**	.42**	-			
FIW Strain	-.34*	-.04	-.19	-.56**	-.24	.25	.61**	.53**	-		
WIF Behavior	.13	.10	.24	-.06	.01	.47**	.42**	.47**	.25	-	
FIW Behavior	.19	.08	.18	-.18	-.04	.38*	.47**	.45**	.44**	.77**	-

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

Detailed Results of Regression Analyses:

Table 14: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of OEs

	General Adjustment (n=37)			Interaction Adjustment (n=37)			Work Adjustment (n=36)		
	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß
Step 1									
Previous Experience	-.20	.40	-.10	.86	.39	.36	-.89	.39	-.40*
Language Proficiency	-.09	.18	-.10	.59	.17	.56**	-.21	.17	-.20
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.01	.07	.01	.01	.22	-.01	.01	-.28
	R ² = .075			R ² =.262**			R ² =.132		
Step 2									
Previous Experience	-.36	.35	-.18	.53	.43	.22	-1.23	.43	-.55***
Language Proficiency	-.19	.14	-.22	.49	.17	.47**	-.37	.17	-.36**
Length of Stay Abroad	.01	.00	.20	.01	.01	.23	-.01	.01	-.33**
Metacognitive CQ	.55	.18	.69**	-.12	.23	-.12	.27	.23	.31
Cognitive CQ	.35	.19	.35	.41	.24	.35	.48	.24	.39**
Motivational CQ	-.13	.15	-.20	.07	.19	.09	.20	.19	.29
Behavioral CQ	-.14	.13	-.22	-.05	.17	-.07	-.55	.17	-.74***
	ΔR ² =.488***, R ² = .383**			ΔR ² =.089, R ² =.271*			ΔR ² =.496*** R ² =.628***		
Step 3									
Previous Experience	-.16	.37	-.08	.86	.45	.36	-1.22	.45	-.54**
Language Proficiency	-.15	.15	-.16	.57	.18	.54**	-.34	.18	-.34*
Length of Stay Abroad	.01	.01	.20	.01	.01	.22	-.01	.01	-.29*
Metacognitive CQ	.46	.18	.59*	-.22	.23	-.22	.29	.23	.33
Cognitive CQ	.37	.19	.37	.42	.23	.35	.49	.23	.40*
Motivational CQ	-.11	.15	-.18	.08	.18	.11	.21	.18	.29
Behavioral CQ	-.11	.13	-.17	.01	.17	.01	-.54	.17	-.74***
General Adj. Partner	.32	.19	.52	.50	.25	.68	.01	.25	.01
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.30	.21	-.46	-.45	.28	-.58	-.06	.28	-.09
	ΔR ² =.047, R ² =.400**			ΔR ² =.074, R ² =.316*			ΔR ² =.003, R ² =.602***		

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

Table 15: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of SIEs

N=42	General Adjustment (n=42)			Interaction Adjustment (n=41)			Work Adjustment (n=40)		
	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß
Step 1									
Previous Experience	.28	.38	.11	1.44	.48	.39**	-.60	.35	-.26
Language Proficiency	.27	.15	.29	.50	.19	.35*	.24	.14	.26
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.00	.21	.00	.00	.17	.01	.00	.43**
	R²=.154*			R²=.435***			R²=.241**		
Step 2									
Previous Experience	-.01	.42	.00	1.36	.49	.37**	-.60	.40	-.26
Language Proficiency	.17	.16	.18	.46	.19	.32*	.18	.16	.19
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.00	.24	.00	.00	.11	.01	.00	.50**
Metacognitive CQ	-.24	.36	-.24	-.53	.43	-.35	.17	.37	.18
Cognitive CQ	.18	.31	.16	.28	.36	.17	-.39	.34	-.38
Motivational CQ	.42	.24	.46	.08	.28	.06	.27	.23	.31
Behavioral CQ	-.06	.20	-.07	.61	.25	.48	-.01	.20	-.02
	ΔR²=.119, R²=.198*			ΔR²=.127, R²=.520***			ΔR²=.049, R²=.206*		
Step 3									
Previous Experience	-.02	.39	-.01	1.44	.45	.39**	-.60	.41	-.25
Language Proficiency	.17	.16	.17	.29	.18	.21	.10	.17	.11
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.00	.13	.00	.00	.04	.01	.00	.45*
Metacognitive CQ	-.31	.34	-.31	-.28	.41	-.19	.23	.38	.24
Cognitive CQ	.27	.29	.24	.09	.34	.05	-.41	.34	-.39
Motivational CQ	.37	.22	.40	.01	.26	.01	.24	.24	.27
Behavioral CQ	-.06	.19	-.07	.49	.23	.38*	-.08	.21	-.10
General Adj. Partner	.44	.16	.48*	-.09	.19	-.07	-.01	.18	-.01
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.11	.16	-.14	.47	.19	.40*	.19	.19	.24
	ΔR²=.144*, R²=.332**			ΔR²=.084*, R²=.598***			ΔR²=.037, R²=.201		

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

Table 16: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of OE Partners

N=38	General Adjustment (n=36)			Interaction Adjustment (n=37)		
	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß
Step 1						
Previous Experience	-.79	.52	-.24	.51	.41	.18
Language Proficiency	.53	.18	.45**	.78	.14	.73***
Length of Stay Abroad	.01	.01	.11	.01	.01	.18
	R²= .356***			R²=.486***		
Step 2						
Previous Experience	-.30	.38	-.09	.85	.35	.29*
Language Proficiency	.13	.15	.11	.51	.14	.48**
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.01	-.05	.00	.01	.08
Metacognitive CQ	.23	.34	.12	.01	.31	.01
Cognitive CQ	.43	.38	.26	.15	.33	.11
Motivational CQ	.40	.22	.32	.28	.21	.26
Behavioral CQ	.22	.21	.15	.35	.19	.26
	ΔR²=.339***, R²= .688***			ΔR²=.190**, R²=.651***		
Step 3						
Previous Experience	-.32	.37	-.10	.86	.35	.29*
Language Proficiency	.18	.15	.15	.58	.14	.54***
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.01	-.02	.01	.01	.11
Metacognitive CQ	.23	.35	.13	.08	.32	.05
Cognitive CQ	.39	.40	.24	.04	.34	.03
Motivational CQ	.38	.22	.30	.23	.21	.21
Behavioral CQ	.15	.22	.10	.30	.20	.23
General Adj. OE	.00	.22	.00	.18	.19	.13
Interaction Adj. OE	.06	.14	.05	.04	.13	.03
Work Adj. OE	.27	.16	.19	.13	.15	.11
	ΔR²=.036, R²=.701***			ΔR²=.038, R²=.663***		

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

Table 17: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on Cultural Adjustment of SIE Partners

N=42	General Adjustment (n=41)			Interaction Adjustment (n=41)		
	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß
Step 1						
Previous Experience	-.65	.48	-.20	-.49	.45	-.13
Language Proficiency	.35	.19	.28	.76	.19	.52***
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.00	.26	.01	.00	.27*
	R²=.159			R²=.387		
Step 2						
Previous Experience	-.57	.32	-.17	-.30	.43	.08
Language Proficiency	.09	.13	.07	.54	.18	.37**
Length of Stay Abroad	.01	.00	.31**	.01	.00	.29*
Metacognitive CQ	.46	.19	.32*	.12	.26	.08
Cognitive CQ	.02	.27	.02	.20	.37	.12
Motivational CQ	.31	.16	.31	.05	.22	.05
Behavioral CQ	.29	.19	.22	.37	.27	.25
	ΔR²=.493 R²=.654			ΔR²=.164 R²=.512		
Step 3						
Previous Experience	-.27	.32	-.08	-.24	.39	-.06
Language Proficiency	.11	.13	.09	.40	.17	.28*
Length of Stay Abroad	.00	.00	.24	.00	.00	.09
Metacognitive CQ	.53	.18	.37**	.23	.23	.14
Cognitive CQ	-.23	.27	-.16	.13	.34	.08
Motivational CQ	.39	.16	.38*	.00	.20	.00
Behavioral CQ	.38	.18	.29	.42	.24	.29
General Adj. OE	.25	.14	.23	-.17	.17	-.14
Interaction Adj. OE	-.16	.09	-.23	.22	.12	.25
Work Adj. OE	.16	.11	.17	.39	.15	.33*
	ΔR²=.063 R²=.704			ΔR²=.127 R²=.632		

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

Table 20: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on WIF for OEs

N=38	WIF Time			WIF Strain			WIF Behavior		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Step 1									
Age	.02	.02	.23	.04	.02	.41*	.01	.02	.10
Sex	-.52	.33	-.24	-.64	.31	-.30*	.17	.27	.10
Education	.19	.17	.15	.07	.17	.05	.16	.14	.17
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.14	.00	.00	-.26	.00	.00	-.25
Work Hours Expatriate	.06	.02	.52**	.04	.02	.36*	.04	.02	.45*
Work Hours Partner	.00	.01	-.05	-.01	.01	-.08	.00	.01	-.05
	R²=.376**			R²=.370**			R²=.263*		
Step 2									
Age	.04	.02	.37	.05	.02	.55**	.01	.02	.17
Sex	-.44	.31	-.20	-.55	.31	-.26	.22	.28	.13
Education	.27	.17	.21	.11	.17	.09	.15	.15	.16
Relationship Length	-.01	.00	-.34	-.01	.00	-.40*	.00	.00	-.25
Work Hours Expatriate	.06	.02	.52**	.04	.02	.35*	.04	.02	.45*
Work Hours Partner	.00	.01	.03	.00	.01	.03	.00	.01	.06
General Adj. Partner	.37	.19	.58	.20	.19	.32	-.07	.17	-.15
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.50	.20	-.73**	-.36	.20	-.55	-.03	.18	-.05
	ΔR²=.096, R²= .455**			ΔR²=.066**, R²=.411**			ΔR²=.020, R²=.195*		

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

Table 21: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on FIW for OEs

N=38	FIW Time			FIW Strain			FIW Behavior		
	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß	B	SE	ß
Step 1									
Age	.00	.02	-0,02	-.02	.02	-.22	-.03	.02	-.33
Sex	-.37	.33	-0,21	-.63	.41	-.28	.05	.29	.03
Education	.00	.17	0,00	.02	.22	.02	.04	.16	.04
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-0,04	.00	.00	.13	.00	.00	-.06
Work Hours Expatriate	-.03	.02	-0,34	-.01	.02	-.05	.02	.02	.27
Work Hours Partner	-.01	.01	-0,10	-.04	.02	-.45	-.01	.01	-.23
	R²=.013			R²=.080			R²=.136		
Step 2									
Age	.01	.02	.15	.00	.02	.00	-.02	.02	-.27
Sex	-.26	.33	-.15	-.39	.36	-.17	.08	.30	.05
Education	.01	.17	.01	-.07	.19	-.05	.07	.16	.08
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.12	.00	.00	.22	.00	.00	-.17
Work Hours Expatriate	-.03	.02	-.35	-.01	.02	-.07	.02	.02	.27
Work Hours Partner	.01	.01	.09	-.01	.02	-.11	-.01	.01	-.20
General Adj. Partner	.01	.20	.02	-.47	.22	-.71*	.15	.19	.32
Interaction Adj. Partner	-.21	.21	-.39	.04	.23	.06	-.20	.19	-.38
	ΔR²=.083, R²=.051			ΔR²=.242**, R²=.326***			ΔR²=.025, R²=.109		

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

Table 22: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on WIF for SIEs

N=42	WIF Time			WIF Strain			WIF Behavior		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Step 1									
Age	.00	.02	.05	.04	.02	.47	.07	.03	.67*
Sex	.67	.29	.37*	.28	.32	.15	.18	.35	.09
Education	.02	.16	.02	-.20	.17	-.19	-.18	.19	-.16
Relationship Length	.00	.00	.04	.00	.00	-.47*	-.01	.00	-.64**
Work Hours Expatriate	.03	.01	.38*	.01	.01	.16	.00	.01	.04
Work Hours Partner	.00	.01	.05	.00	.01	.05	-.01	.01	-.07
	R ² = .255*			R ² =.193*			R ² =.180*		
Step 2									
Age	.00	.02	.03	.03	.02	.37	.07	.03	.67*
Sex	.68	.30	.37*	.19	.28	.10	.25	.36	.12
Education	-.03	.17	-.03	-.35	.16	-.33*	-.23	.20	-.19
Relationship Length	.00	.00	.02	.00	.00	-.41	-.01	.00	-.73**
Work Hours Expatriate	.03	.01	.40*	.01	.01	.14	.01	.02	.10
Work Hours Partner	.00	.01	.07	.02	.01	.26	-.01	.01	-.15
General Adj. Partner	-.16	.13	-.23	-.42	.13	-.61**	-.16	.16	-.21
Interaction Adj. Partner	.12	.13	.20	.13	.12	.20	.25	.15	.37
	ΔR ² =.027, R ² = .244*			ΔR ² =.190**, R ² =.380**			ΔR ² =.053, R ² =.195*		

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

Table 23: Multiple Regression Analysis of Influences on FIW for SIEs

N=42	FIW Time			FIW Strain			FIW Behavior		
	B	SE	β	B	SE	β	B	SE	β
Step 1									
Age	.04	.03	.41	.07	.03	.65*	.07	.03	.67*
Sex	.30	.40	.14	.71	.40	.30	.19	.40	.08
Education	-.01	.22	-.01	.14	.22	.11	.05	.22	.04
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.36	-.01	.00	-.64**	-.01	.00	-.56*
Work Hours Expatriate	.00	.02	-.04	-.02	.02	-.21	.02	.02	.15
Work Hours Partner	-.02	.01	-.29	-.02	.01	-.27	-.02	.01	-.20
	R²=.015			R²=.198*			R²=.141		
Step 2									
Age	.04	.03	.35	.06	.02	.54*	.07	.03	.66*
Sex	.24	.40	.11	.63	.34	.27	.27	.39	.12
Education	-.12	.22	-.10	-.08	.19	-.06	-.02	.22	-.02
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.32	-.01	.00	-.61**	-.01	.00	-.65*
Work Hours Expatriate	-.01	.02	-.06	-.02	.01	-.20	.02	.02	.23
Work Hours Partner	-.01	.02	-.16	-.01	.01	-.09	-.02	.02	-.27
General Adj. Partner	-.32	.18	-.40	-.62	.15	-.72***	-.26	.17	-.31
Interaction Adj. Partner	.10	.17	.15	.30	.14	.39	.34	.17	.46
	ΔR²=.079, R²=.053			ΔR²=.241**, R²=.450***			ΔR²=.084, R²=.193		

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

Table 26: Multiple Regression Analysis FIW Strain for OEs

N=38	FIW Strain		
	B	SE	β
Step 1			
Age	.04	.02	.41
Sex	-.62	.31	-.30
Education	.03	.16	.03
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.26
Work Hours Expatriate	.04	.02	.37
Work Hours Partner	.01	.01	.06
	R ² = .368**		
Step 2			
Age	.04	.02	.37
Sex	-.57	.34	-.27
Education	.00	.18	.00
Relationship Length	.00	.00	-.24
Work Hours Expatriate	.04	.02	.42
Work Hours Partner	.01	.01	.10
General Adj. Expatriate	.13	.19	.13
Interaction Adj. Expatriate	-.08	.12	-.10
Work Adj. Expatriate	-.13	.17	-.15
	$\Delta R^2=.018$, R ² = .324*		

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

Survey – Expatriate Version

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for participating in this survey that regards aspects of your life expatriate and your adaption to the foreign culture. By filling out the following questions, you support my Master's thesis in Occupational Psychology at the University of Vienna.

This **green** survey is the second part of the survey. It must be filled out by you as accompanying partner. Please make sure that you fill out the survey completely (otherwise the data cannot be used) and thoroughly read all instructions. Keep in mind that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions, only your personal evaluation, so please answer openly. The survey takes only 10-15 minutes to fill out.

Of course, all your data will be handled anonymously. However, for statistical analysis it is necessary to link your data to that of your partner. Therefore, please indicate the following code:

The initial of your partner's first and last name (e.g.: for John Lennon -> JL)

Your partner's year of birth (e.g.: 1940 -> 40)

The initial of your first and last name (e.g.: for Yoko Ono -> YO)

Your year of birth (e.g.: 1933 -> 33)

The code for the example in the brackets would therefore be: **JL40YO33**

Please indicate your code in the proper spaces on top of each page.

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me via mail to: k.meersse@gmail.com, I will be happy to give further information.

With kind regards,

Kristina Meersse

1.Age:	2.Sex: Female ☐ Male ☐	3. Citizenship:
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4. Please choose your highest level of education:			
Less than High School	☐	Master's degree (or equal)	☐
High School	☐	PhD or Doctoral degree	☐
Bachelor's degree (or equal)	☐	Other (e.g. professional training)	☐

5. In which country do you live at the moment? When did you move there? (Please indicate the month and year)	
6. Are you on an assignment by a company or other type of organization?	Yes ☐ No ☐
7. How many hours do you work per week?	____ h / week

8. How did you prepare for your move abroad? (e.g. read books, attend language courses or other specialized trainings...)

9. How fluently do you speak the language of your host country? (Please indicate by checking a box)	not at all ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ very fluently
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10. Do you have previous experience in living abroad (more than 3 months living in a foreign country)? (Please state duration and country)

11. How long have you been in your current relationship? (Please indicate number of years and months)	____ years, ____ months
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12. Overall, how satisfied are you with the quality of your relationship at the moment? (Please indicate by checking a box)	not at all satisfied ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ very satisfied
---	--

The following questions are concerned with aspects of your adjustment to different aspects of life and work in your host country.

Please indicate how adjusted you are in the following areas:	Totally unadjusted				Fully		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Living conditions in general	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Housing conditions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cost of living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Entertainment/Recreation facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Health care facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Socializing with host nationals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interaction with host nationals on day-to-day basis	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Interaction with host nationals outside of work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Speaking with host nationals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Specific job responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Performance standards and expectations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Supervisory responsibilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

In the following, please reflect about aspects of your work- and family-life.

Please indicate the level to which you agree or disagree to the following statements:	strongly disagree			strongly agree	
	1	2	3	4	5
My work keeps me from my family activities more than I would like.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The time I must devote to my job keeps me from participating equally in household responsibilities and activities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I have to miss family activities due to the amount of time I must spend on work responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The time I spend on family responsibilities often interfere with my work responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The time I spend with my family often causes me not to spend time in activities at work that could be helpful to my career.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I have to miss work activities due to the amount of time I must spend on family responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
When I get home from work I am often too frazzled to participate in family activities/responsibilities.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am often so emotionally drained when I get home from work that it prevents me from contributing to my family.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Due to all the pressures at work, sometimes when I come home I am too stressed to do the things I enjoy.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Due to stress at home, I am often preoccupied with family matters at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Because I am often stressed from family responsibilities, I have a hard time concentrating on my work	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Tension and anxiety from my family life often weakens my ability to do my job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The problem-solving behaviors I use in my job are not effective in resolving problems at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at work would be counterproductive at home.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The behaviors I perform that make me effective at work do not help me to be a better parent and spouse.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The behaviors that work for me at home do not seem to be effective at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Behavior that is effective and necessary for me at home would be counterproductive at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The problem-solving behavior that works for me at home does not seem to be as useful at work.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

The following statements are concerned with your thoughts, behavior or motivation in cross-cultural situations.

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities. Select the answer that best describes you as you really are!	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much for your participation! I appreciate your time and effort!

If you have any questions or are interested in the results, please contact me via mail to:

k.meersse@gmail.com

Survey – Partner Version

Dear participant,

Thank you very much for participating in this survey that regards aspects of your life expatriate and your adaption to the foreign culture. By filling out the following questions, you support my Master's thesis in Occupational Psychology at the University of Vienna.

This **green** survey is the second part of the survey. It must be filled out by you as accompanying partner. Please make sure that you fill out the survey completely (otherwise the data cannot be used) and thoroughly read all instructions. Keep in mind that there are no right or wrong answers to the questions, only your personal evaluation, so please answer openly. The survey takes only 10-15 minutes to fill out.

Of course, all your data will be handled anonymously. However, for statistical analysis it is necessary to link your data to that of your partner. Therefore, please indicate the following code:

The initial of your partner's first and last name (e.g.: for John Lennon -> JL)

Your partner's year of birth (e.g.: 1940 -> 40)

The initial of your first and last name (e.g.: for Yoko Ono -> YO)

Your year of birth (e.g.: 1933 -> 33)

The code for the example in the brackets would therefore be: **JL40YO33**

Please indicate your code in the proper spaces on top of each page.

If you have any questions regarding this survey, please do not hesitate to contact me via mail to: k.meersse@gmail.com , I will be happy to give further information.

With kind regards,

Kristina Meersse

1.Age:	2.Sex: Female ☐ Male ☐	3. Citizenship:
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4. Please choose your highest level of education:			
Less than High School	☐	Master's degree (or equal)	☐
High School	☐	PhD or Doctoral degree	☐
Bachelor's degree (or equal)	☐	Other (e.g. professional training)	☐

5. In which country do you live at the moment? When did you move there? (Please indicate the month and year)	
6. Are you on an assignment by a company or other type of organization?	Yes ☐ No ☐
7. How many hours do you work per week? (if you are currently not employed, please leave blank)	____ h / week

8. How did you prepare for your move abroad? (e.g. read books, attend language courses or other specialized trainings...)

9. How fluently do you speak the language of your host country? (Please indicate by checking a box)	not at all ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ very fluently
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10. Do you have previous experience in living abroad (more than 3 months living in a foreign country)? (Please state duration and country)

11. How long have you been in your current relationship? (Please indicate number of years and months)	____ years, ____ months
---	-------------------------

12. Overall, how satisfied are you with the quality of your relationship at the moment? (Please indicate by checking a box)	not at all satisfied ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ very satisfied
---	--

The following questions are concerned with aspects of your adjustment to different aspects of life in your host country.

Please indicate how adjusted you are in the following areas:	Totally unadjusted				Fully			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Living conditions in general	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Housing conditions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Food	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Shopping	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Cost of living	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Entertainment/Recreation facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Health care facilities	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Socializing with host nationals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Interacting with host nationals on day-to-day basis	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
Speaking with host nationals	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	

The following statements are concerned with your thoughts, behavior or motivation in cross-cultural situations.

Read each statement and select the response that best describes your capabilities. Select the answer that best describes you as you really are!	Strongly disagree				Strongly agree			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I use when interacting with people with different cultural backgrounds.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I adjust my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I am conscious of the cultural knowledge I apply to cross-cultural interactions.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I check the accuracy of my cultural knowledge as I interact with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I know the legal and economic systems of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I know the rules (e.g., vocabulary, grammar) of other languages.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	
I know the cultural values and religious beliefs of other cultures.	☐	☐	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐	

I know the marriage systems of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the arts and crafts of other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I know the rules for expressing nonverbal behaviors in other cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident that I can socialize with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I change my verbal behavior (e.g., accent, tone) when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I use pause and silence differently to suit different cross-cultural situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I vary the rate of my speaking when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I change my nonverbal behavior when a cross-cultural situation requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I alter my facial expressions when a cross-cultural interaction requires it.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Thank you very much for your participation! I appreciate your time and effort!

If you have any questions or are interested in the results, please contact me via mail to:

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Abstract English Version

The globalization of our world has led to an ever-growing trend of people taking their careers abroad. Researchers have studied this group (so-called expatriates) and the various challenges they face in their endeavor for the past decades. Recently, the distinction was made between Organizational Expatriates (OE) and Self-Initiated Expatriates (SIE) based on the voluntariness of their move. While OEs, the so far mostly investigated group, are sent by an organization or company, SIEs decide to make the move themselves (Doherty et al., 2013).

One of the main challenges that expatriates all over the world face is the process of cultural adjustment to their host country. Various studies show the importance of the adjustment process for a successful expatriation (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black et al., 1991). Couples who undergo the “expatriate-adventure” face this process together and studies show that there is an interactive relationship between cultural adjustments of both partners (Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2002).

Given these challenges, expatriates could be vulnerable to a conflict between the work and family life, which can exist in both directions: Work-Family conflict (WFC), because the expatriate might have to spend more time and energy to get used to the foreign workplace and Family-Work conflict (FWC), because the accompanying partner or family needs support which takes energy and time away from the workplace.

This study has three goals: First, to clarify what influences cultural adjustment for OEs, SIEs and their respective partners. For that, the relatively new concept of Cultural Intelligence (CQ) is included as possible influence on cultural adjustment. Second, to investigate a possible influence of cultural adjustment

on perceived WFC and FWC of OEs and SIEs and third, how cultural adjustment influences the relationship quality of OE and SIE couples.

80 expatriate couples (38 OE couples, 41 SIE couples) filled out an online survey consisting of two parts. Results of multiple regression analyses differ between the groups. While SIE couples influence each other in the adjustment process, that was not the case for OE couples. Cultural Intelligence seemed to be a more important factor for the partners' adjustment than for the expatriates'. Cultural adjustment measures of the respective partners only influenced the perceived strain-based FWC of both OEs and SIEs, but none of the other dimensions. Relationship quality seemed to be strongly related to the cultural adjustment measures of each partner, especially for OE couples. For SIE couples both the expatriate's and the partner's adjustment played a role, though the impact was slightly lower than for OE couples.

Altogether the results point out how sensible a distinction between SIEs and OEs is as they differed significantly between the groups. This study also contributes to the still small research base of the characteristics of SIEs and showed again the difficult situation of the accompanying partners. An important finding was the strong connection between cultural adjustment and relationship quality, which should be investigated further by future studies. The lack of connections between WFC and cultural adjustment of the partner should be also further evaluated in the future as the sample size might not have been big enough to produce good results. The findings so far, though, call for organizations to support not only their expatriate employee, but also the accompanying partner to avoid a conflict between family and work.

Abstract German Version

Die fortschreitende Globalisierung unserer Welt bewegt eine immer größer werdende Zahl von Menschen dazu, ihre Karriere ins Ausland zu verlegen. Wissenschaftler haben diese Gruppe (sogenannte Expatriates) über die letzten Jahrzehnte systematisch auf ihre Herausforderungen und speziellen Charakteristika hin untersucht. In neuesten Studien wurde zwischen sogenannten „Organizational Expatriates“ (OE) und „Self-Initiated Expatriates“ unterschieden. Diese Unterscheidung basiert auf der Freiwilligkeit des Umzugs in ein anderes Land, denn während OEs üblicherweise von einer Firma oder Organisation entsendet werden, entscheiden sich SIEs selbst zu diesem Schritt (Doherty et al., 2013).

Die größte Herausforderung, die von Expatriates gemeistert werden muss, ist die kulturelle Anpassung an ihre neue Umgebung. Verschiedene Studien zeigen die Wichtigkeit dieses Prozesses für das Gelingen des Aufenthalts im anderen Land (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Black et al., 1991). Paare, die ins Ausland ziehen, meistern diesen Prozess gemeinsam und beeinflussen sich dabei gegenseitig (Black & Stephens, 1989; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Takeuchi et al., 2002).

Betrachtet man die Herausforderungen für Expatriates, so ist es wahrscheinlich, dass sie gefährdet sind, einen Konflikt zwischen dem Arbeits- und dem Familienkontext zu erleben. Dieser Konflikt kann in beide Richtungen bestehen: Als Arbeits-Familien Konflikt, da der neue Job in der Fremde eventuell viel Energie und Zeit zur Anpassung beansprucht und so weniger für die Familie oder den Partner übrig bleibt, sowie als Familien-Arbeits Konflikt, da Partner oder Familie eventuell Anpassungsschwierigkeiten haben und Unterstützung brauchen, sodass weniger Ressourcen für die Arbeit zur Verfügung stehen.

Die vorliegende Studie verfolgt drei Hauptziele: Erstens soll geklärt werden, welche Faktoren Einfluss auf die kulturelle Anpassung von OEs, SIEs und

deren Partner nehmen. Dabei wird das relativ neue Konzept der kulturellen Intelligenz (CQ) mit einbezogen. Zweitens soll der Zusammenhang zwischen kultureller Anpassung des Partners und Arbeits-Familien, sowie Familien-Arbeits Konflikt des Expatriate geklärt werden. Als drittes Ziel wird untersucht, inwieweit kulturelle Anpassung die wahrgenommene Beziehungsqualität beeinflusst.

Nach einer Online-Fragebogenstudie wurden die Daten von 80 Expatriate-Paaren (38 OE Paare, 42 SIE Paare) mittels multipler Regressionsanalyse untersucht. Die Ergebnisse zeigen deutliche Unterschiede zwischen den Gruppen. So beeinflussen sich SIE Paare im Gegensatz zu OE Paaren bezüglich der kulturellen Anpassung gegenseitig. Kulturelle Intelligenz scheint für die begleitenden Partner wichtiger zu sein als für die Expatriates, wobei sie für SIEs anscheinend generell eine untergeordnete Rolle spielt. Für Arbeits-Familien Konflikt konnte kein signifikanter Einfluss der Anpassung des Partners festgestellt werden. Lediglich für Belastungsbedingten Familien-Arbeits Konflikt konnte für OEs und SIEs ein Einfluss des Partners nachgewiesen werden. Beziehungsqualität hingegen wurde anscheinend für die jeweiligen Partner stärker als für die Expatriates von der jeweils eigenen kulturellen Anpassung beeinflusst, die jedoch insgesamt für alle eine wichtige Rolle spielte. Dieser Effekt war für OE Paare stärker als für SIE Paare, die sich dafür gegenseitig beeinflussten.

Insgesamt zeigen die Unterschiede in den Ergebnissen der Studie, dass die Differenzierung zwischen OE und SIE Sinn macht. Zudem wurde die in der Literatur bereits erwähnte schwierigere Situation der begleitenden Partner nochmals deutlich. Der starke Zusammenhang zwischen Beziehungsqualität und kultureller Anpassung sollte in zukünftigen Studien noch genauer beleuchtet werden, da Beziehungsqualität in dieser Studie mit nur einem Item erhoben wurde. Außerdem könnte die relativ kleine Stichprobengröße zu

unbefriedigenden Ergebnissen für den Zusammenhang zwischen Arbeits-Familien Konflikt und kultureller Anpassung geführt haben, sodass zukünftige Studien auch hier eventuell weitere Ergebnisse liefern könnten. Als praktische Implikation sollte der Zusammenhang zwischen der Anpassung des Partners und Familien-Arbeits Konflikt des Expatriate Organisationen dazu bewegen, nicht nur ihren entsendeten Mitarbeitern, sondern auch den begleitenden Partnern Unterstützung zukommen zu lassen, um einen Konflikt zu vermeiden.

Lebenslauf

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Gute Kenntnisse

Eidesstattliche Erklärung

Ich versichere, dass ich diese Diplomarbeit ohne fremde Hilfe und ohne Benutzung anderer, als der angegebenen Quellen angefertigt habe, und dass die Arbeit in gleicher oder ähnlicher Form noch keiner anderen Prüfungsbehörde vorgelegen hat. Alle Ausführungen der Arbeit, die wörtlich oder sinngemäß übernommen wurden, sind als solche gekennzeichnet.

Wien, am _____

Unterschrift