


2016

## **Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others? Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment**

Yukiko Yamasaki  
*Minnesota State University Mankato*

Follow this and additional works at: <https://cornerstone.lib.mnsu.edu/etds>

 Part of the [Industrial and Organizational Psychology Commons](#), [Organizational Behavior and Theory Commons](#), and the [Training and Development Commons](#)

---

### **Recommended Citation**

Yamasaki, Y. (2016). Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others? Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment [Master's thesis, Minnesota State University, Mankato]. Cornerstone: A Collection of Scholarly and Creative Works for Minnesota State University, Mankato. <https://cornerstone.lib.mnsu.edu/etds/628/>

This Thesis is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Theses, Dissertations, and Other Capstone Projects at Cornerstone: A Collection of Scholarly and Creative Works for Minnesota State University, Mankato. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Graduate Theses, Dissertations, and Other Capstone Projects by an authorized administrator of Cornerstone: A Collection of Scholarly and Creative Works for Minnesota State University, Mankato.

Running Head: PREDICTORS OF REPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others?

Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment

By

Yukiko Yamasaki

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

In

Industrial/Organizational Psychology

Minnesota State University, Mankato

Mankato, Minnesota

May 2016

PREDICTORS OF REPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT

9

May 4th, 2016

Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others?

Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment

Yukiko Yamasaki

This thesis has been examined and approved by the following members of the student's committee.

---

Dr. Lisa Perez – Advisor

---

Dr. Andrea Lassiter – Committee Member

---

Dr. Sachi Sekimoto – Committee Member

### **Abstract**

Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others? Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment. Yukiko Yamasaki. Master of Arts in Industrial/Organizational Psychology. Minnesota State University, Mankato. Mankato, MN. 2016.

The present study applied the Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to investigate factors related to repatriate adjustment. Specifically, this study proposed three organizational factors (role ambiguity, lack of work autonomy, and absence of pre-training) as job demands, which would inhibit adjustment of repatriates. The second part of this study identified three personal characteristics (openness, cultural intelligence, and proactivity) as job resources and examined whether these characteristics would minimize the negative effects of the job demands on repatriate adjustment. Repatriate adjustment was assessed as expatriate adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989), job stress (Lambert, Hogan, & Griffin, 2007), job satisfaction (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979), career satisfaction (Dunbar & Ehrlich, 1993), and intention to quit (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997). There were 56 respondents to the electronic survey distributed through an online panel. There were positive significant relationships between role clarity and general repatriate adjustment and career satisfaction and between work autonomy and job satisfaction. In addition, cultural knowledge moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction. Those who had lower to medium levels on cultural knowledge benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction. Finally, cultural skill moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction. Those who had higher levels of

cultural skill benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction. Limitations and significance of the study were discussed.

**Table of Contents**

Introduction.....	7
Literature Review.....	9
Repatriate Adjustment.....	9
Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model.....	15
Demands of Repatriation.....	17
Role Ambiguity .....	17
Lack of Work Autonomy.....	18
Lack of Preparation .....	19
Resources for Repatriation.....	21
Openness.....	22
Cultural Intelligence (CQ).....	23
Proactivity.....	24
The Present Study .....	26
Model .....	27
Method .....	28
Participants .....	28
Procedures .....	29
Measures.....	29
Demographic Information .....	29
Openness.....	29
Cultural Intelligence .....	30
Proactivity.....	30
Role Ambiguity .....	31
Work Autonomy .....	31
Preparation.....	32
Repatriate Adjustment.....	32
Job Stress .....	32
Job Satisfaction.....	33

Career Satisfaction.....	33
Intention to Leave.....	33
Results.....	35
Additional Analyses .....	47
Intention to Leave.....	47
Personal Characteristics.....	48
Discussion.....	51
Limitations .....	56
Significance of the Study .....	59
Appendices.....	60
Appendix A .....	60
Appendix B .....	62
Appendix C .....	63
Appendix D .....	65
Appendix E.....	66
Appendix F.....	67
Appendix G .....	68
Appendix H.....	69
Appendix I.....	70
Appendix J.....	71
Appendix K.....	72
Appendix I.....	73
References.....	74

Why Do Some Employees Readjust to Their Home Organizations Better Than Others?

Job Demands-Resources Model of Repatriation Adjustment

### **Introduction**

In today's global business environment, international experience is often identified as an important skillset for upper-level managers. Indeed, 71% of Fortune 100 "C-suite" executives have had at least two years of responsibilities overseas (Wolgemuth, 2010). Past literature has shown that managers with international experience exhibit high levels of problem solving, creative thinking, and decision-making skills (Herrmann & Datta, 2006; Maddux, Galinsky, & Tadmor, 2010). Compared to managers with only domestic work experience, those with global experience are more likely to show higher levels of job performance, receive promotions faster, and to be offered higher levels of compensation (Daily, Certo, & Dalton, 2006; Egan & Bendick, 1994; Magnusson & Boggs, 2006). Given that international experience is often a prerequisite for executive level positions, many companies are considering boosting future expatriate assignments. For instance, human resource consultancy firm, Mercer (2012), surveyed 335 North American companies and found that 57% of companies mentioned that they planned to increase long-term overseas assignments within the next two years.

Although there is a great deal of research on the topic of expatriation, the issue of repatriation has received little attention from researchers, probably because of an assumption that returning home will not be problematic as returners are familiar with their own culture. However, research (Morgan, Nie, & Young, 2004) has revealed that repatriate adjustment is as difficult as expatriate adjustment. According to the annual



Global Relocation Trends Survey Report, 21% of expatriate employees left their organizations in the middle of assignments, while 23% of them left within one year after returning to home organizations (GMAC, 2005). In addition, the actual turnover rate due to repatriation is higher than currently reported because 61% of organizations do not track repatriate turnover (GMAC, 2014). This high rates of turnover are particularly harmful for international companies for three reasons. First, the companies will lose key resources for the organization as 75% of the former expatriates are managers from the top-to-middle executives according to Haygroup (2001). Second, repatriates have acquired very valuable international experience for the company (Forster, 1994; Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001; Jonhston, 1991; Stroh et al., 2000) that can be a competitive advantage to improve management and the organization in the long term. However, if repatriates leave their companies after repatriation, the unique knowledge will be used by the competitors. Finally, poor management of the repatriation process could affect future expatriations as well. When the domestic employees observe that an international assignment can endanger their professional development, they will lose motivation to take part in future expatriations (Brewster & Scullion, 1997; Peltonen, 1997; Welch, 1994;). This can limit the company's prospects of international growth (Tung, 1988). Given the severe consequences from poor repatriate management, it is important to understand elements influencing repatriate adjustment.

The present study used the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model to investigate factors related to repatriate adjustment. The JD-R model places job stress factors into two broad categories: demands and resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Specifically, this

study proposed three organizational factors (role ambiguity, lack of work autonomy, and absence of preparation) as job demands, which would inhibit adjustment of repatriates.

The second part of this study identified three personal characteristics (openness, cultural intelligence, and proactivity) as job resources and examined whether these characteristics would minimize the negative effects of the job demands on repatriate adjustment.

Overall, the purpose of the present research is to identify the organizational factors and personal characteristics that are either detrimental or beneficial to repatriate adjustment.

### **Literature Review**

#### **Repatriate Adjustment**

Repatriate adjustment or reentry adjustment refers to “the process of readjusting, reaculturating, and reassimilating into one’s own home culture after living in a different culture for a significant period of time” (Gaw, 2000). It has been found that the severity of reentry adjustment problems can vary; some individuals may experience difficulties only for a short-term, whereas others seem to have problems ranging from a few months to a year or longer (Adler, 1981; Carlisle-Frank, 1992). The process of repatriate adjustment is often explained by theories of “reverse culture shock”, or the sense of alienation in their native culture (Hogan, 1983; Kugelman, 1996; Marks, 1987).

Defining reverse culture shock begins with understanding the concept of “culture shock.” Oberg's (1960) early definition was: “Culture shock is precipitated by the anxiety that results from losing all our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse” (p. 177). In order to examine the process of cultural adjustment in a host country, Lysgaard (1955) conducted interviews with 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars after repatriation. Based on

the results, he proposed the U-curve hypothesis of culture shock, which describe three stages of adjustment patterns: honeymoon, crisis, and resolution. As depicted in Figure 1, the name of the theory stems from its graphic representation of the curve with well-being on the ordinate axis and time on the abscissa axis. The first stage is described as initial euphoria and is considered to last less than two months (Adler, 1986; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Harris & Moran, 1989; Torbiorn, 1982). During this stage, expatriates enjoy experiencing cultural differences in the new environment and find it interesting and exciting to live in the host country. After staying in the new culture long enough, the initial excitement for the new setting will shift to negative feelings, such as anxiety and frustration in the second stage. As they need to interact with host nationals on a daily basis, the lack of understanding of the host culture becomes stressful rather than interesting. Therefore, expatriates often show hostile attitudes toward the host country during this stage. In the third stage, expatriates gradually come to understand the new culture and develop the ability to adjust and accept the culture. The anxiety in the prior stage will be largely gone.

The U-curve model is sometimes criticized as oversimplifying the process of cultural adjustment. Due to the individual differences in expatriate characteristics, not everyone will go through the same experience in a new culture. However, it is important to note that there is not a single “one size fits all” model of culture shock. Oberg (1960) argued that the model suggests a number of states that every expatriate will go through although there might be differences in the intensity and length of symptoms.

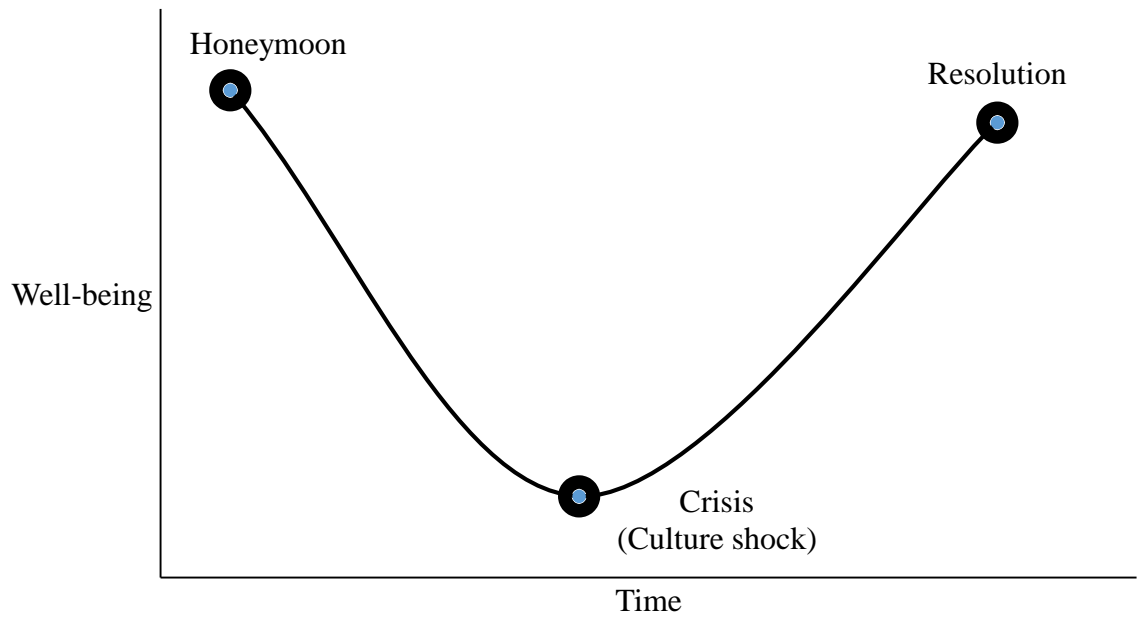


Figure 1. "U-curve" hypothesis of culture shock (Lysgaard, 1955).

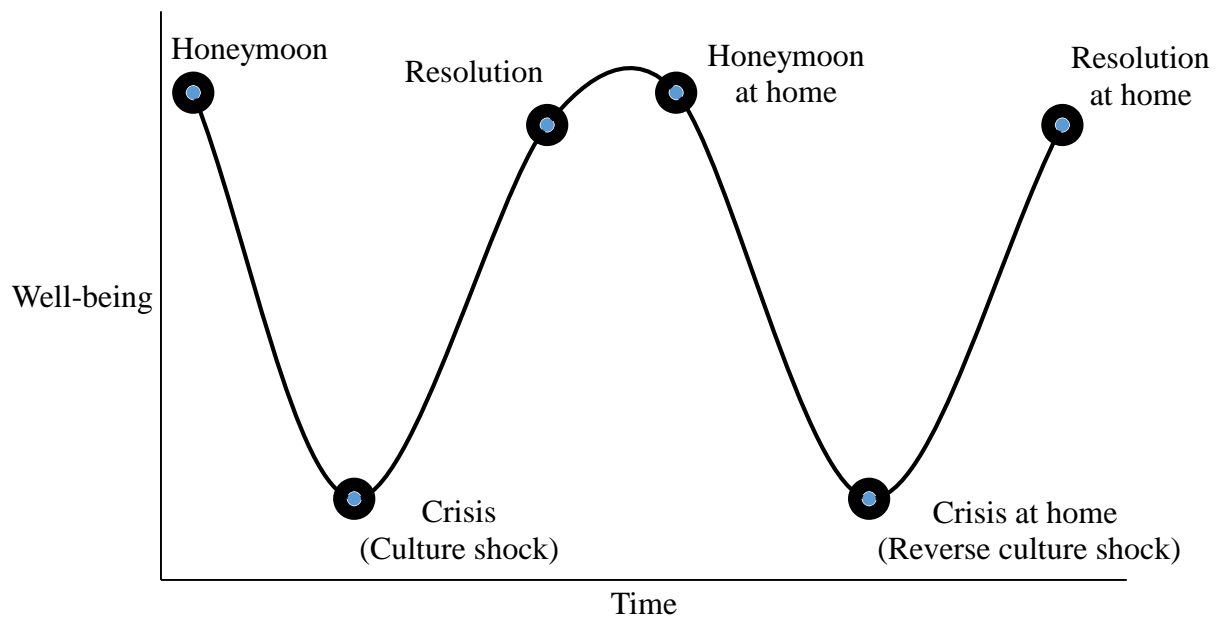


Figure 2. "W-curve" hypothesis of reverse culture shock (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963).

Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) extended the culture shock construct to reverse culture shock. Based on interview and survey data from 5,300 returning scholars, they argued that the reverse culture shock pattern was similar to the U-curve of the culture shock pattern. Therefore, they proposed the “W-curve” hypothesis (see Figure 2). The main difference between reverse culture shock and culture shock appears in the expectations of sojourners. Whereas expatriates often assume that they will encounter culture shock in a new culture, when they go back home, most of them assume that they will return to an “unchanged home” (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). However, since they left the home country, the society has constantly changed. In addition, as the intercultural experiences have shaped the returners’ perspectives and characteristics, the relationships and interactions with close friends and family do not remain the same as ones prior to their international experience (Martin, 1986; Seiter & Waddell, 1989). For these reasons, many researchers have argued that reverse culture shock can be a more traumatic and harmful experience than moving to a foreign country (Adler, 1981; Go´mez-Mejı´a & Balkin, 1983; Hurn, 1999; Linehan & Scullion, 2002).

Repatriate adjustment for employees can be observed in three dimensions: general adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. Originally, past literature on expatriate adjustment has suggested a multidimensional model of cross-cultural adjustment. In particular, Black (1988) and Black and Stephens (1989) insisted that expatriate adjustment consists of adjustment to the general non-work environment (e.g., food, housing, and cost of living), adjustment to interacting with host nationals (e.g., communication and socialization), and adjustment to the job (e.g., responsibilities,

expectations, and standards). As international adjustment is a complex and multifaceted process (Black & Stephens, 1989), non-work facets must be considered as important factors to gain a better understanding of expatriate adjustment. In addition to theoretical support, Black and Stephens (1989) and Shaffer, Harrison, and Gilley (1999) found empirical support for the multi-dimensionality of expatriate adjustment.

Black and Gregersen (1991) applied the multidimensional model of adjustment to repatriate adjustment. That is, they argued that repatriate adjustment also contains the three dimensions of adjustment (i.e., general adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment) because both expatriates and repatriates experience the cultural transition from one to another. Just like expatriates, repatriates need to adjust to the new role back in their home country, to the interaction with home nationals, and to the general non-work environment of their home country.

Past literature has identified three major problems resulting from poor repatriate adjustment. First, one of the common problems associated with reverse culture shock is high levels of stress as the second stage of “U-curve” hypothesis is characterized as crisis or stressful experience. Indeed, Berry (1997) argue that the term acculturative stress is preferred over culture shock when describing the impact of culture change on the individual. Instead of focusing on negative outcomes, acculturative stress refers to a process characterized by phases of stress and adjustment (Berry, 2006). Therefore, past studies have commonly investigated occupational stress to measure how well expatriate and repatriate employees are adjusted to the new environments.

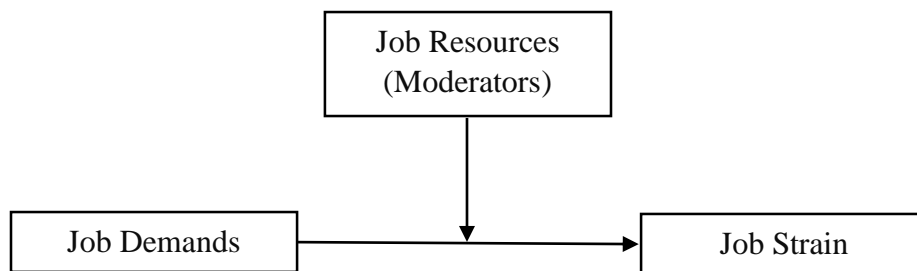
Another negative consequence resulting from poor repatriate adjustment is low levels of job and career satisfaction. In addition to low levels of job satisfaction, repatriate employees often experience low levels of career satisfaction when facing with adjustment problems. This is because many employees accept international assignments as they consider it as an opportunity to gain the additional skills and experience required for their career advancement (Stahl, Miller, & Tung, 2002; Tung, 1998). On the other hand, studies (e.g., Black et al., 1999; Caligiuri & Lazarova, 2001) have suggested that many companies lack effective repatriate management and usually fail to integrate international assignments with long-term career development. Due to poor career planning, repatriates are usually placed in positions that do not match with their abilities and preferences (Harvey & Noicevic, 2006). Consequently, repatriates often feel dissatisfied with the repatriation process, feel their international assignment had a negative career impact, and perceive that their home organizations do not appreciate their international experiences (Adler, 2002; Bolino, 2007; Hammer, Hart, & Rogan, 1998). As levels of job and career satisfaction seem to reflect the degree of repatriate adjustment, these two variables were included in the present study.

Finally, a large percentage of repatriate employees intend to leave the company after the completion of the international assignment as a result of poor repatriation processes or limited career advancement opportunities. Past studies based on U.S. companies have suggested that between 20 and 25% of repatriated employees leave their companies within a year after return (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992). Baruch, Steele, and Quantrill (2002) further conducted a qualitative study to investigate the

reasons for leaving the firm. The results indicated that approximately 50% of repatriated employees left their company within a few years after return because the company did not utilize their skills acquired during international assignments. The issues of turnover is critical to companies as they invest a large amount of money and time to send employees on international assignments. Therefore, the intention to leave the organization was included as one of the variables for measuring repatriate adjustment.

### **Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) Model**

In order to improve an understanding of repatriate adjustment, the present study applied the Job Demands-Resources (JD-R) model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007), which proposes that job resources buffer the impact of job demands on job strain as shown in Figure 3. The basic concept of the JD-R model stems from the demand-control model (Karasek, 1979) and the effort-reward imbalance model (Siegrist, 1996). Whereas those models identify particular factors related to job stress, the JD-R model categorizes these factors into two general categories: job demands and job resources.



*Figure 3.* Bakker and Demerouti's (2007) "Job Demands-Resources model"



Job demands refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that require sustained physical and/or psychological effort and are therefore associated with certain physiological and/or psychological costs. Examples are high work pressure, role overload, emotional demands, job insecurity and poor environmental conditions.

Job resources refer to those physical, psychological, social, or organizational aspects of the job that are 1) functional in achieving work goals; 2) reduce job demands and the associated physical and psychological costs; or 3) stimulate personal growth and development. Employees may find resources in various places, such as in organizational systems (e.g., salary, career opportunities, job security), interpersonal and social relations (e.g., supervisor and coworker support, team climate), the organization of work (e.g., role clarity, participation in decision making), and task characteristics (e.g., performance feedback, skill variety, task significance, task identity, autonomy).

Due to its high generalizability, the JD-R model can be applied in various occupational settings. Past studies have supported that job resources buffer the impact of job demands on job strain in cross-sectional settings. Indeed, studies with the JD-R model were conducted in various countries, cultures, and occupational groups, such as Finnish teachers (Hakanen, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2006), Australian volunteers (Lewig, Xanthopoulou, Bakker, Dollard, & Metzger, 2007), Belgian blue-collar and white-collar workers (Hansez & Chmiel, 2010), and Chinese blue-collar workers and health professionals (Hu, Schaufeli, & Taris, 2011).

### **Demands of Repatriation**

The first step to apply the JD-R model is to propose job stressors for repatriates in the workplace. Studies have identified some work and labor conditions as factors that could affect repatriates' work adjustment and generate the "reverse culture shock". Among them, the present study focused on three factors: role ambiguity, lack of pre-training, and lack of work autonomy.

#### *Role Ambiguity*

Role ambiguity is often considered as a source of job demands. Role ambiguity occurs when employees receive little or no vital information on assigned tasks (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970). The literature suggests that a lack of clarity regarding role expectations raises anxiety and distress levels (Rizzo, House & Lirtzman, 1970; Wallace et al., 2009). Role responsibilities are unclear and this discourages employees from achieving superior performance (Harris et al., 2006). Empirical research has found evidence for the negative effects of role ambiguity on job satisfaction (Eatough et al., 2011; Harris et al., 2006) and on the creativity and intrinsic motivation of employees (Coelho et al., 2011).

While expatriate employees may play roles similar to those played in their home country, the context on which their successful execution depends is significantly different. For example, studies have found that lack of job clarity negatively affects expatriates' work adjustment (Morley & Flynn, 2003; Selmer & Fenner, 2009; Selmer & Lauring, 2011). Expatriate employees often feel psychological burden due to the differences in work related values between the home and host country in addition to the

general unfamiliarity with the market and customs. At that time, working on well-defined tasks and duties on assignment helps employees to smoothly adjust to the new work environments (Benson & Pattie, 2009; Okamoto & Teo, 2012).

Role clarity seems to be an important factor to help repatriate adjustment as well. Indeed, the literature suggests that the higher the role clarity, the better the repatriate adjustment (Black et al., 1992; Black et al., 1999). With an accurate knowledge about the content of their new position back in the domestic organization, repatriates suffer less in the adjustment process. Therefore, role ambiguity is identified as a job demand in the present study.

#### *Lack of Work Autonomy*

Work autonomy is defined as the degree to which the “job provides substantial freedom, independence and discretion to the individual in scheduling work and determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out” (Hackman & Oldham, 1975). When employees are given a higher degree of work autonomy, they tend to show more positive behaviors towards complex and challenging jobs because they are intrinsically motivated, Deci and Ryan (1987) extended the concept to explain how autonomy can benefit performance. In particular, they proposed Self-Determination Theory (1987, 1990) and argued that people are more likely to endorse activities to a higher level when they have free choice in carrying their tasks. In other words, autonomy helps employees to be able to produce a high quality of performance.

In repatriation research, autonomy is considered as an important factor to facilitate repatriate adjustment to the home organizations. In particular, as repatriates

usually have a high degree of autonomy during international assignments, they often feel a lack of autonomy when they are back in their home organizations. This gap is expected to hinder their work adjustment. Indeed, research has suggested that a lower degree of autonomy after repatriation can negatively affect the repatriation adjustment process (Black et al., 1992; Black et al., 1999; Kendall, 1981). Even with a more attractive compensation package back in the home organization, repatriates often suffer from adjustment problems due to lack of autonomy (Cagney, 1975).

Work autonomy has been found to have a significant influence on repatriate adjustment in the quantitative studies made by Black (1992, 1994) and Gregersen and Stroh (1997). Black and Gregersen (1991) also found that changes in autonomy could influence repatriates' adjustment to their general life. Given the importance of autonomy in repatriate adjustment, lack of ambiguity is identified as a job demand in the present study.

#### *Lack of Preparation*

The cultural adjustment literature indicates that individuals make anticipatory adjustment before they actually encounter the new situation and that it is important that the expectations are accurate in order to facilitate adjustment. The fewer unexpected changes individuals experience, the smoother and quicker their adjustment will be. Empirical studies have also suggested that expectation of cultural differences when entering a new culture can minimize the effects of culture shock (Searle & Ward, 1990; Weissman & Fumham, 1987). That is, accuracy of expectations is the key to effective anticipatory adjustment, and thus, to actual adjustment (Eschback, Parker, & Stoerberl,

2010). In international assignments, individuals make expectations about the job, the organizational culture, the host-country nationals, and the general cultural and daily life in the foreign country (Black, 1988; Bochner, 1982; Brislin, 1981).

The main difference between culture shock and reverse culture shock is the expectations toward adjustment. Whereas individuals often expect some kinds of changes when going abroad, returners often do not expect to encounter the culture shock when reentering their home country (Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963). For this reason, companies often fail to provide adequate preparation prior to repatriation whereas pre-departure and on-site training before international assignments is commonly introduced in many organizations.

In order to give accurate information about the new environments, companies have started to promote human resource practices over the last decades. Some popular practices include a communication system with the home organization, a mentor program during and after the international assignment, training for the repatriates prior to their return, and long-term career planning. First, consistent communication between the expatriates and the home organizations during international assignments can improve their adjustment to the home organization after the repatriation (Harvey, 1982). In particular, a transparent communication system can inform expatriates about the changes in the home organizations, such as politics, work environment, and organizational changes. When the organization demonstrates the effort to keep expatriates updated, it makes them feel included and valued by the organization. Indeed, some empirical studies have shown that a good communication system reduces turnover rates after the

repatriation (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001). Second, a mentorship program can ensure the recognition of expatriates' needs and interests during international assignments. Some authors argue that having a mentor during the international assignment can give security, which helps smooth repatriate adjustment afterwards (Hurn 1999; Vermond, 2001). Third, pre-training before repatriation is recommended to provide accurate knowledge about the repatriation process. It is expected that training can reduce uncertainty about the transition process and the job that employees will perform at their home organizations (Black et al., 1992; Black et al., 1999). Lastly, effective career management for expatriates should be planned well. As many expatriate employees consider the international assignment a prerequisite for promotion into higher positions, a lack of career planning often leads them to leave the company. Some empirical studies have found that providing a professional career plan reduces the turnover rates of repatriates (Lazarova & Caligiuri, 2001; Stroh, 1995). Therefore, the present study included various kinds of organizational practices to prepare for repatriation.

### **Resources for Repatriation**

The second step to apply the JD-R model is to identify repatriate characteristics as moderators of the relationship between job demands (i.e., role ambiguity, lack of preparation, and lack of work autonomy) and job strain (i.e., repatriate adjustment, stress, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and intention to leave). In the application of the JD-R model in general settings, many researchers (e.g., e.g. Haines et al. 1991; Johnson & Hall, 1988) suggest that social support is the most well-known and important variable that has been proposed as a potential buffer against strain. However, in the examination of

repatriate adjustment, it is difficult to control the influence of a situational factor because repatriate employees' experiences are located in two different situations (i.e., host country and home country). That is, it is expected that personal factors play a more significant role in the process of repatriate adjustment.

### *Openness*

One of the most famous and popular conceptualizations of personality is the Five Factor Model, also known as the Big Five (Barrick & Mount, 1991; Costa & McCrae, 1992; Piedmont, 1998). This model suggests five central personality traits: openness, conscientiousness, extraversion, agreeableness, and neuroticism.

In the context of cultural transition, past studies have suggested that openness is associated with cultural adjustment (e.g., Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Black, 1990; Cui & van den Berg, 1991; Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997). Openness refers to individual's willingness to try alternative ways of doing things, intellectual curiosity, and readiness to explore various social values that are contrary to familiar ones (Costa & McCrae, 1993). The above characteristics seem to play a significant role for successful cultural adjustment in an environment with experiences that are new, unexpected, and different from what is familiar for individuals. The ability to figure out cultural and communication norms in a new environment may help them to enjoy social interactions with locals. For instance, Ones and Viswesvaran (1997) suggested that openness predicts communication competence in expatriate executives. Overall, other researchers (e.g., Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Black, 1990; Cui & van den Berg, 1991) also agree that openness and flexibility help expatriates to adjust in an unfamiliar culture and enjoy social interactions in a host

country. Although openness has not been looked at as an important predictor of repatriate adjustment, repatriates are also required to immerse themselves in an unfamiliar environment. That is, individuals with high levels of openness are expected to readjust to home organizations better.

### *Cultural Intelligence (CQ)*

Cultural intelligence (CQ) refers to “a person’s ability to adapt effectively to a new cultural context” (Earley & Ang, 2003, p. 59). This concept focuses primarily on a specific domain of intelligence (i.e., intelligence in intercultural settings). Thomas and his colleagues (2008) later criticized these original definitions because they fail to specify the differences with other similar constructs, such as intercultural competency, global mindset, and social intelligence. Therefore, they newly defined cultural intelligence as “a system of interacting knowledge and skills, linked by cultural metacognition, that allows people to adapt to, select, and shape the cultural aspects of their environments” (Thomas et al. 2008). As intelligent behavior may differ from one cultural environment to another (e.g., Cole et al., 1971), it is certainly important to define cultural intelligence as knowledge and skills that are developed in a specific cultural context. In particular, cultural knowledge refers to a combination of a declarative knowledge (e.g., knowledge about cultures, social interactions, and personal history) and a procedural knowledge (e.g., knowledge about problem-solving). On the other hand, there are two types of skills: 1) perceptual skills and adaptive skills. Whereas perceptual skills mean paying attention to and appreciating critical differences in culture, adaptive skills involves being able to exhibit behavior that is appropriate to the cross cultural interaction context. According to



Kim et al. (2006), individuals with higher levels of CQ will be better adjusted to work and non-work environments in the host country because it is possible that individuals with higher CQ gain more appropriate emotional and informational support within their adapted environment. Although past studies have not included CQ as a predictor of repatriate adjustment, it is expected that high CQ will help repatriates to adjust not only to host organizations but also home organizations.

### *Proactivity*

Grant and Ashford (2008) define proactive behavior as “anticipatory action that employees take to impact themselves and/or their environments.” These behaviors are: information seeking (Miller & Jablin, 1991; Morrison, 1993), social network building (Morrison, 2002; Ostroff & Kozlowski, 1992), feedback seeking (Ashford, et al., 2003), positive framing (Taylor & Brown, 1988; Wanberg & Kammeyer-Mueller, 2000), and negotiation of job changes (Ashford & Black, 1996). Researchers have argued that individuals with proactive personalities and behaviors are more likely to adjust to new work environments (Grant & Ashford, 2008).

Proactive expatriates do not wait for information and opportunities to come to them; rather they seek to find out on their own answers to their questions and solutions to work problems (Crant, 2000). Individuals with a proactive personality, tend to be less constrained by their environment and situational forces and actively seek to identify new opportunities. Those without proactive tendencies, however, do not look for opportunities and fail to take advantage of them when they do arise. Empirically, studies have shown

that expatriate adjustment was greater among international assignees who engaged in proactive behaviors (Bolino, 2010).

As repatriates go through a similar adjustment process as expatriates do, it is expected that repatriate employees with a proactive personality will adjust better in home organizations.

### **The Present Study**

The present study looked into predictors of repatriate adjustment on U.S. business employees. More specifically, the study applied the Job Demands and Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) to investigate factors related to repatriate adjustment. The first part of the study proposed that three organizational factors (role ambiguity, absence of pre-training, and lack of work autonomy) would inhibit adjustment of repatriates.

Based on existing literature reviews, the following hypotheses were proposed:

*Hypothesis 1: Repatriated employees who perceive higher levels of role ambiguity will report lower levels of overall adjustment.*

*Hypothesis 2: Repatriated employees who perceived higher levels of work autonomy will report higher levels of overall adjustment.*

*Hypothesis 3: Repatriated employees who receive preparation prior to repatriation will report higher levels of overall adjustment.*

The second part of this study proposes that three personal characteristics (openness, cultural intelligence, and proactivity) will minimize the negative effects of the job demands on repatriate adjustment. Based on existing literature reviews, the following hypotheses have been proposed:

*Hypothesis 4: Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between role ambiguity and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for repatriated employees with higher levels of those characteristics.*

*Hypothesis 5: Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between work autonomy and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for repatriated employees with higher levels of those characteristics.*

*Hypothesis 6: Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between pre-training and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for repatriated employees with higher levels of those characteristics.*

**Model**

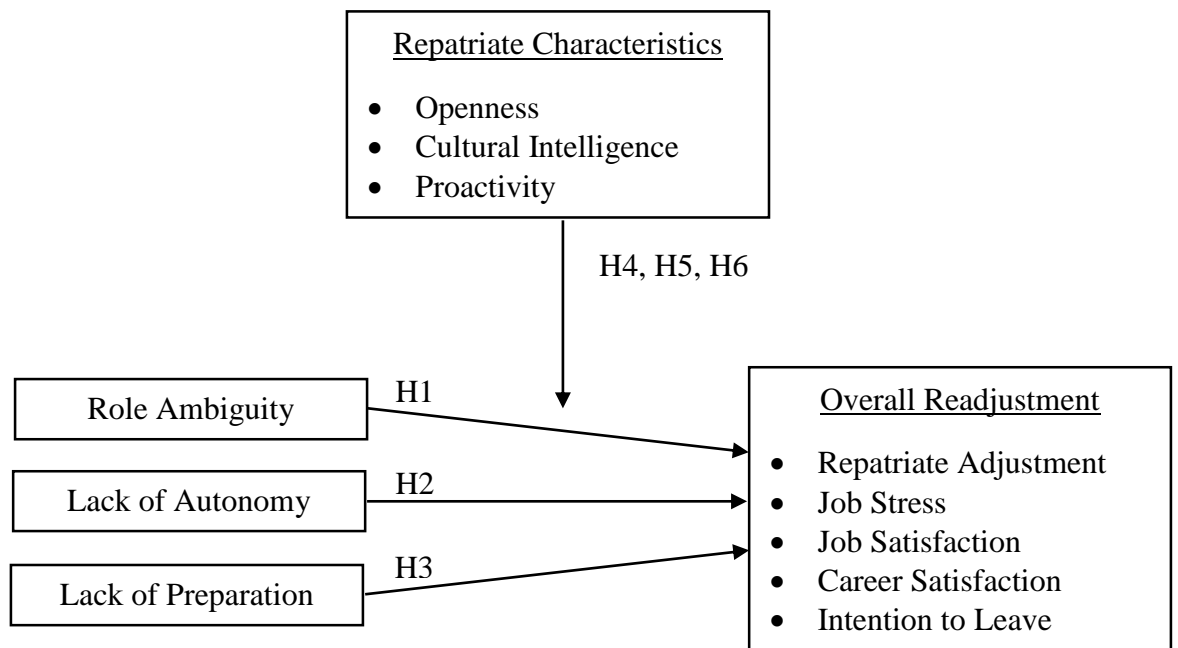


Figure 4. A model of the present study

## Method

### Participants

Participants were recruited from an online panel through Qualtrics, a company that specializes in administering surveys to representative samples of a population. From the sample panel, they solicited respondents who had experienced an international business assignment for at least three months and came back to their home organizations within the past year.

There were 56 respondents used in analyses, 35 were male and 21 were female. Half (50.0%) of respondents aged between 31 and 40, and 23.2% of them aged between 21 and 30. The majority of employees surveyed were married (57.1%), and approximately 32% were single who had never married. The majority of respondents had some college education (80%), with 28.6% earned post-graduate degree. The participants varied in their ethnicity: 67.9% Caucasian, 14.3% Hispanic, 8.9% African American, and 7.1% Asian.

The majority of respondents (89.3%) indicated that their home organizations are located in North America. Their international assignments took place in various areas: Europe 25.0 %, North America 23.2%, Asia 21.4%, South America 19.6%, Central America 7.1% and Africa 3.6%. The length of recent assignments completed by most respondents were less than 2 years (less than 1 year 46.4%, 1-2 years 23.2%), and they have been back to their home organizations for less than 2 years (less than 1 year 39.3%, 1-2 years 42.6%). The majority of respondents (57.1%) have completed 2-4 international assignments in total in the past.

## **Procedures**

The panel members received the online survey through Qualtrics. A brief introduction and an informed consent form were given to those who confirmed that they met the study requirements. Then, those who agreed to participate in the study were given the questionnaire. Their participation in this study was completely voluntary, and their responses were treated anonymously. In order to prevent poor-quality responses, the survey contained three attention check questions. The respondents who did not answer the attention check questions correctly were considered as invalid responses and removed from data analysis.

## **Measures**

### *Demographic Information*

The demographic questionnaire included items assessing participants' age, gender, ethnicity, education, locations of home and host organizations, length of most recent overseas assignments, and number of overseas assignments completed in the past. All demographic questions can be seen in Appendix A.

### *Openness*

The Big-Five Factors Markers from the International Personality Item Pool (Goldberg, 1992) were used to assess openness. In particular, intellectual or imagination facet (10 items, Cronbach's alpha = .88) was used. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with items such as "I am quick to understand things" and "I have a vivid imagination" on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix B.

### *Cultural Intelligence*

Cultural Intelligence Scale (Thomas et al., 2008) was used to assess cultural intelligence. The scale contains three facets of cultural intelligence including Knowledge (13 items), Relational Skills (6 items), and Adaptability Skills (5 items). Cronbach's alpha for the 24 items in total was .85. For Knowledge items, participants were asked to "indicate the response that best describes [their] level[s] of knowledge about the item in the host country's culture" on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*I have no knowledge about this*) to 5 (*I have very extensive knowledge about this*). Sample item includes "how much time passes before someone is considered late." For Relational and Adaptability Skills, the participants were instructed to "think of situations in which [they] have interacted with people from a different culture either at home or in a foreign country" and respond to items on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include "I enjoy initiating conversations with someone from a different culture" (Relational Skills) and "In different cultural situations and with culturally different people, I can change my behavior" (Adaptability Skills). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix C.

### *Proactivity*

The Proactive Behavior Scale (Ashford & Black, 1996) was used to measure proactivity. Across 15 items, participants were asked to indicate how frequently they engaged in the proactive behaviors during a regular work week in international assignments on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*very infrequently*) to 7 (*very frequently*). Cronbach's alpha was .88. Sample items include "I tried to learn about local

business practices” (Information Seeking), “I tried to socialize with host country nationals” (Relationship Building), “I sought feedback on my performance after completing important tasks” (Feedback Seeking), “I tried to negotiate with supervisors and/or coworkers changes I would like to see implemented in my international assignment” (Negotiation of Job Changes), and “I tried to see my assignment as a challenge rather than a problem” (Positive Framing). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix D.

#### *Role Ambiguity*

The Role Ambiguity measure by Rizzo, et al, 1970) was used to measure role ambiguity. Cronbach’s alpha is .71-.95. Across six items participants were asked to indicate how accurate the statements are in describing their jobs on a seven-point scale ranging 1 (*very inaccurate*) to 7 (*very accurate*). Sample items include “There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job” and “I know exactly what is expected of me”. The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix E.

#### *Work Autonomy*

The Job Control Measure (Stephens, 2001) was used to measure work autonomy. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with three items such as “I am responsible for deciding how much work gets done in my job” on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). In addition to the three item Job Control Measure, two items were added to assess whether they participated in decision-making processes regarding expatriation and repatriation. The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix F.



*Preparation*

The Organizational Support Practices Scale (Pattie & While, 2010) was used to assess preparation prior to repatriation. Participants were instructed to “indicate which of the following repatriate support practices that [their] organizations offered” by checking all items that apply. Sample items include “Training programs on recent technologies used in the home office”, “Newsletter while on overseas assignment”, and “A reentry sponsor”. The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix G.

*Repatriate Adjustment*

A modified version of the Expatriate Adjustment Scale (Black & Stephens, 1989) was used to assess repatriate adjustment. The scale contains three facets of adjustment including General Adjustment (7 items,  $\alpha = .82$ ), Interaction Adjustment (4 items,  $\alpha = .89$ ), and Work Adjustment (3 items,  $\alpha = .91$ ). Scale reliabilities were reported by Black (1989). As Black and Gregersen (1991) argued, because repatriation adjustment is considered a cross-cultural adjustment process, the use of the expatriate adjustment measure with minor wording modifications would be appropriate and reliable for repatriation adjustment as well. Participants were asked to “indicate how much [they] are adjusted to [their] home country/organization after repatriation” on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Sample items include “Living conditions in general”, “Cost of living” (General Adjustment), “Speaking with Americans” (Interaction Adjustment), and “Performance standards and expectations” (Work Adjustment). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix H.

*Job Stress*

The Job Stress Scale (Crank, Regoli, Hewitt, & Culbertson, 1995) was used to measure job stress. Cronbach's alpha was .82. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with five items such as "A lot of times my job makes me very frustrated or angry" on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix I.

#### *Job Satisfaction*

The Job Satisfaction Scale (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979) was used to assess job satisfaction. Participants were asked to indicate their levels of satisfaction with ten items such as "Amount of variety in job" and "Colleagues and fellow workers" on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 (*extremely dissatisfied*) to 5 (*extremely satisfied*). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix J.

#### *Career Satisfaction*

The International Career Satisfaction Scale (Dunbar & Ehrlich, 1993) was used to assess career satisfaction. Cronbach's alpha was .82. Participants were asked to indicate their responses with six items such as "The position was a step in my long-range career development" on a four-point scale ranging from 1 (*not at all true*) to 5 (*very true*). The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix K.

#### *Intention to Leave*

The Intention to Quit Measure (Wayne, Shore, & Liden, 1997) was used to measure intention to leave. Cronbach's alpha was .89. Participants were asked to indicate their agreement with five items such as "As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my

company” on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*).

The full scale for the present study can be found in Appendix L.

## Results

### Scales

Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, and correlations for all the antecedent and adjustment variables. Overall, the reliability for most scales was high ( $\alpha > .80$ ). Although the reliability for Career Satisfaction Scale was relatively lower ( $\alpha = .66$ ), it was close enough to .70, which is considered acceptable in most social science research situations (Nunnally, 1978). Reliabilities of repatriation preparation were not provided because a checklist was used to measure the number of support practices provided by companies.

Although two types of cultural intelligence (i.e., knowledge and skill) were highly correlated to each other, I decided to separate them in data analysis because participants were asked to evaluate the items in different types of Likert scales. Specifically, for cultural knowledge, the levels of knowledge were assessed in a scale ranging from 1 (*I have no knowledge about this*) to 5 (*I have very extensive knowledge about this*). On the other hand, for cultural skill, the levels of agreement were assessed in a scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Table 1

*Descriptive Statistics and Correlations of All Variables*

Scale	Range	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. CQ (Knowledge)	1-5	3.8	.96	1.00 (.96)											
2. CQ (Skill)	1-7	5.3	.97	.66**	1.00 (.81)										
3. Openness	1-5	4.1	.58	.55**	.68**	1.00 (.80)									
4. Proactive Behavior	1-7	4.0	.80	.71**	.85**	.72**	1.00 (.96)								
5. Role Ambiguity	1-7	4.3	.83	.64**	.72**	.68**	.77**	1.00 (.93)							
6. Work Autonomy	1-5	4.0	.88	.66**	.57**	.62**	.74**	.79**	1.00 (.90)						
7. Preparation	0-13	4.5	3.30	.40**	.43**	.30*	.36*	.33*	.30*	--					
8. Repatriation Adjustment	1-7	5.7	1.12	.55**	.68**	.66**	.68**	.75**	.64**	.27*	1.00 (.96)				
9. Job Stress	1-5	2.5	.98	-.16	-.28**	-.13**	-.20	-.28*	-.27*	-.12	-.23	1.00 (.86)			
10. Job Satisfaction	1-6	4.7	.95	.62	.59	.54**	.68**	.63**	.75**	.35**	.59**	-.31*	1.00 (.95)		
11. Career Satisfaction	1-5	3.5	.56	.40	.48**	.43**	.51**	.60**	.51**	.25	.37**	.53**	.53**	1.00 (.66)	
12. Intention to Quit	1-5	2.3	1.06	-.22	-.38**	-.28*	-.28*	-.38**	-.27*	-.26	-.24	.72**	-.26	-.59**	1.00 (.80)

*Note.* N=56. Numbers in parentheses are reliability coefficients. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$ .

To test the first three hypotheses, a series of multiple regression were performed to predict five dependent variables (i.e., repatriate adjustment, job stress, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and intention to leave) based on three independent variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation).

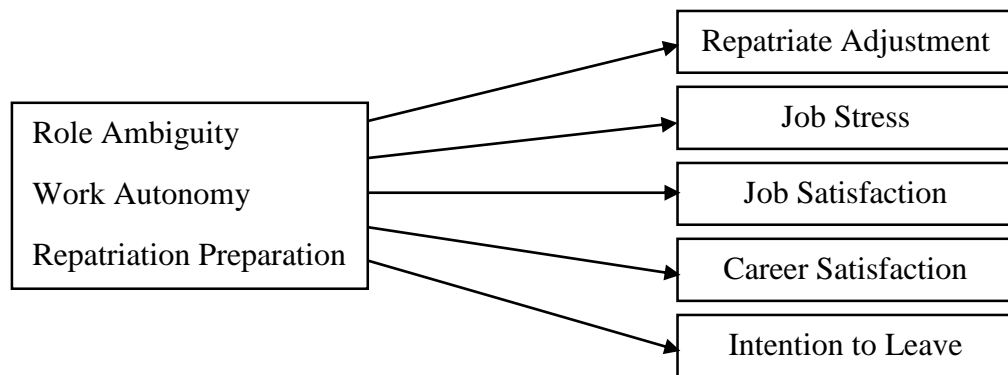


Figure 5. Multiple Regression Model

The first regression examined the relationship between the hypothesized relevant set of variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation) and repatriate adjustment. As shown in Table 2, the results showed that role ambiguity ( $\beta=.86, p<.001$ ) was the only significant predictor,  $F(3, 52)=22.63, p<.001$ . Approximately 57% of the variance in repatriate adjustment is explained by the antecedents.

The second regression examined the relationship between the hypothesized relevant set of variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation) and job stress. As shown in Table 2, it found there was no significant predictor,  $F(3, 52)=1.66, ns$ .

The third regression examined the relationship between the hypothesized relevant set of variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation) and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 2, the results showed that work autonomy ( $\beta=.71$ ,  $p<.001$ ) was the only significant predictor,  $F(3, 52)=24.44$ ,  $p<.001$ . Approximately 59% of the variance in job satisfaction is explained by the antecedents.

The fourth regression examined the relationship between the hypothesized relevant set of variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation) and career satisfaction. As shown in Table 2, it found that role ambiguity ( $\beta=.35$ ,  $p<.05$ ) was the only significant predictor,  $F(3, 52)=10.12$ ,  $p<.001$ . Approximately 37% of the variance in career satisfaction is explained by the antecedents.

Lastly, the fifth regression examined the relationship between the hypothesized relevant set of variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and repatriation preparation) and intention to leave. The results showed that there was no significant predictor, although the combination of three variables significantly predicted intention to leave,  $F(3, 52)=3.48$ ,  $p<.05$ . Approximately 16% of the variance in intention to quit is explained by the antecedents.

To sum up, hypothesis 1 was partially supported. Specifically, repatriated employees who perceived higher levels of role ambiguity reported lower levels of repatriation adjustment and career satisfaction. Hypothesis 2 was also partially supported. Repatriated employees who perceived less autonomy reported lower levels of job satisfaction. Lastly, hypothesis 3 was not supported. For ease of interpretation, a summary of the results is shown in Table 2.

Table 2

*Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses (IV=Organizational Factors)*

Variable	Repatriate Adjustment			Job Stress			Job Satisfaction			Career Satisfaction			Intention to Quit		
	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$
<b>RA</b>	.846	.205	.626**	-.198	.258	-.169	.069	.169	.061	.353	.123	.526*	-.501	.267	-.395
<b>WA</b>	.181	.190	.142	-.146	.239	-.132	.712	.157	.664**	.047	.114	.074	.100	.247	.084
<b>RP</b>	.009	.033	.026	-.009	.041	-.030	.040	.027	.141	.010	.020	.060	-.049	.047	-.155
$R^2$	.566			.088			.585			.370			.167		
Sig.	.000			.186			.000			.000			.022		

*Note.* RA=Role Ambiguity, WA=Work Autonomy, RP=Repatriate Preparation. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$



The second part of the study was to examine the moderating effects of repatriate characteristics on the relation between organizational factors and overall repatriate adjustment. According to Baron and Kenny (1986), moderation is implied if the strength of the relationship between two variables changes as a function of the moderator variable. In this study, independent variables are role ambiguity, lack of preparation, and lack of work autonomy, whereas dependent variables are overall readjustment (i.e., repatriate adjustment, job stress, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and intention to leave). Moderator variables are the resources represented by four repatriate characteristics (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity).

To test the last three hypotheses, a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted. After centering the three independent variables (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and preparation) and the four moderators (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill and proactivity) and computing the interaction terms (i.e., the product of each independent variable by each moderator), the predictors and the interactions were entered into a simultaneous regression model (See Table 2 for role ambiguity, Table 3 for work autonomy, and Table 4 for preparation). The results indicated 2 significant findings.

The first finding was that the interaction between cultural knowledge and preparation was significant ( $\beta = -1.09$ ,  $p = .004$ ) on career satisfaction,  $F(9, 46) = 3.702$ ,  $p = .035$ , meaning that low levels of repatriate preparation are associated with low levels of career satisfaction. However, those with low to medium levels of cultural knowledge benefit more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction (See Figure 6). Overall,

approximately 42% of the variance in career satisfaction is explained by the antecedents and interactions.

The second finding was that the interaction between cultural skill and preparation was significant ( $\beta=.537, p=.045$ ) on career satisfaction,  $F(9, 46)=3.702, p=.035$ , meaning that the higher cultural skill repatriated employees had, the higher levels of career satisfaction they reported. However, those who had higher levels of cultural skill benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction (See Figure 7). As reported earlier in the first significant finding, approximately 42% of the variance in career satisfaction is explained by the antecedents and interactions.

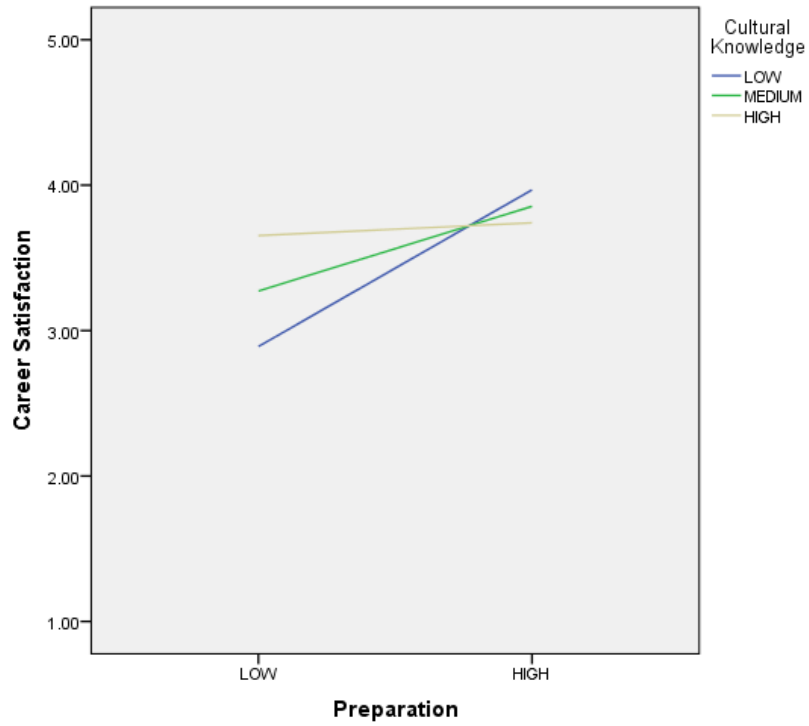


Figure 6. The interaction of cultural knowledge and preparation on career satisfaction

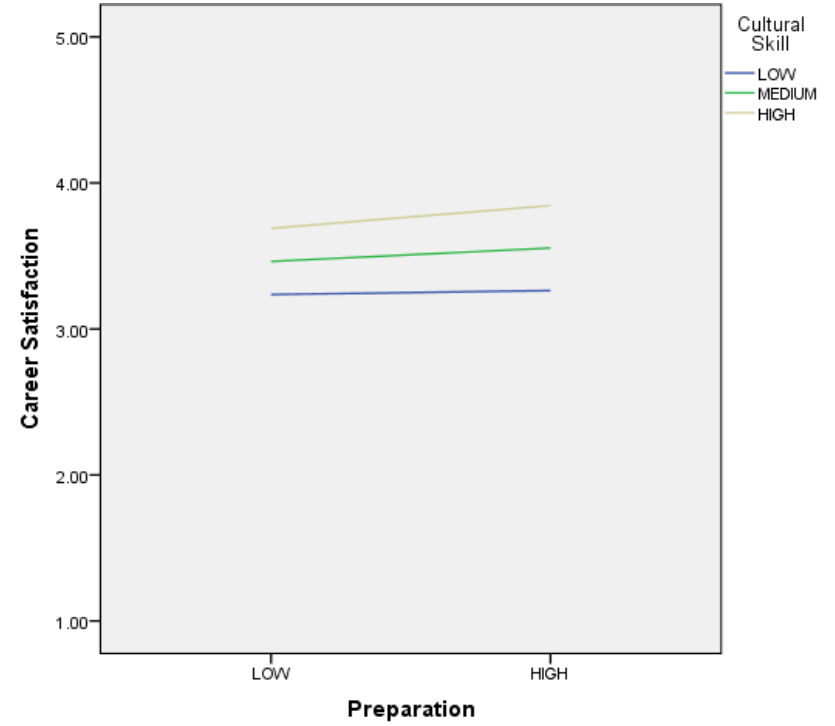


Figure 7. The interaction of cultural skill and preparation on career satisfaction

To sum up, hypothesis 4 and 5 were not supported. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported. Cultural knowledge moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction. In particular, the less repatriated employees received preparation prior to repatriation, the lower levels of career satisfaction they reported, and those who had lower levels on cultural knowledge benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction. Another significant result was that cultural skill moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction. Specifically, the higher cultural skill repatriated employees had, the higher levels of career satisfaction they reported, and those who had higher levels of cultural skill benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction.

Table 2

Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses (IV=Role Ambiguity)

Repatriate Adjustment			Job Stress			Job Satisfaction			Career Satisfaction			Intention to Quit		
Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.
<b>Step 1</b>			<b>Step 1</b>			<b>Step 1</b>			<b>Step 1</b>			<b>Step 1</b>		
$R^2=.618, p<.001^{**}$			$R^2=.125, p=.229$			$R^2=.496, p<.001^{**}$			$R^2=.371, p<.001^{**}$			$R^2=.197, p=.046^*$		
<b>RA</b>	.453	.003	<b>RA</b>	-.331	.143	<b>RA</b>	.246	.152	<b>RA</b>	.521	.008	<b>RA</b>	-.344	.113
<b>CQK</b>	.008	.948	<b>CQK</b>	.045	.817	<b>CQK</b>	.019	.898	<b>CQK</b>	-.030	.856	<b>CQK</b>	.074	.690
<b>CQS</b>	.198	.257	<b>CQS</b>	-.378	.156	<b>CQS</b>	-.047	.816	<b>CQS</b>	.041	.856	<b>CQS</b>	-.445	.083
<b>OP</b>	.207	.127	<b>OP</b>	.173	.394	<b>OP</b>	.038	.804	<b>OP</b>	-.023	.895	<b>OP</b>	-.020	.918
<b>PRO</b>	.006	.975	<b>PRO</b>	.222	.469	<b>PRO</b>	.493	.038	<b>PRO</b>	.114	.659	<b>PRO</b>	.323	.273
<b>Step 2</b>			<b>Step 2</b>			<b>Step 2</b>			<b>Step 2</b>			<b>Step 2</b>		
$\Delta R^2=.027, p=.477$			$\Delta R^2=.078, p=.356$			$\Delta R^2=.089, p=.058$			$\Delta R^2=.099, p=.089$			$\Delta R^2=.063, p=.432$		
<b>RAx CQK</b>	.115	.768	<b>RAx CQK</b>	.276	.635	<b>RAx CQK</b>	-.054	.899	<b>RAx CQK</b>	-.652	.174	<b>RAx CQK</b>	.363	.518
<b>RAx CQS</b>	-.041	.933	<b>RAx CQS</b>	-.134	.855	<b>RAx CQS</b>	.851	.114	<b>RAx CQS</b>	1.21	.048	<b>RAx CQS</b>	-.641	.367
<b>RAx OP</b>	-.407	.152	<b>RAx OP</b>	-.594	.163	<b>RAx OP</b>	.131	.666	<b>RAx OP</b>	.210	.542	<b>RAx OP</b>	-.617	.133
<b>RAx PRO</b>	.184	.783	<b>RAx PRO</b>	.176	.860	<b>RAx PRO</b>	-.581	.423	<b>RAx PRO</b>	-.555	.497	<b>RAx PRO</b>	.867	.370

Note. RA=Role Ambiguity, CQK=Cultural Knowledge, CQS=Cultural Skill, OP=Openness, PRO=Proactivity.

\* $p<.05$ , \*\* $p<.001$ .

Table 3

Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses (IV=Work Autonomy)

Repatriate Adjustment			Job Stress			Job Satisfaction			Career Satisfaction			Intention to Quit		
Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.
<b>Step 1</b>														
$R^2=.583, p<.001^*$			$R^2=.153, p=.128$			$R^2=.611, p<.001^*$			$R^2=.311, p=.002^*$			$R^2=.175, p=.079$		
WA	.315	.038	WA	-.419	.053	WA	.599	.000	WA	.310	.110	WA	-.225	.285
CQK	-.012	.932	CQK	.112	.572	CQK	-.110	.412	CQK	-.039	.828	CQK	.086	.660
CQS	.357	.061	CQS	-.554	.042	CQS	.176	.332	CQS	.206	.393	CQS	-.561	.073
OP	.252	.073	OP	.176	.372	OP	-.019	.889	OP	.039	.828	OP	-.057	.771
PRO	-.031	.892	PRO	.378	.245	PRO	.182	.408	PRO	.107	.713	PRO	.342	.286
<b>Step 2</b>														
$\Delta R^2=.081, p=.039^*$			$\Delta R^2=.057, p=.509$			$\Delta R^2=.034, p=.364$			$\Delta R^2=.044, p=.541$			$\Delta R^2=.053, p=.540$		
WAxCQK	.472	.112	WAxCQK	.299	.507	WAxCQK	-.276	.362	WAxCQK	-.503	.219	WAxCQK	.354	.426
WAxCQS	-.715	.063	WAxCQS	.229	.693	WAxCQS	.004	.991	WAxCQS	.478	.362	WAxCQS	-.217	.704
WAxOP	-.342	.106	WAxOP	-.433	.181	WAxOP	.206	.339	WAxOP	.264	.364	WAxOP	-.417	.192
WAxPRO	.391	.330	WAxPRO	-.257	.675	WAxPRO	.242	.556	WAxPRO	-.174	.753	WAxPRO	.356	.556

Note. WA=Work Autonomy, CQK=Cultural Knowledge, CQS=Cultural Skill, OP=Openness, PRO=Proactivity.

\* $p<.05$ , \*\* $p<.001$ .

Table 4

Summary of Moderated Regression Analyses (IV=Repatriation Preparation)

Repatriate Adjustment			Job Stress			Job Satisfaction			Career Satisfaction			Intention to Quit		
Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.	Variable	$\beta$	Sig.
<b>Step 1</b>														
$R^2=.546, p<.001^{**}$			$R^2=.087, p=.458$			$R^2=.484, p<.001^{**}$			$R^2=.277, p=.005^*$			$R^2=.168, p=.093$		
<b>RP</b>	-.037	.733	<b>RP</b>	-.004	.981	<b>RP</b>	.114	.322	<b>RP</b>	.056	.682	<b>RP</b>	-.124	.397
<b>CQK</b>	.084	.549	<b>CQK</b>	-.003	.988	<b>CQK</b>	.027	.857	<b>CQK</b>	.033	.851	<b>CQK</b>	.054	.776
<b>CQS</b>	.271	.166	<b>CQS</b>	-.419	.132	<b>CQS</b>	-.062	.766	<b>CQS</b>	.084	.730	<b>CQS</b>	-.439	.099
<b>OP</b>	.312	.031	<b>OP</b>	.049	.628	<b>OP</b>	.094	.534	<b>OP</b>	.097	.588	<b>OP</b>	-.098	.608
<b>PRO</b>	.178	.403	<b>PRO</b>	.092	.760	<b>PRO</b>	.609	.009	<b>PRO</b>	.328	.224	<b>PRO</b>	.167	.560
<b>Step 2</b>														
$\Delta R^2=.026, p=.601$			$\Delta R^2=.137, p=.107$			$\Delta R^2=.078, p=.103$			$\Delta R^2=.143, p=.035^*$			$\Delta R^2=.063, p=.451$		
<b>RPxCQK</b>	-.276	.376	<b>RPxCQK</b>	.819	.055	<b>RPxCQK</b>	-.276	.097	<b>RPxCQK</b>	-1.09	.004	<b>RPxCQK</b>	.354	.077
<b>RPxCQS</b>	-.144	.522	<b>RPxCQS</b>	-.098	.745	<b>RPxCQS</b>	.004	.390	<b>RPxCQS</b>	.537	.045	<b>RPxCQS</b>	-.217	.368
<b>RPxOP</b>	-.127	.513	<b>RPxOP</b>	-.285	.279	<b>RPxOP</b>	.206	.361	<b>RPxOP</b>	.518	.486	<b>RPxOP</b>	-.417	.577
<b>RPxPRO</b>	.532	.108	<b>RPxPRO</b>	-.687	.123	<b>RPxPRO</b>	.242	.036	<b>RPxPRO</b>	.312	.414	<b>RPxPRO</b>	.356	.460

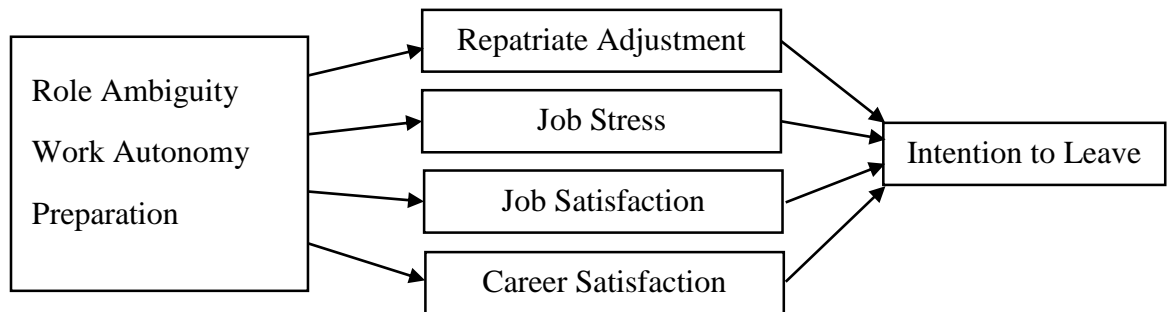
Note. RP=Repatriation Preparation, CQK=Cultural Knowledge, CQS=Cultural Skill, OP=Openness, PRO=Proactivity.

\* $p<.05$ , \*\* $p<.001$ .

**Additional Analyses**

*Intention to Leave*

In order to investigate the role of intention to leave as a consequence of overall repatriate adjustment (i.e., repatriate adjustment, job stress, job satisfaction, and career satisfaction), a multiple regression was performed. As shown in Table 5, the results showed that job stress ( $\beta=.576, p<.001$ ) and career satisfaction ( $\beta=-.323, p<.05$ ) were significant predictors,  $F(4, 51)=18.20, p<.001$ , meaning the higher job stress repatriated employees experience, the more likely they leave their companies. It also suggests that the lower career satisfaction they experience, the more likely they leave their companies. Overall, approximately 59% of the variance in intention to leave is explained by the antecedents.

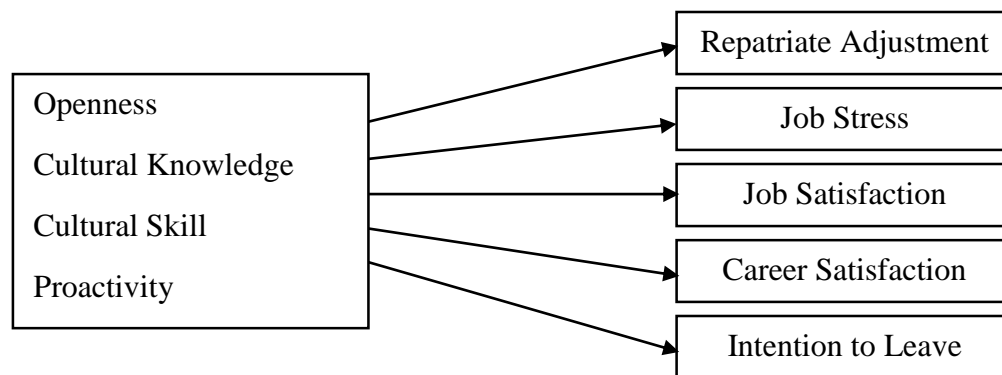


*Figure 8. A Modified Regression Model*



*Personal Characteristics*

In order to enhance the understanding of the factors predicting repatriate adjustment, a series of multiple regression were performed to predict five dependent variables (i.e., repatriate adjustment, job stress, job satisfaction, career satisfaction, and intention to leave) using openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity as predictors instead of moderators.



*Figure 9.* Multiple Regression Model

The first regression examined the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) and repatriate adjustment. As shown in Table 6, the results showed that openness ( $\beta=.311$ ,  $p=.030$ ) was the only significant predictor,  $F(4, 51)=15.30$ ,  $p<.001$ . Approximately 56% of the variance in repatriate adjustment is explained by the antecedents.

The second regression examined the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) and job stress. As shown in Table 6, it found there was no significant predictor,  $F(4, 51)=1.21$ ,  $p>.05$ .

The third regression examined the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) and job satisfaction. As shown in Table 6, the results showed that proactivity ( $\beta=.589$   $p=.011$ ) was the only significant predictor,  $F(4, 51)=11.50$ ,  $p<.001$ . Approximately 47% of the variance in job satisfaction is explained by the antecedents.

The fourth regression examined the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) and career satisfaction. Although the results showed that there was no significant predictor, the combination of three variables significantly predicted career satisfaction,  $F(4, 51)=4.83$ ,  $p<.05$ . Approximately 28% of the variance in repatriate adjustment is explained by the antecedents.

Lastly, the fifth regression examined the relationship between the antecedents (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) and intention to leave. As shown in Table 6, it found there was no significant predictor,  $F(4, 51)=2.35$ ,  $p=ns$ .

To sum up these additional analyses between personal characteristics and overall repatriate adjustment, two significant results are found. First, the higher levels of openness repatriated employees had, the higher levels of repatriate adjustment they reported. The second finding was that the higher levels of proactivity repatriated employees possessed, the higher levels of job satisfaction they reported.

Table 5

Summary of Multiple Regression Analysis (DV=Intention to Leave)

Variable	B	SE(B)	$\beta$
Repatriate Adjustment	-.054	.159	-.057
Job Stress	.624	.215	.576**
Job Satisfaction	.136	.269	.122
Career Satisfaction	-.609	.294	-.323*
$R^2$	.556		
Sig.	.000		

Note. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$

Table 6

Summary of Multiple Regression Analyses

Variable	Repatriate Adjustment			Job Stress			Job Satisfaction			Career Satisfaction			Intention to Quit		
	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$	B	SE(B)	$\beta$
<b>OP</b>	.602	.159	.311*	.163	.331	.097	.703	.244	.095	.094	.169	.047	-.180	.345	-.099
<b>CQK</b>	.088	.215	.075	-.004	.196	-.004	.055	.145	.055	.027	.100	.107	.026	.204	.024
<b>CQS</b>	.295	.269	.256	-.421	.264	-.420	-.015	.194	-.015	.061	.135	.097	-.529	.275	-.489
<b>PRO</b>	.260	.294	.184	.114	.331	.093	.703	.267	.589*	.224	.185	.318	.250	.377	.188
$R^2$	.545			.087			.474			.275			.155		
Sig.	.000			.319			.000			.002			.067		

Note. OP=Openness, CQK=Cultural Knowledge, CQS=Cultural Skill, PRO=Proactivity. \* $p < .05$ , \*\* $p < .001$

### **Discussion**

The present study aimed to investigate organizational factors and personal characteristics that are either detrimental or beneficial to repatriate adjustment. In particular, the present research applied the Job Demands-Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) and proposed three job demands (i.e., job ambiguity, lack of work autonomy, and lack of preparation) and three job resources (i.e., openness, cultural intelligence, and proactivity) that might impact repatriate adjustment. It was hypothesized that those three job demands would predict low levels of overall repatriate adjustment (i.e., low levels of repatriate adjustment, high levels of job stress, low levels of job and career satisfaction, and high levels of intention to quit). It was also hypothesized that those three job resources would moderate the relationships between the job resources and overall repatriate adjustment.

From multiple regression analyses, the results suggested that repatriated employees experience role ambiguity also experience difficulty readjusting to their home organization and career dissatisfaction. As discussed in literature reviews, the results confirmed that lack of role clarity negatively affects repatriate adjustment. Consequently, this might lead them not be able to see the value of the international experiences for the advancement of their career development.

Another important finding was that repatriated employees who experience greater autonomy are more satisfied with their jobs. As past studies have suggested, employees with work autonomy are more likely to be motivated and engaged in challenging tasks, which probably leads them to attain high levels of job satisfaction. Especially because

repatriated employees often possess high levels of work autonomy during international assignments (Kendall, 1981), providing work autonomy with them in home organizations is certainly an important factor to maintain their job satisfaction.

Contrary to hypotheses, job stress and intention to leave were not predicted by any of the job demands (i.e., role ambiguity, lack of work autonomy, and lack of preparation) used in this study. It is important to notice that the average scores on job stress and intention to leave were quite low compared to scores on other dependent variables (See Table 1). As the relationship between the three antecedents (i.e., role ambiguity, work autonomy, and preparation) and job stress have been reported in numerous past studies on repatriation (Berry, 2006), it is possible that the participants in the present study did not represent the target population.

On the other hand, intention to leave did not have a significant relationship with the antecedents probably because it is often considered as a consequence of repatriate adjustment rather than job demands. Indeed, additional analyses investigated the relationship between overall repatriate adjustment and intention to leave, and the results found that a set of variables (i.e., repatriate adjustment, job stress, job satisfaction, and career satisfaction) effectively predict that intention to leave. In particular, job stress and career satisfaction were significant predictors, meaning the higher levels of job stress repatriated employees experience, the more likely they leave their companies. It also suggests that the lower career satisfaction they experience, the more likely they leave their companies. Therefore, future studies should consider treating intention to leave as a consequence of repatriate adjustment rather than a consequence of job demands.

Furthermore, the antecedents in this study may relate to turnover intentions indirectly through their influence on repatriate adjustment.

Moderated regression results indicated that cultural knowledge moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction such that those who had less of cultural knowledge benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction. As past literature suggests, preparation prior to repatriation plays a significant role to provide returners with accurate expectations about the process of repatriate adjustment (Searle & Ward, 1990; Weissman & Fumham, 1987). Those who have high levels of cultural knowledge seem to be capable to apply their international experiences to their career development without much preparation from organizations. However, it is crucial for those who have low to medium levels of cultural knowledge to receive preparation as it helps them to comprehend how the international assignments can benefit their career development.

Another significant result was that cultural skill moderated the relationship between preparation and career satisfaction such that those who had higher levels of cultural skill benefited more from preparation in terms of career satisfaction. It is interesting to find that those who have lower levels of cultural skill do not benefit from preparation. However, as shown in Figure 7, it is important to note that there were only slight differences in the interaction between preparation and career satisfaction among those who have high cultural skill, moderate cultural skill and low cultural skill. For this reason, although the moderating effect was significant, it might be too early to make conclusions from this finding.

Contrary to hypotheses, openness and proactivity did not function as significant moderators between job demands and job resources. This might indicate that Job Demands - Resources Model was not the right theory to apply to the topic of repatriate adjustment. In order to enhance the understanding of the roles of the personal characteristics, additional analyses investigated whether personal characteristics (i.e., openness, cultural knowledge, cultural skill, and proactivity) predict overall repatriate adjustment. The results suggested that repatriated employees' who were higher in openness had better readjustment to their home organization. Another significant finding was that more proactive repatriated employees had higher job satisfaction. That is, openness and proactivity were significant predictors of repatriate adjustment, rather than moderators between job demands (i.e., role ambiguity, lack of work autonomy, lack of preparation) and repatriate adjustment. Therefore, future studies should consider looking at personal characteristics such as openness and proactivity as predictors of repatriate adjustment.

Table 7

*A Summary of Proposed Hypotheses*

Hypothesis	Result
<b>Hypothesis 1:</b> Employees who perceive higher levels of role ambiguity will report lower levels of overall adjustment.	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 2:</b> Employees who perceived higher levels of work autonomy will report higher levels of overall adjustment.	Partially Supported
<b>Hypothesis 3:</b> Employees who receive preparation prior to repatriation will report higher levels of overall adjustment.	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 4:</b> Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between role ambiguity and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for employees with higher levels of those characteristics.	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 5:</b> Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between work autonomy and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for employees with higher levels of those characteristics.	Not Supported
<b>Hypothesis 6:</b> Openness, cultural intelligence and proactivity will moderate the relationship between pre-training and overall adjustment, such that the relationship will be weaker for employees with higher levels of those characteristics.	Partially Supported



**Limitations***Sample Size*

First and foremost, the sample size used in the present study was small. The sample size was limited because the target population was too specific, and more time and resources were needed to recruit from such a narrow population. For instance, in order to make sure that the participants were still in the process of repatriate adjustment or could adequately recall their readjustment experiences, I recruited only those who had been back to the home organizations within two years. Although companies have been increasing the number of international assignments in past years, it was still difficult to find such a specific population in a short period. As each company often sends only those who are identified as high potentials to international assignments, it is usually rare that a single company has a large number of repatriated employees at a time.

*Study Design*

Another limitation was the design of the study. The present study used self-ratings to measure variables such as personal characteristics. However, there might be a difference in the results between how participants rated themselves in a survey and how they actually behave in a real situation. For instance, according to social desirability theory (Fisher, 1993), consciously or unconsciously, people tend to respond to self-report surveys in a way that makes them look good. As having high levels of openness, cultural intelligence, and proactivity is generally seen positively in the society, it is possible that participants rated themselves higher than their actual abilities. That is, some participants

in the study may not have had accurate self-views of their own openness, cultural intelligence, and/or proactivity.

The present study had possible confounding variables that should be considered. First, the study did not control locations of home and host organizations. Although a majority of participants indicated that their home organizations were located in North America, some participants were from organizations located in different areas. It is problematic because employees from different cultures are more likely to have different experiences during international assignments. Consequently, differences in international experiences may affect the process of repatriate adjustment as well. For this reason, future studies should consider recruiting a sample from organizations located in the same area. Similarly, even if employees come from the same area, the assignment location can affect the experiences during international assignments. For instance, the participants in the present study completed their assignments in various areas (e.g., Europe, Asia, and North America). Future studies should control the location of the repatriation experience as well.

Second, another possible confounding variable is the length of international assignments. Although all the participants had completed at least 3 months of international assignments, the length of assignments was highly variable. Indeed, a few participants had more than five years of assignments. It is possible to observe differences in results between those who completed assignments only for a couple months and those who completed assignments for some years. Future studies should control the length of international experience as it may influence the degree of repatriate adjustment.

Third, the number of international assignments completed in the past should be considered. For instance, as cultural intelligence is comprised of knowledge and skill rather than traits, people usually develop cultural intelligence by experience. Therefore, it is possible that the more international assignments employees complete, the higher levels of cultural intelligence they have. Therefore, future studies should address the effect of the number of overseas assignments completed in the past on repatriate adjustment.

Fourth, it is important to control the length that repatriated employees have spent in the home organization after repatriation. One of the study requirements for the participants was having returned to the home organization within two years in order to ensure that they are still in the process of adjustment or could adequately recall the adjustment experience. Many of the participants had already spent more than a year in their home organizations after repatriation. It is possible that these participants have already adjusted to their home organizations enough that their responses do not accurately reflect their earlier repatriation experience. This may explain why the present study did not confirm findings from past studies.

Lastly, position within the companies might be another confounding variable. Indeed, the levels of role ambiguity and work autonomy might depend on the positions of employees. For example, subordinates tend to perceive higher levels of role clarity compared to managers due to the nature of the job (Gómez-Mejía, Balkin, & Cardy, 2004). On the other hand, employees who are in higher positions generally experience more work autonomy compared to those in lower positions (e.g., manager vs. non-manager) (Johnston & Marshall, 2013). In order to gain a better understanding of job

demands on repatriation, future studies should control the positions that employees have. In this study there were too few participants to examine all these potential confounds.

### **Significance of the Study**

Despite these limitations, the findings of the present study still make important contributions to the research on repatriate adjustment. First, this study was important because the topic of repatriate adjustment has not been extensively examined in the past studies yet. Second, the present study was one of a few studies to examine factors related to repatriate adjustment using the Job Demands - Resources Model (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007). Although the present study revealed that the J D-R theory might not fit in the context of repatriate adjustment, the results suggested future directions for researchers.

Furthermore, the results of the study provide some practical recommendations for companies to help their repatriated employees with smooth adjustments. In particular, the results indicated the importance of providing repatriated employees with preparation. It will help repatriate to understand the values of international assignments in their career development, especially for those who have low or medium levels of cultural knowledge. Although some companies have recently started support practices for repatriates, a majority of companies are still unaware of its benefits. By giving a practical and tangible recommendation that companies can easily implement, the present study made an important contribution to enhance the process of repatriate adjustment for both individuals and organizations.

## Appendices

### Appendix A

#### Demographic Information

**1. What is your age?**

- 21-30
- 31-40
- 41-50
- 51-60
- Above 61

**2. What is your gender**

- Male
- Female
- Other (decline to specify)

**3. What is your marital status**

- Single (never married)
- Single (widowed or divorced)
- Married
- Partnered (living together but not legally married)

**4. What is your highest level of education**

- High school or less
- Junior-college or technical school
- University, 4 year-college
- Post graduate degree
- Other

**5. What is your ethnicity**

- African American
- Asian
- Caucasian (White)
- Hispanic/ Latino
- Native American
- Other (including multiethnic)

**6. How long was your most recent international assignment?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-4 years

- 4-6 years
- More than 6 years
- Don't know/ Not sure

**7. Where was your most recent international assignment?**

- Africa
- North America
- Centro America
- South America
- Asia
- Europe
- Oceania

**8. How long have you been back in the U.S. after your most recent international assignment?**

- Less than one year
- 1-2 years
- 2-4 years
- 4-6 years
- More than 6 years
- Don't know/ Not sure

**9. How many international assignments have you completed in total in the past?**

- One
- 2-4
- 5-8
- 9-12
- More than 12
- Don't know/ Not sure

**Appendix B****Openness (Intellectual or Imagination)**

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements, using a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree).

1. I have a rich vocabulary.
2. I have a vivid imagination.
3. I have excellent ideas.
4. I am quick to understand things.
5. I use difficult words.
6. I spent time reflecting on things.
7. I am full of ideas.
8. I have difficulty understanding abstract ideas. (R)
9. I am not interested in abstract ideas. (R)
10. I do not have a good imagination. (R)

## Appendix C

### Cultural Intelligence

Please indicate the response that best describes your level of knowledge about the item in the host country's culture, using a 5-point scale (1 = I have no knowledge about this, 2 = I have a little knowledge about this, 3 = I have some knowledge about this, 4 = I have extensive knowledge about this, 5 = I have very extensive knowledge about this).

1. How much time passes before someone is considered late.
2. The importance of norms (correct ways of doing things).
3. The treatment of family members as compared to non-family members.
4. How and when people express disagreements with each other.
5. The manner in which negotiations take place.
6. Whether people want to perform as a member of a group or as an individual contributor.
7. The extent to which people accept that they should agree with the wishes of powerful people.
8. Foods that are acceptable to eat.
9. The acceptance of drinking of alcohol.
10. The giving and receiving of gifts.
11. The extent to which people recognize others as equals.
12. The expectations about the behavior of men and women in the workplace.
13. The extent to which outsiders are accepted.

Please think of situations in which you have interacted with people from a different culture either at home or in a foreign country. Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements, using a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1. I enjoy talking with people from other countries.
2. I enjoy initiating conversations with someone from a different culture.
3. I often get involved in other cultures.
4. Ordinarily, I am very calm and relaxed in conversations with a person from a different culture.
5. I often get discouraged when I am with people from different cultures. (R)
6. I often feel useless when interacting with people from different cultures. (R)
7. Depending on the impression I wish to give people who are culturally different to me, I have the ability to adapt my behavior.
8. I tend to show different sides of myself to people from different cultures.
9. In different cultural situations and with culturally different people, I can change my behavior.



10. Different cultural situations make me change my behavior according to their requirements.
11. My behavior in intercultural interactions often depends on how I feel the people from the other culture wish me to behave.

## Appendix D

### Proactivity

Please indicate how frequently you engage in the following proactive behaviors in a regular work week, using a 7-point scale (1 = very infrequently to 7 = very frequently).

1. I tried to learn about local business practices during my international assignment.
2. I tried to learn about important procedures within my subsidiary during my international assignment.
3. I tried to learn about the cultural values and norms in the host country during my international assignment.
4. I started conversations with people from different segments of the subsidiary where I work during my international assignment.
5. I tried to socialize with host country nationals during my international assignment.
6. I tried to know as many host country nationals as possible, within and outside my organization, on a personal basis during my international assignment.
7. I sought feedback on my performance after completing important tasks during my international assignment.
8. I asked for constructive feedback from host country peers or supervisors during my international assignment.
9. I regularly sought feedback from locals about my performance in this overseas assignment.
10. I tried to negotiate with supervisors and/or coworkers changes I would like to see implemented during my international assignment.
11. I tried to negotiate with supervisors and/or coworkers about the demands placed on me in this assignment during my international assignment.
12. I tried to negotiate with supervisors and/or coworkers about the expectations placed on me during my international assignment.
13. I try to see my overseas assignment as an opportunity rather than a threat.
14. I try to look at the bright side of things.
15. I try to see my assignment as a challenge rather than a problem.

**Appendix E****Role Ambiguity**

How accurate are each of the following statements in describing your job? Please indicate your response using a 7-point scale (1 = very inaccurate to 7 = very accurate).

1. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
2. There are clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
3. I know that I have divided my time properly.
4. I know what my responsibilities are.
5. I know exactly what is expected of me.
6. Explanation is clear about what has to be done on my job.

## **Appendix F**

### **Work Autonomy**

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements using a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

1. I am responsible for deciding how much work gets done in my job.
2. I have freedom to decide what I do in my job.
3. I have control over how I do my job.
4. I participated in decision-making processes regarding expatriation.
5. I participated in decision-making processes regarding repatriation.

## **Appendix G**

### **Preparation Prior to Reentry**

Please indicate which of the following repatriate support practices that your organizations offer (Check all that apply):

1. Training programs on recent technologies used in the home office.
2. Training programs on recent home country legal/ethical developments.
3. Training programs on recent organizational changes.
4. Frequent visits to US headquarters while on overseas assignment.
5. Newsletter while on overseas assignment.
6. Use of repatriation agreement.
7. Job assignment upon repatriation with very broad responsibilities.
8. Expatriate experience incorporated as specific part of career path.
9. Special recognition for contributions to organizational success while overseas.
10. A mentor-mentee program throughout the assignment.
11. A reentry sponsor.
12. Relocation assistance.
13. A separate organizational unit with responsibility for the needs of employees on foreign assignments.

## **Appendix H**

### **Repatriate Adjustment**

Please indicate how much you are adjusted to your home country/organization after repatriation, using a 7-point scale (1 = Very unadjusted to 7 = very adjusted).

1. Living conditions in general
2. Housing conditions
3. Food
4. Shopping
5. Cost of living
6. Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities
7. Healthcare facilities
8. Socializing with people from your home country
9. Interacting with people from your home country on a day-to-day basis
10. Interacting with people from your home country outside of work
11. Speaking with people from your home country
12. Specific job responsibilities
13. Performance standards and expectations
14. Supervisor responsibilities

## **Appendix I**

### **Job Stress Scale**

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements using a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree).

1. A lot of time my job makes me very frustrated or angry.
2. I am usually under a lot of pressure when I am at work.
3. When I'm at work I often feel tense or uptight.
4. I am usually calm and at ease when I'm working. (R)
5. There are a lot of aspects of my job that make me upset.

**Appendix J****Job Satisfaction**

Please indicate how much you are satisfied with the following items at work, using a 7-point scale (1 = extremely dissatisfied to 7 = extremely satisfied).

1. Amount of variety in job
2. Opportunity to use abilities
3. Freedom of working method
4. Amount of responsibility
5. Physical working condition
6. Hours of work
7. Income
8. Recognition for work
9. Colleagues and fellow workers
10. Overall job satisfaction



**Appendix K****International Career Satisfaction**

Please indicate your response using a 4-point response (1 = Not at all true, 2 = Slightly true, 3 = Moderately true, 4 = very true.)

1. The position was a step in my long-range career development.
2. The position was more useful in developing my career than if I had remained in a similar domestic position.
3. The position has helped me develop additional business/technical skills.
4. The position was not important to my career development. (R)
5. The position was unfortunate in that I lost touch with our domestic operations. (R)
6. The position is valuable in that I use the knowledge from.

**Appendix I****Intention to Quit**

Please indicate how much you agree with each of the following statements using a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1. I am actively looking for a job outside my company.
2. As soon as I can find a better job, I'll leave my company.
3. I am seriously thinking about quitting my job.
4. I often think about quitting my job at my company.
5. I think I will be working at my company five years from now. (R)

### References

- Adler, N. J. (1981). Re-entry: Managing cross-cultural transitions. *Group & Organizational Studies*, 6, 341-356.
- Adler, N. J. (1986). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Boston: Kent.
- Ashford, S. J., & Black. J. S. (1996). Proactivity during organizational entry: The role of desire For control. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81: 199-214.
- Bakker, A.B., & Demerouti, E. (2007). The job demands-resources model: State of the art. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 22(3), 309-328.
- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variables distinction  
Reproduced with permission of the copyright owner. Further reproduction  
prohibited without permission. 97 in *social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical consideration*. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51, 1173-1182.
- Beauchamp, M.R., Bray, S.R., Eys, M.A., & Carron, A.V. (2002). Role ambiguity, role efficacy, and role performance: Multidimensional and mediational relationships within interdependent sport teams. *Group Dynamics: Theory, Research, and Practice*, Vol 6(3), 229-242.
- Black, J. S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19: 277-94.
- Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B., & Mendenhall, M.E. (1992). Toward a Theoretical Framework of Repatriation Adjustment, *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(4): 737-61.

- Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B., Mendenhall, M.E., & Stroh, L.K. (1999). *Globalizing People Through International Assignments*. New York: Addison-Wesley, Longman Inc.
- Black, J. S., & Stephens, G. K. (1989). The influence of the spouse on American expatriate adjustment. *Journal of Management*, 15(4), 529.
- Brewster, C., & Scullion, H. (1997). A Review and Agenda for Expatriate HRM, *Human Resource Management Journal*, 7(3): 32–42.
- Carlisle-Frank, P. L. (1992). The relocation experience: Analysis of factors thought to influence adjustment to transition. *Psychological Reports*, 70, 835-838.
- Crank, J., Regoli, R., Hewitt, J., & Culbertson, R. (1995). Institutional and organizational antecedents of role stress, work alienation, and anomie among police executives. *Criminal Justice and Behavior*, 22, 152-171.
- Daily, C.M., Certo, S.T. & Dalton, D.R. (2006), International experience in the executive suite: the path to prosperity?, *Strategic Management Journal*, Vol. 21, pp. 515-23.
- Dunbar, E., & Ehrlich, M.H. (1993). Preparation of the international employee: Career and consultation needs. *Consulting Psychology Journal: Practice and Research*, Vol 45(1), 18-24.
- Egan, M. & Bendick, J.M. (1994), International business careers in the United States: salaries, advancement and male-female differences, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, Vol. 5, pp. 33-50.
- Fisher, R. J. (1993). “Social desirability bias and the validity of indirect questioning“. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 20, 303-315.

- Forster, N. (1994). The Forgotten Employees? The Experiences of Expatriate Staff Returning to the UK, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 5(2): 405–25.
- Gaw, K. F. (2000). Reverse culture shock in students returning from overseas. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 24(1), 83-104.
- GMAC (2005), Survey Report, Global Relocation Trends Survey Report, GMAC Global Relocation Services, Woodridge, IL.
- GMAC (2014), Global Mobility Policy & Practices Survey, GMAC Global Relocation Services, Woodridge, IL.
- Goldberg, L.R. (1992). The development of markers for the Big-Five factor structure. *Psychological Assessment*, 4, 26–42.
- Gomez-Mejía, L. & Balkin, D.B. (1983). The Determinants of Managerial Satisfaction with the Expatriation and Repatriation Process, *Journal of Management Development*, 6(1): 7-17.
- Gómez-Mejía, L. & Balkin, D.B., & Cardy, R.L. *Managing Human Resources*. 4th ed. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall, 2004
- Gullahorn, J.R. & Gullahorn, E.J. (1962). An extension of the u-curve hypothesis. *Journal of Social Issues*, 3: 33–47.
- Hackman, J.R., & Oldham, G.R. (1975). Development of the job diagnostic survey. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60, 159–170.
- Hakanen, J., Bakker, A. B., & Schaufeli, W. B. (2006). Burnout and work engagement among teachers. *Journal of School Psychology*, 43 , 495–513.

- Hansez, I., & Chmiel, N. (2010). Safety behavior: Job demands, job resources, and perceived management commitment to safety. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 15*, 267–278.
- Harris, P.R. & Moran, R.T. (1989). *Managing cultural differences*. Houston, Tex.: Gulf.
- Harvey, M. (1982). The Other Side of Foreign Assignments: Dealing with the Repatriation Dilemma, *Columbia Journal of World Business, 17*(1): 53–9.
- Haygroup, S.A.P. (2001). *Factbook Recursos Humanos*. Navarra: Aranzadi and Thompson.
- Herrmann, P. & Datta, D.K. (2006). “CEO experiences: effects on the choice of FDI entry Mode”, *Journal of Management Studies, 43*, pp. 755–778.
- Hogan, J.T. (1983). Culture shock and reverse culture shock: Implications for juniors abroad and seniors at home. Paper presented at the annual convention of the American College Personnel Association, Houston, TX.
- Hu, Q., Schaufeli, W. B., & Taris, T. W. (2011). The job demands-resources model: An analysis of additive and joint effects of demands and resources. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 79*, 181–190.
- Hurn, B.J. (1999). The Toughest Assignment of All, *Industrial and Commercial Training, 31*(6): 224–8.
- Jonhston, J. (1991). An Empirical Study of the Repatriation of Managers in UK Multinationals, *Human Resource Management Journal, 1*(2): 102–8.
- Johnston, M. W., & Marshall, G. W. (2013). *Contemporary selling: Building relationships, creating value*. New York: Routledge.
- Kugelman, P. (1996). Beyond reverse culture shock. *FAWCO News*, pp. 9-12.

- Lazarova, M., & Caligiuri, P. (2001). Retaining Repatriates: The Role of Organizational Support Practices, *Journal of World Business*, 36(4): 389–402.
- Lewig, K. A., Xanthopoulou, D., Bakker, A. B., Dollard, M., & Metzger, J. C. (2007). Burnout and connectedness among Australian volunteers: A test of the job demands-resources model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 71 , 429–445.
- Linehan, M. & Scullion, H. (2002). Repatriation of European Female Corporate Executives: An Empirical Study, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(2): 254–67.
- Lysgaard, S. (1995) Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian Fulbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin*, 7, 45-51.
- Maddux, W., Galinsky, A., & Tadmor, C. (2010, September 1). Be a Better Manager: Live Abroad. *Harvard Business Review*, p. 1. Retrieved from <https://hbr.org/2010/09/be-a-better-manager-live-abroad>
- Magnusson, P. & Boggs, D.J. (2006), International experience and CEO selection: an empirical study, *Journal of International Management*, Vol. 12, pp. 107-25.
- Mercer (2012), *Benefits Survey for Expatriates and Internationally Mobile Employees*, Mercer LLC, New York City, NY
- Morgan, L.O., Nie, W. & Young, S.T. (2004), Operational factors as determinants of expatriate and repatriate success, *International Journal of Operations & Production Management*, Vol. 24 No. 12, pp. 1247-68.
- Marks, M.S. (1987). Preparing international students in the United States for reentering the home country. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*. 120-

128.

Martin, J. N. (1986). Communication in the intercultural reentry: Student sojourners' perceptions of change in reentry relationship. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10, 1-22.

Nunnally, J. C. (1978). *Psychometric theory* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oberg, K. (1960). Culture shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology*, 7, 170-179.

Peltonen, T. (1997). Facing Rankings from the Past: A Tournament Perspective on Repatriate Career Mobility, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(1): 107–23.

Seiter, J. S., & Waddell, D. (1989). (February) The intercultural reentry process: Reentry shock, locus of control, satisfaction, and interpersonal uses of communication. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Western Speech Communication Association. Spokane, WA. [ERIC Reproduction Service Document No. ED 304 731].

Stephoe, A. (2001). Job control, perceptions of control, and cardiovascular activity: An analysis of ambulatory measures collected over the working day, *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, Vol 50(2), 57-63.

Stroh, L.K. (1995). Predicting Turnover Among Repatriates: Can Organizations Affect Retention Rates?, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 6(2): 443–56.

Stroh, L.K., Gregersen, H.B., & Black, S. (2000). *Triumphs and Tragedies: Expectations*



- and Commitments Upon Repatriation, *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(4): 681–97.
- Thomas, D.C., Elron, E., Stahl, G., Ekelund, B.Z., Ravlin, E.C., Cerdin, J. et al. (2008). Cultural intelligence: Domain and assessment. *International Journal of Cross-Cultural Management*, 8(2), 123–143.
- Torbiorn, I. (1982). *Living abroad*. New York: Wiley.
- Tung, R.L. (1988). Career Issues in International Assignments, *The Academy of Management Executive*, 11(3): 241–4.
- Warr, P., Cook, J., & Wall, T. (1979), Scales for measurement of some work attitudes and aspects of psychological well-being. *Journal of Occupational Psychology* 52, 129–148.
- Wayne, S. J., Shore, L.M., & Liden, R. C. (1997). Perceived organizational support and leader- member exchange: A social exchange perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol 40(1), 82-111.
- Welch, D. (1994). Determinants of International Human Resource Management Approaches and Activities: A Suggested Framework, *Journal of Management Studies*, 31(2): 139–65.
- Wolgemuth, L. (2010, May 21). What the Résumés of Top CEOs Have in Common. *U.S. News*, p. 1. Retrieved from <http://money.usnews.com/money/careers/articles/2010/05/21/what-thersums-of-top-ceos-have-in-common>