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THE EFFECTIVENESS OF EXPATRIATE PERFORMANCE IN AN INTERNATIONAL ASSIGNMENT: A MULTIDIMENSIONAL APPROACH WITH SELECTED JOB-RELATED INDEPENDENT VARIABLES

DISSERTATION

Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate

School of The Ohio State University

By

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*****

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ABSTRACT

As the importance and the complexity of international business has increased, tasks and responsibilities required of expatriate managers in their international assignments also have been imperative to international companies. Therefore, the effectiveness of expatriates has been one of the major concerns of business and scholars. However, few studies have been investigated the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance in their international assignments.

The purpose of the study was to examine a linear relationship of selected independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationality of expatriates supervisors, and the dependent variable, the effectiveness of expatriates in their international assignments. Effectiveness was assessed by the expatriates’ supervisors. Specifically, this study examined a proposed model of expatriate effectiveness among Japanese expatriates in their United States assignments.

Of 400 Japanese companies randomly selected, 87 companies agreed to participate in the study. A total of 103 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors were identified. Separated questionnaires for Japanese expatriates and their supervisors were sent. Japanese expatriates were asked to respond to job-related items while their
supervisors were asked to rate the effectiveness of their expatriates. Of these, a total of 68 pairs of usable data were analyzed.

Hypotheses examined relationships between each independent variable and effectiveness, as well as the linear relationship of the seven independent variables and effectiveness. Multiple regression, correlations, and descriptive statistics were employed. Results indicated that the hypotheses were supported at the significance level (p< .05) for job characteristic and length of stay in the U.S, relative to effectiveness, while the hypothesized linear relationship between the seven selected independent variables and the effectiveness was not supported (p = .07). Length of stay in the U.S. showed the most important variable explaining effectiveness relative to other six variables.

The theory of job characteristic was applicable to the Japanese expatriates in this study. However, the proposed model of expatriate effectiveness in an international assignment was not supported. Detailed discussions and implications are provided. Limitations and recommendations for future research are also discussed.
Dedicated to my parents, Kyoichi and Shimeko Harada
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. David Stein, for his support and advice. He let me pursue the research area that I was most interested in and stood by me throughout the process in the completion of my study at OSU. His expertise in Human Resource Development and in Training and Development were also invaluable in my study and was truly appreciated.

I thank Dr. Janet Henderson for her substantive editorial comments and professional support, which were very much appreciated. My great appreciation also goes to Dr. Howard Klein, who provided me his expertise in Management of Human Resources and shared his research experience. His professional support was invaluable to the completion of this study.

I would also like to acknowledge the significant help of Dr. Robert Warmbrod and Dr. Phillip Young, whose expertise in data analysis and statistical methodology was instrumental in my study success. In addition, I very much appreciate the assistance of Dr. M. Hanada of Keio University, Japan, who provided me a great amount of insight and knowledge about Management of Human Resources and Human Resource Development in Japan, and to those professors who gave me suggestions and insights.
I would like to thank participants in my study who took their time not only to provide responses for the questionnaire, but also to arrange participants for the study. I will be forever grateful for the help, support, and time provided by my special friend, Jeffry Bowman. He gave countless hours of his time for editorial and English review. However, my greatest application to him was his willingness to engage in intellectual discussions that were invaluable to my research.

Above all, I would also like to recognize and thank my family for their support during this period of very hard work and long absences from them. Throughout studying and living in the U.S., I came to realize the strengths my parents have given me. Especially, my mother with her encouragement was truly my driving force behind the completion of my study. My father taught me what it was like to live in a foreign country, as he lived in Japan as a foreigner. With all my heart, I wish both father and mother could have lived to see me finish. I will always be truly grateful to my parents, as I have been.
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CHAPaER 1
INTRODUCTION

The success of international assignments for global competition can be seen as an important factor for corporate performance and business success. Due to the increased importance of tasks and responsibilities required of expatriates, the effectiveness of expatriate managers has been of great interest among scholars and the business community (Beamish, Killing, Lacraw & Morrison, 1994; Dowling, Schuler, & Welch, 1994; Sheth & Eshghi, 1990). Therefore, global companies select their best performers and send them to overseas operations (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992; Shackleton & Newell, 1997).

However, the literature continues to indicate expatriate failure as a persistent and recurring problem (Black, et al., 1992; Dowling, et al., 1994; Solomon, 1996; Swaak, 1995). Most studies identify expatriate failure as a manager who returns to the home country from an international assignment before the completion of the assignment period (Black, 1988, 1990; Swaak, 1995, Stone, 1991; Tung, 1981). Using the same criterion, expatriate success is defined as those expatriates who stay in international assignments (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Naumann, 1992, 1993, Selemer & Luk, 1995).
Expatriate failure costs companies and brings financial burden (e.g., international compensation and benefits) and other problems to overseas subsidiaries (e.g., lower productivity, quality suffering, and decreasing morale) (Dowling, et al., 1994). Therefore, many international companies have started reducing the number of expatriate managers for overseas business operations by replacing expatriate positions with local managers (Bishko, 1990; Gates, 1996; Tashiro, 1989). However, Kobrin (1988) argues that expatriate reduction would create potential threats to companies, such as a lack of global business experiences among top management and a decrease in the development of internationally competent managers.

Similarly, Scullion (1991) states that there are advantages in using expatriates. These advantages include their knowledge of corporate culture and international reporting systems, as well as the expatriates having an opportunity to teach the locals how to relate to the center. In fact, the number of expatriates has been increasing in certain geographic areas, such as Eastern and Central Europe and China, where new business opportunities have been opened (Gates, 1996). Thus, in spite of overall reductions in the use of expatriates, an international assignment remains critical for companies and their expatriates. In this regard, it is important to understand expatriates and their effectiveness of performance during international assignments (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Black, et al., 1992; Harzing, 1995; Kealey, 1996).
Background

It has been estimated that there are over 80,000 American expatriates working for their companies in more than 130 countries (Ashamalla & Madeline, 1997). It has been reported that between 25% and 40% of them tend to fail in their international assignments (Kealey, 1996). Tung’s empirical study (1981) shows that the American failure rate is higher than that of their counterparts in Europe and Japan. She, however, indicates significant expatriate failure rates among all of the companies in her study regardless of nationalities.

Regarding Japanese expatriate failure, there are approximately 10,300 Japanese expatriates working in approximately 5,400 Japanese-affiliated and wholly-owned companies across the U.S. (Nikkei Shinbunsha, 1994; Toyokeizai, 1998). Tashiro (1989) reported 3% of Japanese executives returned before the completion of their assignments. In contrast, approximately 20% of middle level expatriate managers in these Japanese companies were recalled to go back home. These middle managers comprised the highest failure rate group among Japanese expatriates, including executives, clerical staff, and manual workers.

Due to the criticality of expatriate effectiveness in corporate business (Beechler & Najjar, 1996; Beamish, et al., 1994), it is important to study the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance. Most studies have primarily investigated from three perspectives: (a) expatriates’ cross-cultural adjustment, (b) job competency for international assignments, and (c) pre-departure preparation programs for expatriates.
Cross-cultural adjustment focuses on an expatriate’s adjustment to a host country and the given international assignment because an international relocation automatically involves cultural transition (Ward, 1996). An early study on expatriates by Hays (1974) found differences in factors relating to expatriate failure and success. He asserts that an expatriate’s lack of cultural adaptation is the primary reason for failure. This finding has been supported by various studies (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Kealey, 1996; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shilling, 1993; Stone, 1991).

The primary focus of research studies relative to adjustment is on individual psychological and behavioral adjustment. In this regard, the effectiveness of expatriates is determined by how well they adjust to a host environment and the given assignment (Cui & Awa, 1992; Shilling, 1993). A series of expatriate studies by Black (1988, 1990) and his colleagues (Black & Gregersen, 1991) identify three dimensions of an expatriate’s cultural adjustment: general, interpersonal, and work. In addition, factors relating to the three dimensions of expatriate adjustment are also identified, such as the living conditions of a host country, the work conditions in the given assignment, and the personal relationships with local employees. These results are also confirmed by Nagai (1996), who investigated cultural adjustment among Japanese expatriates and their families in 47 countries across the globe.

In contrast, factors relating to expatriate success include: (a) the ability to build interpersonal relationships (Hays, 1974; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey, 1996; Zeira & Bannai, 1985), (b) job-related factors, such as competency and job requirements (Adler &
Bartholomew, 1992; Hanada, 1984b, Harris & DeSimone, 1994), and (c) training for expatriates (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992). The focus of interpersonal relationships is on the individual’s ability to build relationships with people in a host country, which is assessed by types of personality, skills, and expatriate adjustment. Studies have shown that positive relationships between expatriates and local employees a factor in helping expatriates adjust to a host country and their work (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Zeira & Bannai, 1985).

Another factor related to expatriate success concerns managerial knowledge, skills, and abilities (Dowling, et al., 1994; Hanada, 1984b; Katz & Seifer, 1996; Williams & Dobson, 1997). The major focus of these studies has been on identifying types of knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) and competencies, which can be used as criteria to select expatriate managers. In other words, the major issue is to reduce selection errors by increasing the predictably of future performance (Dowling, et al., 1994). In this respect, these KSAs and competencies are seen as job requirements in the international assignment and are seen as prerequisites of expatriates (Tung 1981). Different criteria have been suggested according to the purpose of the assignment (Hays, 1974), managerial ranks and job categories (Tashiro, 1989; Tung, 1981), and the stage of internationalization of the company (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Hanada, 1987, 1994). Managerial competencies required of expatriates include leadership, communication, job competencies (e.g., planning, cost effectiveness, and analytical ability), and cultural sensitivity and understanding (Hanada, 1984b).
To ensure expatriate success, the importance of predeparture training for the expatriates has been indicated in various studies (Bailey & Shenkar, 1993; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Dowling, et al., 1994; Odenwald, 1993; Tung, 1987). Predeparture training focuses on cross-cultural training (CCT), primarily focusing on orientation and interpersonal relationship skills to help expatriates adjust to a foreign environment in a relatively short (Bhagat & Prien, 1996; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986). As such, research studies investigate the effectiveness of CCT and relationships with expatriate adjustment and performance. Multiple CCT methods have been found to be most effective and positive relationships have been found with expatriate adjustment, satisfaction, and performance (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992). However, the three perspectives: (a) expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment, (b) job competency for international assignments, and (c) predeparture preparation programs, have still left questions about those expatriates who have difficulty performing their jobs.

Problem Statement

The effectiveness of expatriates in their international assignments has been of great interest (Beamish, et al., 1994; Beechler & Najjar, 1996). However, expatriate failure, defined as premature return from a host country, has been seen as a persistent and recurring phenomenon (Black, et al., 1992; Dowling, et al, 1994). The majority of studies on expatriate failure have focused on cultural adjustment, job-related factors (e.g.,
KSAs, and competencies), and training for expatriates (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Dowling, et al., 1994; Hanada, 1987; Kealey, 1996; Nagai, 1996). These frameworks suggest that if expatriates are able to make a cross-cultural transition successfully (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986), if expatriates meet job requirements for international assignments (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Hanada, 1984b, 1987, Tashiro, 1989), and if expatriates are provided effective cross-cultural training (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Harrison, 1992), they should function effectively in the given assignment.

With these frameworks, however, expatriate effectiveness has not been measured by performance on the job in the given international assignment. Instead, expatriate premature return has been the primary criterion used in assessing the effectiveness of expatriates. In addition, expatriate performance and effectiveness has been equated to commitment to an assignment, satisfaction, and adjustment (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Nagai, 1996; Naumann, 1993). As such, the complexity and multidimensionality of international assignments, which influence the effectiveness of expatriates, may not be sufficiently addressed (Dowling, et al., 1994; Kealey, 1996).

Dowling, Schuler, and Welch (1994) question the effectiveness of premature return as a dependent variable in expatriate studies. They also point out that there was a lack of precise company records available during data collection. In addition, the reliability of the failure rates presented in the literature has been questioned (Forster, 1997; Harzing, 1995). Harzing states, “The authors simply refer to other publications, which in a large number of cases also do not mention specific research results, referring
in turn to yet other publications" (1995, p. 470). Given these cautions, Forster (1997) asserts the importance of empirical studies on expatriate failure and the understanding of expatriates in their international assignments in a broader sense.

Responding to cautions made previously, Kealey (1996) indicates that 20% of expatriates are considered to be high performers while approximately 50% to 80% of expatriates perform less effectively than expected, and 20% of expatriates tend to be low performers. These expatriates stay in a host country and complete their international assignments regardless whether they are effective or not in their assignment. Therefore, they are seen as effective managers because companies do not recall them to come home early. Consequently, examining the effectiveness of expatriate performance during their assignments has remained somewhat inadequate in terms of identifying factors that might relate to the effectiveness of expatriate performance when they are in their international assignments. In conclusion, little is known about the expatriate stayers, particularly their effectiveness in international assignments and what contributes to their effectiveness.

It is important to study expatriates during their assignments relative to performance effectiveness if international assignments are continuously used as critical business activities, if the effectiveness of expatriates influences business success, and if international companies expect their expatriates to perform effectively in their international assignments. A study investigating the effectiveness of expatriate performance should focus on the characteristics of job assignments, the situations in
which expatriates are involved, the cultural work adjustment that expatriates have to make, and interpersonal influence relationships that expatriates use in their daily work activities.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of expatriates' performance, by examining relationships between the following set of independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationality of supervisors, and the dependent variable, effectiveness of expatriates' performance in their international assignments. Specifically, the study investigated the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates who have been assigned to work in the United States. The effectiveness of expatriate performance was measured by supervisory ratings, in which expatriates' superiors were asked to indicate what they thought about the effectiveness of their expatriates. This study also examined a proposed model of expatriate effectiveness (See Figure 1 in Appendix A).

Kealey (1996) suggests that an investigation relative to the effectiveness of expatriates should take a multidimensional approach, considering the complex nature of
these jobs in international contexts. Taking this suggestion, the theoretical foundation of
the study is based on the following theory and principles:

1. The theory of job characteristics, which suggests that employees perceive characteristics of their jobs that should relate to work outcomes through employees’ reactions to those dimensions (Hackman & Lawler, 1971).

2. Role conflict and role ambiguity, which provide employees’ perceptions of their given roles, relative to role and performance expectations of the employees. These expectations relate to the effectiveness of performance (Rizzo, House, & Lirtzman, 1970).

3. Cross-cultural work adjustment, which states that expatriates have to make two adjustments simultaneously to function in the given international assignment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Nagai, 1996).

4. Interpersonal influence strategy, which suggests that people at work use strategies to influence and/or change others to attain organizational and personal goals (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980).

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research questions and hypotheses are provided to explain and examine relationships between a particular independent variable and the dependent variable in this investigation. The following research questions and hypotheses are included:

1. What is the level of job effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as perceived by their supervisors?
2. What is the level of job characteristic of Japanese expatriates?

2.a. Hypothesis: There is a positive relationship between job characteristic of Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

3. What is the level of role conflict of Japanese expatriates?

3.a. Hypothesis: There is a negative relationship between role conflict of Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

4. What is the level of role ambiguity of Japanese expatriates?

4.a. Hypothesis: There is a negative relationship between role ambiguity of Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

5. What is the level of cross-cultural work adjustment of Japanese expatriates?

5.a. Hypothesis: There is a positive relationship between cross-cultural work adjustment of Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

6. What is the level of appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates?

6.a. Hypothesis: There is no relationship between appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as rated by their supervisors.
7. What is the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates?

7.a. Hypothesis: There is a positive relationship between the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

8. What is the nationality of the Japanese expatriates' supervisors?

8.a. Hypothesis: There is a relationship between the nationality of supervisors and their rating scores of the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates?

9. Hypothesis: There is no relationship between the set of independent variables; job characteristic, role conflict, role ambiguity, cross-cultural work adjustment, appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, length of stay in the U.S., and nationality of supervisors, and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as rated by their supervisors.

10. Which independent variables in the Model of Expatriate Effectiveness contribute to explaining the level of effectiveness of the Japanese expatriates' in U.S. assignments?

Significance of Study

In the literature, the effectiveness of expatriate performance in international assignments has not been adequately investigated relative to job-related factors (Selmer & Luke, 1995). However, the importance of empirical research in this area has been discussed (Forster, 1997; Harzing, 1995). In light of international management research related to expatriate performance and the need for performance improvement, this study
will fulfill a part of these needs and provide additional information to the body of knowledge.

This study undertook the multidimensional approach in the assessment of the effectiveness of expatriates by using theory and concepts from several studies: (a) job characteristics, (b) role conflict and ambiguity, (c) cross-cultural work adjustment, and (d) interpersonal influence strategies. Each area of these studies has been developed under their own theoretical conceptual foundations. However, this study was the first attempt in which all of these areas of studies were integrated to measure expatriate effectiveness. This integrated approach was used to form a model of expatriate effectiveness. Therefore, results of this study provided highly comprehensive information about expatriates and their effectiveness in their international assignments. This information will contribute to an increased understanding of expatriates and provide another perspective in the body of knowledge in expatriate studies.

At the same time, the results of this study also provided thorough and detailed information about expatriate effectiveness relative to each area of study as well as interrelationships between areas of studies. For instance, job characteristic, role conflict, and ambiguity would provide job-related information, which can be used by human resource management to establish preparation programs. The program includes job redesign, selection, and training. For expatriates, they would increase awareness of their work in international work settings and have appropriate expectations.

The dependent variable in the majority of expatriate studies has been whether expatriate managers stay in their international assignments or return before the
completion of the assignment. However, this study focuses on expatriate managers who remain overseas and their effectiveness in the assignments. This approach attempted to find factors that may relate their effectiveness. In this regard, the findings and the results of this study provide practical and realistic information about expatriate stayers for global companies and human resource professionals.

Definitions of Terms

The definitions of terms used in this study are as follows:

1. Expatriate manager

   **Constitutive Definition:** An expatriate manager is a professional and/or managerial employee who is moved from one country to another for employment (Dowling, et al., 1994).

   **Operational Definition:** The term as used in this study referred to Japanese managers who are selected by their companies to work in subsidiaries' of Japanese companies and/or in international joint venture partnerships in the United States. These Japanese managers have been stationed in the U.S approximately 1 year or more and were expected to stay in the U.S until the completion of their assignment periods.
2. International assignment

Constitutive Definition: An international assignment is defined by a period of time an employee is at an overseas rather than a domestic location (Dowling, et al., 1994).

Operational Definition: The term as used in this study is defined as an assignment that involves relocation to U.S. work sites where companies have operational units, such as manufacturing, marketing, banking, research and development, trading, and administration. These operations were wholly owned by Japanese companies and/or international joint ventures.

2. Appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies

Constitutive Definition: Interpersonal influence strategies are defined as strategies that are used by members within an organization when they intend to influence others to obtain organizational goals and/or personal benefits (Kipnis, et al, 1980). The level refers to a range of scores that an individual Japanese expatriate responds to in a questionnaire. The term, appropriateness, is defined as suitability, rightness, and proper for a purpose or an occasion (Oxford Advanced Learner’s Dictionary, 1989).

Operational Definition: The term as used in this study referred to the appropriateness of six interpersonal influence strategies: (a) assertiveness, (b) reason, (c) upward appeal, (d) friendliness, (e) exchange, and (g) sanction (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Yeh, 1995), used through daily activities by Japanese expatriates when they interacted with non-Japanese employees to attain organizational and personal goals. Reciprocity contains two concepts (friendliness and exchange) among Japanese (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996). The measurement of the appropriateness of interpersonal influence
strategies involved a two-stage process. First, the frequency of use of the six strategies used by Japanese expatriates when they deal with U.S. employees was obtained by using a 5-point scale, ranging from 1 as “Never” to 5 as “Most frequent.” Second, the appropriateness was determined based on the sum of differences in each strategy between ideal mean scores and observed scores. The calculation involved the following mathematical equation:

\[
\sum \{ \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal reason} - \text{observed reason}) + \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal assertiveness} - \text{observed assertiveness}) + \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal friendliness} - \text{observed friendliness}) + \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal exchange} - \text{observed exchange}) \\
+ \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal sanction} - \text{observed sanction}) + \text{Absolute} (\text{ideal upward appeal} - \text{observed upward appeal}) \}.
\]

This equation allows one single score to be obtained that can be used to examine the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance (M. Irwin, personal communication November 30, 1998). The means of ideal scores for each strategy were derived from the study by Kipnis, et al. (1980) and observed scores were obtained from the Japanese expatriates participating in this study.

3. Level of Cross-Cultural Work Adjustment

**Constitutive Definition:** Cross-cultural work adjustment is defined as the degree to which expatriates feel comfortable and feel adjusted to a new work environment and responsibilities in their international assignments (Black, 1988). Work adjustment occurs when individuals transfer from one office to another, receive a promotion, change jobs, or relocate. Work adjustment is defined as correspondence between individuals and an environment (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). The level refers to a range of scores (J. Henderson, personal communication December 2, 1998).
Operational Definition: The term as used in this study referred to a range of scores responded to on the questionnaire by Japanese expatriates. Work adjustment contained four items: (a) overall work, (b) supervisory responsibilities, (c) performance and expectation, and (d) the given job in the assignment (Black & Stephens, 1989). A 7-point Likert-type scale is used, which ranges from 7 as “A great degree of adjustment” to 1 as “Not at all.” The total score was obtained by summatiing all four items, and the higher total score indicated higher adjustment of Japanese expatriates in the U.S. assignment.

5. Level of Expatriate Effectiveness

Constitutive Definition: Effectiveness refers to the evaluation of the results of managerial performance (Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970), which is determined based on a range of scores that an individual Japanese expatriate responds in a questionnaire (J. Henderson, personal communication December 2, 1998).

Operational Definition: The effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance was determined by perceived rating scores by expatriates' supervisors who were in paired relationships with their Japanese expatriates in this study. The effectiveness measures, adapted from Sims and Szilagyi (1976), included: (a) quality of work produced, (b) quantity of work produced, (c) ability to get along with others, (d) dependability, (e) knowledge of work in the given assignment, (f) planning abilities, and (g) overall effectiveness the assignment. A 7-point scale was used for the supervisor's ratings of the expatriates. The scale ranged from 1 as "Low effective to 7 as "Highly effective." The total effectiveness score was obtained by summatiing all seven items.
6. Level of Job Characteristic

**Constitutive Definition:** Job characteristic is defined as different dimensions of a job that have distinctive attributes, which influence worker's perceptual and behavioral reactions to the job (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Level of job characteristic is equivalent to the range of scores on the job characteristic (J. Henderson, personal communication, December 2, 1998).

**Operational Definition:** Job characteristic in this study contained 21 items under four job dimensions: (1) variety, (2) task identity, (3) autonomy, and (4) feedback, which was adapted from the Job Characteristics Inventory by Sims, et al., (1976). A 5-point scale was used, ranging from 1 as “Very little” to 5 as “Very much.” The summated score from 21 items represented one single variable, named job characteristic. The summated high scores on job characteristic indicated a job containing a highly characteristic aspect in the given assignments among Japanese expatriates.

7. Level of role ambiguity

**Constitutive Definition:** Role ambiguity is defined as a degree to which clear information, relative to the predictability of performance outcome, is lacking (Rizzo, et al., 1970).

**Operational Definition:** Role ambiguity in this study was defined as a lack of clear information relative to organizational positions, which was perceived by Japanese expatriates within the given U.S. assignments. Role ambiguity, developed by Rizzo et al, initially contained 10 items, but was reduced to five items (See detailed description in Chapter 3). A 7-point Likert-type scale was used, ranging from 1 as “Very false” to 7 as
“Very true.” The level of role ambiguity was equivalent to the range of scores on role ambiguity. The summated score was used as the single independent variable. Higher scores indicated higher role ambiguity.

8. Level of role conflict

**Constitutive Definition:** Role conflict refers to a dimension of congruency-incongruence in the role requirements (Rizzo, et al., 1970).

**Operational definition:** Role conflict that Japanese expatriates perceive was defined as congruency-incongruency of role requirements in the given their U.S. assignment. The level of role conflict was equivalent to the range of scores on the role conflict. It contained initially 11 items, developed by (Rizzo, et al., 1970), but was reduced seven items. These items were measured on a 7-point scale from 1 as “Very false” to 7 as “Very true.” The summated score was used as the single independent variable. Higher scores indicated higher role conflict.

9. Length of stay in a host country

**Constitutional Definition:** Length is defined as the amount of time spent and the length of stay in a host country refers to duration of time in a foreign country where an individual stays for his or her employment (Dowling et al, 1994).

**Operational Definition:** Length of stay referred to how long Japanese expatriates have stayed in their U.S. assignments, described in years and months. The Japanese expatriates were specified in this study as those who have been in the U.S. approximately one or more years.
10. Nationality of supervisors

**Constitutional Definition:** Nationality is the supervisors' membership of a particular nation or national origin of supervisors (Oxford Advanced Learner's Dictionary, 1989).

**Operational Definition:** The nationality of supervisors in this study referred to Japanese nationality or non-Japanese nationality of Japanese expatriates' supervisors who were paired with Japanese expatriates.

**Assumptions**

The assumptions of this study are as follows:

1. Japanese expatriates in U.S. subsidiaries and/or joint ventures have been selected due to their high performance in their jobs in Japan. Therefore, they are basically effective expatriates.

2. Japanese expatriate managers working in U.S. subsidiaries are stayers who have not been recalled by their parent companies to go back to Japan.

3. Variances in U.S. assignments based on job categories (functions and positions) that are given to Japanese expatriates, may not contain wide variability on each job category because the majority of Japanese companies in the U.S. are manufacturing companies (JETRO, 1997), particularly chemical, transportation equipment, food and food processing, electronics and general machinery.

4. The number of Japanese supervisors in this study will be greater than that of non-Japanese supervisors.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

International assignments and issues of effective expatriate managers have been of great interest in the international management literature because these influence future corporate business success (Beamish, et al., 1994; Dowling, et al., 1994). However, Selmer and Luke (1995) have stated that "the issue of succession between expatriate managers in foreign subsidiaries is hardly touched upon at all" (p.91). In addition, information concerning a great proportion of expatriates' performance and effectiveness has not been adequately known (Kealey, 1996, Sadamori, Personal communication June, 1996).

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of expatriate managers during their international assignments. Particularly, the study examined a proposed model of expatriate effectiveness and relationships between a set of variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment, as well as (e) the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationalities of supervisors, and the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriate performance.
Kealey (1996) suggests that a study of expatriates should be multidimensional in nature; therefore, an integrated approach for a model of expatriate effectiveness is appropriate to study the effectiveness of expatriates' performance in their international assignments (Aycan, 1997; Kealey, 1996). The theoretical frameworks for this study included: (a) theory of job characteristics (Hackman & Lawler, 1971), which describes the perceived job characteristic, including four dimensions that expatriates perform in their international assignments, (b) role conflict and role ambiguity (Rizzo, et al., 1970) with which expatriates are involved at local work settings, (c) cross-cultural work adjustment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Nagai, 1996), which individual expatriates have to make, and (d) interpersonal influence strategies (Kipnis, et al., 1980), which are used by expatriates to get work done on a daily basis.

The first section focuses on the characteristic of jobs in international assignments, which discusses a job involving four contents that is perceived by expatriates and performed throughout their assignments. The second section discusses role perceptions, which are associated with overseas work settings. Role perceptions include role conflict and role ambiguity, which Japanese expatriates may have to deal with between their headquarters and subsidiaries in the U.S., as well as between other Japanese expatriates and American employees. The third section deals with work adjustment, that is, expatriates have to make simultaneous cross-cultural adjustment and work adjustment. The fourth section concerns interpersonal influence strategies, which are used among expatriates when they deal with both Japanese and American employees for the purpose of attaining organizational goals. The focus is on the appropriateness of those strategies
used among Japanese expatriates. The fifth section deals with the length of stay in a host
country, which varies with individual expatriates and may relate to the effectiveness of
performance. The sixth section discusses the nationality of supervisors, which could
influence performance ratings. The last section discusses the effectiveness of expatriates,
focusing on measures of effectiveness. The scope of this literature review was based on
the following considerations: (a) original studies relative to the theoretical frameworks in
this study, (b) literature considered to be milestones in the areas of study, and (c) the past
20 years or so of expatriate literature.

A Model of Expatriate Effectiveness in International Assignments

A study of expatriates should take into consideration the complex nature of
international business and management, as well as cultural factors (Black, et al., 1992).
This is because these conditions influence any activity that expatriates are involved in.
Kealey (1996) suggests that expatriate studies should examine relationships with
situational factors embodied into international assignments. These suggestions indicate
using an integrated approach, which is a basis of this study. A model of expatriate
effectiveness is proposed; including (a) job characteristic, (b) situational role perceptions
(role conflict and role ambiguity), (c) cross-cultural and work adjustment, (d) the
appropriateness of interpersonal relationships within an intercultural setting, (e) length of
stay in a host country, and (f) nationality of supervisors. These factors are examined
relative to the effectiveness of expatriates in their international assignments.
Characteristic of a Job

A characteristic of a job contains specific attributes or dimensions that are used to describe different tasks. These tasks represent a set of work activities that employees perform (Griffin, Welsh, & Moorhead, 1981). Job characteristics can be seen objectively (evaluation of a job) and subjectively (employee's perception), as well as being seen as job requirements, and knowledge, skills, and abilities required of employees to take a particular job and/or assignment (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Consequently, all relate to performance and effectiveness of employees, through how they see their jobs and characteristics contained in the jobs, and how well they perform on their jobs.

Job characteristics, concerning studies of expatriates, can be seen as job-related factors, such as the job requirements and the expatriates' qualifications (e.g., knowledge, skills, and abilities). Jobs in international assignments are highly demanding. For instance, expatriates are required to have broad managerial knowledge and skills, the ability to perform a wide range of tasks, handle a heavy workload, and have the high level of job competencies required of expatriates (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Sonoda, 1998).

Expatriate Studies and Job-Related Factors

Job-related factors, such as knowledge, skills, and abilities (KSAs) in the expatriate literature, are associated expatriate success (Hays, 1974). An early expatriate study by Hays identified success factors for international assignments, as differentiated
from failure factors. The success factors include managerial knowledge, technical skills, and training, as well as the ability to build interpersonal relationships with local people. Hay’s findings have been supported by many studies (Arthur & Bennett, 1995; Bailey & Shenkar, 1993; Hanada, 1984a; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Howard, 1992; Ishida, 1992).

Knowledge, skills and abilities (KSAs) are the important factors in international assignments, which often relate to effective job performance (Dowling, et al., 1994; Howard, 1992; Sonoda, 1998; Tashiro, 1989). Managerial knowledge (job competency and functional specialty) and a broad range of skills are widely cited as critical components for expatriate success. In addition, types of abilities required of expatriates include managing overseas operational units, connecting corporate objectives and local and/or regional business opportunities, as well as developing local human resources (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Hanada, 1987; Harris & DeSimone, 1994; Ishida, 1992; Tashiro, 1989). These competencies are used as selection criteria to predict future expatriate performance. Consequently, studies relative to job-related factors focus on identifying selection criteria that are most promising in predicting expatriate success.

Miller (1974) studied managerial behavior, relating to expatriate selection and found that human resource managers tended to focus heavily on job knowledge and competency when they selected expatriates for overseas operations. Other studies have also shown similar findings about managerial selection behavior and indicate that job knowledge and competencies are prerequisites for expatriates (Hays, 1974; Tashiro, 1989; Tung, 1981; Zeira & Banai, 1985). The criticality of job-related knowledge skills, and abilities (KSAs) and competencies in international assignments are supported by
expatriates themselves (Authur & Bennettee, 1995). In this regard, KSAs and their competencies are imperative to ensuring expatriate success.

However, these job-related factors are applied differently. For instance, as companies become involved in international business activities, expatriates are required to have different KSAs, according to the level of business involved (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Hanada, 1987). Recent discussions on job requirements for expatriates have indicated the importance of strategic awareness, multiple-cultural adaptability instead of cross-cultural adaptation, international finance and marketing, and computer literacy (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Beamish, et al., 1994; Harris & DeSimone, 1994; Howard, 1992).

Tashiro (1989) studied Japanese companies and found that they applied different KSAs, depending on managerial rankings, when they selected managers for overseas. The KSAs required of Japanese expatriates for upper management rank are management ability, knowledge of international business, and job competencies. In contrast, job competencies, language skills, and specialized-job knowledge are required for the middle management rank. Hanada (1984b, 1988) has suggested four areas of KSAs that should be required of Japanese expatriates for them to be effective. These include leadership (developing subordinates, delegation, and motivation), communication (verbal, non-verbal, and written), job competencies (planning, cost effectiveness, and analytical), and understanding as well as cultural sensitivity and empathy. Specifically, communication skills may indirectly relate to expatriates’ competencies. Sullivan (1992) asserts that the
most desirable Japanese expatriates are those who have the ability to communicate what they are doing and why they are doing things the way they are. Such skills result in building trust with American employees by understanding differences between Japan and the U.S. and the development of American subordinates.

Research Issues

Characteristics of a job relative to expatriate studies concern mostly job requirements and KSAs for international assignments. Because KSAs differentiate individual employees, these can be used to predict the effectiveness of job performance (Campbell, Dunnette, Hough, 1990; Campbell, Dunnette, Lawler, & Weick, 1970). However, research studies in expatriate job KSAs are descriptive in nature (Hays, 1974; Tashiro, 1989; Tung, 1981; Zeira & Banai, 1985). As a result, the results contain limitations to examining KSAs for either assessing the effectiveness of the expatriates or differentiating among expatriates.

Another concern relates to the source of performance information used for expatriate candidates (Black, et al., 1992; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Most expatriates are recruited internally by line managers, based on performance appraisal records, such as interviews, references and performance ratings. These line managers may not understand work in international assignments (NFTC, 1996). In this case, the applicability of domestic might be limited in the ability to predict a expatriate candidate’s future performance in international assignments.

Responding to these limitations, Kealey (1996) points out that there is a lack of a description of expatriate success relative to a job in the international assignment. He,
then, states that characteristics of international jobs need to be adequately described. Similarly, Hanada (1988, 1994) suggests that companies should identify tasks in a job, which are directly related to international operations. Through these identifications and descriptions, clearly defined job characteristics can be obtained and used to study relationships with expatriate effectiveness (Hanada, 1988; Kealey, 1996).

In addition, a job involved in an international assignment inherently imposes a high quality and quantity of work, such as a wide range of task requirements, intense workload, and requiring a high level of job competency (Bird & Dunbar, 1991). More importantly, expatriates are facing greater challenges and pressures in their assignments due to increased international and local business competition. Consequently, the characteristics of a job in terms of job requirements, as well as the knowledge, skills, and competencies needed, may not be reflected in the way expatriates see their jobs in the given international assignment. These acknowledgements imply another framework relative to characteristics of jobs in international assignments that may need to be studied.

Theory of Job Characteristics

Recent expatriate studies have focused on job characteristics and have examined how characteristics of international jobs may relate to reactions of expatriates (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Naumann, 1993). This is due, in part, to assumptions that international assignments contain great challenges in terms of work demands and that international work situations are complex in nature. These assumptions influence expatriates in the
way they work and carry out their assignments. Therefore, job characteristics should be taken into consideration in studying the effectiveness of expatriates and their jobs in assignments (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Kealey, 1996).

The theory of job characteristics provides a framework to assess characteristics of international jobs as perceived by expatriates to measure job characteristics in the given international assignments. This section first discusses the theory of job characteristics and then applies the theory to Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments.

The theory of job characteristics is derived from several studies (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Turner & Lawrence, 1965), which started with job enlargement by Herzeberg (1966). The assumption is that a job that provides achievement, recognition, responsibilities, advancement, and growth in competence will enhance employee motivation and satisfaction (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Based on this assumption, the theory of job characteristics was formulated by specifying relationships between motivating conditions and employees’ characteristics (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Turner & Lawrence, 1965). The basic idea in the study of job characteristics is to understand how job characteristics relate to individual effectiveness and productivity (Sims, et al., 1976).

Foundation of the Theory of Job Characteristics

An early study on job characteristics by Turner and Lawrence (1965) identified six requisite task attributes, which were able to predict work satisfaction and attendance. The six task attributes included: (a) variety, (b) autonomy, (c) required interaction, (d) optional interaction, (e) required knowledge and skills and (f) responsibilities. These
were combined to form a Requisite Task Attribute Index (RTA Index). The RTA Index was used to ascertain the relationships between the attributes of the jobs and the workers’ job satisfaction and attendance.

The study of Turner and Lawrence (1965) found factory workers who lived in rural areas and who rated on high on the RTA Index showed higher work satisfaction and lower absenteeism. In contrast, workers who lived in urban areas showed lower job satisfaction and a lack of relationship between RTA index and absenteeism. These results were considered to be due to individual differences in motivation. Taking this result, Hackman and Lawler (1971) applied the expectancy theory of motivation, which addressed that specific problems of employees’ motivation could be decreased through the design of jobs. They stated that employees, who had motivation for personal growth and development or who had a feeling of worthwhile accomplishments, obtained higher order needs satisfaction and work effectively on meaningful tasks. Hackman and Lawler (1971) identified characteristics of a job that would create conditions for internal work motivation (p263):

(1) Allow workers to feel personally responsible for an identifiable and meaningful portion of the work.
(2) Provide work outcomes which are intrinsically meaningful or otherwise experienced as worthwhile.
(3) Provide feedback about performance effectiveness.

Based on these assumptions, they developed six job dimensions: (a) task variety, (b) task identity, (c) autonomy, (d) feedback, (e) dealing with others, and (f) friendship opportunity. Of these, four job dimensions; (a) variety, (b) task identify, (c) autonomy, and (d) feedback are considered to be the core job dimensions, while dealing with others
and friendship opportunity are considered as the interpersonal job content. Their study results showed the core job content has the most influence on the overall effectiveness of job performance (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). In other words, if employees perceived the core job content to be high, their performance tended to be highly effective. However, interpersonal dimensions of a job showed no or low negative relationships with performance.

The core job content has been used as the motivational factor in effective performance while these studies used a slightly different job dimension (Brief & Aldag, 1975; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976; Oldham, et al., 1976; Steers & Spencer, 1977; Yeh, 1996). In these studies, scores on each job content; autonomy, task identity, variety, task significance, and feedback, were summated to represent either "Internal Motivation" factor or "Motivating Potential Scores." This motivational independent variable was used to describe relationships between employees' positive reactions and their performance effectiveness. Particularly, a study by Hackman and Lawler (1971) showed overall performance effectiveness was related to the summated score on the highly perceived four core job dimensions.

Job Characteristics

Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller (1976) extended the study by Hackman and Lawler (1971), and proposed the job characteristic inventory (JCI), applying it to different job categories. Although they use slightly different types of items in the JCI, it is derived from previous works by Turner and Lawrence (1966) and Hackman and Lawler (1971). The core job content was used to examine a relationship with the effectiveness of
expatriate performance in this study. The definitions of the four job dimensions representing the core job content are as follows (Sims, et al., 1976):

1. **Variety** refers to the degree to which a job requires employees to perform a wide range of operations in their work and/or the degree to which employees must use a variety of equipment and procedures in their work.

2. **Autonomy** refers to the extent to which employees have a major say in scheduling their work, in selecting the equipment they will use, and in deciding on procedures to be followed.

3. **Task Identity** refers to the extent to which employees do an entire or whole piece of work and can clearly identify the result of their efforts.

4. **Feedback** refers to the extent to which employees receive information as they are working which reveals how well they are performing on the job (p197).

The core job content has been used to examine the effectiveness of employees’ performance and studies have indicated a positive relationship with the core job content (summated scores from the four dimensions), as well as with each job dimension. More importantly, higher summed scores based on the four core job dimensions have shown higher affects on the overall effectiveness of job performance (Brief & Aldag, 1975; Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975, 1976; Oldham, et al., 1976; Steers & Spencer, 1977). Therefore, the use of the four job dimensions as one factor, job characteristic, was appropriate in this investigation.

**Expatriate Studies and Job Characteristics**

International assignments are unlike domestic transfers in terms of the challenges and the nature of the job (Black, et al., 1992; Dowling, et al., 1994). The characteristic of
a job can be seen as part of the complex nature of international assignments (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Boyacigiller, 1990; Sheth & Eshghi, 1990). Therefore, the perceived job characteristics relate to the effectiveness of expatriates.

The Theory of Job Characteristics has been applied to expatriate studies (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Naumann, 1992, 1993). Bird and Dunbar (1991) discuss how the perceived job characteristics in international assignments may influence expatriates productivity. Bird and Dunbar (1991) state that the first international assignment represents a major departure for expatriates, regarding living in a foreign land, as well as the number of difficulties and the level of expectations from their companies and themselves. These factors contain uncertainty, surprise, and discomfort for expatriates (Kealey, 1996). Based on these notions, Bird and Dunbar (1991) suggest that the contents of a job in international assignments may relate to expatriates performance and these contents should be carefully examined.

As indicated in the previous section, job characteristic as defined in this study contains the four job dimensions: (1) variety, (2) task identity, (3) autonomy, and (4) feedback. These dimensions can be magnified in the U.S. environment where work values and demands are different. These are embodied in Japanese expatriates' U.S. assignments. For instance, unlike working in a domestic office, expatriates are required to use a variety of different skills in international assignments. This is due, in part, to limited support from colleagues at local offices. In addition, first-time expatriates are often not well prepared for the range of activities and skills imposed in the given assignment (Zeira & Banai, 1985).
Hanada (1987) points out that skill variety could be critical for Japanese expatriates because Japanese companies tend to assign their managers to higher managerial positions in international assignments than the positions they hold in domestic offices. Higher managerial positions in international assignments require a variety of skills for Japanese expatriates. Those who possess these skills and use them when they perform a job would be considered as effective expatriates.

Task identity for expatriates in their international assignments concerns the notion that overseas operations often lack human and other resources. Consequently, expatriates carry out a large portion of a job during their assignments (Bird & Dunbar, 1991). In this respect, Japanese expatriates are able to see their jobs through from beginning to end, which they may not do in a job in Japan. Therefore, dealing with a large domain of a job provides Japanese expatriates opportunities to use their skills and to have more control over work processes. They may find these opportunities as challenges.

Autonomy relates to an expatriate’s job that contains substantial freedom, independence, and discretion (Bird & Dunbar, 1991). However, Black (1990) indicates that autonomy sometimes results in a feeling of isolation among Japanese expatriates due to a lack of close working relationships and responsibilities sharing they are used to in Japan. At the same time, studies have shown that most expatriates experience a great loss of autonomy when they return home (Black, 1992; Gregersen & Black, 1996). In this regard, expatriates having greater autonomy in their jobs may relate to the effectiveness of their performance during their assignments.
Feedback relative to expatriates concerns the frequency and the accuracy of information about their performance (Bird & Dunbar, 1991). According to Bird and Dunbar, feedback for expatriates tends to be less plentiful and more infrequent than they receive in home offices. This may be particularly true for the Japanese because the Japanese employees obtain a great deal of informal information about their performance from others (Sullivan, 1992).

In addition, feedback through performance appraisals for expatriates is problematic (Black, et al., 1992; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Milliman, Nason, Gallagher, Hou, Von Glinow, & Lowe, 1997). According to Mendenhall and Oddou (1991), what to use as criteria for measuring expatriate effectiveness is the most difficult part of performance appraisal because performance in an overseas subsidiary is subjected to many factors, such as changeable international finance conditions, international exchange rates, and host country economic situations.

The four core job dimensions are discussed separately relative to the Japanese expatriates in their international assignments. Taken as a whole, these dimensions of the job characteristic indicate the kinds of job aspects that expatriates are involved with throughout their international assignments. Therefore, job characteristic that Japanese expatriates perceive would relate to effective performance.

Advancement

As has been discussed, the theory of job characteristics suggests that the core job content perceived by expatriates should relate to the effectiveness of the expatriates (Hackman & Lawler, 1971). However, little is known about the perceived core job
content involved in an international assignment in terms of how it may relate to the effectiveness of expatriates' job performance. The four core contents as applied to this study represented a single factor, the job characteristic of Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments. By examining this relationship, this study would increase understanding of the following issues: (a) what is the nature of the relationship between the job characteristic and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates, (b) whether the job characteristic positively relates to effective performance, and (c) how well the job characteristic can explain the Japanese expatriates' effectiveness.

Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

The concepts of role conflict and role ambiguity are related to the study of role perceptions, which describes and explains stress associated with memberships within organizations (Van Sell, Brief, & Schuler, 1981). Within this frame, “a role can be seen as a set of expectations applied to the incumbent of a particular position by the incumbent and by role senders within and beyond organizational boundaries” (Van Sell, et al., 1981, p43). Based on this notion, individuals in the same position tend to demonstrate different behaviors by personalizing the given positions. This personalization is considered as a range of freedom in role performance. The focus of role perception is on the reactions of those employees who encounter situations in which they may be required to play a role conflicting with their own value system or in playing multiple roles, that also conflict with each other. In addition, the focus of role perception also concerns reactions of
employees who may not have been clearly provided a level of behavior and performance expected of them (Van Sell, et al., 1981).

Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) developed an instrument: role conflict and role ambiguity, which is based on classical organizational theory, including chain of command, unity of command and direction, and role theory (Rizzo, et al., 1970). According to them, these theoretical foundations are related to role perceptions in terms of how an organizational structure and a managerial mechanism in controlling and coordination influence employees. Assumptions of role conflict and role ambiguity are that the two role perceptions are negatively related to an employee's performance when he or she perceives a high level of conflict and ambiguity in the given role.

Role Conflict

The principle of unity of command and direction suggests that an organizational structure should prevent a member from receiving incompatible orders or expectations from more than one superior. Therefore, role conflict is seen as a result of the violation of these two principals (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Role theory states that when behaviors expected of individuals by others in the organization are inconsistent (role conflict), they experience stress, become dissatisfied, and perform less effectively than is consistent with their expected behaviors (Rizzo, et al., 1970).

According to Rizzo, et al. the two principles, chain of command and chain of unity, suggest that positions in a formal organizational structure should have formal role requirements, including a specific set of tasks and responsibilities. These sets of requirements are designed to allow management to hold employees accountable for their
performance and to provide them guidance. Employees use these requirements in decision-making to meet performance expectations. Role theory depicts a mechanism within an organization, whereby as an individual increases the probability of dissatisfaction associated with his or her role, he or she experiences anxiety, distorts reality of a situation, and therefore, he or she tends to perform less effectively (Rizzo, et al., 1970).

On the basis of these theoretical foundations, a definition of role conflict is “the dimensions of congruency-incongruency or compatibility-incompatibility in the requirements of the role” (Rizzo, et al, 1970, p155). In other words, it is a condition of a incongruity of expectations associated with a role (Van Sell, et al., 1981). The concept of role conflict contains different dimensions, as indicated below (Rizzo, et al., 1970):

1. Conflict between the focal person’s internal a congruency-incongruency, relative to a set of standards or values, which undermines role behaviors. This is related to a person filling a single position.

2. Conflict between time and resources or capabilities of a person defining role behaviors, which involves more than one person generating the incompatibility. This is viewed as intra-sender conflict, relating to person-role conflict or intra-role conflict within an organizational setting.

3. Conflict between several roles for the same person requiring incompatible behaviors or behavioral changes resulting from a situation. This is viewed as a single person filling multiple positions in the role system.

4. Conflicting expectations and organizational demands due to incompatible policies, requests from others, and performance standards (p. 155).
Role conflict is associated with an expectation by which role senders and focal persons in the given positions have different sets of roles. Therefore, role conflict is related to employees' overall attitudes toward their jobs, which also is related to their perceived effectiveness and performance (Van Sell, et al., 1981). Therefore, the four underlying concepts in the role conflict can be treated as a single factor relative to effectiveness of performance.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity is also based on classical organizational theory and role theory (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Positions within an organization have a specific set of tasks, requirements, and/or responsibilities that are designed to provide guidelines for employees. These guidelines are used by employees in performing their jobs, but also are used by management to control employees' performance and accountability.

Based on this theoretical foundation, role ambiguity is defined as the degree to which clear information is lacking regarding the scope and responsibilities of the given organizational position (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Role ambiguity is associated with organizational factors, such as the size of an organization, frequent technological changes, personnel changes, and changes in information flow. Therefore, role ambiguity reflects an uncertainty about duties, authority, allocation of time, and relationships with others. It is related to: (a) the probability of the outcome or responses to one's role, (b) methods for fulfilling known role expectations, and (c) clarity of behavioral requirements (Rizzo, et al., 1970; Van Sell, et al., 1981).
According to Van Sell, et al. (1981), role ambiguity could take different forms relative to a lack of information regarding (1) a potential role expectation, (2) behaviors to be executed while a role expectation is met, and (3) consequence of outcomes when a role expectation is not clear. Rizzo, et al. (1970) suggests that role ambiguity serves to guide behaviors and provide knowledge about whether the behavior is appropriate or not. At the same time, the three forms of role ambiguity may be exhibited in a reciprocal causal relationship with dimensions of role conflict. Van Sell, Brief, and Schuler (1981) suggests that even though role conflict and ambiguity are separate concepts, it should be noted that "one should not expect empirical indices necessarily to be unrelated" (p44).

Role conflict and role ambiguity can be seen as objective characteristics of a role and as subjective perceptual reactions of the focal person in the given role. Therefore, the two characteristics of roles apply different measurements. Objective role characteristics can be measured through collecting information from all the members of the various role sets of each role incumbent, by determining the focal person's performance, and by the analysis of role expectations, subjective role characteristics are measured by employees' perceptions through a questionnaire (Van Sell, et al., 1981).

**Research Studies in Role Perceptions**

The basic assumption of role conflict and role ambiguity is that these two role perceptions are negatively related to employees' performance. In other words, lower perceived roles lead to higher performance, as measured by job satisfaction and performance ratings, as well as to lower absenteeism, there is less propensity to leave a company and anxiety (Frost, 1983; Schuler, 1975). A reason for such relationships is that
role conflict and role ambiguity are negatively associated with employees’ efforts to perform and to their expectation of rewards as a result of their performance (Jackson & Schuler, 1985).

However, some studies have shown weak relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity and performance (Schuler, 1975; Schuler, Aldag, & Brief, 1977). For instance, a study by Schuler (1975) found that employees’ performance at the middle level of the company was less negatively related to the two role perceptions. In addition, Schuler, et al. (1977) also found that employees’ performance at higher levels of the company had very weak relationships with role conflict and role ambiguity. These results suggest that role conflict and role ambiguity can be related to positions associated with organizational rankings.

Expatriate Studies and Role Conflict and Role Ambiguity

Role conflict and role ambiguity have been applied in studies involving international work contexts where an organizational system is operated in a different socio-economic system or where two or more different organizational systems work closely with each other (Black 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Shenkar & Zeira, 1992). Within the multiplicity of work contexts, expatriates work closely with local employees and/or third national employees. These employees with whom expatriates share responsibilities to achieve common organizational goals hold different perceptions of work and interpretations of roles (Shenkar & Zeira, 1992).

Furthermore, a work context in which expatriates perform their duties and tasks in their international assignments also involves different interests between headquarters and
local operations, as well as the uncertainty about socio-economic conditions of a host country. According to Shenkar and Zeira (1992), expatriates are responsible for carrying out duties and tasks and they have to deal with the demands of different parties simultaneously, such as headquarters and local operations. In addition, expatriates also have to deal with demands of colleagues from the home country and from the local employees.

Expatriate research relative to role conflict and role ambiguity is related mostly to international joint ventures (Shenkar & Zeira, 1987 as cited in Shenkar & Zeira, 1992; Shenkar & Zeira 1992) and cross-cultural work adjustment (Black, 1990; Nagai, 1996). Shenkar and Zeira (1992) investigated role perceptions of chief executive officers (CEOs) in international joint ventures. They state that CEOs deal with a large amount of role conflict due to the inherent multiplicity of business systems. That is, CEOs have to respond to different parties simultaneously with the different parties having different priorities. Role ambiguity relates to CEOs who experience insufficient information relative to the different expectations of different parties, as well as to the different expectations of different employee groups.

In the study, Shenkar and Zeira (1992) examined relationships between the perceived degree of role conflict and role ambiguity and organizational factors, including ownership, objectives, and length of service, as well as personal characteristics (e.g., autonomy, and educational level). For instance, lower role conflict was related to CEOs' length of service, while lower role ambiguity was related to CEOs' high educational level. Regarding organizational factors, role conflict was positively related to the number
of owners of the joint venture and differences in objectives. Role ambiguity was
negatively related to the numbers of companies in the joint venture.

The contribution of the study by Shenkar and Zeira (1992) has shown how role
conflict and role ambiguity apply to international business operations. However, their
study did not investigate the relationships of perceived role conflict and role ambiguity
relative to CEOs’ performance. In this regard, a study of role perceptions in international
business settings may need to be explored. In fact, Shenkar and Zeira (1992) indicate that
the dynamics of role conflict and role ambiguity within an international operation may be
different than those in a domestic operation. If this is the case, the two role perceptions in
wholly-owned foreign subsidiaries would be similar to those in international joint
ventures.

A series of expatriate studies by Black (1988, 1990) and Black and Gregersen
(1991) have investigated relationships between role conflict, ambiguity, and expatriate
adjustment to a host country and the given international assignment. Black (1988, 1990)
and his colleague (Black & Gregersen, 1991) state that expatriates face greater role
ambiguity, which causes difficulty in predicting the outcomes of their behaviors in a
foreign environment. One possible reason is that past successful or appropriate behaviors
may not be as effective as they are in a host country. Furthermore, expatriates tend to
experience role conflict in a new foreign work situation, where the size of operations
tends to be small and where the accessibility to resources, in terms of quality and quantity
may be limited (Sonoda, 1998).
Black (1990) focused particularly on Japanese expatriate managers in the U.S. and examined role ambiguity relative to their adjustment. He believed that the primary source of uncertainty concerning a job that the Japanese expatriates perform is their perceptions of the given roles. Black (1990) argues that if expatriates have clear expectations of their roles in overseas operations, it will be easier for them to adjust to the work in international assignments. Results of his study show a low positive relationship between role clarity (role ambiguity) and the Japanese expatriates' work adjustment \( (r = .28) \).

Similarly, American expatriates also show negative relationships between role ambiguity and work adjustment, but role conflict does not have a statistically significant relationship with work adjustment. Studies by Black and Gregersen (1991, 1992) show significant positive relationships between expatriates' perceived role clarity and their intention to stay in a host country, as well as to their commitment to international assignments. However, a study by Black and Gregersen (1991), focusing on American expatriates in Pacific areas, shows no significant results for both role conflict and role ambiguity. This result may imply that an investigation applying role perceptions to an expatriate study should be explored.

Role perception studies, relative to expatriate adjustment, contributed to providing a good understanding of expatriates regarding their work adjustment and their commitment to overseas work. However, none of these studies examined relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity and the effectiveness of expatriate performance.
Although Black’s study (1993) implies a positive relationship with performance, only speculation can be made about work adjustment and performance.

**Advancement**

Based on the results of studies discussed previously, it can be said that there has not been an adequate number of research studies applying role conflict and role ambiguity to measure the effectiveness of expatriate performance. Therefore, whether role conflict and role ambiguity relates to the effectiveness of expatriates is unknown. This study included role conflict and role ambiguity to examine a relationship between the two perceptions and effectiveness.

Bird and Dunbar (1991) state that international assignments are different from domestic assignments in terms of the availability of resources, such as support staff, finances and material to do the job, which is related to role conflict. In addition, there are also many constraints in overseas operations that expatriates have to maneuver through in carrying out their jobs, while attaining their work goals (Black & Gregersen, 1991). Job constraints include organizational resource limitations, legal and trade union constraints, attitudes of workers, and work outside of units (Stewart, 1982). These constraints affect expatriates when the constraints become obstacles to expatriates attaining their work goals (Black & Gregersen, 1991).

Specifically, the role perceptions may be more problematic for Japanese expatriates than for their foreign counterparts. A study by Sonoda (1998) shows role confusion as perceived by Japanese expatriates. Their confusion is related to a lack of information about their roles and the performance expectations, which may be due, in
part, to differences in management practices and perceptions of effectiveness. These exist differently from nation to nation and culture to culture (Hanada, 1994; Thomas & Toyne, 1995).

Another possible cause of the problem relative to role perception among Japanese expatriates may stem from assigned organizational ranks in the given international assignments. Japanese companies often assign their managers higher managerial ranks in international assignments than in domestic assignments. As such, the Japanese expatriates may not be fully aware of their roles and expectations within the given assignments (Sonoda, 1998).

Therefore, it is important to investigate the relationships between perceived roles in the given international assignments and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates. The literature, as discussed earlier, indicated a need for inquiring whether lower role conflict and role ambiguity are embodied into cross-national work settings. This type of inquiry provides a new aspect of expatriate study.

Cross-Cultural Work Adjustment

Cross-cultural work adjustment, as proposed by Black (1988) is derived from a combination of two concepts: cross-cultural adjustment and work role adjustment. Cross-cultural adjustment suggests that as individuals go through different adjustment stages, they become adjusted to a host country environment, and as such they can function in their given assignments (Black, 1988, 1990). On the other hand, work role adjustment
suggests that individuals can adjust to a new role by altering their frame of reference and behaviors and/or by altering work requirements to match their given roles (Nicholson, 1984). The literature review in this section is divided into three subsections: (a) cross-cultural studies, including training, (b) work adjustment, and (c) studies in cross-cultural work adjustment.

Cross-Cultural Studies: Adaptation and/or Adjustment

Due to international assignments automatically involving physical and psychological transitions from one country (home country) to another country (the host country), many studies have indicated difficulty adjusting to a foreign country as a major reason for expatriate failure (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991, Fukuda & Chu, 1994; Stone, 1991). Studies in expatriate effectiveness address two types of adaptation; a cross-cultural adaptation, which is defined as a process of learning, which allows people to achieve a fit between individuals and the environment, and cross-cultural adjustment, which is defined as a cyclical and recursive process of overcoming obstacles and solving problems in a present situation and which is considered to be a part of adaptation (Anderson, 1994). According to Anderson, one difference is that adjustment occurs at a point in time in adaptation, whereas adaptation is a sequential process. However, expatriate studies use these terms interchangeably, depending on the study. With this notion, the terms; adaptation and adjustment, as used in reviewing the literature, are based on studies of authors’ preferences.

The primary focuses of cross-cultural studies relative to expatriates have been on individual psychological aspects, personality, and behavioral adaptation and/or
adjustment (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Cui & Awa, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Shilling, 1993). Expatriate effectiveness in these studies is equivalent to individual adaptation, adjustment, and intercultural effectiveness. Focuses of studies are on identifying factors in these types of effectiveness and relationships between and/or among factors, including individual abilities, personal traits, as well as skills, and types of effectiveness.

For instance, effectiveness is measured by abilities to (a) manage psychological stress, (b) establish interpersonal relationships, (c) communicate effectively, (d) understand others, (e) deal with different social systems, and (f) interpersonal communication (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Cui & Awa, 1992; Koester & Olebe, 1988). Kealey (1996) expands and summarizes cross-cultural factors and proposes a model of cross-cultural collaborators. His collaborator model include: (a) partnership skills, focusing on professional demands to establish work relationships with local employees, (b) cross-cultural skills, referring to skills needed to find culturally appropriate ways of living in a host country, and (c) adaptation skills, referring to abilities used to cope with overall living and working conditions overseas. These factors are measured by personal traits, such as openness, sensitivity, tolerance, and flexibility, as well as cultural empathy, stress reduction, coping skills, and language skills (Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Cui & Awa, 1992; Koster & Olebe, 1988; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Parker & McEvoy, 1993).

These factors and measures have been applied to an expatriate study. Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) discuss three dimensions of cultural adaptation for expatriates; (a) self-orientation, referring to the maintenance of one’s own mental and physical health, (b)
other-orientation, referring to the expatriate’s concern for local people, and (c) perceptual-orientation, referring to one’s ability to understand the ways of the host country. Expatriate adaptation is measured by the three profiles and is contingent on a level of cultural toughness. Cultural toughness is determined as the degree of cultural congruence between a host and home country. Although Mendenhall and Oddou (1986) state that the three-profile model can be used to predict higher probabilities of international success and productivity, their model has not been empirically tested.

Research in cross-cultural studies relative to expatriates has often investigated intercultural and/or overseas effectiveness, as well as adaptation (Black, 1988, 1990; Cui & Awa, 1992; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Nagai, 1996; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Thomas & Toyne, 1995). Overseas effectiveness is related to cultural adaptation and the expatriates’ and their families’ satisfaction, as measured by personal and interpersonal characteristics (Hawes & Kealey, 1981). Cue and Awa (1992) show that intercultural effectiveness is related to cultural adaptation and job performance. In their study, cultural adaptation is related to personal traits, as well as social and interpersonal skills; on the other hand, performance is related to interpersonal skills, cultural empathy, and managerial abilities.

Black (1988, 1990) studied the cultural adjustment of Americans in Pacific Rim countries and Japanese expatriates in the United States (U.S). He identified three types of adjustments: (a) general, (b) interaction, and (c) work, as well as the relationships between factors and each facet of adjustment. General adjustment is related to adaptation to general living conditions in a host country, interaction adjustment is related to expatriates’ willingness to interact with local people, and their spouse’s adaptation, and
work adjustment is related work responsibilities. These three adjustments have been confirmed in studies by Nagai (1994, 1996), focusing on Japanese expatriates staying in more than 47 countries and the study by Parker and McEvoy(1993).

In addition, a recent study by Thomas and Toyne (1995) examined cultural adaptation of Japanese expatriates as perceived by American subordinates. An assumption of this study is that a different perception of managerial effectiveness between the Japanese and American managers relates to the perceived cultural adaptability of the Japanese expatriates. Their study shows that the more American subordinates perceive managerial similarities between Japanese and American managers the more American subordinates perceive that the Japanese expatriates are well adapted. In addition, the higher the degree of adaptability of the Japanese expatriates as perceived by the American subordinates, the more effective the Japanese expatriates are perceived to be. Because cross-cultural adaptation has been seen as the primary reason for expatriate failure, expatriate effectiveness has been investigated from cross-cultural adaptation and/or adjustment (Kealey, 1996; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Stone, 1991). Cross-cultural studies have contributed to identifying factors, such as personal traits, and types of abilities and skills, which help individuals to make cross-cultural transitions effectively and to function in a foreign environment.

Research Issues and Adaptation/Adjustment

Expatriate effectiveness, determined by cross-cultural adaptation and intercultural effectiveness, has been found to be related to expatriate failure (Black, 1988, 1990; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Stone, 1991). However, conceptual and research problems have
also been discussed regarding the assessment of expatriate effectiveness (Benson, 1978; Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Hannigan, 1990; Kealey, 1996). Regarding conceptual issues, adaptability and/or adjustment may contain limitations in examining the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance in their international assignments.

The characteristics of international assignments vary depending on the purpose of particular assignments and business objectives, the tasks involved in different types of assignments, the managerial positions, and host countries to be assigned (Hays, 1974). In this regard, international assignments contain complex and multiple dimensions that can influence the work of expatriates (Black, et al., 1992; Dowling, et al., 1994; Hanada, 1987). However, cultural adaptation and/or adjustment focus on individual psychological aspects, personality, and behavioral skills (Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey, 1996).

In addition, factors related to expatriate adjustment might be limited in their usefulness in the investigation of expatriate performance effectiveness. The assumption of expatriate effectiveness, in a cultural frame, is that if expatriates make successful cross-cultural adaptations and/or adjustments, they will stay in a host country and complete their assignments. Therefore, they are successful (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Nagai, 1994, 1996). However, this assumption may not hold true when expatriates are ineffective in their jobs or exhibit lower performance than expected, but still remain in the host countries until the end of their international assignments (Dowling, et al., 1994; Kealey, 1996; Sadamori, 1994).

A research issue relative to expatriate adaptation is associated with the definition of terms used in studies (Black, 1988, 1990; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey, 1996;
The terms, adaptation and adjustment have been used interchangeably, depending on the authors. Hannigan (1990) points out a lack of consensus about constructs and common definitions. This lack of common definitions creates a measurement problem. Kealey (1996) mentions the criterion problem, in which the effectiveness of expatriates is defined and measured by adaptation, adjustment and/or intercultural competency. In other studies, however, the same factors, such as intercultural competencies (e.g., communication and intercultural relationship) that measure effectiveness are used as dependent variables. This confusion in variables may undermine the credibility of the findings and their application to expatriates (Kealey, 1996).

In summary, the literature assessing the effectiveness of expatriates based on the cross-cultural framework has identified some antecedents, personal traits, general cultural factors, and interpersonal factors. These factors are related to the expatriate’s ability to adapt to a host country and/or adjust to work. However, research and conceptual limitations have been indicated. These limitations bring into question the applicability and credibility of independent variables in the cross-cultural frame due, in part, to the exclusion of the complex nature of work-related factors in international assignments.

In spite of the limitations inherent in cross-cultural adaptation and/or adjustment studies, adaptation and/or adjustment is considered to be the primary reason for expatriate failure (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Stone, 1991). Consequently, issues in adaptation and/or adjustment are related to cross-cultural training for expatriates. Cross-cultural
training is defined as an educative process that is intended to promote cultural learning through the acquisition of cognitive, affective, and behavioral competencies, which are associated with effective interpersonal skills across cultures (Gudykunst, Guzley, & Hammer, 1996; Paige & Martin, 1996).

Training for expatriates

Training is provided to the expatriates in order to minimizing expatriate failure due to problems associated with cultural adaptation and/or adjustment, (Bhagat & Prien, 1996; Earley, 1987; Tashiro, 1989). At the same time, training is also considered as an intervention strategy ensuring expatriate success (Bailey & Shenkar, 1993; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; National Foreign Trade Council, 1996). In fact, approximately 40% of U.S. companies provided some pre-departure training for their expatriates and their spouses (National Foreign Trade Council 1997), while 80% of Japanese expatriates and their spouses were provided training (Tashiro, 1989).

The focus of expatriate training research is on two major areas: (a) the effectiveness of training programs for expatriates and (b) the relationships between cross-cultural training (CCT) and the effectiveness of expatriates (Bhagat & Prien, 1996; Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992). Black and Mendenhall (1990) proposed a model of CCT for expatriates, which shows that a training method is a function of training rigor and learning process. With their model, effective CCT is based on these two dimensions and situational factors, such as cultural and job novelty and the degree of interaction with locals.
Studies of cross-cultural training relative to expatriates have found that a multiple program approach for CCT, integrating two or more different types of training programs, has been considered as most effective (Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992; Kealey & Prothro, 1996). For instance, combining critical incident training and cultural sensitivity training provides added benefits in preparing expatriates for international assignments (Earley, 1987). Similarly, Harrison (1992) examined three different training programs: (a) cognitive CCT, referring to knowledge about cultural differences between two countries, (b) behavioral modeling CCT, referring to learning through observation, and (c) a combination of the two training programs. Results showed that expatriates receiving training in both demonstrated higher performance than those receiving either type of training alone.

Several studies have presented positive relationships between CCT and the effectiveness of expatriates (Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992; Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992; National Foreign Trade Council, 1996). Expatriate effectiveness has been measured by some forms of adjustment, such as adaptation and partnership skills, work adjustment (Black, 1988, 1990; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Nagai, 1996), and job performance as rated by the supervisor- and self-rating (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Earley, 1987; Harrison, 1992). In spite of these positive findings, there have been concerns regarding the cross-cultural frame.
Research Issues and Training

Some concerns and issues relative to expatriate training have been raised by various studies (Bailey & Shenkar, 1993; Deshpande and Viswesvaran, 1992; Kealey & Prothroe, 1996; Ronen, 1989; Tashiro, 1989). Kealey and Prothroe (1996) point out inconsistent results relative to cross-cultural training (CCT) programs and their effectiveness among research studies. The effectiveness of CCT using area briefings and behavioral programs can be equally effective (Earley, 1987) while other studies show behavioral training is more effective than the other types of programs (Harrison, 1992). Ronen (1989) concludes that a problem exists relative to the lack of empirical studies concerning relationships between cross-cultural training and effectiveness. There have not been clearly defined relationships between predictors (training programs and the outcome of the training) and criterion (performance) ratings.

Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992) reviewed the expatriate literature and found that relationships between CCT and expatriate performance show inconsistent results. They concluded that expatriate performance could be influenced by the nature of jobs, specific job characteristics, and the nature of interactions with local employees. However, there is a lack of empirical studies investigating these moderators. Therefore, it would be difficult to determine whether CCT relates to expatriate effectiveness on their jobs (Deshpande & Viswesvaran, 1992).

Concerning expatriate training for Japanese managers, the study by Tashiro (1989) shows that 73% of Japanese expatriates sometimes have difficulty in carrying out their jobs in their international assignments. The areas of difficulties that the Japanese
expatriate face include managing overseas operational units, the language, functional job
capabilities, and interpersonal relationships with local employees (Tashiro, 1989).

Similarly, Bailey and Shenkar (1993) state that training for expatriates is not designed to
meet the needs of international work settings. Therefore, expatriates are not equipped to
be effective in their international assignments. In this respect, it can be said that
expatriates may have some difficulties with their jobs and performing their
responsibilities.

**Advancement**

Expatriate studies focus on cultural adaptation and/or adjustment, particularly on
relationships with factors of individuals and their abilities, skills and personal traits,
which have shown positive relationships. However, these factors do not reflect the
complex nature of work in an international assignment, which influences individual
expatriates and the way they work. This notion may suggest that a study should include
work-related factors of expatriates (Clarke & Hammer, 1995). Similarly, cross-cultural
training for expatriates has also shown positive relationships with expatriate
effectiveness, as measured by intercultural effectiveness and adaptation and/or
adjustment. There is a lack of integration of work-related needs that expatriates are
required to deal with as part of their work within an international assignment (Harrison,
1994).

To fulfill a need for work-related factors in an expatriate adjustment study, the
work adjustment literature focuses on work role transition. Work role transition
describes how people make their transitions due to organizational transfers, which require
them to adjust to a given role in work (Dawis and Lofquist, 1984, Nicholson, 1984). An international relocation is one type of work transition (Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991). The next section focuses on reviewing the work adjustment literature.

Work Adjustment

The concept of work adjustment is based on the correspondence between individual employees and their work environment, which implies harmonious relationships between the two. An assumption of work adjustment is that individual employees seek to achieve and maintain correspondence with the work environment (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). According to Dawis and Lofquist, correspondence is a relationship between individual employees and the work environment, which fulfills the requirements of both employees and their work environment. The process of work adjustment is a continuous and evolutionary process. Within that process, an individual’s perception and inferential abilities play important roles (Ashford & Taylor, 1990).

Work adjustment occurs when individual employees are transferred to another office and/or another location, as well as when other opportunities arise, such as organizational entry promotion, reorganization, and inter-organizational job changes (Pinder & Walter, 1984). It also includes geographic relocation (Brett, 1984). These job changes entail changes of the task content and/or task context, including people, places, and equipment (Brett, 1984). As a result, employees are required to adjust to new roles, customs, co-workers, and the culture of an organization or a work unit. In this regard,
work adjustment for expatriates means adjusting to their new roles, duties, assignments, and tasks within a host country work environment (Black, 1988). Therefore, an international assignment can be seen as a job transfer within an international relocation (Black, et al., 1991b).

In the work adjustment frame, Nicholson (1984) states two outcomes of work adjustment: personal development and role development, as a result of going through an adjustment process. Personal adjustment is individual adjustment to the given role by altering his or her frame of reference, values, or other identity. In other words, employees make adjustments by altering their self-concepts, values, skills, and life-styles to bring personal meaningfulness into a new role (Nicholson, 1984). Through an adjustment process, outcomes of personal development are changes in behaviors from the old job to the new job that are reflected in changed abilities, values, and attitudes (Brett, 1984).

According to Nicholson (1984), role development begins when a person tries to change role requirements in order to match his or her needs, abilities, and identity. Role development varies, depending on constraints, opportunities of the role, as well as individual needs and expectations. Employees tend to be proactive to changes in objectives of tasks, methods to complete work, materials to be used, the scheduling to carry out a job, and the interpersonal relationships, which are a part of role performance (Nicholson, 1984). In this regard, role development implies that employees reject old roles in order for them to adjust to new roles by altering job requirements (Brett, 1984).

Ashford and Taylor (1990) state that the work adjustment process may have a major impact on individual effectiveness relative to a given role. According to them, the
perceived duration of a transition process is more likely to influence the level of individual motivation to adjust to the given work environment. Moreover, individuals will differ in the degree of rationality (required changes and understanding of the process) with which they approach the complex adjustment process (Ashford & Taylor, 1990).

Work adjustment applies to the study of an expatriate and forms a facet of expatriate work adjustment. Unlike domestic work adjustment, Black, Mendenhall, and Gregersen (1992) state that international work adjustment usually requires expatriates to deal with greater disruptions of role routines in work and in social relationships. Therefore, the magnitude of uncertainty is much higher in international adjustment than in domestic adjustment. Based on this notion, expatriate work adjustment begins when expatriates face increased job-related uncertainty, unfamiliarity, unpredictability or uncontrollability in the new work role (Black, 1988). Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall (1992) state that job factors (e.g., role novelty, role overload, and job-related expectations in demands, constraints, and choice), relate to expatriate work adjustment. For instance, role novelty essentially increases the degree of unfamiliarity in the given roles and job role overload will negatively relate to adjustment to job responsibilities.

Expatriate Research in Cross-cultural Work Adjustment

Black (1988) believes that expatriates have to deal with greater job demands associated with work role transitions and work adjustment, when their international assignments contains higher role discretion, role novelty, and greater role overload. Black, in collaboration with his colleague, has investigated cross-cultural work
adjustment in expatriates (Black, 1988, 1990), as well as their commitment to international assignments (Black & Gregersen, 1991).

Black (1988, 1990) found positive relationships between role discretion and work adjustment. In addition, the results indicated that role discretion could predict expatriate work adjustment among both Japanese and American expatriates. However, in a study with an American expatriate sample (Black, 1988), relationships between role novelty and role overload and expatriate adjustment were not significant.

Nagai (1996) studied adjustment in Japanese expatriates stay in 47 countries. His study shows that work adjustment among Japanese expatriates relates positively to the length of stay in overseas assignments and in the host countries (p< .05). In addition, different factors relative to work adjustment are shown, depending on locations of international assignments. Work adjustment of Japanese expatriates in the U.S. is significantly related to the length in the U.S. assignment, but shows no relationship with the number of years overseas.

Black and Gregersen (1991) expanded their earlier expatriate adjustment study. They investigated adjustment relative to an American expatriate’s intention to leave his or her international assignment. In their study, job expectations; job demands, discretion, and choice, were used to examine relationships with an expatriate’s intention to leave from their international assignments through relation to job satisfaction and general satisfaction. Their findings showed that the two expectations (job demands and job constraints) are not related to work satisfaction. Furthermore, job discretion was related
to work satisfaction, but not to expatriates' intentions to leave their international assignments. This result was also supported by Birdseye and Hill (1995).

Feldman and Tompson (1993) examined expatriates' adjustment to three types of job transfers: domestic, expatriate, and repatriate, relative to the intent to remain, the overall performance, pay, etc. They believe that each type of adjustment is related to different factors, such as job characteristics and demographics, and are influenced by the degree of changes between successive job assignments. Even though results of this study show a lack of significant differences among the three types of transfer with adjustment factors, Feldman and Tompson (1993) provide additional information about expatriate work transition. In their study, the degree of change based on successive job assignments, referring to the degree of discontinuity in duties due to a transfer, was positively related to adjustment.

Advancement

Cross-cultural work adjustment has contributed to finding factors relating to adjustment effectiveness and finding positive relationships between work-related factors, such as role discretion, role overload, role novelty, and expatriates work adjustment to their international assignments (Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991). Expatriate effectiveness is based on the assumption that as expatriates adjust to new jobs in their intentional assignments, they can function effectively. However, these studies do not investigate relationships between work adjustment and performance effectiveness.
In addition, a study by Feldman and Tompson (1993) did not differentiate between the three types of transfers relative to overall performance even thought they assessed overall performance. Furthermore, the degree of change, referring to the degree of discontinuity in duties due to transfer, is not related to overall performance. Consequently, it is impossible to assess which of the given factors may relate to expatriate performance. A question still remains relative to relationships between work adjustment and effective performance in an international assignment. This study tries to understand whether work adjustment can offer an answer to this question by describing relationships between them and whether these relationships can be used to explain the effectiveness of performance among Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments.

Interpersonal Relationships and Influence Strategies

In the expatriate literature, building an interpersonal relationship with local people is one of the most important factors, which ensures expatriate success (Hanada, 1984b; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Zeira & Banai, 1985). Interpersonal relationships are related to various studies of expatriates, such as different facets of adjustment (general, relationship, and work), expatriate satisfaction, overseas commitment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Nagai, 1995; Naumann, 1992), overseas effectiveness (Hawes & Kealey, 1981), and performance (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Cui & Awa, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). These studies have indicated that the importance of the interpersonal
relationship has been seen among management, the expatriates themselves, and local employees.

Most studies dealing with interpersonal relationships are related to cross-cultural studies because expatriates are involved in a situation where they work closely with local employees, business counterparts, and the local community (Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Stening & Hammer, 1992). Focuses of studies in interpersonal relationship are on identifying factors relating to building good interpersonal relationships and individual abilities (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Clark & Hammer, 1995; Zeira & Bannai, 1985). These factors include different types of skills, including communication, foreign language fluency, and, coping skills, as well as personal traits, which include openness, flexibility, sensitivity, and initiative (Dinges & Baldwin, 1996; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Kealey, 1996).

Research studies relative to interpersonal relationships within international assignments have indicated significant positive relationships between interpersonal relationship skills and overseas success, as measured by cultural adaptation and/or adjustment, intercultural interactions with locals, satisfaction, and performance (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Cui & Awa, 1992; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Stening & Hammer, 1992). Of these studies, the intercultural interaction skill variable is the strongest predictor of expatriate effectiveness. Cui and Awa (1992) show that four factors, including interpersonal skills, cultural empathy, interactions with locals, and managerial ability, account for 51% of the variance in expatriate effectiveness. At the same time, interpersonal relationship is also included as the dependent variable, which is assessed by
interpersonal skills, personality, cultural sensitivity, socialization with locals, and the willingness to communicate (Black, 1988, 1990; Hawes & Kealey, 1981).

**Research Issues**

In spite of positive assertions about the interpersonal relationship in expatriate studies, Zeira and Banai (1985) state that measuring an individual’s abilities regarding human relational skills is difficult. In addition, psychological instruments measuring interaction abilities are not convincingly validated and may not predict future behaviors, which are associated with interaction abilities (Kealey, 1996). Expatriate effectiveness measured by the interpersonal relationship is, in some studies, measured by self-ratings (Black, 1988, 1990; Cui & Awa, 1992; Nagai, 1996; Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Stening & Hammer, 1992). This contains a common method variance problem, which indicates that relationships between effectiveness and perceived interpersonal relationships tend to be correlated with each other (P. Young, personal communication, October, 1998).

Another concern is that the interpersonal relationship may inherently have a limitation in assessing expatriate effectiveness. For example, relationships between intercultural adjustment and the expatriates’ intentions to stay in their international assignments are not related (Black & Gregersen, 1991). A study by Clarke and Hammer (1995) shows that job performance of expatriates as rated by local managers show moderately positive relationships with interpersonal skills and interpersonal interaction. However, the actual performance rating is not significantly related to interpersonal skills, but related to expatriates’ assertion skills.
These results suggest that although interpersonal relationships have a significant impact on relationships with locals in general, they may not be directly related to expatriate performance and effectiveness. In addition, the interpersonal relationship is often measured by communication, frankness, the ability to understand others' feelings, and understanding a local culture (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Cui & Awa, 1992; Hawes & Kealey, 1981). As such, these factors are not directly related to the measure of effectiveness of performance, although these may influence intercultural effectiveness. These results may suggest that interpersonal relationship should include a work-related factor, which relates to performance effectiveness. The following section focuses on how interpersonal relationships can be related to the effectiveness of expatriate performance.

Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies

The study of interpersonal relationships focuses on skills and factors relating to expatriate adjustment and effectiveness (Black, 1988, 1990; Stening & Hammer, 1992). Communication can be seen as a vehicle that connects person to person. Other factors, such as personality and individual characteristics help communication and build harmonious relationships and bridge gaps between people (Koster & Olebe, 1989). A study in the interpersonal influence strategy framework states that people at work use personal strategies to attain organizational and personal goals (Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson, 1980). In this regard, communication and relationships are treated as tools used in attaining goals.
A model of interpersonal influence strategies has been proposed (Kipnis, et al., 1980), as intraorganizational influence tactics. Essentially, the literature suggests that effectiveness in attaining goals is a function of the ability to identify types of strategies and to apply the most appropriate strategy in the given situation. People use personal strategies based on several reasons. These reasons include (Kipnis, et al., 1980):

1. **Assistance with own job** – obtaining the assistance of the target in helping the respondent do his or her job when it was not part of the target's legitimate job duties.
2. **Get others to do their job** – getting the target to do his or her own work.
3. **Obtain benefits** – goals that personally benefited the respondent, such as salary increase, promotion, and improvised work schedule.
4. **Initiate change** – initiating new organizational programs and systems or improving the coordination of organizational activities.
5. **Improve performance** – improving the target's on-the-job performance (p. 441).

In addition, six interpersonal strategies are identified as a result of an empirical study. These strategies and definitions are included as follows:

1. **Assertiveness**, characterized by demanding, ordering, and setting deadlines (Kipnis, et al., 1980).
2. **Friendliness**, characterized by humbleness and making others feel important (Yeh, 1995).
3. **Reason**, characterized by writing a detailed plan and explaining the reasons for requests with logic (Kipnis, et al., 1980).
4. **Sanction**, characterized by rewards and reprimand, such as salary raises and threatened with loss of promotion Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984).
5. **Exchange** of benefits, characterized by offering to a favorable exchange and to concession, and making a sense of reciprocity (Yeh, 1995).
6. **Upward appeal**, characterized by using influence from higher levels in the organization by making formal appeal and/or obtaining supports (Rao & Schmidit, 1995).
Later, Kipnis and Schmidt (as cited by Schmidt and Yeh, 1992) extended and refined the strategies. These strategies are used differently, based on the five reasons and target status levels, such as superiors, co-workers, and subordinates (Kipnis, et al., 1980). For instance, when people are interested in obtaining personal benefits, they try to influence superiors. In contrast, major reasons for influencing subordinates are when people try to assign subordinates work, to improve subordinates’ job performance, and to have subordinates assist with the manager’s own work. When the primary reason is to get assistance with their own jobs, people try to influence their co-workers. People also try to influence superiors and subordinates when they initiate changes in work.

Furthermore, Kipnis, et al. (1980) identified relationships between reasons for exercising influence and specific strategies. In obtaining assistance on one’s own jobs, friendliness is most frequently used between superiors and subordinates. Assertiveness is used at all status levels when people assign others work. The other three reasons (e.g., obtaining personal benefits, improve performance and initiating change in work) vary in the use of strategies, which depends on the target status.

The work of Kipnis, et al. (1980) has contributed to the understanding of the dynamics of inter-organizational interpersonal relationships and to identifying influence strategies relative to the target status levels. Kipnis, Schmidt, Wilkinson, and Smith (1984) assert that interpersonal influence strategies are used in “the course of performing organizational roles that require influencing others — for example to encourage others, to perform effectively, to promote new ideas, or to introduce new work procedures” (p. 59). This assertion suggests that employees’ choices of strategies in performing their jobs
should relate to the effectiveness of their performance. In other words, effective managers are those who are flexible and are able to identify, and to use the most appropriate strategy in a given situation (Kipnis, et al., 1984).

Research in Interpersonal Influence Strategies

Studies in interpersonal influence strategies have focused on the difference in target status: superiors and subordinates (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984). These studies examined employees' goal-seeking behaviors and situations under which managers exercised strategies to accomplish organizational and/or personal goals. A study by Schmidt and Kipnis (1984) examined six interpersonal influence strategies used by managers relative to their superiors. The six strategies include: (a) friendliness, (b) exchange, (c) reason, (d) assertiveness, (e) upward appeal, and (f) coalition.

Results of the study showed managers use strategies for the purpose of attaining organizational (assign work, improve performance, and introducing ideas) and personal (obtain personal benefits, assist with own jobs, and improve image) goals. Also, managers used a different set of strategies for organizational and for personal goals. For instance, upward appeal, assertiveness, and coalition, were used by managers when they tried to attain organizational goals. On the other hand, exchange, friendliness and upward appeal, were used when managers were pursuing personal goals.

Hinkin and Schriesheim (1990) examined whether superiors’ power, as perceived by subordinates, and the strategies used in changing subordinates’ behaviors by superiors were different with regard to influencing subordinates. They concluded that the use of
rationality was very important when superiors tried to enhance personal power and to provide desirable outcomes for organizational goals. However, the use of sanction and upward appeal, which was often associated with position power, may result in a reduction of the perceived superior's power.

Expatriate Studies Applying Interpersonal Influence Strategies

The study of interpersonal influence strategies has been applied also to international work settings. Most studies concern mainly the structure of leader influence at work (Nagai, 1993b, 1994; Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Schmidt & Yeh, 1992; Yeh, 1995). An international work environment is a place where managers from different countries work closely with local employees to achieve common organizational goals. Interpersonal influence studies have shown that different influence strategies are used by managers in different countries (Rao & Schmidt, 1995).

Schmidt and Yeh (1992) question whether there might be common dimensions in the structure of leader influence that can be seen across nations or cultural boundaries. They investigated superior influence strategies used by expatriates from three countries (Japan, England, and Australia) and Taiwanese managers toward local employees in Taiwan. The influence strategies were extracted and they included: assertiveness, friendliness, reason, exchange, sanction, upward appeal, and coalition.

Results showed both similarities and differences in influence strategies among expatriates. For instance, expatriates from Japan, Taiwan, and England defined "exchange" as sacrificing and helping subordinates, while expatriates from all countries define "reason" as informing. However, expatriates from all of the nations except Japan
defined “reason” as using logic. Assertiveness was defined as “scolding” by the Japanese, English, and Australians, but not by Taiwanese. “Sanction” and “upward appeal” were defined similarly among expatriates from all countries. These results suggest that each strategy contain slightly different interpretations according to nationalities.

Relative importance of each strategy is also examined and results indicate national differences. For instance, the Japanese expatriates consider reason/assertiveness as the most important, followed by upward appeal, exchange, assertiveness, friendliness, sanctions, and coalition. The Taiwanese managers rank sanctions as the most important, followed by reason/assertiveness, and bargaining, while Australians indicate reason/friendliness, exchange, and sanctions in that order. English expatriates indicate exchange, upward appeal, and coalition as the top three strategies.

Unlike a study focusing on the use of influence strategies by expatriates, Rao and Schmidt (1995) examined whether local employees modify their influence strategies when they dealt with expatriates. Furthermore, they also examined flexibility in the use of influence strategies in intercultural interactions between expatriates and local coworkers. Rao and Schmidt (1995) indicated that individuals from the same cultural backgrounds tried to maintain their distinctive intercultural behavioral patterns when dealing with people from other cultures. Particularly, this tendency can be seen when there are basic differences in cultural values.

This notion of maintaining cultural heritage may lead to a lack of modification of behaviors when both expatriates and local managers interact with each other at work. In
this respect, interpersonal influence strategies are defined by the cluster of behavioral strategies used to alter behaviors of others in attaining goals (Rao & Schmidt, 1995). In addition, Rao and Schmidt believe that influence strategies can be influenced by intercultural competencies of local managers toward American expatriates.

Results of the study by Rao and Schmidt (1995) show that local managers indicate similarities in the use of strategy patterns between expatriates and local co-workers. For instance, local managers frequently use reason and friendliness when dealing with targets. However, significant differences are shown in the use of the following strategies: assertiveness, coalitions, and exchange. According to Rao and Schmidt (1995), local managers use assertiveness with local co-workers more frequently than with expatriates, whereas they use coalitions and bargaining more frequently than with expatriates. In addition, three strategies: assertiveness, coalitions, and exchange are found to have negative relationships with an interpersonal relationship and with communication between local managers and expatriates.

Yeh (1995) investigated influence strategies used among Japanese and American expatriates toward local subordinates in Taiwan. He states that differences in influence strategies between the Japanese and American expatriates are due to their cultural backgrounds, characterized by collectivism (Japanese) and individualism (Americans). Yeh (1995) also discusses issues relative to managerial practices of a company, which may influence individual managers in their use of strategies in a host work environment.

Six interpersonal influence strategies were identified: sanction, forceful reason, friendliness, exchange, higher authority, and assertiveness. Findings show that the rank
order regarding patterns of these strategies between Japanese and U.S. companies are slightly different. The Japanese and the U.S. companies use reason most frequently, followed by assertiveness and friendliness. However, differences are shown among lower ranking strategies. On the comparative basis between the two nations, the Japanese companies more use assertiveness, exchange, and upward appeal, while U.S. companies use reason, friendliness, and sanction (Yeh, 1995).

According to Yeh, the frequency of using assertiveness is related to the length of Japanese stay in Taiwan; the longer they stay in Taiwan, the more Japanese managers become assertive. Regarding the organizational culture influencing the use of strategies, results show the relative impact of organizational culture influences on the use of strategies by Japanese and American expatriates, but organizational culture does not have more of an impact on Taiwanese managers. However, national culture appears to have more of an impact on the Japanese expatriates than on Taiwanese and American managers.

The most recent study in influence strategy within a cross-national setting was done by Rao and Hashimoto (1996). The study concerns Japanese expatriates in Canada and examines strategies relative to interpersonal relationships between and among Japanese and Canadian subordinates. The study is based on the notion that people who share the same cultural background are more comfortable with each other and that is the main source of interpersonal relationships (Byrne, 1971). If this is the case, Rao and Hashimoto (1996) argue that the Japanese expatriates tend to keep the same influence strategies when they deal with local employees as they do with Japanese workers. On the
other hand, upon becoming a member of a group, people alter their behaviors in order to obtain membership from the group. In this regard, the Japanese expatriates who try to become a member of an inter-cultural work team alter their behavioral patterns.

Influence strategies extracted in this study include: assertiveness, sanction, upward appeal, reason, reciprocity characterized by friendliness and exchange, and the total use of all five strategies. Rankings that Japanese expatriates mark relative to their use of influence strategies to their Japan subordinates and to their local subordinate indicate similar results; the total strategy is used most, followed by reason, and assertiveness. However, a t-test showed significant differences in the types of strategies that the Japanese expatriates used between Japanese and local subordinates. For instance, Japanese managers use five out the six strategies (reason, reciprocity, upward appeal, sanction, and total) more frequently when they deal with local subordinates than they do with Japanese subordinates (p < .05). Based on these results, Rao and Hashimoto (1996) conclude that most Japanese expatriates have altered their influence strategies.

A series of influence strategy studies focusing on Japanese and an U.S. work environment has been conducted by Nagai. He has extended the study of influence strategies relative to the effectiveness of subordinates (1993a), performance appraisal (1993b), and upward appeal (1994). Instead of focusing on individuals as the level of analysis, these studies focus on a pair of individuals: (a) a Japanese supervisor and an American subordinate and (b) an American superior and American subordinate, as the level of analysis.
Nagai's studies show that different interpersonal influence strategies are used by local subordinates and that the effectiveness of strategies applied to the targets (the Japanese and American superiors) are also different. For instance, studies (Nagai, 1993a, b) focusing on influence strategies relative to performance appraisal indicate that local subordinates approach the situation differently and use different strategies relative to performance appraisal in accordance with the nationalities of their superiors.

Results show that American subordinates use two strategies more often: (a) modeling (e.g., showing themselves as "a good worker" by being on time for work and appointments), and (b) reason (e.g., logical arguments), to their American superiors than with the Japanese superiors. However, the use of a pretending strategy (e.g., agreeing with a superior's opinions even they disagree and praising superiors accomplishments) is not effective to either nationality of superiors.

In addition, the effectiveness of strategies, relative to subordinates' performance, is also related to the nationalities of superiors. Japanese superiors take equal consideration of independence, problem solving, and work motivation in performance appraisal, whereas American superiors focus on collaboration. Also, reason appears to be more effective with Japanese superiors (R-squared = .50) than with American superiors (R-squared = .28) when local subordinates use it relative to their performance evaluation.

Advancement

Studies of interpersonal influence strategies within intercultural settings have shown that people from different countries use strategies differently. The differences are due not only to the nationalities of individuals, but also to the nationalities of the targets;
superiors, co-workers, and subordinates. There are also differences in the patterns of influence strategies used when people deal with others of the same nationality and when they deal with people of different nationalities (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Schmidt & Yeh, 1992; Yeh, 1995). Even though it has been suggested that expatriates can be effective with their strategies if they have the ability to identify which strategies apply most, interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates relative to local employees in the U.S. have not been adequately understood. In this regard, an important question still remains as to whether influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates are related to their performance effectiveness in U.S. assignments.

The focus of this study did not try to understand a range of interpersonal influence strategies; rather the focus was on understanding the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates within U.S. work settings. In other words, the study examined whether Japanese expatriates were able to use strategies appropriately in daily work activities in the U.S. assignments, which could relate to their effective performance.

The literature suggests that effectiveness in attaining goals is a function of the ability to identify types of strategies and to apply the most appropriate strategy in the given situation (Kipnis, et al., 1980). In order to identify the most appropriate strategy in the given international work situations, expatriates first identify interpersonal strategies most commonly used among local people in the host country. Then, they have to alter their interpersonal influence strategies so that their strategies are similar to those used by the local people (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Schmidt & Yeh, 1992;
Yeh, 1995). These behavioral strategy changes are seen as related to changing the psychological group membership to which people belong. This membership change often occurs when individuals become members of a certain group and try to maintain their membership in the group (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996). With this regard, for Japanese expatriates to be recognized as members in U.S. workgroups, and as they try to maintain that membership, they change their interpersonal influence strategies to those strategies that are more similar to the strategies used between American employees.

Similarly, it has been suggested that perceived similarities between two individuals are the main sources of interpersonal attraction, based on the Similarity-Attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971). Byrne states that people who share common characteristics tend to be attracted to or perceive themselves to be similar to each other. This concept has been applied to expatriate studies and has shown that expatriate managers change their behaviors to be effective in international work settings (Francis, 1991 as cited by Rao and Hashimoto, 1996) by modifying negative behaviors directed toward the other group (Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Thomas, 1992 as cited in Rao and Hashimoto, 1996). Similar results have been found by Thomas and Toyne (1995) that managerial similarities perceived by local managers are related to the adaptability of expatriates and to the effectiveness of their work.

On the basis of these two frameworks, adaptation of personal strategies and perception of similarities between two different nationalities, the following assumptions can be made: (1) Japanese expatriates model their interpersonal influence strategies to ones used among American employees in the U.S. workplaces and (2) as they do, the use
of their strategies becomes more similar to the usage that is the most appropriate to their work in U.S. assignments. Based on these assumptions, Japanese expatriates are able to influence American employees effectively in the course of performing roles and carrying out work responsibilities through the appropriate use of personal strategies. The basis for the appropriateness can be thought of as the interpersonal influence strategies used among American employees. In this respect, Americans' interpersonal influence strategies can be used as "ideal" strategies that Japanese expatriates can use as model strategies. Therefore, studies focusing on the use of interpersonal influence strategies among American employees can be used as a base line to obtain the appropriateness of personal strategies of Japanese expatriates (Kipnis, et al., 1980; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984; Yeh, 1995).

Based on these discussions, the appropriateness of interpersonal strategies among Japanese expatriates include the following: (a) reason, (b) assertiveness, (c) friendliness, (d) exchange, (e) upward appeal, and (f) sanction. To obtain the appropriateness, the following mathematical equation has been suggested to obtain a single value for the appropriateness (M. Irwin, personal communication November 30, 1998):
\[ \sum \left( \text{Absolute (ideal reason - observed reason)} + \text{Absolute (ideal assertiveness - observed assertiveness)} + \text{Absolute (ideal friendliness - observed friendliness)} + \text{Absolute (ideal exchange - observed exchange)} + \text{Absolute (ideal upward appeal - observed upward appeal)} + \text{Absolute (ideal sanction - observed sanction)} \right) \].

Originally, these six interpersonal strategies have been identified in research studies, focusing on employees within U.S. work organizations (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 1990; Kipnis, et al., 1980; Schmidt & Kipnis, 1984), as well as in cross-national studies involving American expatriates (Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Yeh, 1995). In these studies, American employees have shown that they use the six strategies frequently within their work settings in the following order to influence others: reason, friendliness, assertiveness, exchange, sanction, and upward appeal.

Within cross-national work settings, people bring different ways of getting work done. Such different work processes require more explanations as to why work should be done in a certain way. In this regard, for Japanese expatriates to be effective in their work settings, they should use reason more frequently with American employees so that they can provide Americans a logical and rational reason regarding how to get work done a daily basis (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996). A human relationship in the U.S. appears to be open and non-hierarchical, which is characterized as friendly, whereas Japanese take consideration of the vertical human relationship to maintain and show respect to others in higher ranks (Saha, 1992). In this regard, Japanese expatriates should show friendliness when they deal with American employees. Assertiveness is used more frequently when people deal with the same nationality of employees than with people from different
nationalities (Rao & Schmidt, 1995; Yeh, 1995). Among American employees,
assertiveness is used most when they try to attain organizational goals by influencing
others (Kipnis, et al., 1980). In this respect, Japanese expatriates should use assertiveness
in daily work activities to get their work done. Exchange, characterized as a favorable
exchange, concession, and a sense of reciprocity, can be seen when people try to take
initiative for changes, such as in improving other’s performance and/or work procedures.
Therefore, Japanese expatriates should use this strategy to be effective within their daily
work. Upward appeal may not be an effective strategy in U.S. work environments. This is
due, in part, to a job description-based work system, which emphasizes individuals’
responsibilities and tasks in the given job. Consequently, asking bosses to help influence
others, particularly their subordinates may cause expatriates to appear that they are
incompetent and lack leadership skills. If this is the case, upward appeal should be
carefully used among Japanese expatriates because its use may give American employees
the impression that expatriates are not effective. Lastly, sanction is least used among
Americans as well as Japanese. Even though research studies show American employees
use sanction slightly more frequently than Japanese does (Yeh, 1995), these differences
are not significant. Therefore, Japanese expatriates should be careful and use the sanction
strategy infrequently with American employees.
Length of stay in a host country

The length of stay implies the length of time needed for individuals who are transferred to another job or office to become proficient in the given jobs (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987). In other words, the length of time required for expatriates to become effective in a new assignment. Therefore, an assumption underlying the length of stay in a host country is that the longer they stay in a host country, the more familiar expatriates become with their jobs and working conditions, and as they become familiar, the better their performance will be (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991, Hanada, 1984b, M. Hanada, personal communication April, 1998; Hawes & Kealey, 1981).

A study by Tung (1983) showed that many Japanese multinational companies did not expect their expatriates to be productive during the first year of international assignments. These Japanese companies provided their expatriates a relatively longer period to become effective and efficient in their work. Similarly, the recent study by Sonoda (1998) also indicates that Japanese expatriates express that they would become more effective 1 year after they are located in their international assignments.

In addition, Nagai (1996) suggests that the length of stay in a host country should be one of the influential factors that relate to effectiveness of performance. Japanese expatriates stay in international assignments for approximately four to five years; however, the length of stay depends on the companies and assignments they are given.
Consequently, the length of stay in the U.S. assignments varies from individual expatriate to individual expatriate, which could relate to the effectiveness of their performance in their work.

Nationality of Supervisors

Nationality is defined as a membership of a particular nation. In this study, nationality is defined by whether supervisors rating Japanese expatriates are of Japanese nationality or non-Japanese nationality in the U.S. work settings. In the international management literature, performance appraisal can be nationa-bound due to the fact that what constitutes effectiveness of performance varies from nation to nation (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Milliman, et al., 1997). This assertion is based on the assumption of cultural value, which influences the judgment of effectiveness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991).

A study by Thomas and Toyne (1995) examined managerial similarities between American managers and Japanese managers. They found that when American managers perceived similarities in Japanese managers, they tended to feel more comfortable with the Japanese managers, and the more they are comfortable dealing with them, the more they tended to rate Japanese expatriates as highly effective.

In addition, studies by Nagai (1993a, 1993b, & 1994) focused on performance appraisal in Japanese companies in the U.S. His studies show that Japanese supervisors pay equal attention to independence, problem solving, and work motivation in
performance appraisal while American supervisors take consideration of collaboration.

Similarly, Amino (Personal communication, July 1997) states that even though managers
from two nations (in this case Japanese and American) evaluate problem solving skill, the
focus of Japanese managers tends to be on the identification of a problem and the way of
solving it. In contrast, American managers tend to focus on fixing a problem. These
studies suggest that the nationality of supervisors influence performance ratings on work
effectiveness of their subordinates.

The Effectiveness of Expatriates

An international assignment is considered a critical part of business activity and
has several functions within international companies, such as controlling and
coordination, expanding a local market share, and increasing competition in global
business (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Beamish, et al., 1994; Beechler & Najjar, 1996;
Dowling, et al., 1994; Hanada, 1984a, 1987; Ishida, 1992). Therefore, the success of
international assignments is a key factor determining future business success. However,
Beamish, et al. (1994) argues that an international assignment is more than just an
impersonal business activity, it is people who work in the international business settings.
Therefore, the effectiveness of expatriate managers is important.

In spite of the importance of international assignments, many international
companies have reduced their number of expatriate managers (Gates, 1996; Kobrin,
1988; Tashiro, 1989). This is due in part to increasing expatriate costs (Russo &
D'Onofrio, 1995; Swaak, 1995) and increasing costs associated with expatriate failure also increase (Kealey, 1996; Solomon, 1997).

A considerable number of expatriate studies have shown expatriate failure as a persistent and continuously occurring problem (Black, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Fukuda & Chu, 1994; Stone, 1991; Tashiro, 1989; Tung, 1981). In these studies, expatriate failure is defined as managers who leave a host country before the completion of the international assignment. Consequently, expatriate success can be defined as managers who stay in international assignments to complete the given assignment period (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Dowling, et al., 1994; Nagai, 1996; Selmer & Luke, 1995; Stone, 1991). These studies consider the effectiveness of expatriates to be equated with an expatriate's intention to stay and/or an expatriate's cultural adjustment and job satisfaction (Nagai, 1994; Naumann, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993).

Effectiveness, as measured by an expatriate's failure, has been questioned relative to the number of expatriate failures and the failure rate (Forster, 1997). Forster is concerned about the reliability of the failure rates presented in the literature, and he indicates that large-scale empirical studies have not been done and that actual figures representing expatriate failure are inconsistent among studies. In addition, Dowling, et al (1994) discusses there is a lack of precise company records available during data collection. They also point out a lack of empirical studies relative to expatriate failure rate among non-American companies outside of the U.S. Given these cautions, Forster (1997) believes in the importance of empirical studies on expatriate failure and the understanding of international assignments in a broader sense.
At the same time, the question has been raised about the heavy reliance on the single dependent variable, expatriate premature return (Dowling, et al., 1994). Dowling, et al. argues that even though expatriates are ineffective and poorly adjusted to their international assignments, they may not be recalled by their companies. With the criterion of effectiveness measured by premature return, these managers are considered to be effective as long as they stay in their international assignments. In this respect, the expatriates who stay in a host country and complete their assignments, but who may have difficulties in carrying out their international assignments and exhibit lower performance than expected, are excluded in many studies.

In fact, Kealey (1996) indicates that 20% of expatriates are higher performers while another 20% are lower performers and the rest maintain an adequate performance level. Sadamori (Personal communication June, 1996) stated that one-fourth of Japanese expatriates could be seen as higher performers, while other expatriates had some difficulties. Similarly, Tashiro (1989) found that actually 73% of Japanese expatriates sometimes have difficulty in carrying out jobs in their international assignments.

However, little is known about these expatriates and their performance during international assignments. Most importantly, studies have indicated that there is a lack of research concerning effective performance among expatriates (Deshpande & Viswasvaran, 1992; Kealey, 1996; Ronen, 1989). Few studies have focused on the effectiveness of expatriate performance in their assignments.
Expatriate Performance

A study by Clarke and Hammer (1995) investigated the effectiveness of performance among Japanese expatriates working in major U.S. multinational corporations. Results of their study have shown that performance ratings based on the actual performance appraisal are significantly related to assertion skills. However, their study does not indicate what criteria are used to measure expatriate performance. In addition, measuring performance, based on the actual performance appraisal, as used in the companies may be influenced by the notion of what constitutes effectiveness in performance established by parent companies (Clarke & Hammer, 1995). This notion may suggest a need for exploring the effectiveness of expatriate performance in general.

Black and Porter (1991) investigated American expatriates while they were on international assignments and the effectiveness of their managerial behaviors. They question whether managerial behaviors and effectiveness are influenced by national culture or whether effective managerial behaviors in the U.S. are applicable to other cultures where expatriates take their international assignments. They found no significant differences in managerial behaviors exhibited by American managers in Hong Kong and those in the U.S. However, relationships between managerial behaviors and performance show differences between managers in Hong Kong and the U.S. (Black and Porter, 1991). They conclude that even though the effective managerial behaviors are the same between Hong Kong and the U.S., managerial behaviors relating to effective performance are different between the two countries. In this respect, managerial effectiveness can be influenced by culture.
The study by Black and Porter (1991) raised one methodological concern about performance data, which was collected through self-rating by expatriates. As such, their study contains a common method variance problem, which tends to increase intercorrelation between managerial behaviors (independent variables) and performance ratings (dependent variable). In conjunction with this common method problem, the effectiveness of expatriates' performance is not found to be related to managerial behaviors. This result suggests that American expatriates in Hong Kong may have difficulty in maintaining their performance standards.

Another study concerning managerial effectiveness studied relationships between managerial characteristics of three nations and managerial effectiveness, determined by supervisory ratings (Okechuku, 1994). Okechuku used the same instrument and applied it to managers in three countries: Canada, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. The managerial characteristics include six dimensions: (a) supervisory ability, (b) achievement motivation, (c) intellectual ability, (d) self-actualization, (e) self-assurance, and (f) decisiveness, and effectiveness is measured by overall effectiveness of middle managers. He found that six dimensions were equally predictable in measuring managerial effectiveness in the three nations. In conclusion, Okechuku (1994) stated that managerial behavior and the effectiveness between Western and Eastern countries may be more similar than different. However, the study only shows a possible similarity in managerial effectiveness across nations. He does not focus on expatriates in other countries.

The most recent study, focusing on managerial skills and managerial job performance, has identified four common managerial skills used by Asian managers
working in four different types of organizations in China (e.g., Japanese-owned, International joint venture, Chinese-owned, and Taiwanese-owned) (Wakabayashi, Chen, & Huang, 1999). Asian managers prioritize different critical managerial skills and use them differently in the improvement of managerial job performance. Among these groups, the Japanese managers are different from other managers in the three organizations. This result suggests that the use of managerial skills among Japanese managers is different from other Asian managers. However, this study has not looked into how these differences may relate to the effectiveness of managerial job performance.

**Advancement**

The effectiveness of the expatriate has been equated with adjustment, expatriate job satisfaction, commitment to an international assignment, and intercultural effectiveness. These expatriate studies use expatriate failure, defined by prematurely returning home, as a basis for the effectiveness. However, the premature return criterion eliminates those expatriates who stay and complete their international assignment. Yet, these expatriates are considered to be effective.

On the other hand, studies focusing on expatriate performance have also shown some limitations in measuring effectiveness in expatriate assignments, such as the common method variance problem, performance criteria, and a lack of relationships with managerial behaviors. Taking these results into consideration, it can be said that the effectiveness of expatriate performance on their assignments remains a question, in terms of what may actually relate to expatriate effectiveness on their jobs in international settings.
To obtain an answer about expatriate effectiveness, a model of expatriate effectiveness in an international assignment is proposed (Figure 1 in Appendix A). The model applies a multidimensional approach, integrating the following factors: (a) job characteristics that expatriates deal with, (b) role conflict and (c) role ambiguity that expatriates are involved with in cross-national work situations, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment that expatriate have to make simultaneously, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies that expatriates use to attain their work goals when they deal with local employees, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationality of supervisors. These variables were used to examine the effectiveness of expatriate performance.

Performance is generally discussed within the contexts of motivation, leader behaviors, and goal setting. In many cases, performance is organizationally bounded. That is, performance criteria are contingent on the nature of business that the organization is involved with and the nature of job categories requiring specific criteria (Griffin, Welsh, & Moorhead, 1981; Sims, et al., 1976).

However, according to Griffin, et al. (1981) effectiveness measures involve both quality and quantity outcomes. The quality relationship with performance is that when employees perform well they tend to experience a positive reaction to their work through motivation. On the other hand, they also discuss that quantity, relative to effectiveness of performance, is associated with dealing with jobs requiring a wide scope in terms of tasks, responsibilities, and greater change can help increase efficiency in the work
system. As a result, Griffin, et al (1981) concludes that measuring effectiveness is reasonable and logical.

To measure the effectiveness of performance, the universal dimensions of performance criteria are applied to this study. These dimensions include: (a) quality of work produced, (b) quantity of the work produced, (c) ability to get along with others, (d) dependability, (e) knowledge of the work in the given assignments, (f) planning abilities, and (g) overall effectiveness. Even though these criteria have been used, depending on studies (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Hackman & Oldham, 1975; Oldham, et al., 1976), the summated score from some dimensions of performance criteria have been applied to the job characteristics studies as a single dependent variable (Sims & Szilagyi, 1976; Sims, et al., 1976).

Summary

Studies concerning the effectiveness of expatriate performance have been discussed based on several theoretical frameworks. The job characteristics framework suggests that job dimensions that employees deal with influence reactions and performance outcomes (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Sims, et al., 1976). The core job content, including four job dimensions; (a) variety, (b) task identity, (c) autonomy, and (d) feedback, are discussed relative to the work of Japanese expatriates in the U.S. The degree and/or frequency of the job content that Japanese expatriate perceive in their jobs
possibly relates to their effectiveness in U.S. assignment (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Bird & Mukuda, 1989; Naumann, 1993).

The role conflict and role ambiguity framework suggests that when role expectations are inconsistent and information about performance outcome is not clear, employees tend to perform less effectively because of increasing stress (Rizzo, et al., 1970). The degree and/or frequency of these role perceptions that the Japanese expatriate deal with, within a cross-national work situation, may be associated with the effectiveness of their performance.

Cross-cultural work adjustment indicates that as expatriates become adjusted to a host environment, they become more effective being in a foreign country (Black, 1988, 1990). As expatriates are adjusted to work roles in the given international assignment, they can function effectively by adjusting internal (own values) and external (given roles and tasks) adjustments (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Brett, 1984). Therefore, the degree of adjustment that Japanese expatriates feel relates to their effectiveness in U.S. assignments.

The interpersonal influence strategy framework states that people at work use personal strategies to attain organizational and personal goals and the choice of influence strategies is a function of one’s ability to identify the most effective strategy in the given situation (Kipnis, et al., 1980). In addition, people from different countries use interpersonal influence strategies differently (Rao & Hashimoto, 1996; Rao & Schmidt, 1992). The effectiveness of Japanese expatriates, assessed by the appropriateness of their
strategies used in daily work activities when they deal with non-Japanese employees, possibly relates to their effectiveness.

These four frameworks: job characteristics, role conflict and role ambiguity, cross-cultural work adjustment, and the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies form theoretical foundations of this study. Each framework provides variables that are used in this study and are also used to examine relationships with the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments.

Effectiveness, in this study, is measured based on quality and quantity. These aspects of measures provide multidimensionality to performance of Japanese expatriates. However, the effectiveness of an employee's performance is often influenced by performance ratings and the length of stay in a host country. In this study, the effectiveness of expatriates' performance is rated by their supervisors (Nagai, 1994). It provides a relatively objective evaluation of performance assessment. However, the nationality of supervisors may influence the evaluation of the effectiveness of performance when the nationality of subordinates differs from theirs (Milliman, et al., 1997). In addition, length of stay in the U.S. involves two issues; the duration of assignments varies from expatriate to expatriate and it implies time is needed to become proficient for expatriates in their given assignments. These issues may relate to Japanese expatriates and their performance effectiveness.

In the expatriate literature, the effectiveness has been investigated relative to cultural adjustments, commitment to an international assignment, intercultural interactions, etc. However, the effectiveness of performance has not been sufficiently
understood. Particularly, few studies have expressively focused on those expatriates who
are in their international assignments. The proposed model of expatriate performance
effectiveness examined the relationships with the following variables: (a) job
characteristic that expatriates deal with, (b) role conflict and (c) role ambiguity that
expatriates are involved with in cross-national work situations, (d) cross-cultural work
adjustment that expatriate have to make simultaneously, (e) appropriateness of
interpersonal influence strategies that expatriates use to attain their work goals when they
deal with local employees, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationality of
supervisors. In this regard, the model in this study was able to fulfill a need in increasing
understanding of expatriates and their performance in international assignments and their
effectiveness.
CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of expatriates during their international assignments. Specifically, the study examined relationships between a set of linear independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment, (e) the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S., and (g) nationality of supervisors, and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments. This study also examined a proposed model of expatriate effectiveness in international assignments (Figure 1). This chapter provides the following sections: (1) research design, (2) independent variables, (3) dependent variable, (4) sampling, (5) instrumentation, (6) data collection, and (7) statistical analyses.

Research Design

This study was a descriptive and correlational study. The study involved a set of independent variables and a single dependent variable; therefore, the study was multivariate in nature. Second, the set of independent variables was used to examine
relationships with the dependent variable, the effectiveness of expatriate performance, and to identify which variables contribute to effectiveness. These relationships provided possible explanations about relationships between the given set of variables and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates participating in the study. Third, this study describes the nature of these relationships in terms of strength and importance. In addition, the study also provide descriptive information and demographic data associated with the participants.

Independent Variables

The following independent variables were used in this investigation: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment, (e) the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in a host country, and (g) nationality of supervisors. These variables have been used in other studies, relative to an expatriate's early return, commitment to international assignments and/or differences among variables (Black, 1988, 1990a; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Nagai, 1993a,b; Naumann, 1993; Shenkar & Zeira, 1992). However, this study is one of the few, which applies these variables to examine their relationships with the effectiveness of expatriate performance, and to attempted to explain these relationships. Detailed discussion of each independent variable is provided in the following sections.
Job Characteristic

A job characteristic refers to the core job content, including dimensions of a job that employees deal with in their work. Generally, a job contains different dimensions, which influence employees' reactions, depending on how much of these dimensions they perceive there are in their jobs. The job characteristic variable in this study was composed of four job dimensions with 21 items, which were considered as a single core job characteristic in the Job Characteristics Inventory (Sims, et al., 1976). The job characteristic variable contains four dimensions (detailed description is presented in Chapter 2): (a) variety, (b) task identity, (c) autonomy, and (d) feedback.

Job characteristic was measured as the frequency or degree expatriates find relative to their work in U.S. assignments. A 5-point scale was used to measure the job characteristic, based on 21 items in the questionnaire. A high score on the job characteristic indicated Japanese expatriates perceived their jobs containing highly dimensional aspect: more variety of skills required, more frequent opportunities to perform the whole job, more autonomy given, and more feedback obtained. Job characteristic would be magnified in the U.S. environment and embodied in the assignments with which Japanese expatriates have to deal in their given positions. Therefore, job characteristic, involving frequency or degree of the four job dimensions that Japanese expatriates perform within their jobs, may possibly relate to the effectiveness of their performance (Bird & Dunbar, 1991; Naumann, 1993). Therefore,
the total score obtained by summating scores from the four job dimensions represented one independent variable and that was considered as the job characteristic factor (Hackman & Lahwerr, 1971; Sims et al, 1976)

**Role Conflict**

Role conflict referred to a set of role perceptions, which Japanese expatriates experienced in terms of congruency-incongruency in the requirements of the given roles (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Role conflict was considered as a set of role conditions within which Japanese expatriates were involved in their work situations between headquarters and local operations, as well as with other Japanese expatriates and local employees (Black, 1990; Shenkar & Zeira, 1992; Sonoda, 1998). Role conflict, developed by Rizzo, et al (1970), was measured on a 7-point scale. The summated score was used to represent a single variable, role conflict, in this study. Lower scores on role conflict showed more congruency in the role requirements with the given U.S. assignments as perceived by the Japanese expatriates.

**Role Ambiguity**

Role ambiguity was defined as a degree to which clear information relative to organizational functions in the given role (Rizzo, et al., 1970), which was related to performance expectations of Japanese expatriates, is not provided adequately. Role ambiguity in this study was a set of perceived role conditions relative to organizational functions within which Japanese expatriates were involved in their work situations. These role conditions may involve not only headquarters and local operations, but also with
other Japanese expatriates and local employees (Black, 1990a; Shenkar & Zeira, 1992; Sonoda, 1998). Role ambiguity, developed by Rizzo, et al (1970), was measured on a 7-point scale. The summated score represented as a single variable, role ambiguity. Lower scores on role ambiguity indicated more clear performance expectations and information in the given work that are perceived by the Japanese expatriates.

Cross-Cultural Work Adjustment

Cross-cultural work adjustment was defined as the degree to which expatriates perceive they have adjusted to a host environment as well as to the given international assignment (Black, 1988, 1990). It contained different adjustment dimensions: (a) specific job responsibilities, (b) performance standards and expectations, (c) supervisory responsibility, and (d) overall assignment, adapted from studies by Black and Stephens (1989) and Nagai (1996). Their studies focused on adjustment of American and Japanese expatriates. A 7-point scale was used to obtain the level (defined by the range) of cross-cultural work adjustment. The higher the degree of adjustment an expatriate feels, the more they felt comfortable to function in their U.S. assignments.

Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies

The interpersonal influence strategies are defined as the strategies used by members within an organization when they try to influence and/or change other’s behaviors to attain organizational and personal goals (Kipnis, et al., 1980). The appropriateness was determined by calculating differences between the ideal means of
the six strategies, obtained from the study by Kipnis, et al. (1980), and the observed scores on the six strategies from Japanese expatriates. These differences were indicated as absolute values.

The assumption of appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies was that if interpersonal influence strategies that Japanese expatriates used when they tried to influence American employees to attain organizational and personal goals were similar to those used by Americans with Americans, then American employees would be more familiar with the kind of interpersonal strategies used among them. In this respect, Americans working with Japanese expatriates would tend to be more comfortable and understanding of the Japanese expatriates. As such Japanese expatriates could be effective in dealing with American employees when they try to attain their work goals, which possibly would relate to the effectiveness of expatriates' performance.

The interpersonal influence strategy contained six strategies, which were used by Japanese expatriates along with daily activities to get their work done. The definitions of the six strategies were adapted from studies (Kipnis, et al., 1980; Rao and Hashimoto, 1996; Yeh, 1995) and these included: (a) assertiveness, (b) friendliness, (c) reason, (d) exchange, (e) upward appeal, and (f) sanction. These six strategies were measured on a 5-point scale to obtain frequency of the use of strategies. The appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies variable was obtained by using the mathematical equation.

The following calculation of the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies indicated the summated distance between the ideal
strategies used among Americans at work and observed strategies used among Japanese expatriates at work.

\[
\text{ Appropriateness} = \sum \text{Absolute (ideal mean reason - observed reason)} + \text{Absolute (ideal mean assertiveness - observed assertiveness)} + \text{Absolute (ideal mean friendliness - observed friendliness)} + \text{Absolute (ideal mean exchange - observed exchange)} + \text{Absolute (ideal mean upward appeal - observed upward appeal)} + \text{Absolute (ideal mean sanction - observed sanction)}.
\]

This equation allowed one single score to be obtained that was used to examine the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance (M. Iwin, personal communication, November 30, 1998). The means of ideal values on each strategy were derived from the study by Kipnis, et al. (1980), and the observed scores are the scores of Japanese expatriates.

The length of stay in a host country

The length of stay in a host country was described by the number of years and months that expatriates live in a foreign country. The assumption was that the longer they stayed in the U.S., the more familiar Japanese expatriates became with their jobs and working conditions (Black, 1988, 1990; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Nagai, 1996). However, the length of international assignments varied from expatriate and expatriate, which depended on their companies and their given assignments.

A study by Tung (1983) showed that many Japanese multinational companies tended not to expect their expatriates to be productive during the first year of international assignments. These Japanese companies provided their expatriates a relatively longer period to become effective and efficient in their work than American
counterparts. Similarly, Japanese expatriates indicated that they felt they were becoming
effective approximately 1 year after they are relocated (T. Amino, personal
communication July, 1997; M. Hanada, personal communication April, 1998; Sonoda,
1998).

In addition, Nagai (1996) suggests that the length of stay in a host country varies
from individual expatriate to individual expatriate, which may result in differences in the
effectiveness of expatriates' performance. Therefore, the length of stay in U.S. among
Japanese expatriates was specified those expatriates who have been in their U.S.
assignments approximately one year or longer, which was defined as more than 8 months
in the U.S.

**Nationality of Supervisors**

Nationality of supervisors referred to the national origin of expatriate supervisors,
who rate the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance. In this study, different
supervisors' nationalities: (a) Japanese and (b) non-Japanese, were considered as an
extraneous variable. In the international management literature, performance appraisal is
nationally-bounded because culture and values influence what constitutes effectiveness,
which supervisors might perceive effectiveness differently (Harada, 1997; Milliman,
Nason, Gallagher, Hou, & Von Glino, 1997).
The dependent variable in this study was the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates in their given U.S. assignments. The measure of effective performance, adapted from Sims and Szilagyi (1976), consisted of seven items: (a) quality of work produced, (b) quantity of work produced, (c) ability to get along with others, (d) dependability, (f) knowledge of work in the given assignment, (g) planning abilities, and (h) overall effectiveness. These seven items have been used in studies as job characteristics in measuring performance outcomes (Sims, et al, 1981; Sims & Szilagyi, 1976).

To obtain information about expatriate effectiveness in their U.S assignments, expatriates' supervisors were asked what they thought of the effectiveness of their Japanese expatriates. To make sure of the paired relationship, each pair was given identification numbers on the questionnaire. Determining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates, a 7-point scale was used and the total score was obtained by summatting scores of all items. High-summatated score indicated that Japanese expatriates were highly effective.

Sample of the Study

The target population of this study was all Japanese expatriate managers working in Japanese-owned companies or joint ventures in the U.S. These Japanese expatriates were selected from the candidate pool within their company and have been assigned to
come to the U.S. To select the sample for this study, the membership directory in the U.S., published by the Japan External Trade Organization (JETRO, 1996-97) was used. In addition, a list of Overseas Japanese Companies issued by Toyo Keizai Shinpo-sha (1998) is used, to verify information in the JETRO membership directory. First, Japanese companies, who have been listed to have more than five Japanese expatriates, were selected (N=790). A systematic random selection method was used to select companies to obtain possible pairs of individuals, consisting of a Japanese expatriate(s) and his or her superior(s), from each company chosen. Only pairs of individuals whose companies agree to participate in this study comprise the final sample.

To determine the sample size based on multiple regression analysis, each independent variable requires from 10 to 15 cases, which should provide a sufficient estimate of statistical power (Hair, Anderson, Taham, & Black, 1995; Warmbrod, 1995). In this regard, eight independent variables were used in this study, therefore, 80 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors were needed in this study.

Instrumentation

This section consists of the following parts: (a) instruments and the reliabilities, (b) a process for translation, and (c) results of a pilot test. The questionnaire used in this study was adapted from five studies. In the questionnaire, the following questionnaires were used: (1) job characteristics, (2) role conflict and role ambiguity, (3) cross-cultural
work adjustment, (4) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, and (5) supervisor ratings.

**Job Characteristic**

In the questionnaire, Part One dealt with the job characteristic variable, containing 21 items of the core job characteristic, developed by Sims, et al (1976). Respondents were asked to mark the number on a 5-point scale that was most applicable to their jobs. The 5-point scale ranged from 1 as “Very little” and 5 as “Very much.” A possible range was between 21 and 105. The total score was obtained by summating four job contents, as indicated previously, to represent one single value. A higher total score indicated a job that contains highly characteristic aspect. A pilot test was conducted to establish reliability of the job characteristic instrument (Cronbach’s alpha = .87).

Factor analysis was employed on 21 items under four concepts to ensure a single factor representing “Job Characteristic” after research data was collected. The items under each of the four concepts were summated for factor analysis. One factor was extracted by using Principal Component extraction. The single factor resulted in an Eigenvalue of 2.6 and accounted for 66% of the variance in the original 21 items. Detailed information is presented in Appendix E.

**Role Conflict**

In the original instrument developed by Rizzo, et al (1970), role conflict consisted of 15 items. After the pilot study was conducted, 11 items retained. These items asked Japanese expatriates about the degree and/or frequency of role conflict that they
perceived in their jobs on the 7-point scale that was most applicable for their job situations. Scales were anchored from 1 as “Very false” to 7 as “Very true.” To obtain the highest reliability (alpha = .76) based on the research data, five items in role conflict were retained for final analyses. A total score was obtained by summing five items and a possible range was between 5 and 35.

Role Ambiguity

Role ambiguity, measuring clear information of role expectation, consisted of following 14 original items, developed by Rizzo, et al, (1970). The pilot test was conducted, which resulted in retaining 10 items. These items asked Japanese expatriates about the degree and/or frequency of role ambiguity that they perceived in their jobs. Respondents were asked to circle the number on the 7-point scale that was most applicable for their job situations. Scales were anchored from 1 as “Very false” to 7 as “Very true.” To obtain the highest reliability (alpha = .76) based on the research data, seven items in role ambiguity were retained for final analyses. A total score was obtained by summing seven items and a possible range was between 7 and 49.

Cross-Cultural Work Adjustment

The instrument for cross-cultural work adjustment was adapted from the work adjustment facet of expatriate studies (Black & Stephens, 1989; Nagai, 1996), indicated in Part Three of the survey instrument. The work adjustment variable for expatriates (Cronbach’s alpha = .84) consisted of four dimensions: (a) specific job responsibility, (b) performance standards and expectations, (c) supervisory responsibility and (d) overall
work in an international assignment. Japanese expatriates were asked about how well they thought they were adapted to their U.S. work assignments.

A 7-point scale, ranging from 1 as "Very unadjusted" to 7 as "Very adjusted", measured the degree of perceived expatriate's adjustment. A higher score on each item indicated higher adjustment of Japanese expatriate managers on the particular item. A total score was obtained by summing four items and a possible range was between 4 and 28.

**Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies**

Interpersonal influence strategies are defined as the strategies used by members within an organization when they try to influence and/or alter others' behaviors to attain organizational and personal goals in the course of performing organizational roles (Kipnis, et al., 1980). The personal strategies obtained a Cronbach's alpha = .68 through the pilot test.

The appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies was determined by calculating a summated distance between the ideal mean scores for each strategy and the observed scores for each strategy. To obtain a value for the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, a two-stage process was followed. In the research instrument, the interpersonal influence strategies: (a) reason, (b) assertiveness, (c) friendliness, (d) exchange, (e) upward appeal, and (f) sanction, were measured on a 5-point scale and ranged from 1 as "Never" to 5 as "Very frequently" with a maximum score of 30 and a minimum score of 6. Japanese expatriates were asked to circle the number on the 5-point scale that was the most applicable frequency of using the strategies.
The appropriateness was obtained by subtracting observed scores for each of the six strategies from ideal means scores for the six strategies. This calculation was allowed to obtain one single score to be obtained that was used to examine the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance (M. Irwin, personal communications, November 30, 1998). The ideal mean scores on each strategy were derived from the study by Kipnis, Schmidt, & Wilkinson (1980) while the observed scores on each strategy are obtained through Japanese expatriates’ responses to the survey questionnaire.

**Length of stay in a host country**

The length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates was indicated as the number of years and the number of months they have stayed in the U.S. The length of stay was specified those expatriates who stayed approximately one year, defined as longer than eight months of stay in the U.S.

**Nationality of supervisors**

The nationality of supervisors contains two nations; (1) Japanese and (2) non-Japanese. The Japanese nationality is coded as “0” and the non-Japanese nationality is coded as “1.”

**Effectiveness of Japanese Expatriates**

The instrument for the dependent variable in this study was designed to measure the effectiveness of Japanese expatriate performance as rated by their supervisors (Sims & Szilagyi, 1976). It consisted of seven items: (a) quality of work produced, (b) quantity of work produced, (c) ability to get along with others, (d) dependability, (e) knowledge of
work in the given assignment, (f) planning abilities, and (g) overall performance
effectiveness (Cronbach’s alpha = .84). Japanese expatriates’ supervisors were asked to
indicate what they thought about the effectiveness of their Japanese expatriates on a 7-
point scale: 1 as “the lowest effectiveness” to 7 as “the highest effectiveness.” The
seven items were summated to represent the dependent variable, which was used to
examine relationships with expatriate performance effectiveness.

Validity

Prior to administering the instruments, a validity test was conducted (Brislin,
1973; Mullen, 1995; Sekaran, 1983; Singh, 1995). A panel of experts in this study
consisted of both American and Japanese: (a) American postdoctoral students in the areas
of human resource development and research, (b) a Japanese graduate student who has
conducted several research studies in Japan, and (c) three Japanese professors. The
Japanese professors were: (a) a professor in Human Resource Management (obtained
U.S. Ph.D. degree), (b) a professor in industrial psychology (obtained U.S. Master’s
degree), and (c) an associate professor in Sociology, who has been involved in numerous
international research studies. The three Japanese professors examined not only the
language, but also the contents of the instruments.

To establish the validity of the instruments as applied to Japanese samples, the
instruments used in this study were translated from English to Japanese. This was
because Japanese expatriates might be unfamiliar with English wording and expressions.
Also, the number of years in the U.S. varies from expatriate to expatriate. This difference could lead to differences in English fluency among them even though most Japanese expatriate managers have a bachelor's degree and most of them have had language training prior to their relocation to the U.S (Tashiro, 1989).

Translation Process

Following the translation of the instruments, the process for instrumentation of the translation was established by conducting translation and back translation (Brislin, 1973). After the original instruments were examined, the translation and back translation processes was proceeded (Brisline, 1975). After the first version of the translation was completed, the translated instrument was examined by one of the panel of experts. Based on suggestions, adjustments were made regarding Japanese wordings and expressions. Back-translation and content equivalence checks were conducted simultaneously. After these processes, the Japanese version of the instrument was completed and a re-check was obtained from the panel of experts.

Pilot Test

A pilot test was administered to establish the reliability of the instruments. To select the participants in the first phase of the test, 46 Japanese companies located in the Midwest were randomly selected from the membership directory, issued by JETRO (1996-1997). Invitation letters requesting their participation in this study were sent to those companies (n =46). After telephone calls were made to the companies, 20
companies agreed to participate. From those, 27 sets of questionnaires were sent to expatriate managers and their supervisors (n=54). Follow-up letters and calls were made (Dilman, 1978). Eighteen sets of instruments were returned (66%) from Japanese expatriates (n=18) and supervisors (n=19), giving a total of 37 responses (64.8%). Of these, 18 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors were identified. The reliability results relative to instruments have been indicated in the previous section.

A second phase of the pilot study was conducted, focusing on the effectiveness measure of expatriates’ performance (Cronbach’s alpha = .84). Participants of this study were managers working in a Japanese-owned manufacturing company in the Midwest area. After obtaining an agreement on participating in this study through telephone calls, the questionnaires (n=10) were sent and all responses were returned.

This section focuses demographic information about the participants in the pilot study. Of 19 supervisors in the first phase of the pilot test, four are Americans with no experience in working in any Japanese company before their current companies. The average number of Japanese expatriates American supervisors have is 1.3 with a range from 0 to 3. In addition, the average number of expatriates stationed in the companies is 17, expatriates with a range was from 4 and 50. Forty-four percent of Japanese companies have between six and 10 Japanese expatriates, followed by those companies having less than five expatriates and those that have more than 40 Japanese expatriates. Seventy percent of Japanese companies indicate that their types of business are combined manufacturing and sales.
After research data was collected, the research reliability test for the role conflict and role ambiguity were performed. This was because the reliability of the instrument from the pilot test was relatively low. To obtain the highest reliability, five items of role conflict were retained (Cronbach's alpha = .76) and role ambiguity retained seven items (Cronbach's alpha = .77).

Data Collection

A mailing survey method was used to collect data for this study during April and May, 1999. Prior to sending questionnaire packages, invitation letters for participation were sent to randomly selected Japanese companies (n=400) across the U.S. and telephone calls were made to identify potential companies that took part in this study. Of these, 87 companies (21.8%) agreeing to take part in this study provided 103 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors. Of these, 33 pairs of questionnaire were mailed on April 1st (Group A) and 70 pairs of questionnaires were sent out on April 30th (Group B). Early and late response were defined, based on whether the questionnaires were returned before or after the deadlines: April 16th, 1999 for group A and April 30th, 1999 for group B, as well as whether the pairs that were matched.

Based on the deadlines for returning the questionnaires, follow-up letters were sent to participating companies whose participants had not returned the questionnaires. Approximately, two to three weeks after sending the follow-up letters, follow-up packages were sent to those companies that had not provided complete pairs of the questionnaires or that had not returned the questionnaires.
Data Analysis

Several statistical analyses were performed to attain the purpose of the study. To obtain answers to research questions from #1 to 5 and #7 to 8, descriptive statistics (frequency, mean, standard deviation, and range) were used to describe and summarize each of the eight variables: (a) effectiveness of expatriate performance, (b) job characteristic, (c) role conflict, (d) role ambiguity, (e) cross-cultural work adjustment, and (f) the length of staying in the U.S, (g) nationality of expatriates’ supervisors, and (h) effectiveness. Answering to research question #6, the appropriateness of the use of interpersonal influence strategies, first, descriptive statistics were used to describe each strategy, then the mathematical procedure was employed to obtain the single appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies value.

In addition, a correlation coefficient (Pearson product-moment coefficient) was used to describe relationships (directions and strengths) between the independent variables and the dependent variable and to examine hypotheses testing (hypotheses from #2.a to #9).

Multiple regression analysis was used for hypothesis #9 and research question #10. Hypothesis #9 examined a linear relationship between the seven independent variables and the dependent variable. Research question #10 asked the relative importance of each independent variable related to the effectiveness of expatriate
performance. In this study, simultaneous multiple regression entry method was employed to examine relationships between the full set of independent variables and the dependent variable (Hair, et al., 1995; M. Irwin, personal communications, November 30, 1998).
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The effectiveness of expatriates has an impact on their business success (Adler & Bartholomew, 1992; Ashamalla & Madeline, 1997; Brid & Dunbar, 1991; Black, et al., 1992). However, the literature has shown expatriate failure as a persistent and recurring problem (Black 1989; 1990; Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Yet, little study has been done, regarding factors that may relate to expatriates’ effective performance in their international assignments. The purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments. The study examined relationships between the following set of independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) cross-cultural work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S., and (g) nationality of expatriates’ supervisors, and the dependent variable, the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance in U.S. assignments. Effectiveness was assessed by the expatriates’ supervisors.

This chapter is organized into the following sections: (1) descriptive statistics for participants, (2) descriptive statistics for variables, relating to research questions, and (3) inferential statistics, relating to hypotheses.
Descriptive Statistics for Participants

Data collection was conducted in April and May, 1999. Prior to mailing questionnaires, invitation letters for participation in this study were sent to randomly selected Japanese companies (n = 400) across the U.S. Of these, 87 companies (21.8%) agreed to take part in the study and provided 103 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors. Of the total of 103 pairs, 33 pairs of questionnaire were mailed on April 1st (Group A) and 70 pairs of questionnaires were mailed on April 30th (Group B). Early and late response was defined, based on whether the questionnaires were returned before or after the deadlines: April 16, 1999 for group A and April 30, 1999 for group B, as well as whether the pairs were matched. The following sections provide descriptive demographic statistics for companies and individuals participating in this research.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mailed out</th>
<th>Returned</th>
<th>Usable Data</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Mailing Groups and Responses (n = 103)
Of 33 pairs of questionnaires in group A, a total of 32 pairs of questionnaires (97%) were returned. Of these, 28 pairs were usable: 19 pairs of early responses and 9 pairs of the late responses were obtained. Of 70 pairs of questionnaires in group B, a total of 45 pairs (64.3%) were returned and 40 pairs were usable: (1) 21 pairs of early responses and (2) 19 pairs of late responses. Responses from no follow-up packages were returned by the final deadline for returning the questionnaires.

Analysis of variance and t-tests were performed to examine whether differences existed among early and late respondents in both Group A and B (n = 68 pairs), as well as between non-responding companies (n=11) and responding companies (Warmbrod, 1995). No statistically significant differences were found among these groups. The final usable data set comprised 68 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors (66%) from 103 pairs. Detailed data are presented in Tables 2 through 6 in Appendix D.

Characteristics of Participating Companies

Of 87 companies agreeing to participate in this study, 63 companies (72.4%) provided 68 complete usable pairs of responses. Ninety-four percent of these companies in this study are 100% Japanese-owned. The mean length in the U.S. among the companies participating in the study is 10.5 years (S.D = 10.3 years) with the range from three years to 47 years (Table 7). The mean number of Japanese expatriates stationed at the companies is 14.4 expatriates (S.D = 13.5) with a mode of 5 expatriates and a range from 2 to 80 Japanese expatriates. Of these companies, 54% have less than 10 Japanese expatriates, 20.6% have between 11 and 20 expatriates, 15% have between 21 and 30 expatriates, and 7% have more than 30 Japanese expatriates (Table 8). The participating
companies covered a broad spectrum of industries, including manufacturing, sales, finance, trading, communication, semiconductor, food, and chemical. However, of these companies, 57.4% accounted for combining manufacturing and sales (Table 9).

In summary, participating companies in this study were mostly Japanese-owned and their length of business in the U.S. varied from company to company. The number of expatriates who stationed in these companies also had a large variability. The majority of companies are in manufacturing, including sales section. The tables are presented in Appendix D.

**Characteristics of Participating Japanese Expatriates**

The mean age of Japanese expatriates ($n=68$) was 36.2 years (S.D. =5.2) and ranged from 28 to 54 years (Table 10). Of these, 51% were between 30 and 35 years and 24% were between 36 and 40 years. Ninety-seven percent of expatriates were male. Seventy-two percent had a bachelor’s degree, with 13.2% having a graduate’s degree and 2.9% having an associate’s degree. The average length of stay in the U.S. assignment among Japanese expatriates was 3.5 years (S.D. =2.2). Forty-one percent have been in their assignments between 3.1 and 6.1 years, followed by 40% having been in the U.S. between 1 and 3 years (Table 11). The mean length of their service in the companies was 13.2 years (S.D. =6.1). Fifty-one percent of the Japanese expatriates have been with their companies between 10.1 and 20 years and 37% have been less than 10 years with their companies (Table 12). Approximately 76.5% ($n=53$) indicated that the current U.S. assignment was their first overseas assignment.
The mean number of non-Japanese subordinates is 3.8 (S.D.=4.5) with a range of 22. The majority of Japanese expatriates (66.2%) have less than 3 non-Japanese subordinates while 19.5% have between 4 and 5 subordinates (Table 13). The current positions that Japanese expatriates filled in their U.S. assignments include 58.8% in middle management and 20.6% in line management, followed by 13.2% in supervisory positions (Table 14). Regarding the given job functions within U.S. assignments, 22.1% were indicate marketing and 20% were in production engineering, followed by 14.7% in finance and accounting, as well as in dual functions (Table 15). Other functions include production quality control, news reporter, and managing and supervising overall production processes (20.1%). The tables are presented in Appendix D.

In summary, the majority of Japanese expatriates have a bachelor’s degree and their length of stay in the U.S. has been between 3 years and 4 years. This is their first experience with an international assignment. Many expatriates have middle management positions with functional responsibilities, such as marketing, production engineering, and finance and accounting.

Characteristics of Participating Expatriates’ Supervisors

The Japanese expatriates’ supervisors (n=68) were divided into two groups: (a) Japanese supervisors (n=59) and (b) non-Japanese supervisors (n=9). The mean age of the supervisors was 46.8 years and 58% were in their 40s (58%), followed by 16% in their 30s and 16% in their 50s (Table 16). Of these, 66 were male and married. Regarding educational attainment, 79.4% had a bachelor’s degree and 13.2% had a graduate degree.
The mean length in the U.S. among Japanese supervisors was 4.6 years (S.D. = 3.9). Of those, 44% have been in the U.S. between 3.1 to 6 years and 31% between 1 to 3 years, followed by 19% who have been in the U.S. more than 6.1 years (Table 17). Concerning experience in U.S. assignments prior to their current U.S. assignments, 36 Japanese supervisors did not have prior experience in U.S. assignments while 22 have had previous U.S. assignments (Table 18 and 20). Of these 22 Japanese supervisors, 18 have had two previous U.S. assignments and four have had three. In contrast, most non-Japanese supervisors did not have expatriate experience (9 out of 10).

The mean length of service with their companies for all supervisors was 20 years (S.D. = 6.1). Twenty-seven (40.1%) have been with their companies between 21 years and 30 years and 26.9% between 11 years and 20 years. For non-Japanese supervisors, the mean length of time with their companies was 11.3 years (S.D. = 7.3) while the mean length of time for Japanese supervisors was 21.3 years (S.D. = 8.4) (Table 19). Current positions filled by Japanese supervisors had two categories: (a) 67.2% were in top management and (b) 32.8% were in middle management. Similar to this result, 66.7% of non-Japanese supervisors were in top management and 33.3% were in middle management (Table 21). Among Japanese supervisors, 33 (57.9%) had a general management function, and 14 (20.6%) had multiple functions (e.g., general management, marketing, and human resource management). For non-Japanese supervisors, six were in general management, two were in human resource management, and one was in multiple functions (Table 22).
The number of American subordinates Japanese supervisors had a large variability. Thirty percent had less than five subordinates while the mean number of American subordinates was 28.5 with a minimum of 0 and a maximum of 830. Among non-Japanese supervisors, the mean number of Japanese subordinates was 3.7 (S.D. = 3); with seven having less than three Japanese subordinates.

In summary, most supervisors had a bachelor's degree. The majority of Japanese supervisors have stayed in their companies between 20 and 30 years and their stay in the U.S. was 4.5 years. Of these, 62% were in their first U.S. assignment. For non-Japanese supervisors, the average length of service in their companies was 11 years with large variability. Most supervisors, both Japanese and non-Japanese, were in top management and had general managerial and multiple functions, such as marketing and human resources management. The tables relating expatriates' supervisors are presented in Appendix E.

Findings on Research Questions

This section provides results of descriptive statistics and inferential statistics and is organized based on research questions, as stated in Chapter 1.

Research question #1: What is the level of job effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as perceived by their supervisors?

The measure of expatriate effectiveness consists of seven items: (a) quality of work produced, (b) quantity of work produced, (c) ability to get along with others,
(d) dependability, (e) planning ability, (f) knowledge of work, and (g) overall
effectiveness. The summated score was used, based on a 7-point scale: 1 as “Low
effective” and 7 as “Highly effective.” A possible score ranges from 7 to 49. The data on
Japanese expatriates’ effectiveness were obtained by asking their supervisors what they
thought of the effectiveness of their expatriates.

The overall mean score for effectiveness was 37.1 (S.D. = 5.76). Of the 68
supervisors, 48.5% indicated scores between 30 and 39 while 41.1% of the scores were
between 40 and 49. The highest obtained score was 49 whereas the lowest score was 20.
The mean score on effectiveness rated by Japanese supervisors was 36.8 (S.D. = 5.8) while
the mean scores rated by non-Japanese supervisors (n = 9) was 39.3 (S.D. = 5.2). In
summary, effectiveness scores of most supervisors were between 30 and 40 and non-
Japanese supervisors indicated slightly higher mean scores on effectiveness (Table 23).

Research question #2: What is the level of job characteristic of Japanese expatriates?

Job characteristic, perceived by Japanese expatriates relative to their jobs,
consisted of 21 items and was measured on a 5-point scale. On the scale, 1 was “Very
little” and 5 was “Very much.” A possible score ranged between 21 and 105. All items
were summated to represent the single variable, “Job Characteristic.” The mean job
dependability, (e) planning ability, (f) knowledge of work, and (g) overall
effectiveness. The summated score was used, based on a 7-point scale: 1 as “Low
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little” and 5 was “Very much.” A possible score ranged between 21 and 105. All items
were summated to represent the single variable, “Job Characteristic.” The mean job
class characteristic score was 81.1(S.D. = 10.1) with a minimum score of 52 and a maximum
score of 105. Of 68 expatriates, 36.8% (n = 25) were between 80 and 89 and 33.3% (n
= 23) were between 70 and 79 (Table 27). In summary, most Japanese expatriates scored
higher than the mean scores on their job characteristic.
Research hypothesis #2.a: There is a positive relationship between job characteristic perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance as rated by their supervisors.

The correlation coefficient between job characteristic and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates was $r = .26$ ($p = .018$), which indicates that the null hypothesis is rejected at $p < .05$. Therefore, a statistically significant positive relationship between job characteristic and expatriate effectiveness was found. That is, high scores on the effectiveness of their performance relate to high scores of job characteristic that Japanese expatriates perceive in their jobs.

Research question #3: What is the level of role conflict of Japanese expatriates?

Role conflict, consisting of five items, was measured on a 7-point scale: 1 as “Very false” and 7 as “Very true.” The range was from 5 to 35. Higher scores indicated a high level of role conflict, as perceived by the Japanese expatriates (Table 28). The mean role conflict score was 20.3 (S.D. = 5.6) with a minimum of 9 and a maximum of 34. Of 68 Japanese expatriates, 39 (57.4%) scored between 11 and 20 while 25 (36.8%) scored between 21 and 30. However, 18 expatriates scored high on role conflict (above 24) in their work situations.

Research hypothesis #3.a: There is a negative relationship between role conflict, perceived by Japanese expatriates, and the effectiveness of their performance as rated by their supervisors.

The correlation coefficient between role conflict and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates was $r = .12$ ($p = .16$), which indicates that the null hypothesis was not rejected.
at p<.05. Therefore, a statistically significant relationship between role conflict and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance was not found.

Research question #4: What is the level of role ambiguity of Japanese expatriates?

Role ambiguity was measured on a 7-point scale: 1 as "Very false" and 7 as "Very true" with a possible range between 7 and 49. The mean role ambiguity score was 29.0 (S.D. = 5.2) with a minimum of 16 and a maximum of 40 (Table 29). Thirty-four Japanese expatriates (50%) were between 21 and 30 and 29 were between 31 and 40. Overall, the level of role ambiguity among Japanese expatriates, based on percentiles, was equally divided into three groups: high (above 33), moderate (between 19-32), and low (below 26).

Research hypothesis#4.a: There is a negative relationship between role ambiguity perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance as rated by their supervisors.

The correlation coefficient between role ambiguity and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance was r = -.01 (p = .46), which indicates that the null hypothesis is not rejected at p<.05. Therefore, no statistically significant relationship between role ambiguity and effectiveness was found in this study.

Research question 5: What is the level of work adjustment of Japanese expatriates?

Work adjustment consisted of the following items: (a) the job in the assignment, (b) supervisory responsibilities, (c) performance and expectation, and (d) overall work.
Work adjustment was measured on a 7-point scale; 1 as "Not at all adjusted" and 7 as "To a great degree adjusted" with a range from 4 and 28. Higher scores indicated that Japanese expatriates were more adjusted to their work in the U.S. assignments. The mean adjustment score for Work Adjustment was 20.3 (S.D.=3.1) with a minimum of 14 and a maximum of 25. Forty percent of Japanese expatriate (n = 34) scored more than 21 while 43% (n = 29) scored between 16 and 20 (Table 30).

Research hypothesis #5.a: There is a positive relationship between work adjustment perceived by Japanese expatriates and effectiveness, rated by supervisors.

The correlation coefficient obtained between work adjustment and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates was a low positive (r = .14, p = .13), which indicates the null hypothesis is not rejected at p<.05. Therefore, a statistically significant relationship was not found between work adjustment and effectiveness as rated by expatriates' supervisors.

Research question 6: What is the level of appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates?

Interpersonal Influence Strategies in the original study include: (a) Reason, (b) Assertiveness, (c) Friendliness, (d) Exchange, (e) Upward Appeal, and (f) Sanction (Kipnis, et al., 1980). A 5-point scale was used: 1 as "Never used" and 5 as "Most frequently used." A possible range was between 6 and 30. To obtain the score for appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, two scores for each of the six strategies were used: (a) observed scores from Japanese expatriates and (b) ideal mean scores from the original study by Kipnis, et al. (1980). First, Japanese expatriates were
asked to indicate how often they used the six strategies when they deal with non-Japanese employees at work. The observed scores from Japanese expatriates and the mean “ideal” scores from the original study (in parentheses) were obtained: (a) Reason = 4.22 (3.51), (b) Friendliness = 3.94 (2.65), (c) Assertiveness = 2.81 (2.41), (d) Upward appeal = 2.85 (1.76), (e) Exchange = 2.66 (1.97), and (f) Sanction = 2.10 (1.28). Detailed information is presented Table 31.

The mathematical calculation was performed by subtracting the observed scores for each strategy from the mean scores for each ideal strategy. Each subtracted score is noted as an absolute value. All six scores were summated to represent a single variable, defined as “Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies.” The mean of appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies was 6.72 (S.D.=1.57). Eighteen Japanese expatriates (26.5%) scored between 5.1 and 6.0, 13 (19.1%) scored between 6.1 and 7.0, and 12 (17.6%) scored between 7.1 and 8.0. Overall, Japanese expatriates tended to use the six strategies more frequently than the ideal usage of these strategies.

Null hypothesis #6.a: There is no relationship between the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies and effectiveness of Japanese expatriates.

The correlations coefficient obtained between the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance was r = .19 (p = .056), therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected at p<.05. A statistically significant relationship between these two variables was not found in this data set.
Research question #7: What is the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates?

Length of stay in the U.S. was obtained through Japanese expatriates being asked how long they have been in their U.S. assignments. The length of stay in this study was specified as those who have been in the U.S. approximately one year. The mean length of stay was 3.5 years (S.D. = 2.2). Additional analysis of variance was conducted to identify an exact minimum length of stay that could be used as “approximately” one year. The result showed the length of stay of 8 months had no statistical significant difference in effectiveness. Those Japanese staying approximately one year were 12% (n=8). Twenty-seven (40%) have been in the U.S. between 1 and 3 years while 28 (41%) have been in the U.S. between 3 years and 1 month and 6 years. Five Japanese expatriates have been in the U.S. more than six years (Table 11).

Research question #7.a: There is a positive relationship between length of stay in the U.S. and effectiveness of their performance as rated by their supervisors.

The correlation coefficient between length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates and scores on their effectiveness showed a low positive relationship (r = .22, p= .04). This result indicates the null hypothesis was rejected at p<.05. Therefore, a statistically significant relationship was found between Japanese expatriates’ length of stay in the U.S. and their effectiveness scores, as rated by their supervisors.
Research question #8: What is the nationality of Japanese expatriates' supervisors?

The nationalities of expatriates' supervisors were categorized into Japanese and non-Japanese. Of the sixty-eight supervisors, 59 were Japanese and 9 were non-Japanese supervisors.

Null hypothesis #8.1: There is no relationship between nationalities of supervisors and effectiveness ratings.

The correlation coefficient between the nationality of supervisors and effectiveness rating was a low positive relationship \( r = .15, p = .10 \), which indicates that the null hypothesis was not rejected at \( p < .05 \). Therefore, a statistically significant relationship was not found between the nationality of supervisors and their scores on expatriate effectiveness. However, a positive correlation coefficient indicated that non-Japanese supervisors tended to score expatriates higher on effectiveness than their Japanese counterparts.

Null hypothesis #9: There is no relationship between the set of independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S., and (g) nationality of supervisors, and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates in their U.S. assignments, as rated by the expatriates' supervisors.

Regression analysis was performed, using simultaneous entry for the independent variables. The results, based on the full regression model, were multiple \( R = .44 \), \( R^2 = .19 \), \( F = 2.00 \), and \( p = .07 \), which indicates that the null hypothesis was not rejected at \( p < .05 \). That is, a statistically significant linear relationship was not found between the selected seven independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict,
(c) role ambiguity, (d) work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S., and (g) nationalities of supervisors, and the effectiveness of performance in this study. The results indicated that the proposed model of expatriate effectiveness had a moderate positive relationship between the seven selected independent variables and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance (multiple R = .44) and 19% of the variance in the effectiveness can be explained by these independent variables. However, the proposed model was not statistically significant.

Overall interrelations among the independent variables showed positive low to moderate relationships, as indicated in Table 32. Particularly, job characteristic had positive significant relationships with role conflict, role ambiguity, and appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies. Role conflict had significant positive relationships with role ambiguity, work adjustment, and nationality of supervisors. Role ambiguity also had low significant relationships with work adjustment and appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies. However, interrelations among other variables did not show statistical significance.
Correlation Matrix

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Expatriates’ effectiveness</td>
<td>37.10</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Job Characteristic</td>
<td>81.97</td>
<td>10.12</td>
<td>.26*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Role Conflict</td>
<td>20.32</td>
<td>5.57</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.37***</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Role Ambiguity</td>
<td>29.05</td>
<td>5.24</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>.24*</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Work Adjustment</td>
<td>20.25</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.14</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.36**</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.17*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Length of Stay in the U.S.</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>2.19</td>
<td>.22*</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.10</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Nationality of Supervisors</td>
<td>.13</td>
<td>.34</td>
<td>.15</td>
<td>.16</td>
<td>.23*</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>.044</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Nationality: 0 = Japanese supervisors, 1 = Non-Japanese supervisors
*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 32. Descriptive Statistics for All Variables: Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlation Coefficients (n=68)
Research question #10: Which independent variables in a Model of Expatriate Effectiveness contributes to explaining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ in their U.S. assignments?

By examining beta values, indicating the relative importance of the variables, the important variable rankings obtained were: first- length of stay in the U.S. ($\beta = .25$, $p = .04$), second- work adjustment ($\beta = .19$, $p = .15$), appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies ($\beta = .19$, $p = .13$), and job characteristic ($\beta = .19$, $p = .19$), third- role ambiguity ($\beta = -.15$, $p = .26$), forth – nationality of supervisor ($\beta = .12$, $p = .34$), and fifth – role conflict ($\beta = .03$, $p = .82$). Similar relative importance rankings were also obtained by examining partial correlation coefficients. These coefficients are as follows: length of stay in the U.S. (.27), appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies (.20), work adjustment (.17), job characteristic (.16), role ambiguity (.13), nationality of supervisors (.12), and role conflict (.03).

In summary, the most important variable that contributed to explaining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance was length of stay in the U.S. with statistical significance at the .05 level. However, the remaining six independent variables were not statistically significant at $p < .05$. Appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies and job characteristic had the same ranking, followed by role ambiguity, nationalities of supervisors, and role conflict. In other words, while the six variables contributed to the effectiveness in the full regression model, each independent variable did not individually contribute to the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance in this data set.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression Full Model</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>β</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Constant</td>
<td>18.11</td>
<td>2.44</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Characteristic</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.33</td>
<td>.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Ambiguity</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-.15</td>
<td>-1.15</td>
<td>.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Adjustment</td>
<td>.36</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.48</td>
<td>.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Stay in the U.S.</td>
<td>.66</td>
<td>.25</td>
<td>2.15</td>
<td>.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nationality of Supervisors</td>
<td>1.97</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>.97</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Nationalities: 0 = Japanese supervisors, 1 = Non-Japanese supervisors
Full regression model: R-square = .19, F = 2.00; p<070

Table 33. Regression of Expatriate Effectiveness on the Selected Independent Variables (Simultaneous Entry) (n=68)
The effectiveness of expatriates has been discussed from several perspectives and involved slightly different domains in the expatriate literature, such as expatriate failure, adjustment, intercultural effectiveness, and selection and training (Aycan, 1997; Birdseye & Hill, 1995; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Kealey, 1989; Nagai, 1996; Shackleton & Newell, 1997). A recent research stream in expatriate literature has investigated characteristics of jobs and role perceptions, which is based on the assumption that expatriates find greater challenges and responsibilities in the given assignment (Bird & Dunber, 1991; Naumann, 1993; Shenker & Zeira, 1992). In spite of these challenges and responsibilities, they are expected to do well in their jobs by headquarters and local offices (Black, et al., 1992).

However, it has been indicated that approximately 50% to 80% of expatriates tend to be adequate performers and 20% tend to be low performers (Kealey, 1996; Sadamori, 1994). A study by Tashiro (1989) showed that 73% of Japanese expatriates found some degree of difficulty in carrying out their assignments. However, few studies have
focused on the expatriates’ performance in their given assignments (Black & Porter, 1991; Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Okechuku, 1994).

The purpose of the study was to examine relationships between a set of independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) work adjustment, (e) the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S. and (g) nationalities of expatriates’ supervisors, and the dependent variable (expatriate effectiveness). Effectiveness was measured by asking expatriates’ supervisors what they thought of the effectiveness of their Japanese expatriate subordinates. The proposed linear relationship of the seven independent variables and the dependent variable was examined to determine whether the model held under this investigation.

By examining relationships between the seven job-related independent variables and the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance, this study contributed to providing additional information about expatriate effectiveness to the body of knowledge in expatriate study by using job-related factors. Also, the results of this study provide theoretical and practical implications to international management, human resource development, and training for companies as well as expatriates.

Research Questions

Research questions and hypotheses are provided to examine relationships between a particular independent variable and the dependent variable in this investigation. The following research questions and hypotheses are included:

1. What is the level of job effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as perceived by their supervisors?
2. What is the level of job characteristic of Japanese expatriates?
   2.a. There is a positive relationship between the job characteristic perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

3. What is the level of role conflict of Japanese expatriates?
   3.a. There is a negative relationship between role conflict perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

4. What is the level of role ambiguity of Japanese expatriates?
   4.a. There is a negative relationship between role ambiguity perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

5. What is the level of cross-cultural work adjustment of Japanese expatriates?
   5.a. There is a positive relationship between cross-cultural work adjustment perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.

6. What is the level of the interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates?
   6.a. There is no relationship between appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as rated by their supervisors.

7. What is the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates?
   7.a. There is a positive relationship between the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of performance as rated by their supervisors.
8. What is the nationality of the Japanese expatriates' supervisors?

8.a. There is a relationship between the nationality of supervisors and their rating scores on the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates.

9. There is no relationship between the set of independent variables; job characteristic, role conflict, role ambiguity, work adjustment, the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, length of stay in the U.S., and the nationality of supervisors, and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance, as rated by their supervisors.

10. Which independent variables in the Expatriate Effectiveness Model contribute to explaining the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriates' in U.S. assignments?

Research Methodology

Due to the nature of this investigation, examining relationships between the set of selected independent variables and effectiveness of Japanese expatriates (dependent variable), the research design utilized descriptive and correlational methods.

Sample: The target population of this study included all Japanese expatriates working in either Japanese-owned companies or international joint venture companies in the U.S. Four hundred companies were randomly selected from those who were listed to have more than five Japanese expatriates in the JETRO Membership Directory of 1996 – 1997. Of these, 87 companies agreed to participate in this study, from which 103 pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors participated. A final usable sample was obtained (n = 68 pairs).

Instruments: The instruments combined in this study include: (a) job characteristic by Sims, et al. (1976), (b) role conflict by Rizzo, et al. (1970), (c) role ambiguity by

Data Collection & Analysis: A survey method was used to collect data during April and May of 1999. Descriptive statistics for demographics and for both independent and dependent variables were performed. Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used to examine relationships between each independent variable and the dependent variable. Multiple regression analysis was employed to examine a full regression model and to determine which independent variables could contribute to explaining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates.

This chapter is organized as follows: (a) a summary of findings, (b) conclusions and discussions, based on each research question and hypothesis tested, (c) limitations and recommendations.

Summary of Findings

This section provides a summary of findings, based on each variable.

Effectiveness

Effectiveness was obtained from rating scores by Japanese expatriates' supervisors. Most supervisors tended to give higher effectiveness scores to Japanese expatriates and these had a wide variability. Regarding overall effectiveness scores, non-
Japanese supervisors tended to give their Japanese expatriates higher scores than their Japanese counterparts. However, this score difference was not statistically significant.

**Job Characteristic**

The mean job characteristic score was 81.1 (S.D=10.1) with a minimum score of 52 and a maximum score of 105, which indicates a negatively skewed distribution. The majority of Japanese expatriates tended to perceive that their jobs contain some level of job characteristic aspect. Particularly, one-third of Japanese expatriates perceived their job to be above the 75th percentile on job characteristic scores, which showed they perceived their jobs containing a high level of the characteristic aspect. However, because of the wide variability in the perceived job characteristic scores, the level of job characteristic may vary, depending on individual expatriates.

The relationship between job characteristic and effectiveness performance was derived from the theory of job characteristic. The results found a statistically significant low positive relationship between job characteristic and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance (r = .26, p < .05). Based on the results, effectiveness of expatriates' performance relates to a job containing a high level of job characteristic.

**Role Conflict**

The results of descriptive statistics for role conflict showed a mean score of 20.3 and a standard deviation of 5.6, with a minimum of 9 and a maximum of 34. Higher scores indicated higher role conflict in the given U.S assignments among Japanese expatriates. In this regard, many Japanese expatriates found some degree of conflicts in
their given U.S. assignments. In spite of a slightly positively skewed distribution of the scores, overall Japanese expatriates tend not to perceive a high level of role conflict. The data relative to the hypothesis was not supported at \(p<.05\) in this study. Therefore, a statistically significant relationship was not found between the perceived role conflict among Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance as rated by their supervisors. The hypothesis was derived from studies in role conflict and ambiguity, which suggested that when employees found conflicts in role requirements in their given jobs, they tended to decrease their effectiveness by experiencing negative feelings toward their jobs (Rizzo, et al., 1970; Van Sell, et al., 1981). However, the results of this study showed a positive relationship between the perceived role conflict and the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance.

**Role Ambiguity**

The results obtained had a mean score for role ambiguity of 29 (S.D. = 5.2) with a minimum of 16 and a maximum of 40, which implied a slightly negatively skewed distribution. Thirty-four Japanese expatriates (50%) scored between 21 and 30 and 29 scored between 31 and 40. Higher scores indicated higher role ambiguity in the given U.S. assignments among Japanese expatriates. Therefore, the majority of Japanese expatriates tended to experience ambiguity between moderate and high levels in their given roles within their work situations. The conceptual foundation of role ambiguity is associated with organizational factors, such as changes in technology, personnel, and information flow (Rizzo, et al., 1970). In this regard, Japanese expatriates may
experience role ambiguity when clear information is lacking regarding the scope and responsibilities of their given organizational positions.

The results of this study showed no statistically significant relationship between role ambiguity and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance. In this case, the stated hypothesis was not supported at p< .05. Similar to the concept of role conflict, this hypothesis was derived from the concept of role perception, particularly "Role Ambiguity." It suggests that role ambiguity has a relationship with employees' performance effectiveness (Rizzo, et al., 1970). However, because of the lack of a statistically significant finding and the negligible negative relationship between role ambiguity as perceived by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance, this result may not always hold in an international work setting among Japanese expatriates.

Work Adjustment

The work adjustment concept takes into consideration the great degree of disruption of work role routines and social relationships, which result in a higher degree of uncertainty that expatriates have to deal with in international transfers (Black, 1990). The results of descriptive statistics showed that the mean work adjustment score was 20.3 (S.D=3.1) out of 27. Forty percent of Japanese expatriates (n = 34) indicated more than 21 while 43% (n= 29) indicated between 16 and 20. Higher scores suggest that Japanese expatriates in this study are well adjusted to their given U.S. assignments.

The correlation coefficient between the work adjustment of Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance was positive and low, but the null hypothesis
was not supported at $p < .05$. The hypothesis was derived from the assumption that as expatriates feel more adjusted to the given assignments they become more familiar with situations, roles, and the work itself. Therefore, they can effectively perform on their jobs (Black, 1988, 1990; Nagai, 1996; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). However, work adjustment of Japanese expatriates did not relate significantly to scores on the effectiveness of their performance, as rated by their supervisors in this study.

**Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies**

The results of descriptive statistics for appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies showed a mean score of 6.72 ($S.D. = 1.57$). A summated score for appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies was indicated as an absolute value, which was a summated distance from each ideal mean score on the six strategies to each score for the six observed strategies. Larger values for each of the six strategies was considered to indicate that Japanese expatriates used the six strategies more frequently than they were used by U.S. samples in the original study (Kipnis, et al., 1980). The results found that scores of the six strategies used by Japanese expatriates were higher than ideal scores. In this regard, all Japanese expatriates used all six strategies more frequently than in the original U.S. sample.

The relationship between appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates' performance was $r = .19$ ($p = .056$), which indicates the hypothesis was not supported at $p < .05$. A statistically significant relationship was not found although the $p$-value was very close to statistical significance. The hypothesis was derived from the assumption that if Japanese expatriates use their
personal influence strategies similarly to the way strategies are used by U.S. employees, U.S. employees would be more familiar with the way expatriates use strategies with them in daily work activities, which indicates that Japanese expatriates use personal strategies appropriately. In turn, the calculated total distance between the two groups in the use of interpersonal strategies would be used. Therefore, the appropriateness of the six strategies, as used by Japanese expatriates on a daily basis, can be related to the effectiveness of their performance. However, this assumption does not hold in this study.

**Length of Stay in the U.S.**

The mean length of stay in the U.S. was 3.5 years (S.D. = 2.2) with the range from 8 months to 14.8 years. The length of Japanese expatriates’ stay was specified in this study as those who have been in the U.S. approximately one year. Analysis of variance was employed to identify an exact minimum length of stay that could be used as “approximately one year.” The length was categorized into two levels: (a) eight months to 1 year and (b) more than 1.1 year. The result showed the length of stay of 8 months had no statistical significant difference in effectiveness (F=.58, p = .44). Therefore, approximately 1 year was determined as 8-month of stay or longer. Many Japanese expatriates have been in the U.S. considerably longer (between 3 and 6 years). In general, Japanese expatriates stay in their international assignments between 3 and 5 years (Nagai, 1996; Sonoda, 1998). The findings of this study are congruent with this notion. However, the variability in the length of their stay in the US. was rather wide, which indicated that length of stay in U.S. assignments among Japanese expatriates vary from individual to individual.
The results showed a statistically significant relationship ($r = .22$, $p = .04$) between the length of stay in the U.S. and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance. In this case, the hypothesis, as stated, was supported ($p<.05$). The assumption of length of stay in the U.S was that the longer the stay in a host country, which provides time to become proficient in the given jobs, the more familiar expatriates become with their jobs and working conditions. Therefore, the relationship between Japanese expatriates stay in the given U.S. assignments longer and the effectiveness of their performance, as rated by their supervisors.

**Nationality of Supervisors**

Nationalities of expatriates’ supervisors were categorized into two groups: Japanese and non-Japanese. However, most supervisors of Japanese expatriates were Japanese. Due to the unit of analysis for this study: pairs of Japanese expatriates and their supervisors, most Japanese supervisors were the presidents of their companies. The results showed that non-Japanese supervisors tended to give slightly higher scores on the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates than Japanese supervisors did. However, this mean difference was not statistically significant.

The correlation coefficient obtained between the nationality of supervisors and effectiveness ratings on Japanese expatriates was $r = .15$ ($p = .10$). The hypothesis as stated was not supported at $p<.05$. That is, there was no statistically significant relationship between nationalities of supervisors and ratings on performance effectiveness. The hypothesis was derived based on the notion that what constitutes effectiveness can be nationally bounded, due to different cultural values that may
influence the judgement of effectiveness (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Milliman, 1997). In other words, effectiveness ratings on expatriates’ performance may be different when the nationalities of supervisors are different. Because the analysis resulted in a lack of statistical significance, it may remain a possibility that rating scores might be different due to the nationality of the supervisors.

**Expatriate Effectiveness and a Full Regression Model**

As a result of regression analysis, using simultaneous entry for the independent variables, a moderate positive relationship between the seven independent variables and expatriates’ effectiveness was found and 19% of the variance in effectiveness was accounted for by these independent variables. However, the hypothesis for this data set was not supported ($F = 2.00$, $p< .07$). Therefore, a statistically significant relationship between the seven variables and effectiveness was not found. These independent variables may not form a linear relationship with the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance; therefore, the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates as rated by their supervisors, may not be assessed by using these seven selected independent variables.

Examining bivariate relationships, the results showed statistically significant positive relationships between the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates and job characteristic ($r = .26$) and length of stay in the U.S. ($r = .22$). No significant relationships, however, were found between the remaining five variables and effectiveness. In addition, intercorrelations among the independent variables had moderate to low positive relationships. Particularly, job characteristic, role conflict, and role ambiguity showed statistical significant intercorrelations (Table 32).
The beta values for the independent variables were examined, which resulted in the following ranking of relative importance: first - length of stay in the U.S., second - work adjustment, third - appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, and job characteristic, fourth - role ambiguity, fifth - nationalities of supervisor, and sixth - role conflict. Partial correlation coefficients were also examined and showed slightly different rankings on the relative importance of each variable. However, length of stay in the U.S was the most important variable that contributed to explaining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance in their given U.S. assignments.

Conclusions, Discussions and Implications

Based on the findings of this study, this section is organized based on each variable and provides conclusions, discussions, and implications.

Job Characteristic

In the study of job characteristics, a high score on job characteristic indicates the involvement to some degree of job characteristic aspects. This level of involvement implies that a job in the given assignment that Japanese expatriates deal with is not only high in the concept of job characteristic, but also highly dimensional with respect to some aspects. The theory of job characteristics suggests that highly perceived job characteristic tends to result in increased effectiveness in employees’ performance. The results of this study supported this theory; as Japanese expatriates perceived their jobs containing highly characteristic aspect in their given U.S. assignments, they tended to be effective in
their work. In this respect, the theory of job characteristics applied to the Japanese sample in this study.

In this study, the majority of Japanese expatriates (76.5%) indicated that the current U.S. assignment was their first international assignment, which can represent a major challenge for these Japanese expatriates. In addition, the high level of job characteristic within international work settings could have resulted from the complex nature of international management. If Japanese expatriates have to deal with jobs involving a high characteristic aspect within the complex nature of international work and if they are on their first international assignments, expatriates should be made aware of and prepared for the kind of job aspects they will be performing, prior to they are given international assignments. To provide information about characteristics of jobs for expatriates, management should have information about characteristics of jobs in overseas operations (Hanada, 1987). In this case, job analysis, specifically for overseas jobs, may be necessary to provide expatriates accurate and up-dated job information.

Jobs in given international assignments can be very demanding. For instance, expatriates are expected to deal with a wide variety of tasks and are given more responsibility for performing a whole job until its completion within the limited resources available for them. Therefore, pre-departure preparation for expatriates is critical to ensure their effective performance. However, the expatriate literature has indicated that expatriates may not be equipped to deal with given work responsibilities. This notion may be more so with Japanese expatriates. Tashiro (1989) found that Japanese expatriates had some difficulties managing operational units and functional job
competencies. Being competent in highly demanding jobs in international assignments may require training for expatriates, particularly on-the-job training (OJT). If this is the case, additional preparation for international assignments can be accomplished by using job rotation as a part of the expatriate's training.

Role Conflict

This study found Japanese expatriates dealt with some levels of role conflict in their given U.S. assignments, but no statistically significant relationship was found between role conflict and the effectiveness of performance among Japanese expatriates. However, due to the small sample size resulting in potentially unstable findings, a relationship between role conflict and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates may not always be obtained. In this regard, it may be too early to say that the concept of role conflict may or may not apply to a Japanese sample in an international work setting.

The results of this study showed a positive direction in a relationship between role conflict and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates. This finding is inconsistent with the basic assumption in role perception studies; role conflict has a negative relationship with effectiveness of employees' performance. However, the finding of a positive direction may not be so surprising. A study by Rizzo, at al. (1970) also showed a low positive relationship between role conflict and job anxiety and physical reactions (e.g., fatigue and discomfort). To explain possible reasons for this result, they speculated that stress created by the given role may not relate to anxiety when one can expect to leave from that role situation, or a certain level of role stress may induce adaptive behaviors. If this is the case, a positive relationship between role conflict and the effectiveness of
Japanese expatriates in this study can be explained by their knowledge of how long they would be in their U.S. assignments and their efforts to make their adjustments to the given roles. However, more thorough investigation should be undertaken to verify these discussions.

In this study, most Japanese expatriates found some degree of role conflict in their given work situations. In conjunction with the expatriate literature, this result implies that expatriates have to deal with a great amount of uncertainty in their work. Japanese expatriates tend to deal with role conflict when they are given a higher managerial rank in the given assignments than they have in their regular domestic assignments (Black, 1990; Sonoda, 1998). In this regard, if management in an overseas operation provides expatriates with clear role requirements for their given assignments, expatriates can get a good understanding of their roles.

In addition, different types of conflict in role requirements are indicated in the original role study by Rizzo, et al. (1970). In this case, if management or headquarters is able to clarify role requirements (e.g., time and resources, compatible role expectations, and policies and procedures), prior to and during the given international assignments, expatriates would be able to deal with them effectively, which can result in the increased effectiveness of their job performance.

Role Ambiguity

The assumption concerning role ambiguity in role perception studies is that the higher the level of role ambiguity experienced by employees, the lower their performance will be. This study found no statistically significant relationship between role ambiguity
and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates. This result may be due to the small sample size, which resulted in unstable findings. In this regard, finding these relationships may be difficult in this study.

Japanese expatriates experienced some degree of role ambiguity in this study and role ambiguity has been related to performance effectiveness in the role studies (Rizzo, et al., 1970). Therefore, role ambiguity remains a critical issue in expatriate studies. Furthermore, role ambiguity is related to a lack of clear information relative to the scope and responsibilities of the given organizational positions. These role ambiguity situations may be more prevalent in international work settings. For instance, employees in international settings share common goals and responsibilities, which could create different expectations relative to how well and how much to do in different operational units (e.g., headquarters and local counterparts) (Black, et al., 1992; Shanker & Zeira, 1992). These role confusions provide implications that if expatriates are provided optimal goals and clear expectations in their assignments, they will increase the effectiveness of their performance. Particularly, goals and objectives for international assignments should be established, prior to the expatriates being given the assignments.

Role ambiguity is also related to organizational factors (e.g., changes in technology, personnel, and information flow), relative to the given positions (Schuler, 1977). The majority of Japanese expatriates in this study are in middle management (58.8%), which has the highest failure rate among Japanese expatriates. These results suggest that management at U.S. operations should provide adequate information about job scope and responsibilities relative to organizational factors. At the same time, in cases
where the scope of expatriates’ responsibilities are wider in their international assignments, they should be informed about their extended responsibilities and given specific training, that deals with the wide range of work and responsibilities in their assignments.

In this study, role conflict and role ambiguity were found to be weakly-related to the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates. However, this weak relationship and a lack of statistical significance are not necessarily an unexpected result. One possible reason for this finding can be explained by role studies focusing on performance. Role conflict and role ambiguity have been found to be associated with organizational levels and tend to have weaker relationships with organizational level as the organizational level goes up (Schuler, 1975; Schuler, et al., 1977). Considering the fact that the majority of Japanese expatriates are in middle management positions, the weak relationships between role conflict and role ambiguity and effectiveness of performance within international work settings may apply in this case. However, more study results are needed to verify this contention.

**Work Adjustment**

The results of this study showed no statistically significant relationship between work adjustment and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance even though the expatriate literature suggests a positive relationship (Black & Gregersen, 1991, 1992; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). However, making the conclusion of a lack of a relationship may need more cautions. For instance, the effectiveness of expatriates in many expatriate studies was obtained through self-ratings, which tend to increase the relationship between
an independent variable (work adjustment by expatriates) and a dependent variable
effectiveness scores for expatriates (P. Young, personal communication, June 22,
1999). In addition, supervisory ratings on the effectiveness of employees’ performance
show a low relationship (Hackman & Lawler, 1971; Oldham, et al., 1976). With regard to
the exploratory nature of this study, a lack of statistical significance for the results of this
study may be due to a lack of accumulated research results. Future research studies will
provide more information relative to this result.

Although the results of this study do not have statistical significance, the
criticality of the adjustment issue has been discussed by indicating that the adjustment
problem is most responsible for expatriate failure (Arthur & Bennett, 1994; Black, 1988;
Fukuda & Chu, 1994; Stone, 1991). Work adjustment in this study showed statistically
significant relationships with role conflict and role ambiguity. Also, work adjustment was
the second most relatively important variable and accounted for the third highest amount
of variance in determining the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance in this study.
Based on these results, work adjustment still remains as an important issue to be
investigated for the early stage in an international assignment, but it may not be so after a
certain period in an international assignment.

In general, adjustment is considered as a cyclical and recursive process of
overcoming obstacles and solving problems at a point in time. International assignments
require expatriates to adjust to new roles and work environments, including customs, co­
workers, and the culture of work units in another country. This implies that helping
Japanese expatriates make a successful work adjustment within a relatively short period
of time after they are transferred to new international assignments is very critical for their future job effectiveness. In this regard, expatriates should be given on-going periodic training, focusing on actual problem solving at their work sites. In addition, adjustment training should not exclude cultural aspects, such as differences in work cultures between countries and cross-cultural teamwork.

**Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies**

Even though expatriate studies have indicated that building interpersonal relationships with local people is one of the most important factors in ensuring expatriate success, a direct relationship between interpersonal relationship and performance effectiveness has been difficult to established. Therefore, finding specific interpersonal factors that may have a relationship with effectiveness has remained a critical question (Clarke & Hammer, 1995; Cui & Awa, 1992; Hanada, 1984b; Stening & Hammer, 1992). Responding to this question, if interpersonal relationships are seen as a tool used at work, it might be used to increase one's effectiveness.

In this study, appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies was selected under the following assumption. If Japanese expatriates used the six interpersonal influence strategies when they dealt with U.S. employees similarly to ways the strategies were used by U.S. employees, the U.S. employees would be more familiar with the way Japanese expatriate used strategies in daily work activities. If the use of interpersonal strategies among Japanese expatriates was similar, their strategies used in daily work activities could be effective in attaining organizational and personal goals within their U.S. assignments, which would indicate the appropriateness of interpersonal influence
strategies. Such appropriate use of interpersonal strategies may be related to the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance.

The results of this study showed no statistically significant relationship between the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies used by Japanese expatriates and the effectiveness of their performance. The hypothesis, as stated, was not rejected. However, finding no relationship or a possible relationship between these two variables may be difficult at the exploratory stage of the investigation. Detecting these relationships requires additional research studies.

There are possible reasons for the lack of a relationship found in this study. For instance, the assumption used in this study may be intuitively logical, but it may not be theoretically grounded to support the assumption of appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies. As such, interrelationship between the appropriateness and effective performance may or may not be related to each other. Another possible reason may be the data used in this study. The ideal scores were obtained from the original study of interpersonal influence strategies by Kipnis, et al. (1980), that used data collected from actual U.S. employees. This methodological issue may have been resulted in the findings.

Interpersonal relationships are critical in daily work activities because most jobs cannot be completed without interacting with local employees. This notion may be more important for Japanese expatriates. Japanese expatriates in this study showed that supervisory responsibility was the most difficult part of their adjustment. If on-the-job problems associated with interpersonal relationships, and if the use of effective interpersonal influence strategies in interpersonal relationships is a function of one’s
ability to identify and use the most appropriate strategy in attaining organizational goals, understanding interpersonal strategies will help Japanese expatriates deal with U.S. employees on a daily basis.

**Length of Stay in U.S.**

The results of this study found the length of stay in the U.S. among Japanese expatriates had a significant relationship with effectiveness and that this is the most relatively important variable explaining effectiveness in this data set. The hypothesis was derived based on two issues; one was the length of stay as a time to become functional in the given assignments and the other was different length of stay in given U.S. assignments. These issues possibly relate to the effectiveness of expatriates’ performance.

The results showed that most expatriates have been in the U.S. approximately 1 year and that the range of stay in the U.S. had a wide variability. These results are somewhat consistent with other studies (Nagai, 1996; Parker & McEvoy, 1993). One concern relative to the relationship between the length of stay and effectiveness might be seen as a cause-effect relationship. That is, expatriates have been effective; therefore, they stay longer in their given assignments.

Such a cause-effect relationship may not be appropriate in an international assignment. Tashiro (1989) indicates that the development of internationally competent managers has been one of the top concerns among Japanese companies. With regard to his notion, the findings of this study showed that the current U.S. assignments was the first overseas experience among many Japanese expatriates and that these expatriates were in their 30s. These results imply that Japanese companies may use an international
assignment for a developmental purpose for their employees. In this regard, an international assignment can be seen as part of job rotations or job assignments allowing employees to gain experiences. For those expatriates who wish to pursue their career in the international area, an international assignment is a phase in their developmental process to acquire knowledge, skills, and experience.

In addition, similar to the expatriate reduction that has been observed in international companies in different countries, many Japanese companies have reduced their number of expatriates for overseas operations (Tashiro, 1989). A study by Tashiro showed many companies did not intend to increase the number of expatriates, but rather to replace Japanese expatriates with local employees. Hanada (1991) asserts the importance of the development of local employees within Japanese companies overseas. In this respect, while Japanese expatriates can be the primary workforces at the overseas operation sites, they can also provide assistance for local employees. In conclusion, the length of stay in the U.S. showed a relationship with effectiveness in this study; however, examining a cause-effect relationship would require another investigation.

The length of stay in the given assignment also implies the length of time individuals, who are transferred to other jobs or offices, take to become proficient in the given jobs. In other words, the length of time required for expatriates to become effective in a new assignment. This issue is also important for companies because it may result in increased costs when expatriates take too long to adjust to their work and have difficulty in becoming effective (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987).
Two factors are important for expatriates to become proficient: (a) support from supervisors and peers and (b) perceived differences between an old and a new job (Pinder & Schroeder, 1987). If this is the case, with regards to the results length of stay in U.S. showed: (a) a significant relationship between time in the U.S. and expatriates' effectiveness, (b) the most important variable in determining effectiveness, and (c) accounted for the highest amount of the variance in effectiveness. Therefore, it is important for overseas operations as well as management at headquarters to provide expatriates some assistance programs after they are transferred. For instance, the assistance programs should focus on ways to assure that expatriates can adjust to their work environment in a relatively short period of time and become proficient in their jobs. A possible assistance program might be an on-the-job support system, that involves expatriates' supervisors and peers.

Nationality of Supervisors

The results of this study did not show a significant difference due to the difference in the nationality of supervisors between Japanese and non-Japanese in this study. The hypothesis was derived from the notion that what constitutes effectiveness can be culturally - or nationally-bounded because effectiveness is associated with value judgement (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Milliman, et al, 1997). The assumption was that ratings on the effectiveness of expatriates' performance would be different due to differences in the nationality of expatriates' supervisors. In this study, the assumption did not hold. However, it may be too early to say there may or may not be a relationship between effectiveness scores and the nationality of supervisors. This is because of the
small sample size, as well as different sample sizes between the two nationalities of supervisors, which may have resulted in unstable results.

Regardless of the findings of this study relative to nationalities of supervisors, the literature has indicated a potential influence on effectiveness ratings due to different nationalities and cultural values (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991; Milliman, 1997; Nagai, 1994). These indications imply the importance of eliminating bias on judging performance effectiveness. If this is the case, management should establish performance committees involving host and home national supervisors, specifically for performance appraisal. Another possible suggestion would be to provide evaluation training not only for supervisors, but also for expatriates. This training should focus on clarifying what is expected of expatriates and on what and how they are evaluated. For supervisors, the focus of the training should be on differences that may be brought about in the way performance is perceived and evaluated due to differences in their nationalities.

**Expatriates’ Effectiveness and a Model of Expatriate Effectiveness**

Expatriate effectiveness has been assessed from several perspectives in the literature. However, little study has been done focusing specifically on effective expatriates’ performance in their international assignments (Black & Porter, 1991; Okechuku, 1994; Wakabayashi, Chen, & Huanog, 1999). To conduct such a study, the importance of a multidimensional approach in the assessment of expatriate effectiveness has been suggested relative to the complex nature of an international assignment (Cue & Awa, 1992; Kealey, 1996). To fill the need for more empirical investigation on expatriate effectiveness and taking suggestions into consideration, a linear relationship among the
independent variables was selected. This study examined relationships between the seven selected independent variables: (a) job characteristic, (b) role conflict, (c) role ambiguity, (d) work adjustment, (e) appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, (f) length of stay in the U.S., and (g) nationalities of supervisors, and expatriate effectiveness.

The results of hypothesis testing of the full regression model for effectiveness showed that even though a moderate relationship was found between the selected seven independent variables and effectiveness, a lack of statistical significance was found to support the hypothesis. Therefore, the proposed model of expatriate effectiveness showed a lack of ability to explain the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance. These results suggest that the seven selected independent variables may not be in a linear relationship with the effectiveness of expatriates.

However, it may be difficult to detect whether or not linear relationships between the seven independent variables and effectiveness can be observed in this study. A possible reason for a lack of statistical significance may be due to the small sample size, resulting in unstable findings. Statistical power relates to the ability to correctly reject a null hypothesis that is false. Because the hypothesis examining the proposed model was stated as a null hypothesis, the power was recalculated (.80), based on the obtained data set in this study (Cohen, 1988). Although an acceptable level of power was obtained, the p-value showed .07, which implied that the model might show statistical significance with a larger sample size. However, further research is required to conclude that finding.
Another possible reason for a lack of significance for the proposed model may be that other variables should be taken into consideration in measuring expatriate effectiveness to provide an increased linear relationship.

Effectiveness did not have significant relationships with six of the independent variables, except length of stay in U.S. In addition, length of stay in U.S. showed a lack of significant and strong relationships with these six variables. A possible explanation might be related to the sample specification. That is, Japanese expatriates in this study were specified as those who have been in the U.S. approximately 1 year or longer. As a result, these expatriates may have already achieved a certain level of adjustment to their jobs, role conflict and ambiguity in the given positions, and the appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies, which resulted in lower variability in effectiveness scores. Therefore, a significant and strong relationship was not observed in this study.

Examining the relative importance of the factors in the regression on the seven independent variables showed that length of stay in a host country was the most relatively important variable. This variable also accounted for the highest amount of variance in explaining the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates. Similar to the explanation, provided above, the length of stay in a host country implies time for expatriates to become proficient in their work by learning the ways of the host country work settings. For instance, as expatriates stay in a host country longer, they become more adjusted to the new environment and the given job. Length of stay provides expatriates time to learn how to do a job containing higher characteristic aspect in the given assignments and time allows expatriates to understand expected roles they have to fill in their work settings. In
addition, time provides expatriates a learning opportunity in the ways local people work. Interpersonal influence strategies used by expatriates in daily work activities to achieve organizational and personal goals can become more effective as expatriates learn to use these strategies as they are used by local counterparts and as expatriates use them in performing the given jobs. These explanations may be intuitively logical, yet a lack of statistical significance limits the ability to predict a relationship between the seven selected independent variables and the effectiveness of Japanese expatriates’ performance.

Limitations and Recommendations

Due to the exploratory nature of this study, methodological and conceptual limitations may have influenced the results. This section provides limitations and recommendations for future research studies.

Limitations of the Study

The following section provides limitations of this study. These include:

1. The results of this study can be generalized only to those Japanese expatriates and their supervisors whose companies agreed to take part in this study (n = 87 companies), from the original 400 randomly-selected companies, due to the systematic random sampling method used and the lack of additional information about the 400 companies.
2. Due to the respondents' voluntary participation in this study, the number of participants was relatively low. The low sample size could undermine the stability of the significance of statistical analyses (Warmbord, 1995).

3. A panel of experts, consisting of both Japanese and English native speakers and scholars, participated in the establishment of the validity of the instruments used in this study. The instruments were translated from English to Japanese and back-translated (Brislin, 1980). However, the results of this study might have been influenced due to the translation (Sperber, Devellis, & Boehlecke, 1994).

4. Each data point required responses from two individuals, (a) an expatriate manager and (b) his or her superior. A lack of response from either individual excluded that data point, which resulted in the relatively small sample size that was used in statistical analyses.

5. The accessibility to participants in this study was limited due to the absence of a person who was in charge of a company and non-collaboration by a company's employees. The data collection period was at the beginning of the fiscal year for most of the Japanese companies, which increased the difficulty concerning accessibility to individuals in top management. These individuals had the authority to make a decision on the participation in this study.

6. Companies were randomly selected. However, individual employees participating in this study were not able be randomly selected, due to security concerns among the companies limiting the accessibility to individual participants. This limitation may have
Recommendations for Future Research

The following section provides recommendations relative to methodological issues.

1. The relatively small sample size in this study may have resulted in unstable findings. Therefore, increasing sample size will provide more stable findings and increase the credibility of conclusions based on hypotheses testing.

2. The instruments were translated from English to Japanese and back-translated to English. Establishing high content validity and reliability is critical for ensuring the reliability of the instruments.

3. Generalization of the results of this study is limited to the respondents of this study. For future research, random selection and more controlled accessibility to individual expatriates and their supervisors is crucial. Another way to increase generalizability of the results can be done through the use of a more rigorous random selection method and controlling for non-respondents from the participating companies.

4. Participating companies in this study vary by types of industries, which resulted in various types of U.S. assignments for the Japanese expatriates. Such a wider variability in participants provides a broad spectrum of information. However, each expatriate deals with a different type of job and environment associated with the given assignment. In this regard, the effectiveness measure of expatriates might differ, depending on the nature of their jobs and operational units in U.S. assignments. It will
be helpful if future research specifies these issues in a study sample, such as sampling based on types of industries. In this way, studies will provide crucial information about the effectiveness of expatriates across industries.

5. The pairing of a Japanese expatriate and his or her supervisors relied on the compliance of the participating companies in this study, with initial contacts usually being the presidents of the companies. Therefore, verifying that a pair of an expatriate and his or her supervisor are in supervisor-subordinate relationship within the same business or operation unit is recommended for future research. In addition, while the expatriates in the sample of this study were partially controlled for by specifying those who were in the U.S. approximately one year, supervisors were not controlled. If supervisors are not familiar with work in international assignments, their ratings may be more accurate. In this regard, the length of stay in the given international assignments among supervisors should be taken into consideration for future research. As such, more precise relationship between subordinates (expatriates) and supervisors can be obtained.

Recommendations for Conceptual Frameworks

Recommendations relative to conceptual frameworks include:

1. In regard to job characteristic, the interest of this study is in the use of a single variable, named “job characteristic.” However, originally, four job dimensions (variety, task identity, autonomy, and feedback) are included in the job characteristic. In this regard, taking a look at the four job dimensions separately and examining them
relative to the effectiveness of expatriates will provide more thorough findings and add to the body of knowledge in understanding which dimensions of job characteristic may relate to effectiveness.

2. The importance of interpersonal relationships within international work settings has been cited (Hanada, 1988; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Janssens, 1995; Kealey, 1996; Koster & Olebe, 1988). However, it has been difficult to determine a specific interpersonal relationship variable that can be related to the effectiveness of expatriates in their international assignments. As a way of providing insight relative to this issue, the variable “appropriateness of interpersonal influence strategies” was selected. The assumption of this variable was that if the use of interpersonal influence strategies in daily work activities to attain organizational and personal goals among people of one nationality was similar to their use among people of a different nationality, the calculated distance for each strategy between the two nationalities should be used in examining a relationship with effectiveness. This is an operational definition of the appropriateness of interpersonal strategies. Therefore, the interpersonal influence strategies, as used by people from the different nationality, can be effective in attaining their work goals, which is related to the effectiveness of performance at work. However, this assumption was relatively newly developed. To lend further support to the assumption requires more conceptual development and additional use in future research studies to provide accumulated empirical data.

3. The proposed model of expatriate effectiveness in this study does not have statistical significance, in terms of “goodness of fit.” This result suggests that the seven
selected independent variables may not form a linear relationship. In fact, each area of the conceptual framework has been separately developed. Therefore, a theoretically-founded linear relationship should be used for future research or the linear relationship among the independent variables should be theoretically close to each other.

**Practical Recommendations**

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following practical recommendations can be provided to management in international companies and their expatriates, as well as human resource development practitioners.

1. Management should provide job information concerning an international assignment. This can be done through conducting job analysis in an international job and accumulating job information from experienced expatriates. As such, information about the scope of job responsibilities and tasks performed, job requirements and performance expectations should be clarified to management at overseas operations and to expatriates.

2. Prior to giving international assignments, management at the home office and local office should be aware of the purpose or objectives of assignments. This would help in evaluating expatriates’ performance based on outcomes of objectives.

3. Role confusions often are from a lack of information about changes in technology and personnel, different expectations between expatriates and local employees, as well as between headquarters and local operation units. Therefore, implementing an open
policy for information flow can help expatriates reduce role confusion in the given assignments.

4. Training for expatriates should focus more on job-related issues, which increase job competencies. A multi-faceted training approach will be helpful for expatriates, such as combing OJT and job rotation as a part of pre-departure training and problem-solving and interpersonal relationship training as a part of on-site training. In addition, training should not exclude cultural training, such as cultural awareness, adjustment, and intercultural communication. However, these cultural training programs should be designed to enhance job-related training. For example, more than two programs could be combined into one training program, such as the combination of intercultural communication and conflict resolution training, and interpersonal influence strategies and training for performance appraisal.

5. Training for local employees is also important, particularly, for the expatriates' supervisors. They evaluate the effectiveness of expatriates' performance. Therefore, they should be provided information concerning what is expected of them, in terms of appraisal criteria and how to communicate with expatriates.
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Appendix A

A Model of Expatriate Effectiveness
Figure 1. A Model of Expatriate Effectiveness in an International Assignment
Appendix B

Pilot Study Documents

Invitation Letter
Cover Letter
Follow-up Letter
Telephone Script
Questionnaire for Japanese Expatriates
Questionnaire for Japanese Supervisors
Questionnaires for Non-Japanese Supervisors
Pilot Study Invitation Letter

September, 1998

Mr. XY
Name of the company
Address

Dear Mr. XY;

I am a doctoral student at the Ohio State University. My current research for a dissertation is concerned with characteristics of managerial jobs on international assignments. Understanding expatriates and their jobs in assignments has been of great interest; however, little study has been done in this area. Your company was randomly selected for this study. I would like to ask you and a Japanese expatriate manager to participate in this research study.

The focus of this study is on Japanese expatriate managers. The study requires two participants from each selected company: a Japanese expatriate manager, who has been stationed at the company approximately 1 year, and his/her superior who works closely with the expatriate. If either participant does not return the completed questionnaire, the data will not be useable. Therefore, it is extremely important that I obtain your agreement on participating in this study. Results of this study will provide valuable information, which will help many companies and individuals develop their international managers. All responses will be kept totally confidential and nobody from your organization or work unit will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. It should take approximately 30 minutes or so of your time to complete.

I will call you the first week of September, between the 3rd and 4th, to discuss the possibility of your company participating in this study. If you are willing to participate, I will send the questionnaire shortly thereafter. Should you have any concern, please do not hesitate to contact me. I will be happy to respond to your concern.

Sincerely,

Kiyoe Harada
The Ohio State University
P.O.Box 3319,
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875

Professor David Stein Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-0988
Dear Mr. XY;

Thank you very much for your participation in this study. Understanding the work of expatriate managers in their international assignments has been of great interest to management. However, little study has been done in this area. This study focuses on understanding Japanese expatriate managers and their managerial jobs in US assignments.

Based on your suggestion over the phone, I am enclosing the following items:
1. One set of questionnaire booklets for a Japanese expatriate and a Japanese superior.
2. One set of questionnaire booklets for a Japanese expatriate and an American superior.
3. Four self-addressed stamped return envelopes.

This study requires pairs of participants and obtaining responses from expatriates and their superiors is extremely critical in this study. All collected responses will be numerically coded, therefore, all responses will be kept totally confidential. In addition, nobody from your organization or work unit will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire.

Please complete all items on this questionnaire and return it using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. It should take 30 minutes or so of your time. Please return the completed questionnaire to me by September 18, 1998.

Should you have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me. I will be happy to respond to your concern.

Sincerely,

Kiyoe Harada
The Ohio State University
P.O.Box 3319
Columbus, Oh 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875

Professor David Stein, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-0988
A Pilot Study Follow-Up Letter

September, 1998

Mr. XY
Name of the company
Address

Dear Mr. XY;

Thank you very much for your participation in this study. I sent you the questionnaire package, including two sets of questionnaires for Japanese expatriates and their superiors, about two weeks ago.

I very much appreciate your asking your managers to fill out the questionnaires. I have received the responses from 3 of them. Please convey my thanks to them. However, I have not received the response from one of the Japanese expatriates. I understand it has been busy for him. However, I mentioned in the previous letter that obtaining pairs of responses is extremely important to my study. Would you please encourage him to fill out the questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible?

If he has already sent it back, please ignore this letter and convey my appreciation to him for his participation in this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help.

Sincerely

Kiyoe Harada
The Ohio State University
P.O. Box 3319
Columbus, Oh 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875

Professor David Stein, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-0988
Pilot Study Telephone Script

If the secretary or administrative assistant (AA) answers the phone:

“Hello, my name is Kiyoe Harada, and I am calling from the Ohio State University. I would like to talk with Mr. XY. Is he available?”

If Mr. XY is available:

“Hello. My name is Kiyoe Harada and I am calling from the Ohio State University, regarding to the letter I sent you last week, concerning a research project.”

“Have you received my letter?”

“Thank you. In the letter, I wrote that your company has been randomly selected from a membership directory as a potential participant in the research study. The study focuses on Japanese expatriates working in the U.S. and tries to understand their characteristics of work. The study does not involve any relationship with any organization. I would like to ask you whether you would allow me to have individuals from your company as participants. I use a questionnaire, which should take 30 minutes or so of their time.

If Mr. XY is not available, and leave a message:

“My name is Kiyoe Harada and I am calling from the Ohio State University concerning a research project. Last week, I sent Mr. XY (you) a letter. In the letter, I explained that your company had been randomly selected as a potential participant in the study and asked him (you) whether he (your company) would allow me to have individuals from your company as participants. I also said in the letter that I would call him (you) this week to obtain his response.

“I understand that Mr. XY (your are) is very busy. Would you suggest me when is the best time for me to reach him (you)?”

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Questionnaire for Japanese Expatriates

Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

1. Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to all items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

2. Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

3. Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

4. Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

5. Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded for follow-up.

Part 1

The first part concerns characteristics of your job. Each question asks about the degree or frequency of a particular job aspect. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to your job.

Example

1. How much variety is there in your job?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

2. How much are you left on your own to do your own work?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

3. How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

4. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

5. How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendships with?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

6. How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

7. How repetitious are your duties?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

8. To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question</th>
<th>Rating Scale</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>9. To what extent do you receive information from your supervisor on your job performance?</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical work day?</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The feedback from my supervisor on how well I'm doing.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Friendship with co-workers.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The opportunity to talk to others on my job.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The opportunity to do a number of different things.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The degree to which the work I’m involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The opportunity to find out how well I’m doing on my job.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. The opportunity on my job to get to know other people.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. The amount of variety in my job.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. The opportunity for independent thought and action.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. The opportunity to complete work I start.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25. The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26. The opportunity to develop close friendships in my job.</td>
<td>1—5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
27. Meeting with others in my work.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5

28. The control I have over the pace of my work.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5

29. The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to the end (i.e., the chance to do a whole job).
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5

30. The extent of feedback you receive from individuals other than your supervisor.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5

Part 2

The second part concerns a condition relative to your job. Each question asks your opinion about the degree or frequency of a particular aspect of a job related situation. Please circle the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to your job.

(Example)

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

Very false  Very true

1. I have enough time to finish my work.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. I perform tasks that are too easy or boring.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

5. I have to do things that should be done differently.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

6. Lack of policies and guidelines to help me.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

7. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

8. I am corrected or rewarded when I really don’t expect it.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

9. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

10. I know that I have divided my time properly.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

11. I receive an assignment without the manpower to complete it.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

12. I know what my responsibilities are.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
13. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

14. I have to “feel my way” in performing my duties.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

15. I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

16. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

17. I have just the right amount of work to do.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

18. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

19. I know exactly what is expected of me.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

20. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

21. I am uncertain as to how my job is linked.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

22. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

23. I am told how well I am doing in my job.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

24. I receive an assignment without adequate resources and materials to execute it.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

25. Explanation is clear as to what has to be done.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

26. I work on unnecessary things.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

27. I have to work on vague directives or orders.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

28. I perform work that suits my values.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

29. I do not know if my work will be acceptable to my boss.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
Part 3

Part 3 concerns your adaptability to your U.S. assignment. Each question asks about the degree of your adaptability. Please circle the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to you.

Example
1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5 ----- 6 ----- 7
Not at all  To some degree  To a great degree

1. Your adaptability to job responsibilities.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

2. Your adaptability to performance standards and expectations.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. Your adaptability to supervisory responsibilities.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Your adaptability to overall assignment.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

Part 4

Part 4 concerns interpersonal influence strategies that you usually use in order to get work done. Please read the six strategies indicated below carefully, then, answer the questions.

Reason: This involves using data, information, and logical arguments to convince the Japanese expatriate

Assertiveness: This refers to an attempt to influence the Japanese expatriate by being forceful, giving the impression of "being in charge."

Reciprocity: This indicates a sense of give-and-take. Exchanging of favor between you and the Japanese expatriate, in addition to showing friendliness and creating a favorable impression with him or her.

Upward appeal: This is used both formally through the chain of command or by asking superiors to deal informally with the Japanese expatriate.

Sanction: This involves using organizationally derived rewards or punishments through policies and procedures.

Total: This involves all five strategies.

A: This question asks you about the frequency of use of the six strategies in dealing with American employees on a daily basis to get work done. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to you.

Example
1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
Never Most frequently

1. Reason
   1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

2. Assertiveness
   1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5

3. Reciprocity
   1 ----- 2 ----- 3 ----- 4 ----- 5
B: This question asks you about the frequency of use of the six strategies in dealing with Japanese expatriates on a daily basis to get work done. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to you.

1. Reason
2. Assertiveness
3. Reciprocity
4. Upward appeal
5. Sanction
6. Total strategy

2. Gender: 1. Male 2. Female
4. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major:)
   3. Bachelor degree (Major:)
   4. Graduate degree (Major:)
   5. Others (Please specify)
5. Length of stay in U.S. assignment: ____years____months
6. Length of service in your company: ____years____months
7. Previous experience in U.S. assignments: 1. Yes 2. No
8. The total number of years in U.S. assignments: ________years________months
9. Have you had other expatriate experiences?: 1. Yes 2. No
   How many times________
10. The total number of years in expatriate assignment: ________years________months
11. Please list countries you have been as in an expatriate:

Part 5

Part 5 concerns demographic information about participants in this study. Items from 1 to 13 ask you for personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

1. Age: __________
12. Your current job position:
   1. Top management (President or Vice president)
   2. Section head
   3. Manager
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify )

13. How many U.S. subordinates do you supervise? :________

This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time. For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send you a result of this study after the completion.

Name:

Address:

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelop and send your completed questionnaire by:

September , 1998
Questionnaire for Japanese Superiors

Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to all items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded for follow-up.

Part 1

The first part concerns the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriate who is paired with you in this study. Please place the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to him or her.

Example

1. Quality of work produced
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
   Low   Moderate   High

2. Quantity of work produced
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. Ability to get along with others
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Dependability
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

5. Knowledge of work in the U.S
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

6. Planning ability
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

7. Overall effectiveness
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
Part 2

Part 2 focuses on demographic information about your company. Please write responses.

1. Ownership of your company
   1. 100% Japanese affiliate   2. ____% Joint venture

2. Establishment of your company in the U.S.
   ______ years ______ months

3. The number of Japanese expatriates: ___________

4. Types of Industry/ Business
   ____________________________________________

Part 3

Part 3 concerns demographic information about participants in this study. Items from 5 to 17 ask you personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

5. Age: __________

6. Gender: 1. Male   2. Female


8. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major:)
   3. Bachelor degree (Major:)
   4. Graduate degree (Major:)
   5. Others (Please specify)

9. How long have you been in the current U.S. assignment:
   ______ years ________ months

10. Length of service in your company:
    ________ years ________ months

11. Previous experience in U.S. assignments:
    1. Yes    2. No

12. The total number of years in U.S. assignment:
    ________ years ________ months

13. Have you had other expatriate experiences?:
    1. Yes    2. No
       How many times ______

14. The total number of years in expatriates assignments:
    ________ years ________ months

15. Please list countries you have been in as an expatriate:
    ____________________________________________
16. Your current job position:
   1. Top management
   2. Section head
   3. Manager
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify)

   For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send one to you after the completion of the study.

   Name:

17. How many Japanese subordinates do you supervise?:

   Address:

This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelop and send your completed questionnaire by:

   September, 1999

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time.
Questionnaire for Non-Japanese Superiors

Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

1. Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

2. Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

3. Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

4. Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

5. Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded to follow-up.

Part 1

The first part concerns the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriate who is in paired with you in this study. Please place the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to him or her.

Example

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
Low Moderately Highly

1. Quality of work produced

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

2. Quantity of work produced

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. Ability to get along with others

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Dependability

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

5. Knowledge of work in the U.S

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

6. Planning ability

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

7. Overall effectiveness

1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
Part 2

Part 2 focuses on demographic information about your company. Please write responses.

1. Ownership of your company
   1. 100% Japanese affiliate  2. ____% Joint venture

2. Establishment of your company in the U.S.
   ______ years ______ months

3. The number of Japanese expatriates: ___________

4. Types of Industry/ Business
   _____________________________________________

Part 3

Part 3 concerns general demographic information. Items from 5 to 13 ask about your personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

5. Age: _________

6 Gender: 1. Male  2. Female


8. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major: )
   3. Bachelor degree (Major: )
   4. Graduate degree (Major: )
   5. Others (Please specify )

9. Length of your service with this company: ________ years ________ months

10. The number of companies you worked for before this company: ___________

11. Have you worked at other Japanese companies before this company? : 1. Yes  2. No

12. The number of Japanese companies you have worked at before this company: __________

13. The total number of years you have worked for Japanese companies: __________

14. Have you been an expatriate? : 1. Yes  2. No

15. How long have you worked as an expatriate? : ________ years ________ months
16. Please list countries you have been as an expatriate:

__________________________________________

17. Your current job position:
   1. Top management
   2. Section head
   3. Manager
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify)

18. How many Japanese subordinates do you supervise?:

______________________________

This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelop and send your completed questionnaire by:

   September, 1999

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time.

For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send you after the completion of the study.

Name:

Address:
Appendix C

Research Study Documents

Invitation Letter
Cover Letter
Follow-up Letter
Telephone Scripts
Questionnaire for Japanese Expatriates
Questionnaire for Japanese Supervisors
Questionnaires for Non-Japanese Supervisors
Research Study Invitation Letter

March , 1999

Mr. ABC
Title Position
Name of a Company
Address

Dear Mr. ABC:

I am a doctoral student at the Ohio State University. My current research is concerned with jobs of Japanese expatriates in U.S. assignments, an area in which little has been done. Your company was randomly selected for this study. I would like to ask you and a Japanese expatriate to participate in this research study.

The focus of this study is on Japanese expatriates. The study requires two participants from each selected company: a Japanese expatriate manager, who has been stationed at the company approximately 1 year and has subordinates, and his superior who works closely with the expatriate. If either participant does not return the completed questionnaire, the data will not be usable. Therefore, obtaining your agreement on participating in this study is extremely important as far as obtaining responses from two individuals for this study. Results of this study will provide valuable information about expatriates’ jobs, which will help many companies and individuals develop and manage their international managers. All responses will be kept totally confidential and nobody from your organization or work unit will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. It should take approximately 30 minutes of your time to complete.

I will call you approximately one week after you receive this letter to discuss the possibility of your company’s participating in this study. If you are willing to participate, I will send the questionnaire shortly thereafter. Should you have any concern, please do not hesitate to contact me. I will be happy to respond to your concern.

Sincerely,

Kiyoe Harada
The Ohio State University
P.O.Box 3319, Columbus, OH 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875

Professor David Stein Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-0988
Dear Mr. ABC;

Thank you very much for your participation in this study. Understanding the work of expatriate managers in their international assignments has been of great interest to management. However, little study has been done in this area. This study focuses on understanding Japanese expatriate managers and their jobs in the US assignments.

Based on your suggestion over the phone, I am enclosing the following items:
1. One set of questionnaires for a Japanese expatriate and his/her superior.
2. One set of self-addressed stamped return envelope.

This study requires pairs of participants and therefore, obtaining responses from expatriates and their superiors is extremely critical in this study. All collected responses will be numerically coded, therefore, all responses will be kept totally confidential. In addition, nobody from your organization or work unit will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire.

Please complete all items on this questionnaire and return it using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. It should take 30 minutes or so of your time. Please return the completed questionnaire to me by the return dates.

Should you have any concerns, please do not hesitate to contact me. I will be happy to respond to your concern.

Sincerely

Kiyoe Harada
Professor David Stein, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
The Ohio State University
P.O.Box 3319
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, Oh 43210
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875
Phone: (614) 292-0988
Dear Mr. ABC;

Thank you very much for your participation in this study. I sent you the questionnaire package, including one set of questionnaires for a Japanese expatriate and his/her superior about two weeks ago.

I very much appreciate your asking managers in your company to fill out the questionnaires. I have received the response from the expatriate manager. Please convey my thanks to him. However, I have not received the response from his supervisor. I understand it has been a busy time for him. However, I mentioned in the previous letter that obtaining pairs of responses is extremely important to this study. Would you please encourage him to fill out the questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible. If he has already sent it back, please ignore this letter and convey my appreciation to him for his participation in this study.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and help.

Sincerely

Kiyoe Harada
The Ohio State University
P.O.Box 3319
Columbus, Oh 43210
Phone & Fax: (614) 688-0875

Professor David Stein, Ph.D.
The Ohio State University
356 Arps Hall. 1945 North High St.
Columbus, OH 43210
Phone: (614) 292-0988
Research Study Telephone Script

If the secretary or an administrative assistant answers the phone:

"Hello, my name is Kiyoe Harada, and I am calling from the Ohio State University. I would like to talk with Mr. ABC. Is he available?"

If Mr. ABC is available:

"Hello. My name is Kiyoe Harada and I am calling from the Ohio State University, regarding the letter I sent you last week, concerning a research project."

"Have you received my letter?"

"Thank you. In the letter, I wrote that your company has been randomly selected from a membership directory as a potential participant in the research study. The study focuses on Japanese expatriates working in the U.S. and tries to understand characteristics their of work. The study does not involve any relationship with any organization. I would like to ask you whether you would allow me to have individuals from your company as participants. I use a questionnaire, which should take 30 minutes or so of their time.

If Mr. ABC is not available and leave a message:

"My name is Kiyoe Harada and I am calling from the Ohio State University concerning a research project. Last week, I sent you a letter. In the letter, I explained that your company had been randomly selected as a potential participant in the study and asked whether you would allow me to have individuals from your company as participants. I also said in the letter that I would call this week to obtain response."

"I understand that you are very busy. I will give you a call again. However, it will be truly appreciated if you would give me a call. My phone number is (614) 688-0875."
Questionnaire for Japanese Expatriates

Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

1. Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to all items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

2. Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

3. Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

4. Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

5. Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded for follow-up.

Part 1

The first part concerns characteristics of your job. Each question asks about the degree or frequency of a particular job aspect. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to your job.

1. How much variety is there in your job?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5
   Very little Vary much

2. How much are you left on your own to do your own work?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

3. How often do you see projects or jobs through to completion?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

4. To what extent do you find out how well you are doing on the job as you are working?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

5. How much opportunity is there to meet individuals whom you would like to develop friendships with?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

6. How much of your job depends upon your ability to work with others?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

7. How repetitious are your duties?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

8. To what extent are you able to act independently of your supervisor in performing your job function?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

9. To what extent do you receive information from your supervisor on your job performance?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5
10. To what extent do you have the opportunity to talk informally with other employees while at work?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

11. To what extent is dealing with other people a part of your job?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

12. How similar are the tasks you perform in a typical work day?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

13. To what extent are you able to do your job independently of others?
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

14. The feedback from my supervisor on how well I'm doing.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

15. Friendship with co-workers.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

16. The opportunity to talk to others on my job.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

17. The opportunity to do a number of different things.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

18. The freedom to do pretty much what I want on my job.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

19. The degree to which the work I'm involved with is handled from beginning to end by myself.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

20. The opportunity to find out how well I'm doing on my job.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

21. The opportunity on my job to get to know other people.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

22. The amount of variety in my job.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

23. The opportunity for independent thought and action.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

24. The opportunity to complete work I start.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

25. The feeling that I know whether I am performing my job well or poorly.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

26. The opportunity to develop close friendships in my job.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

27. Meeting with others in my work.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

28. The control I have over the pace of my work.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5
29. The opportunity to do a job from the beginning to the end (i.e., the chance to do a whole job).
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

30. The extent of feedback you receive from individuals other than your supervisor.
   1 ---- 2 ---- 3 ---- 4 ---- 5

Part 2

The second part concerns a condition relative to your job. Each question asks your opinion about the degree or frequency of a particular aspect of a job-related situation. Please circle the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to your job.

1. I have enough time to finish my work.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
   Very false        Very true

2. I feel certain about how much authority I have.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. I perform tasks that are too easy or boring.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Clear, planned goals and objectives for my job.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

5. I have to do things that should be done differently.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

6. Lack of policies and guidelines to help me.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

7. I am able to act the same regardless of the group I am with.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

8. I am corrected or rewarded when I really don't expect it.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

9. I work under incompatible policies and guidelines.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

10. I know that I have divided my time properly.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

11. I know what my responsibilities are.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

12. I have to buck a rule or policy in order to carry out an assignment.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

13. I have to “feel my way” in performing my duties.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

14. I receive assignments that are within my training and capability.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

15. I feel certain how I will be evaluated for a raise or promotion.
    1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
16. I work with two or more groups who operate quite differently.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

17. I know exactly what is expected of me.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

18. I receive incompatible requests from two or more people.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

19. I do things that are apt to be accepted by one person and not accepted by others.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

20. I am told how well I am doing in my job.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

21. I work on unnecessary things.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

Part 3

Part 3 concerns your adaptability to your U.S. assignment. Each question asks about the degree of your adaptability. Please circle the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to you.

1. Your adaptability to job responsibilities.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
   Not at all            To a great degree

2. Your adaptability to performance standards and expectations.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. Your adaptability to supervisory responsibilities.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Your adaptability to overall assignment.
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

Part 4

Part 4 concerns interpersonal influence strategies that you usually use in order to get work done. Please read the six strategies indicated below carefully, then, answer the questions.

Reason: This involves using data, information, and logical arguments to convince the Japanese expatriate.

Assertiveness: This refers to an attempt to influence the Japanese expatriate by being forceful, giving the impression of "being in charge."

Friendliness: This refers to creating a favorable impression by being social, acting humble, and making the other person feel important.

Exchange: This is characterized by making concessions, offering an exchange, and invoking norm of reciprocity.
**Upward appeal**: This is used both formally through the chain of command or by asking superiors to deal informally with the Japanese expatriate.

**Sanction**: This involves using organizationally derived rewards or punishments through policies and procedures.

**A**: This question asks you about the frequency of use of the six strategies in dealing with U.S. employees on a daily basis to get work done. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>1</th>
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<td>Reason</td>
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<td>Sanction</td>
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</table>

**B**: This question asks you about the frequency of use of the six strategies in dealing with Japanese expatriates on a daily basis to get work done. Please circle the number on the five-point scale that is most applicable to you.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
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<th>3</th>
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**Part 5**

Part 5 concerns demographic information about participants in this study. Items from 1 to 13 ask for you personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

1. **Age**: 
2. **Gender**: 1. Male 2. Female
3. **Marital status**: 1. Married 2. Single
4. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major: 
   3. Bachelor degree (Major: 
   4. Graduate degree (Major: 
   5. Others (Please specify)

5. Length of stay in U.S. assignment: _____ years _____ months

6. Length of service in your company: _____ years _____ months

7. Previous experience in U.S. assignments: 1. Yes 2. No

8. The total number of years in U.S. assignments:
   _____ years _____ months

9. Have you had other expatriate experiences? 1. Yes 2. No

10. How many times ________

11. The total number of year in expatriate assignments:
   _____ years _____ months

12. Please list countries you have been in as an expatriate:

13. Current job position:
   1. Top management
   2. Middle management
   3. Line management
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify)

14. Your job function:
   1. General management
   2. Human resource management (Personnel)
   3. Finance & accounting
   4. Production Engineering
   5. Marketing
   6. Others (Please specify)

15. How many U.S. subordinates do you supervise? ________
This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time. For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send you a result of this study after the completion.

Name:

Address:

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelope and send your completed questionnaire by:

April, 1999
Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to all items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded for follow-up.

---

**Part 1**

The section concerns the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriate who is in paired with you in this study. Please circle the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to him or her.

1. Quality of work produced
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

2. Quantity of work produced
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

3. Ability to get along with others
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

4. Dependability
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

5. Knowledge of work in the U.S
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

6. Planning ability
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High

7. Overall effectiveness
   - Low
   - Moderate
   - High
Part 2

Part 2 focuses on demographic information about your company. Please write responses.

1. Ownership of your company
   1. 100 % Japanese affiliate  2. _____ % Joint venture

2. Establishment of your company in the U.S.
   _______ years _______ months

3. The number of Japanese expatriates:__________

4. Types of Industry/ Business
   __________________________________________

Part 3

Part 3 concerns demographic information about participants in this study. Items from 5 to 18 ask you about personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

5. Age:________

6. Gender: 1. Male  2. Female


8. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major: )
   3. Bachelor degree (Major: )
   4. Graduate degree (Major: )
   5. Others (Please specify)

9. How long have you been in U.S. assignment:
   _______ years _______ months

10. Length of service in your company:
    _______ years _______ months

11. Previous experience in U.S. assignments:
    1. Yes  2. No

12. The total number of years in U.S. assignments:
    _______ years _______ months

13. Have you had other expatriate experiences?
    1. Yes  2. No
    How many times ______

14. The total number of years in expatriate assignments:
    _______ years _______ months

15. Please list countries you have been in as an expatriate:
    __________________________________________
16. Current job position:
   1. Top management
   2. Middle management
   3. Line Management
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify)

17. Your job function:
   1. General management
   2. Human resource management (Personnel)
   3. Finance & accounting
   4. Production engineering
   5. Marketing
   6. Others (Please specify)

18. How many non-Japanese subordinates do you supervise?

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelop and send your completed questionnaire by:

April 1999

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time.

For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send you results after the completion of the study.

Name:

Address:

This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.
Questionnaire for Non-Japanese Superiors

Prior to filling out the questionnaire, please read the following considerations carefully:

1. Please read each set of instructions carefully and respond to all items. The questionnaire is divided into five sections and each section has slightly different instructions.

2. Please respond based on your own opinion. There is no correct or incorrect answer.

3. Please do not consult with any other person concerning your answers. Your own opinion is the most important.

4. Your responses will be kept totally confidential. No information by which you might possibly be identified will be released or published.

5. Nobody from your organization or department will ever be allowed to see your completed questionnaire. All respondents are numerically coded to follow-up.

Part 1

The first part concerns the effectiveness of the Japanese expatriate who is paired with you in this study. Please place the number on the seven-point scale that is most applicable to him or her.

1. Quality of work produced
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
   Low          Moderate        High

2. Quantity of work produced
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

3. Ability to get along with others
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

4. Dependability
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

5. Knowledge of work in the U.S
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

6. Planning ability
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7

7. Overall effectiveness
   1 --- 2 --- 3 --- 4 --- 5 --- 6 --- 7
Part 2

Part 2 focuses on demographic information about your company. Please write responses.

1. Ownership of your company
   1. 100% Japanese affiliate
   2. ___% Joint venture

2. Establishment of your company in the U.S.
   _______ years _______ months

3. The number of Japanese expatriates: ____________

4. Types of Industry/ Business
   __________________________________________________

Part 3

Part 3 concerns general demographic information. Items from #5 to #16 ask about you personal and job-related information. Please write your responses or circle the number that is most applicable to yourself.

5. Age: __________

6. Gender: 1. Male  2. Female


8. Please circle the highest degree of education you achieved:
   1. High school diploma
   2. Associate degree (Major: )
   3. Bachelor degree (Major: )
   4. Graduate degree (Major: )
   5. Others (Please specify)

9. Length of your service with this company: _______ years _______ months

10. The number of companies you worked for before this company: ______________

11. Have you worked at other Japanese companies before this company? 
   1. Yes  2. No

12. The number of Japanese companies you have worked at before this company: __________

13. The total number of years you have worked for Japanese companies: __________
14. Current job position:
   1. Top management
   2. Middle management
   3. Line management
   4. Supervisor
   5. Technical engineer
   6. Others (Please specify)

15. Your job function:
   1. General management
   2. Human resource management (Personnel)
   3. Finance & accounting
   4. Production Engineer
   5. Marketing
   6. Others (Please specify)

16. How many Japanese subordinates do you supervise?

Please use the self-addressed stamped envelope and send your completed questionnaire by:

April, 1999

Thank you very much for your cooperation and time.

For those individuals who completed this questionnaire and who are interested in a summary of this study, I will send you results after the completion of the study.

Name:

Address:

This section provides you an opportunity to express your overall opinions about Japanese expatriates and their jobs. It also provides you an opportunity to give us your personal opinions and suggestions about this survey. Please feel free to use this opportunity.
Appendix D

Research Sample Demographics
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mailing Groups</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Group A</td>
<td>Early</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Late</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>28 (41.1%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.00</td>
<td>68 (100%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group B</td>
<td>Early</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Late</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27.9</td>
<td>40 (58.9%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Questionnaire Responses (n=68 pairs)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Characteristics</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>266.94</td>
<td>88.98</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>6863.94</td>
<td>103.07</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Conflict</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>81.04</td>
<td>27.01</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>3739.42</td>
<td>58.42</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Role Ambiguity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>82.41</td>
<td>27.47</td>
<td>.64</td>
<td>.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2735.53</td>
<td>42.74</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Group Variables: Group A Early Responses (n = 19) and Late Responses (n = 9)
Group B Early Responses (n = 21) and Late Responses (n = 19)

Table 3. Analysis of Variance of Mailing Effect on the Independent Variables – 1 (n = 68)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Work Adjustment Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>56.68</td>
<td>18.89</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>580.06</td>
<td>9.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>9.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies Within</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>1.37</td>
<td>.53</td>
<td>.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>161.30</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Length of Stay In the U.S. Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>26.98</td>
<td>8.99</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>295.15</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>295.15</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Group Variables: Group A Early Responses (n = 19) and Late Responses (n = 9)
Group B Early Responses (n = 21) and Late Responses (n = 19)

Table 4. Analysis of Variance for Mailing Effect on the Independent Variables –2 (n = 68)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effectiveness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>93.54</td>
<td>31.18</td>
<td>.94</td>
<td>.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>2132.73</td>
<td>33.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2132.73</td>
<td>33.32</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Group Variables of Supervisors: Group A Early Responses (n = 19) and Late Responses (n = 9) Group B Early Responses (n = 21) and Late Responses (n = 19)

Table 5. Analysis of Variance for Mailing Effect on the Dependent Variables (n = 68)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nationalities of Supervisors</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36.72</td>
<td>36.72</td>
<td>1.08</td>
<td>.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Respondents</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.51</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interaction</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>28.76</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>.22</td>
<td>.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>2046.94</td>
<td>34.12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>2226.28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notes. Nationalities of Supervisors: 0 = Japanese (n = 59), 1 = Non-Japanese (n = 9)
Respondents: 00 = Group A Early Responses (n = 19), 11 Late Responses (n = 9)
22 = Group B Early Responses (n = 21), 33 Late Responses (n = 19)

Table 6. Analysis of Variance for Mailing Effect on the Dependent Variables (n = 68)
### Company Ages (Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 - 20</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>44.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 - 30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 31</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 18.8, S.D. = 10.1, Min. = 3.5, Max = 47.3

Table 7. Age of Participating Companies in the U.S. (n=63)

---

### Japanese Expatriates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10 expatriates</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>54.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 31</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 14.3, S.D. = 13.5, Mode = 5, Min. = 2, Max = 80

Table 8. Number of Japanese Expatriates Stationed in Participating Companies in the U.S. (n=63)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Industries</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing &amp; Sales</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trading</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Food</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logistics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 9. Types of Industries Among Participating Companies (n=63)
### Table 10. Ages of Japanese Expatriates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages of Japanese Expatriates (Years)</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 - 35</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36 - 40</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41 - 45</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 46</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 36.2, S.D. = 5.2, Min. = 28, Max. = 54

### Table 11. Japanese Expatriates' Length of Stay in the U.S. (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Stay in the U.S. (Years)</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximately 1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 - 3</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 - 6</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 6.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 3.5, S.D. = 2.2, Mode = 3, Min. = .8 , Max. = 14.8
### Length of Services with Companies (Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1 - 20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.1 - 30</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 30.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 13.2, S.D. = 6.1, Mode = 10, Min. = 1, Max. = 36

Table 12. Japanese Expatriates’ Length of Service With Their Companies

### Non-Japanese Subordinates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Japanese Subordinates</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 3</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>66.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 - 5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 - 15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 16</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 3.7, S.D. = 4.8, Mode = 2, Min. = 0, Max. = 22

Table 13. Number of Non-Japanese Subordinates That Japanese Expatriates Have
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expatriates Current Positions</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Top management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line management</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory position</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14. Japanese Expatriates’ Current Positions (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expatriates Job Functions</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>General management</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Accounting</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production engineering</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dual functions</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 15. Japanese Expatriates’ Current Job Functions (n=68)
### Ages of Supervisors (Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages of Supervisors (Years)</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 39</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40 - 45</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46 - 50</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51 - 55</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 56</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>67</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 46.8, S.D. = 6.1, Mode = 50, Min. = 34, Max. = 59

Table 16. Ages of Supervisors of the Japanese Expatriates (n=59)

### Length of Stay in the U.S. among Japanese Supervisors (Years)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Stay in the U.S.</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approximately 1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.1 - 3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 - 6</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>44.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 6.1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>19.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 4.5, S.D. = 3.9, Mode = 2, Min. = .5, Max. = 25

Table 17. Length of Stay in the U.S. Among Japanese Supervisors (n=59)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Previous Experience in U.S. assignments</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18. Previous Experience in the U.S. Assignments Among Japanese Supervisors (n=58)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Service With Companies (Years)</th>
<th>Japanese Supervisors</th>
<th>Non-Japanese Supervisors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.1 - 20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20.1 - 30</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>41.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 30.1</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Japanese supervisors (n=59): Mean = 21, S.D. = 8.5, Min. = 1, Max. = 37  
Non-Japanese supervisors (n=9): Mean = 11.3, S.D.=7.3, Min. = 3, Max. = 23.8

Table 19. Length of Service with Their Companies Among Supervisors
Total numbers of U.S. Assignments (Times)  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>62.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 58 100.0

Table 20. Total Numbers of U.S. Assignments Among Japanese Supervisors (n=58)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisors Current Positions</th>
<th>Japanese (n=58)</th>
<th>Non-Japanese (n=9)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Top management</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>67.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle management</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Line management</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory position</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Total 58 100.0

Table 21. Supervisors’ Current Positions (n=67)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisors Job Functions</th>
<th>Japanese (n=57)</th>
<th></th>
<th>Non-Japanese (n=9)</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General management</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>57.9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human resource management</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance &amp; Accounting</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Production engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marketing</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple functions</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>57</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 22. Supervisors’ Current Job Functions
Appendix E

Descriptive Statistics for Variables
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expatriates’ Effectiveness</th>
<th>Japanese (n=59)</th>
<th>Non-Japanese (n=9)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less Than 29</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>50.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Japanese supervisors: Mean = 36.8, S.D. = 5.8, Min. = 20, Max = 49
Non-Japanese supervisors: Mean = 39.3, S.D. = 5.2, Min. = 31, Max = 49

Table 23. Effectiveness of Japanese Expatriates Rated by Supervisors (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Std.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Variety</td>
<td>19.76</td>
<td>2.59</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Identity</td>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Autonomy</td>
<td>23.26</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Feedback</td>
<td>22.79</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 24. Descriptive Statistics for Job Characteristic Components: Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlation Coefficients (n=68)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Communality</th>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>Pct of var</th>
<th>Com pct</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>* 1</td>
<td>2.63</td>
<td>66.00</td>
<td>66.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>* 2</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td>15.13</td>
<td>81.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>* 3</td>
<td>.57</td>
<td>14.26</td>
<td>95.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td>* 4</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>4.71</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Pct of var = Percent of total variance, Com pct = Cumulative percent of variance

Table 25. Initial Statistics for Job Characteristic (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Component 1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Variety</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identify</td>
<td>.840</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomy</td>
<td>.740</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feedback</td>
<td>.720</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Extraction method: Principal Component Analysis

Table 26. Final Statistic for Extracted Job Characteristic (n=68)
### Table 27. Perceived Expatriates’ Job Characteristic (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Characteristic</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 69</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70-79</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>33.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80-89</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90-99</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 100</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 81.8, S.D. = 10.1, Min. = 52, Max = 105

### Table 28. Perceived Expatriates’ Role Conflict (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role Conflict</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>57.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>36.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 51</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 20.32, S.D. = 5.6, Min. = 9, Max = 34
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Role Ambiguity</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21-30</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-40</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 29.0, S.D. = 5.2, Min. = 16, Max = 40

Table 29. Perceived Expatriates’ Role Ambiguity (n=68)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Work Adjustment</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 15</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 – 20</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>42.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 21</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>50.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 20.3, S.D. = 3.1, Min. = 14, Max = 25

Table 30. Perceived Expatriates’ Work Adjustment (n = 68)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.1 - 5.0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.1 - 6.0</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.1 - 7.0</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.1 - 8.0</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.1 - 9.0</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 9.1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note. Mean = 6.72, S.D. = 1.57, Min. = 3.74, Max = 10.44

Table 31. Appropriateness of Interpersonal Influence Strategies (n=68)