

Turnover Activities and International Adjustment of Defense Administrators

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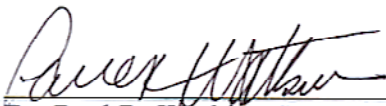
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Disclaimer

The Department of Defense Office of Freedom of Information and Security Review (OFOISR) has cleared the open publication of this dissertation.

The views expressed in this paper are those of the author and do not reflect the official policy or position of the Department of Defense or the U.S. Government.

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ABSTRACT

Understanding how expatriate workers adjust to their overseas work and living environments is a topic of both practical and theoretical importance. On a practical level, businesses, governments, and other organizations invest major resources in training and relocating employees abroad, and if such overseas placements fail to achieve satisfactory results, the costs in money, lost productivity, and poor human resources outcomes can be significant. Improving expatriate adjustment to his/her new culture is therefore a priority issue in the increasingly global marketplace. But the issue is also of considerable theoretical importance, involving relationships among concepts of culture, organizational socialization, and worker training to performance balance.

This study investigated the process of adjustment to an expatriate work situation among a population of middle managers – in this case, U.S. Department of Defense administrators assigned to embassies. The sample included 174 managers widely distributed around the world, from a total population of 314 (55%). These managers embody the expatriate experience in full detail and in many diverse places, yet the positions they fill are similar enough in overall structure and responsibilities to allow interesting comparisons to be made. A number of job and personal features were hypothesized on the basis of prior research to affect effective adjustment, including role clarity, role ambiguity, role conflict, self-efficacy, and personal orientation. The range of outcomes included socio-cultural adjustment, psychological adjustment, work adjustment and satisfaction. Certain aspects of pre-departure training and on-site mentoring were also investigated. Data were obtained from a survey distributed and collected through interoffice email, a readily accessible and well-understood communication channel. No significant problems were encountered in data collection.

Results supported the hypothesized relationships between successful adjustment outcomes and self-efficacy, personal “other” orientation, clearly defined goals, low role ambiguity, and limited role conflict. In addition, it was found that senior management support for headquarters policies enhances expatriate adjustment. Also, it was found that pre-departure training did not affect cross-cultural adjustment, but did affect satisfaction.

Open-ended comments by the respondents provided further insights into the experience, including the role of mentors from nearby countries in filling in gaps in knowledge left by pre-departure training. Other aspects of the problem elaborated by comments included the importance of understanding the host country’s language prior to arrival, the perceived importance of the job itself as a predictor of expatriate satisfaction, and the importance of logistic support and human resource support to the adjustment of the expatriate.

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CHAPTER ONE

Introduction

This research sought to conduct a cross sectional study of expatriate cross-cultural adjustment. Even before the expatriate steps foot on a foreign land, many forces beyond his or her control have already set the expatriate up for success or failure. While many studies in expatriate adjustment have studied a large swath of various expatriates doing a number of jobs, few studies have focused on a group of expatriates performing a single function.

At the heart of expatriate cross cultural adjustment lays many previous studies in organizational socialization. In effect, the expatriate, is an employee of one part of a company, who must be selected and trained appropriately to successfully perform in another part of the company.

The stakes are high. Posting the expatriate abroad can cost a firm over one million dollars when including training and moving costs (McEvoy and Parker; 1995). On average, the multinational corporation (MNC) can spend \$300 – 400,000 annually per expatriate when factoring in basic salary, housing costs, family member schooling costs, etc. Early returns of expatriates typically cost the MNC \$250,000 in actual expenses, as well as, lost goodwill in the country in which the expatriate failed (Black, 1998). These figures do not include the costs of selecting and training the failed expatriate's successor.

While many researchers continue to quote expatriate failure rates of up to 40 percent, Anne Harzig (1995) has recently cast doubt on the expatriate failure rates citing only two credible studies in expatriate failure (Tung, 1982; Torbiorn 1982). However, many researchers have argued that even though an expatriate may finish his or her tour, it does not necessarily mean that

the expatriate achieved success, but merely that the expatriate did not return home prematurely. In cases where the expatriate completes a foreign assignment but does not achieve success, the expatriate may do more damage remaining in his or her position than returning to the parent company early (Selmer, 2000). Properly selecting, training, and supporting the expatriate can continue a multinational corporation's success in a country, or cause devastating consequences for the multinational firm in lost revenue and lost goodwill.

The Expatriate Domain

According to Brewster (1991), the expatriate is an organization's employee who works abroad temporarily, which includes a movement of the expatriate's family. The expatriate's compensation package differs from that of an average company worker which can include leave visits, schooling allowances and other allowances. Employees who move permanently to another country or otherwise stay in the new country would not be included in the definition of expatriate as defined in this paper. Expatriates can be technical experts or managers; have short or long term tours of duty; and have junior developmental jobs or senior executive jobs.

According to Torbiorn (1982), companies use parent country nationals (PCN's) as expatriates when any of the three following circumstances occur: when the company seeks to have a more direct control over the operations in the target country; when the company requires extensive contact and coordination with the operations in the target country; and when the company determines the target country does not have the technical competence needed.

Research into how a company selects the potential expatriate (Selmer, 1995) has shown that many companies choose their expatriate employees based upon past performance, willingness to accept an overseas posting, or both. As expatriates' jobs differ widely, so do the four factors which describe an expatriate's job (McEvoy&Parker, 1995). The four commonly accepted factors describing an expatriate's job are role ambiguity, role novelty, role discretion and role

conflict. The expatriate's job (or role) will have varying degrees of each of these four factors which may affect the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment. According to Black (1988), role clarity/ambiguity concerns how much the expatriate knows what is expected of him/her. Role novelty concerns how different the new job in the foreign country is compared to the previous job in the expatriate's host nation. Role discretion concerns how much freedom the expatriate has to modify his/her work and thereby reducing uncertainty. Role conflict concerns how headquarters directions and local directions may differ.

Black, et al.'s (1991) monumental study provided the psychological and theoretical underpinnings that researchers have used since the study to conduct follow on research. Throughout the 1990's, researchers have studied the expatriate's socio-cultural adjustment from many different angles including selection criteria (Teagarden and Gordon, 1995); career issues (Selmer, 1999), spouse adjustment (Shaffer, et al., 2000); pre-arrival training (Selmer 2000), post-arrival training (Selmer 2000); children adjustment (de Leon&McPartlin, 1995); expatriate personality characteristics (Caligiuri, 2000), and logistical support to the expatriate from the MNC (Brewster and Pickard, 1994) . This expatriate study focused more exclusively on how a particular occupation (Department of Defense administrator) experiences cross cultural adjustment rather than how many expatriates with different jobs experience cross cultural adjustment in one location. The expatriate administrators all perform the same tasks but are at various locations and various stages in their careers.

In this study, the target population will be Department of Defense administrators who serve overseas. This study sought to determine how these administrators, at various lengths of service, adjust cross-culturally. The researcher studied the impact of length of service on the four accepted socio-cultural adjustments of work adjustment, interaction with host nationals

adjustment, general adjustment, and psychological adjustment. Adjustment to work (Black, 1988) is similar to that of adjustment to any new job. For the expatriate, he/she enters a new part of the company with tasks that may or may not differ from those he/she must perform now. Adjustment to interaction with host nationals (Black 1988) consists of adjusting mental roadmaps to interact with individuals of other cultures. These new mental roadmaps aid the expatriate in accomplishing simple (purchasing food) and complex (negotiation) tasks which involve interaction and conversation with individuals in the new culture. Adjustment to the general culture (Black, 1988) involves becoming familiar with and learning how to survive in a place which values different ideas than the expatriate's host country values. Psychological adjustment (Ward&Kennedy, 1996) is the adjustment of the individual within him/herself to achieve a sense of balance or normalcy ("I feel good about myself in this culture.")

The goal of the study was to provide those who select and train the Department of Defense administrators the research data to help them properly support the Department of Defense administrators to serve successfully no matter at what stage of his/her career the administrator may find him/herself.

Department of Defense administrators (the expatriates in this study) provide a unique opportunity to study the effect of length of service on cross-cultural adjustment. The administrator has high role clarity (his/her duties are clearly defined by Department of Defense regulations), moderate role discretion (the administrator has to conform administrative, fiscal and logistic actions to Department of Defense, Department of State, and federal regulations) and low to moderate role conflict (the senior officer on station telling him/her to do something in contradiction to established procedures) and low role ambiguity (many regulations which aid the administrator in his/her decision making).

Overlap and Adjustment

When the expatriate arrives in the new country, the overlap of the incoming and outgoing expatriates sets the stage for the adjustment of the expatriate and his family. More specifically, while the incoming expatriate brings individual and non-work factors of adjustment with him/her, the outgoing expatriate brings many of the organizational factors with him/her (specifically support) and here all the factors of expatriate adjustment meet and interact. According to Selmer (1995), overlap occurs during an initial period of the succession (in which) the successor and his or her predecessor or both (are) present at the foreign operation or the predecessor is otherwise available as an information source for the successor. Continuing, Selmer states that the overlap consists of the transfer of authority, the transfer of information, and the incoming expatriate getting acquainted with the new assignment. In the Defense Attaché Office, only the senior administrator has a formal transfer of authority. This transfer of authority normally occurs after the first few days of arrival, so that all embassy personnel know which administrator is “in charge.” Other administrators transfer authority of responsibility when the incoming administrator feels comfortable with the position. This usually occurs about a week after the administrator has begun his/her new duties. Selmer and deLeon’s (1995) work showed the effect of a good overlap on the adjustment of the expatriate.

According to Defense Attaché System regulations, the maximum authorized transition period between administrators is 10 days without a waiver (DIAM 100-1, 1997). However, many of the transitions between administrators fall far short of that period due to onward assignment considerations which move the administrator between Defense Attaché System assignments or back into the individual military service. Overlaps between senior administrators are more important than other administrators due to the formal transfer of authority discussed above. Due to the advent of information technology, incoming and outgoing administrators can begin

overlap as soon as the military service selects the individual, even before the individual has entered training. The DoD intranet can transfer pictures of projected housing, discuss the personalities of the people with which the expatriate will interact, as well as, what to expect in the general adjustment to the non work environment. Thus, the intranet aids in the transfer of information and getting acquainted into the new environment.

Overlaps among the Army warrant officers, the career administrators, tend to focus on relationships and less on the aspects of work-role situations since the administrator's job has significant role clarity and little role discretion. Focusing on relationships prevents disagreement of how to perform the duties of a senior administrator among the senior administrators. Overlaps normally fall apart if the outgoing senior administrator refuses to transfer authority until he/she has departed. If the conflict becomes too great, then the Defense Attaché, the senior officer present, has to step in and resolve the conflict. Overlaps among senior administrators from other services can focus more on work adjustment since they have only received training but have no practical experience.

Research Questions

This study sought to further research on how expatriate adjustment occurs when the occupation remains constant (Department of Defense administrator) while the setting (various embassies around the world) changes. Therefore, the study draws on theoretical expatriate literature and previous studies to determine which areas the study will undertake.

Since role ambiguity is low while role clarity is high, each new assignment in the Defense Attaché system is governed by the same regulations. Therefore, work adjustment should consist primarily of getting used to working within the guidelines of the Ministry of Defense of the country to which the administrator is assigned. Adjustment to interaction with host country nationals, psychological adjustment, and adjustment to the general non-work environment should

be contingent on the cultural novelty of the country to which the administrator is assigned.

(Black, et.al, 1992).

1. How does length of time of service of the Department of Defense administrator affect the Defense Department administrator's adjustment?

In Selmer's work (1995/1997), transfer of information and getting acquainted presupposed that the incoming and outgoing expatriate communicated mainly through a face to face contact once the expatriate arrived. With the advent of the internet and intranet, the transfer of information and getting acquainted part of the overlap can be conducted through these mediums. However, developing personal relationships with host nationals and other embassy colleagues to enhance work, interaction and general cultural adjustment may need to be accomplished via personal interaction only.

2. How does using technology improve the quality of the overlap between Department of Defense administrators?

Morley et al.'s (1997) study of expatriates in Moscow concluded the greater the role clarity the easier it was for the expatriate to adjust in the new assignment. Black (1988) initially proposed this link. Conversely, Morley, et al. (1997) found that role ambiguity had an opposite effect on adjustment for the expatriate.

3. How does role clarity affect the Defense Department administrator's adjustment?

In Morley et al.'s (1997) study of Irish expatriates in Moscow, role conflict was negatively associated with work effectiveness and possibly satisfaction. Therefore, Defense Department administrators who perceive that senior military personnel in the office ask them to do things in contradiction to Department of Defense and State regulations may feel a lack of work effectiveness and satisfaction. Additionally, Gregersen and Stroh (1997) found a negative

relationship between role conflict and the adjustment of Finnish expatriates returning to their home culture after their expatriate experience.

4. How will role conflict affect the Defense Department administrator's adjustment, effectiveness and satisfaction?

According to Black (1988), individuals with too many demands placed on them feel inadequate in the new job. This role overload inhibits role transition and possibly psychological and work adjustment.

5. How does role overload affect the Defense Department administrator's adjustment?

According to Martin (1999), public servants in England who prepared for a move had greater psychological adjustment. Selmer (2001a) found that many of the expatriates who had served for a long time overseas still preferred pre-arrival training to post arrival training. Training, either before or after arrival, must be effective to assist with the administrator's adjustment.

6. How does pre-departure work training of the Defense Department affect the administrator's adjustment and satisfaction?

Shaffer, et al. (1999) found that those expatriates with perceived low role discretion adjusted much faster to work than those with perceived high role discretion. How expatriates view their assignment may affect the expatriate's work adjustment.

7. How does role discretion affect work adjustment?

In Black et al (1991), self efficacy was proposed to have a positive affect on socio-cultural adjustment as those who believed in themselves would take chances and start interacting with the new cultures faster than those with low self efficacy. These interactions would draw feedback from host country nationals and accelerate general adjustment. Additionally, self-efficacy should assist the Defense Department administrator to adjust to the work environment as the administrator will "learn by doing" (Bandura's Social Learning Theory) (Black, et al.; 1991).

8. How does self-efficacy affect socio-cultural adjustment?

CHAPTER TWO

Literature Review and Hypotheses

When broken down into its parts, expatriate socio-cultural adjustment involves three components: the culture, the expatriate, and the adjustment. Kroeber and Kluckhohn (1952), defined culture as “patterns of and for behaviour, acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinct achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artefacts” (p. 181) while Hofstede (1984) defined culture as “The collective programming of the mind that distinguishes one group or category of people from another.” (page 13)

According to Black, Mendenhall & Gregersen (1992) culture consists of four basic elements: behaviors, artifacts, values and assumptions. Behaviors and artifacts represent the visible components of culture, where as, values and assumptions represent the invisible components of culture.

Shein (1984) further divided every culture into five basic assumptions: environmental assumptions, human nature assumptions, relationship assumptions, activity assumptions, and truth assumptions. Environmental assumptions in culture concern whether man is supposed to dominate or coexist with nature. Human nature assumptions in culture concern whether people are generally lazy or view work as play. Relationship assumptions in culture concern whether individuals have certain inalienable rights and freedoms or people exist because of others and owe them an obligation. Activity assumptions in culture concern whether people must create their own destinies or must react and enjoy what life gives them (this concept can also be seen in locus of control). Finally, truth assumptions in culture concerns whether truth is objective or what is socially accepted.

Knowing Shein's assumptions provides the mental road maps and traffic signals from which a person in a particular culture makes decisions. When a person changes from one culture to another, the mental road maps that allow the person to navigate his/her own culture no longer apply.

Without these traffic signals and mental road maps, the expatriate cannot establish routines in the new culture. (Black; Gregersen; Mendenhall; Stroh, 1999) Routines become, in essence, the natural outcome of these mental road maps. In order for the expatriate to adjust, he/she must understand the new culture to establish routines, because if the amount of disrupted routines due to the culture distance is large in scope, magnitude, and criticality, it will take much longer for the expatriate to adjust. (Black& Mendenhall, 1990) However, researchers are currently testing whether the amount of perceived cultural novelty may make the expatriate try harder to adjust than in the case of perceived little cultural novelty.

The expatriate creates these new routines which lead to his/her socio-cultural adjustment (the ability to do the right things to succeed in the new culture), but these new routines do not necessarily lead to the expatriate's psychological adjustment in the new culture. This situation gives rise to Jun, et al's (1997) argument that behavioral changes (socio-cultural adjustment) may occur involuntarily while attitudinal changes (psychological adjustment) may occur voluntarily. Therefore, an American may make behavioral changes in China to fit in, but not adopt Chinese values. (Selmer, 2001)

Adjustment

In their monumental work, which has guided expatriate adjustment research since 1991, Black, et al., (1991) spell out two main types of adjustment that the expatriate faces. First, the expatriate faces anticipatory adjustment and then in-country adjustment.

Anticipatory Adjustment

Anticipatory adjustment in many ways mirrors the first stage of anticipatory socialization in Fisher (1986)'s work. Anticipatory adjustment also mirrors Feldman's 1976 work and Porter, Lawler, and Hackman's 1975 work (where the first stage is named, "Pre-Arrival") (Wanous, 1992). In anticipatory socialization, the expatriate is selected and trained to perform successfully in the new assignment.

According to Black, et al. (1991), anticipatory adjustment consists of three distinct parts: selection mechanisms and selection criteria for the new posting, previous overseas experience (if any), and cross cultural training for the overseas assignment.

Selection mechanisms and criteria.

When the organization selects the individual for an overseas assignment, they put into motion the anticipatory adjustment of the expatriate. Previous studies in the selection process (Teagarden and Gordon, 1995) have revealed that expatriates who consider the assignment beneficial to their career adjust faster and perform better. Many times multi-national corporations select individuals based upon previous experience (technical abilities) rather than the ability to adapt. (Teagarden and Gordon, 1995). In a recent study, Gowan and Ochoa (1998) reconfirmed the over reliance of corporations on the technical abilities of the future expatriate over the relational skills of the expatriate. This reliance on choosing an expatriate on his/her technical abilities may have resulted in some expatriate failures. To be effective, a corporation's selection criteria should be based upon four distinct selection criterion categories: technical abilities, relational skills, family situation, and motivational state. As will be seen in the next section, families (both the spouse and the children) play a large role in the expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment. (Teagarden and Gordon, 1995). In a recent study, Caligiuri, (2000), found

that personalities with a high openness toward others had a quicker interaction with host nationals adjustment. In turn, these expatriates adjusted much quicker than expatriates without these skills. Thus, in the selection process, multinational corporations have sent some expatriates to other countries destined for failure because while they may have had the technical abilities to perform their tasks (work), they lacked the necessary relational or motivational skills to accomplish the mission. Black and Gregersen (1992) found that companies should include in their selection criteria how the expatriate views himself. Expatriates who viewed their relational skills positively, generally adjusted better. Their study also found four basic types of potential expatriates, each with a different set of difficulties that corporations must overcome to make the expatriate effective. The “free agent” expatriate has a self-centered view with little allegiance to the MNC headquarters or the local unit. The “gone native” expatriate has little allegiance to the parent company and strong allegiance to the local unit. The “heart at home” expatriate has strong allegiance to the parent company and little allegiance to the local unit. The “dual citizen” expatriate has good skills in conflict negotiation and strong allegiances to both the parent company and local operations. Black and Gregersen’s study (1992) found that “dual citizen” expatriates performed better than other expatriates. Therefore, ensuring that the company chooses these types of expatriates to assign overseas ensures a greater chance of success.

Previous overseas experience.

In Black, et al.’s (1991) work, the second part of anticipatory adjustment is prior international experience which should provide the expatriate with the experience of working in a cross cultural environment. Selmer’s (2002) study of previous expatriate experience as related to expatriate adjustment in Hong Kong found no strong positive correlation between previous international experience and the expatriate’s adjustment in his current assignment (unless the

previous experience was in a very similar culture). This finding calls into question Black, et al.'s assumption.

Cross cultural training

Black and Mendenhall's (1990) review of anticipatory cross cultural training literature found a positive correlation between training and the expatriates' performance and adjustment.

Regarding adjustment, the study showed a positive correlation between cross cultural training and its effect on the expatriate's ego (self), relationships with others and perceptions of the host country nationals. Regarding performance, the study showed a positive correlation between cross cultural training and the expatriate's ability to meet the company's objectives and to complete the assignment.

According to Black and Mendenhall (1990), to be effective, pre-departure cross-cultural training should be modeled after Bandura's social learning theory (1977). "A central premise (of the theory) is that individuals use symbols to engage in anticipatory action, that is, they anticipate actions and their associated consequences. This enables people to determine how they will behave before an actual situation." (Black&Mendenhall, 1990, page 121) Thus, effective cross cultural training attempts to provide the future expatriates with the "mental road maps" (as seen in the culture section) to reestablish routines in the host nation's culture.

Recent research, Selmer (2001a), has found that in certain instances, expatriates may prefer post-arrival cross-cultural training to pre-departure cross-cultural training. Post arrival cross cultural training focuses on language and other cross-cultural training to help put individual cultural clues into patterns to help the expatriate form mental roadmaps. Selmer's study (2001a) also focuses on the providing of training to expatriates when they are most motivated to learn. "People in homogeneous cultural environments, with little traveling experience, may benefit

little from training given prior to departure. On the other hand, individuals who realize that there could be difficulties associated with working and living in another culture, people who have traveled to other countries and continents experiencing contacts with other cultures are more likely to be aware of the need for training and hence, are motivated to learn.” (Selmer, 2001a, page 52) Thus, expatriates who have very long assignments may prefer to receive language training after arriving which may help with interaction with host country nationals and general cultural adjustment (Selmer, et al, 1998).

Organizational Socialization

When the organization chooses the expatriate for overseas service, the process of organizational socialization into the new assignment begins. Van Maanen and Schein (1979; 211-212) state "organizational socialization refers minimallyto the fashion in which an individual is taught and learns what behaviors and perspectives are customary and desirable within the work setting as well as what ones are not." The future expatriate attempts to learn the attitudes, values, beliefs (or mental road maps as Black, et al. state) through cross-cultural training. Van Maanen and Stein's (1979) model of socialization can be characterized as institutional organizational socialization by the collective, serial, investiture, sequential, fixed, formal socialization of an employee or individualized organizational socialization of an employee by random, variable, disjunctive organizational socialization. Jones (1986) noted that institutional organizational socialization did not influence employees with high self-efficacy as much as those employees with less self-efficacy. Jones also noted that individualized socialization had a positive effect on innovation, where as, institutional socialization was more custodial in nature. Confirming this, a recent study of British soldiers (Cooper& Anderson, 2002) found that institutionalized socialization tactics increased the soldiers' commitment to the

organization as the leaders passed more information to the soldiers and they mastered common tasks. It seems to reason therefore, that when expatriates can model behavior needed in the future assignment, the greater their commitment to the organization will be. This commitment may enhance the expatriate's psychological adjustment, interaction with host nationals adjustment, and general adjustment.

Having reviewed the literature on the anticipatory adjustment of the expatriate let's focus now specifically on the selection criteria of and training of the Department of Defense administrators in the study.

Selection of the Department of Defense Administrator

The Department of Defense's human resource program decides on the appropriate grade/rank for each support position at the office at which the administrator will serve. The human resource manager bases the grade/rank of the administrator at each location on the scope of the administrator's duties, including the number of personnel the administrator must support. Once the Defense Department's human resource manager establishes the grade and service of the administrator, each service selects the appropriate military service member to fill the vacancy.

Selection criteria for the Department of Defense administrator mainly focuses on past performance, the ability to handle sensitive information appropriately, and for the Air Force and Navy, the ability to fit into the embassy community and make him/herself a good representative of the United States government. Therefore, only the Air Force and Navy follow Caligiuri's (2000) advice on which criteria to use to anticipate success. The Army and Marine Corps rely heavily on past performance, which Caligiuri has proven to be a bad indicator of future expatriate success (2000). Only the Army has a career senior administrator profession using commissioned Warrant Officers to fill these positions. Other services use a combination of

officers (Navy) and very senior non-commissioned officers (Air Force, Navy, Marine Corps) to fill senior administrator billets. The Army uses senior non-commissioned officers to fill senior administrator positions at small Defense Attaché Offices. All other administrators are filled with junior or senior non-commissioned officers. In order to fill these positions, the services rely on word of mouth, advertising on military TV and radio stations, print media, and each of the services human resources intranet servers. (Army Regulation 611-60)

The Training of the Department of Defense Administrator

After selection, all potential administrators attend a ten week attaché staff support course at Bolling Air Force Base in Washington DC. The course serves as an introduction to supporting military attaches on station and prepares the candidates for the administrative, fiscal and logistical tasks that lie ahead. As part of the curriculum, administrators must successfully write a nine-page paper on their country to which they will be assigned. After this introductory course, senior administrators then receive two weeks of additional budgetary and logistic training to help them perform successfully on station. After this initial training, the administrator receives language or country specific training required to perform successfully. Country specific training normally consists of consultations and briefings with military analysts to help the administrator understand the current military to military engagement in the country to which the administrator will be assigned. The amount of language training given to the administrator is determined by the military service based upon input from the country to which the administrator will be assigned. (Joint Military Attaché School; Support Staff Curriculum, 2004)

In-Country Adjustment

Once the expatriate steps into the new country, he/she has a need for equilibrium (Louis, 1980) and new mental road maps (Black, et al., 1998).

Black, et al., (1991) proposed three areas that make up the socio-cultural aspects of adjustment to the expatriate's work environment:

1. Adjustment to work
2. Adjustment to interacting with host nationals
3. Adjustment to the general non-work environment

Adjustment to work.

The theoretical underpinnings for work adjustment come from Nicholson (1984) and Dawis and Lofquist (1984). The expatriate has to adjust to a new work role, which may have more or less role clarity, role ambiguity, role discretion, or role conflict than his previous assignment.

Depending on the training tactics used (Van Maanen and Schein, 1979), the expatriate can become an innovator (individualized socialization) or custodian (institutional socialization).

According to Nicholson (1984), the expatriate can change him/herself or the situation.

Shay&Baack's (2003) research indicated that work adjustment does not equate with whether the expatriate feels that he/she is effective in the new work situation.

Adjustment to interaction with host nationals.

According to Black, et al. (1991), expatriate research throughout the 1980's suggested that in addition to work adjustment (discussed thoroughly in domestic literature), interaction with host nationals and a general cultural adjustment also occur. Adjustment to interaction with host nationals refers to making new mental roadmaps so that the expatriate can navigate and get things done in the new culture (Black, et al.. 1998). Black et al. (1991) also suggested that proper interaction with host nationals leads to greater overall adjustment. McEvoy and Parker's (1995) comprehensive study supported the theoretical framework of adjustment to interaction with host nationals proposed by Black et al (1991). Morley, Burke and O'Reagan (1997) found

that Irish expatriates in Moscow who received language training had greater interaction with host nationals and better overall adjustment.

Adjustment to the general non-work environment.

As Black, et al. (1991) theorized, besides work and interaction with host country nationals, expatriates must navigate the new country's culture in order to conduct the every day business of life. This navigation includes the purchasing of food, clothing, and other of life's necessities, negotiating the transportation system of the host country, and even simple things like whether or not the country believes in forming lines to receive services. Collectively, these make up general non-work adjustment for the expatriate and his/her family.

According to Black (1988), predeparture knowledge, family adjustment, and contact with local nationals affect general adjustment. According to Shay and Baack (2003), interaction with host nationals adjustment and general adjustment have positive effects on work adjustment. Therefore, preparing the future expatriate in these two socio-cultural adjustments may have a positive effect on work adjustment. Based on Shay&Baack's research, support for intense cultural and language training may have increased.

Psychological adjustment

Recent research has demonstrated the need for a fourth area of in-country adjustment, psychological adjustment (Searle&Ward, 1990; Ward&Kennedy, 1996; Ward &Searle 1991). Psychological adjustment differs from the other two as it focus' on the expatriate's subjective well being (happy, depressed, anxious, nervous) while socio-cultural adjustment focus' on the expatriate's culturally specific skills. (Selmer, 2000). Socio-cultural adjustment focuses on behavior modification while psychological adjustment focuses on attitudinal factors. (Selmer, 2001b). Anderzen and Arnetz (1999) conducted the first longitudinal study of psychological adjustment of the expatriate through the measurement of the hormones prolactin and

testosterone. The researchers found that those with an internal locus of control (individualistic society like America) adjusted faster than those with an external locus of control. They found also that as time abroad lengthened for the expatriate, the greater the chance for psychological adjustment. They also concluded that work adjustment and general cultural adjustment can also affect psychological adjustment. A recent study linked increased corporate career development activities with psychological well being (Selmer 2000). Martin (1999) found a positive association between proper preparation for a move and the psychological adjustment of the employee who moves.

Factors Affecting In-Country Adjustment

Black, et al., (1991) were the first to provide the theoretical underpinnings for factors that affect the in-country adjustment of expatriates. These factors are individual factors, job factors, organizational factors, and non-work factors. Black, et al.'s, theorization of these factors has guided much of the research in the 1990's and beyond. Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley (1999) expanded the individual factors affecting adjustment into a fourth area, positional factors.

Individual Factors

According to Black, et al. (1991), the three individual factors that affect adjustment are self-efficacy, relational skills and perception skills. Caligiuri (2000) revalidated the individual factors proposed by Black, et al., and additionally found support for Black, et al.'s (1991) research that expatriates with an others orientation (relation skills) adjusted more quickly in their interaction with host nationals. McEvoy and Parker (1995) proposed more individual factors of adjustment based upon their research. These additional factors include: prior work experience (Caligiuri, [2000] also verified this), work preparation/experience, ascribed characteristics (similar to Black et al.'s three individual factors), personality, perceptual accuracy, and motivation. Andreason (2003) found also that previous international assignments affect in-

country adjustment as well as anticipatory adjustment. However, Selmer (2002) found that only those expatriates with previous international experience in cultures similar to the one the expatriate found him/herself affected the expatriate's socio-cultural adjustment. Shaffer, et al. (1999), found that increased language fluency helped with interaction with host nationals adjustment and general cultural adjustment.

Job Factors

In Black, et al.'s study (1991), four job factors affected mainly work adjustment. They are: role clarity (how much of the job is defined), role discretion (adapting the role to themselves rather than themselves to the role), role novelty (how much different the current role is to previous roles) and role conflict (sorting out conflicting requirements). McEvoy and Parker (1995) and Andreason (2003) have verified these factors affecting work adjustment.

Organizational Factors

According to Black, et al., (1991) organizational factors affecting adjustment mainly deal with organizational support to the expatriates and the cultural distance of the new operations to that of the home office. McEvoy and Parker (1995) expanded organizational factors to include compensation and benefits, repatriation and career practices, length of assignment, relocation assistance and organizational size. Andreason (2003) reconfirmed both Black et al.'s and McEvoy and Parker's findings. Additionally, Shaffer (1999) reconfirmed the importance of organizational logistical support to work adjustment and general cultural adjustment.

Non-Work Factors

Judged by many to be the most critical factors of the expatriate's adjustment, Black et al. (1991) stated that family adjustment specifically, the spouse adjustment, provides a critical link to the expatriate's adjustment. Black, et al. (1991) mentioned that cultural novelty also affects the expatriate's ability to adjust. Several studies have confirmed the importance of the family's

affect on the expatriate's adjustment. These include de Leon and McPartlin's (1995) study of teenagers in Hong Kong, and Shaffer and Harrison's (1995, 2000) work which added to the theoretical underpinnings of spouse adjustment and its affect on the expatriate's adjustment.

Positional Factors

Shaffer, et al. (1999) found that expatriates actually brought three types of "baggage" (called positional factors) with them to the assignment that affected their adjustment. These positional factors are: hierarchical level, functional area and assignment vector. Shaffer, et al., found that mid-level managers who had less role discretion actually adjusted faster than higher level position managers who had ample role discretion. Functional area of the expatriate also mitigated adjustment because expatriates in a technical functional area needed greater language skills than those in a managerial functional area. Functional areas requiring greater language skills assisted the expatriate in their adjustment. Assignment vector (parent company national, third country national, host country national) affected adjustment due to the cultural background brought to the assignment by the expatriate.

Hypotheses

According to Black and Gregersen's (1991), Morley, et al.'s (1997), and Gregersen and Stroh's (1997) studies, those positions with high role clarity enhance work adjustment. Since administrators have high role clarity and only a moderate amount of role conflict, the longer the administrator has served, the degree of adjustment should change. The work adjustment in subsequent tours should concern itself mainly with peculiarities of working in the new country and not adjusting to working with the head office in Washington, DC.

H1. There is a positive association between total length of service and degree of work adjustment (at the present assignment). (Research Question Number 1)

While, the degree of work adjustment should change in association with the longer the administrator serves, the degree of psychological adjustment, interaction adjustment, and general adjustment should reflect the closeness of the target country's culture to the administrator's culture. Black, et al (1999), show that the amount of cultural distance determines the disruption of mental road maps that help an expatriate navigate his/her way through the culture. Furthermore, Selmer (2002) found partial support that only those who served in similar cultures hastened interaction with host nationals and general cultural adjustment in their current assignment.

H2a. There is no association between total length of service as administrator and general adjustment. (Research Question Number 1)

H2b. There is no association between total length of service as administrator and adjustment to interaction with host nationals (Research Question Number 1)

H2c. There is no association between total length of service as administrator and psychological adjustment (Research Question Number 1)

As noted by Selmer (1995), two of three turnover activities include the transfer of information and getting acquainted with the host culture. Since very little research has been done into turnover activities since Selmer's last study (1997), the use of the internet and its affect on the transfer of information and getting acquainted has not been fully studied. Previously, transfer of information and getting acquainted occurred via written correspondence, face to face activities and phone calls. Emails, file transfers, and internet research has taken the place of old methods. It stands to reason, therefore that the more information shared between the outgoing and incoming coordinator the greater the satisfaction of the incoming expatriate. Therefore, the next hypothesis will be considered exploratory in nature.

H3. There is a positive association between intranet use and satisfaction of turnover activities. (Research Question Number 2)

According to Black (1988) the greater the role ambiguity, the less the expatriate is able to predict the outcome of various behaviors and thus unable to use previous experiences to help him/her make successful choices. Department of Defense administrators have a multitude of regulations both from the Department of Defense and the Department of State that show the administrators how to perform their support role in the Defense Attaché Office. The administrators should believe that their position has high role clarity. According to Morley (1997), the clearer the role, the better the individual can predict necessary actions. However, Feldman and Thomas (1992) point out that assistance from host country nationals in getting role clarity may be difficult especially in cultures which are not “inclusionary.” Zamet and Bovarnich (1986) state this may be particularly true in nationalistic cultures. Those administrators who believe that their position has high role clarity should experience a greater degree of work adjustment (Parker/McEvoy,1995). Morley, et al. (1997) found that those Irish expatriates who had greater role clarity had a better adjustment than those who did not.

H4. There is a positive association between perceived role clarity and work adjustment. (Research Question 3)

According to Black, et al. (1991), conflicting signals about what is expected of an expatriate’s performance increases uncertainty and inhibits adjustment. This statement comes from Black’s (1988) study of American expatriates in Japan and previous studies by Kahn (1964). However, in the Black’s study (1988), the affect of role conflict was not as significant as role ambiguity. However, Shaffer, et al. (1999) found that role conflict did not significantly effect work adjustment. In Morley, et al’s study (1997), the Irish expatriates in Moscow associated role conflict with less work effectiveness (but mentioned nothing on work adjustment). Previous

research has shown a positive association between perceived work effectiveness and satisfaction. The key then in researching role conflict, may be to determine role conflict's effect on both work effectiveness (the ability to produce quality work) and the degree of work adjustment (the ability to produce work).

H5a. There is a negative association between role conflict and work adjustment.

(Research Question 4)

H5b. There is a negative association between role conflict and work effectiveness

(Research Question 4)

H5c. There is a negative association between role conflict and satisfaction.

(Research Question 4)

According to Black (1988) role overload has a negative affect on the adjustment of the individual as the individual feels overwhelmed with requirements coupled with an inability to meet those requirements. In addition to affecting work adjustment, the affect of role overload may also affect psychological adjustment, as the expatriate feels inadequate to the task. This role overload may inhibit the expatriate's interaction with host nationals and his/her general cultural adjustment as the expatriate withdraws with feelings of inadequacy.

H6a. There is a negative association between role overload and work adjustment.

(Research Question 5)

H6b. There is a negative association between role overload and psychological adjustment.

(Research Question 5)

H6c. There is a negative association between role overload and interaction with host nationals adjustment. (Research Question 5)

H6d. There is a negative association between role overload and general cultural adjustment. (Research Question 5)

Torbiorn (1982) stated that effective preparatory training permits the expatriate to learn what is expected of the expatriate in the job and in the expatriate's new country. Using Bandura's Social Learning Theory, Black and Mendenhall (1990) predicted that effective preparatory training for the expatriate would facilitate socio-cultural adjustment since previous domestic studies had demonstrated that effective preparatory training enhanced work adjustment. Martin (1997) found in his study of English workers, that effective preparation for a move positively affected the psychological adjustment of the person who moves. Preparation for the Department of Defense administrator's move overseas (anticipatory adjustment) mainly consists of work related training (including language training) for the new assignments. Those who view this training as effectively preparing them for their overseas work should have a greater psychological adjustment and job satisfaction.

H7a. There is a positive association between preparatory training and psychological adjustment. (Research Question 6)

H7b. There is a positive association between preparatory training and satisfaction (Research Question 6)

Dawis and Lofquist (1984) and Nicholson (1984) argued that role discretion permitted domestic workers to adjust their working conditions to their environment and thus enhance their work adjustment. Shaffer, et al. (1999) found that mid-level managers who had less role discretion adjusted faster than those who had ample role discretion. Defense administrators have moderate role discretion since they have ample Department of Defense regulations from which to guide them in their support of the office members.

H8. There is a negative association between role discretion and work adjustment.

(Research Question 7).

Black, et al. (1991), proposed that the individual factor of “self-efficacy” should have a positive effect on adjustment as those expatriates with more self efficacy should have a greater degree of interaction with host country nationals and a greater degree of adjustment to the country’s general culture. Self-efficacy should also have a positive effect on work adjustment as the administrator moves forward in his/her work adjustment, gets feedback, and moves forward again.

H9a. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and work adjustment.

(Research Question 8).

H9b. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and interaction with host national adjustment. (Research Question 8).

H9c. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and general cultural adjustment. (Research question 8).

CHAPTER THREE

Methods

Chapter three discusses the development of the instrument (Appendix) used by the researcher in this study. The make-up of the instrument itself will be discussed, including both the established scales used and the self developed scales used in the study. A research review follows which shows each hypothesis, its correlating research question, and what method of analysis will be used to test each hypothesis.

After this, a discussion of the sample size, including the method of instrument distribution and collection, follows. Finally, this section ends with a descriptive analysis of the participants and a discussion of the method of hypothesis testing.

Instrument

The instrument (Appendix) used for this dissertation consisted of three parts. The first part (items 1 – 6) consisted of control items, the second part (items 7 – 61) consisted of items taken from six recognized scales, as well as, several self-developed scales which focused specifically on the Department of Defense administrators preparatory training, work effectiveness, and intranet usage. The third part consisted of an open ended question to which the Department of Defense Administrators could provide any additional comments they wished to elaborate on their answers. The researcher conducted a Principal Component Factor Analysis with Varimax rotation on each scale used and developed independent and dependent variables based on factors of the scales with eigen values over 1.0 and loadings greater than .40.

Operational Measurements

Control items.

Time served as administrator – years and portion of years. (1 item - #1)

Time served at current location – years and portion of years. (1 item - #2)

Educational Level (1 Item - #3)

Age (1 Item - #4)

Number of support personnel at Defense Attaché Office (DAO) (1 item - #5)

Proportion of support personnel to attaches (1 item - #6)

Measurement scales

J. Stewart Black Scale (1988) for Measuring Work Adjustment, Interaction with Host Nationals Adjustment and General Adjustment

This study used the scale developed by Black (1988) in his dissertation to measure the socio-cultural adjustments of expatriates. This study modified this scale slightly for world wide use by changing the phrase “in Japan,” to “your country.” The response category for this scale ranged from (1) “not adjusted at all” to (7) “completely adjusted”. Conducting the Principal Component Analysis with Varimax Rotation gave me three factors, two of which closely resembled Black’s (1988) factors for measuring general cultural adjustment (items, 8, 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, 16, 17 [Black’s Principal Component Analysis included item 12 for this factor]) and for measuring interaction with host nationals adjustment (items 8, 10, 13, 15 [This component matched Black’s Principal Component Analysis exactly]). The third factor included items 7, 12, and 16 and was conceptually incoherent. Therefore, since item 7 asked about the expatriate’s adjustment to work directly, this study used that item to quantify “work adjustment.” All factors with an eigenvalue of 1.0 or more accounted for over 67 percent of the variance. The factor reliability analysis measuring general cultural adjustment had an alpha of .89 while the factor reliability analysis measuring interaction with host nationals adjustment had an alpha of .80.

When used by Black (1988), the reliability for the three subscales was assessed as: “general adjustment” (alpha) = .81, “interaction adjustment” (alpha) = .86 and work adjustment (alpha) = .69. When used by Selmer and Leung (2001) and Selmer (1999b), all three subscales’ reliability results were the same as Black’s (1988).

General Health Questionnaire (GHQ) – 12

Psychological adjustment of expatriates was measured using the general health questionnaire developed by Goldberg (1972). This instrument usually measures minor psychiatric symptoms. However, the scale has been used to monitor levels of well-being (Forster, 2000). Expatriate researchers have used this scale to measure expatriates' subjective well-being previously and therefore, this study used it to measure the psychological adjustment of expatriates in this study. (Anderzen and Arnetz, 1997, 1999). The scale contains a number of items concerning how people have been feeling recently and whether these feelings have interrupted their work or play. Response categories varied from (1) “not at all” to (4) “much more than usual.” When Selmer (2001b) used the GHQ-12 to test the psychological adjustment of expatriate managers in China reliability was assessed as: (alpha) = .85. Reliability in the Selmer and Leung (2003) study was (alpha) = .83. Reliability in the Selmer (in print) study of expatriate psychological adjustment in China, was (alpha) = .85. Reliability in Selmer (1999b – Career Issues) was (alpha) = .82. Reliability in the study by Anderzen and Arnetz (1999), was assessed as (alpha) = .76. When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation of the scale, three factors with an eigenvalue of greater than 1.0 emerged accounting for 64 percent of the variance. Looking over the three factors created, factor three (items 23 “Been losing confidence in yourself?” and item 24 “Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person?”, eigenvalue 1.060) did not make conceptual sense for this study since these items focused more on “suicidal type” depression and had a reliability alpha of .59. Factor number one (eigenvalue

4.229, alpha .87 – items 18, 25-29) focuses on psychological adjustment as it relates to actions the expatriate takes to psychological adjust and factor number two (eigenvalue 2.465, alpha .78 – item 19 – 23) focuses on the mental psychological adjustment of the expatriate. Therefore, the study measured psychological adjustment in two parts, mental and actionable psychological adjustment. Together these factors form 55 percent of the variance.

Nicholson Career Development Survey

The Career Development Survey developed by Nigel Nicholson in 1987 remains the expatriate research standard for measuring job satisfaction and role discretion. Research has proved Nicholson's survey reliable and the researcher used it to measure expatriate job satisfaction and role discretion. Job satisfaction was measured with a five point self-assessed Likert-type scale ranging from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. Job satisfaction scale reliability in Nicholson's (1987) research was assessed as (alpha) = .68. Role discretion was measured with a four point self-assessed Likert-type scale from (1) much less than my previous job to (4) much more than my previous job. In Nicholson's study (1987), role discretion scale reliability was determined as (alpha) = .92.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis for the job satisfaction scale, one factor with an eigenvalue over 1.0 (2.074) emerged accounting for 51 percent of the variance. The reliability alpha for the job satisfaction scale was alpha = .69. This alpha matched Nicholson's alpha score.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis for the role discretion scale, one factor with an eigenvalue over 1.0 (2.977) emerged accounting for 74.41 percent of the variance. The reliability alpha for the job satisfaction scale was alpha = .88.

Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970 –clarity; conflict) Scales

This study measured role clarity, role overload and role conflict by scales used in Black's (1988) study of American expatriate managers in Japan (his dissertation). These scales, in turn, were developed by Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970 – role ambiguity; conflict) and Kahn (1964 – role overload). Expatriate researchers use these scales most when measuring role clarity, overload, and conflict. Responses for all three scales were measured using a self-assessed Likert-type scale from (1) strongly agree to (5) strongly disagree. Jones (1986) previously used the role clarity scale in his study. Jones (1986) assessed the reliability of this scale as $\alpha = .76$. Black (1988) had the same reliability for the role clarity scale. When Black (1988) used this scale to measure role conflict, he assessed the role conflict scale as $\alpha = .82$. Black (1988) used three items in his scale from Kahn (1964) focusing on excessive work load, excessive time demands and insufficient time to complete work. Black assessed the reliability of the scale as $\alpha = .81$.

When I conducted a Principal Component Analysis for the perceived role clarity scale, one factor with an eigenvalue of 2.757 emerged accounting for 68.91 percent of the variance. The reliability scale alpha for the perceived role clarity scale was $\alpha = .85$.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis for perceived role conflict scale, one factor with an eigenvalue of 2.022 emerged accounting for 67.39 percent of the variance. The reliability scale alpha for the perceived role conflict scale was $\alpha = .75$.

Kahn (1964 – role overload) Scales

Kahn's (1964) definitive work defined role overload as three items: "excessive work load, excessive time demands, and insufficient time to complete the work." the researcher chose to use only two of these three items: "This job is excessively demanding," and "There is insufficient time to do my job." This study did not use "there is excessive time demands." The study did not use the last item for two reasons. First, the researcher believed that the administrators would view the last two items as one item discussing time demands and may have

become confused. As a result, the administrators would have mirrored their answers on “there is insufficient time to do my job.” This mirroring may have caused the results to be skewed. Additionally, due to heavy work loads, the longer the scale, the less likely administrators would be in returning the survey. Furthermore, qualitative comments (Chapter 5) provided by the administrators on “excessive time demands,” provide ample response on this item.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis for perceived role overload scale, one factor with an eigenvalue of 1.61 emerged accounting for 80.49 percent of the variance. The alpha for the perceived role overload scale was $\alpha = .76$.

Self Developed Scales

Intranet Usage (Item 54)

A one sentence scale with a self assessed Likert-type scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree, was used: “Before I moved, I used to e-mail my predecessor at least every two weeks (on average) to familiarize myself with the situation at the new assignment.” This study used this one sentence scale in this matter because expatriates trying to determine the exact number of emails sent to their predecessor would be difficult if not impossible to determine.

Effectiveness of Preparatory Training (Items 39 – 41)

The scale used to measure the effectiveness of preparatory training consisted of three items with a self assessed Likert-type scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree.

The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the administrative parts of my job.

The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the financial parts of my job.

The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the logistical parts of my job.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis for this scale, one factor with an eigenvalue of 1.892 emerged accounting for 63.05 percent of the variance. The alpha for this self-developed scale was $\alpha = .70$.

Work Effectiveness (Item 55)

A one sentence scale with a self-assessed Likert-type scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree was used. The item stated, "I am effective at my job." Since determining expatriate effectiveness would incur a 360 degree feedback review, this is impossible due to the nature of the study. Therefore, the researcher allowed the expatriate to self assess his/her work effectiveness as the researcher do his/her degree of adjustment.

Chen Self Efficacy Scale

The researcher measured the expatriate's self-efficacy by the Chen, et al., self-efficacy scale (2001) containing 8 items. This scale has become the standard for measuring self-efficacy and updated the previous self-efficacy scale (Sherer, et al, 1982). The scale uses a five point Likert-type scale from (1) strongly disagree to (5) strongly agree. The Chen self-efficacy scale has been tested on 314 undergraduate psychology students (two tests) and had a reliability of $\alpha = .86$ and $.90$.

When the researcher conducted a Principal Component Analysis with Varimax rotation for perceived role overload scale, two factors with an eigenvalue over 1.0 emerged with one factor consisting of 6 items (items 47 and 49 – 53) (eigenvalue of 4.665) which accounted for 58.31 percent of the variance. The other factor consisted of three items (46 - 48) (eigenvalue of 1.081) which accounted for 13.50 percent of the variance. The total variance explained by the two factors was 71.82 percent. The alpha for the first factor (named performance) was $\alpha = .88$, while the alpha for the second factor (named goal achievement) was $\alpha = .77$

TABLE 1
Research Review

Hypothesis #	Predictor	Criterion	Research Question	Statistical Analysis
1	Total length of service	Work adjustment	1	Multiple Regression
2a	Total length of service	General adjustment	1	Multiple Regression
2b	Total length of service	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	1	Multiple Regression
2c	Total length of service	Psychological adjustment (mental and actionable)	1	Multiple Regression
3	Intranet use	Satisfaction	2	Multiple Regression
4	Role clarity	Work adjustment	3	Multiple Regression
5a	Role conflict	Work adjustment	4	Multiple Regression
5b	Role conflict	Work effectiveness	4	Multiple Regression
5c	Role conflict	Satisfaction	4	Multiple Regression

6a	Role overload	Work adjustment	5	Multiple Regression
6b	Role overload	Psychological Adjustment (actionable and mental)	5	Multiple Regression
6c	Role overload	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	5	Multiple Regression
6d	Role overload	General adjustment	5	Multiple Regression
7a	Preparatory Training	Psychological adjustment (actionable and mental)	6	Multiple Regression
7b	Preparatory Training	Satisfaction	6	Multiple Regression
8	Role discretion	Work adjustment	7	Multiple Regression
9a	Self efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	Work adjustment	8	Multiple Regression

9b	Self-efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	8	Multiple Regression
9c	Self-efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	General adjustment	8	Multiple Regression

Sample Size

The researcher sent out the survey instrument in the appendix to the target population via the Department of Defense intranet. The target population consisted of 314 Department of Defense administrators. This study did not need to get a representative sampling of the target population since the researcher invited the entire target population to participate in the survey. Of the 314 surveys sent out, respondents returned 174 usable surveys for a return rate of 55.41 percent. The surveys returned came back to the researcher in one of two methods. Either the Department of Defense administrators faxed the completed surveys, or the administrators filled them out on line and sent them back to the researcher electronically. Some of those on the mailing list had moved on to another assignment. This situation was primarily due to the start of the military rotation cycle which begins in early May vice the start of the project in mid-May. Of all who received the survey instrument, only four Department of Defense Administrators flatly refused to take the survey. Most found the survey instrument timely and useful. While all were encouraged to provide additional comments to flush out their answers, few chose to do so. Only one person who returned the survey instrument stated that the instrument had no value.

TABLE 2

Descriptive Statistics of Department of Defense Administrators

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Total Months as Administrator	174	2	336	56.25	52.25
Total Months at Current Station	174	1	48	19.47	12.36
Educational Level (1)	174	1	5	2.63	0.73
Age	174	28	52	40	0.71
Average Number of Support Personnel in the Defense Attaché Office	174	1	17	3.61	2.33
Ratio of support personnel to attaches at the Defense Attaché Office	174	0.05	3	1.02	0.51
Valid N	169				

Note 1: Educational level score of 2.63 means most Department of Defense administrators have almost enough credits for a Bachelor's degree.

Descriptive Statistics

According to the returned survey instruments, the average Department of Defense administrator's age was generally in the late 30's to early 40's and the administrator had some college but not a Bachelor's degree. The average administrator had served 52 months as a Department of Defense administrator with 15 months of this service at his/her current assignment. However experience (length of service) as a Defense Administrator varied widely from 2 months to 20 years (the standard deviation was enormously large at 6 years). The

average Defense Attaché Office has 3 to 4 support personnel (standard deviation 2.33) and a ratio of attaches to support personnel of 2.0 (with a standard deviation of .51).

Statistical Analysis Description

The multiple regression analysis was based on 174 respondents although not all respondents answered all the items correctly so, the correct number of correspondents for the multiple regression analysis is $167 < n < 174$. The predictor variables and the criterion variables in the current data are in a metric form; therefore, the researcher utilized a multiple regression analysis. Since adjustment can be regarded as a process over time (learning process) (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Church, 1982; Furnham & Bochner, 1986), the researcher eliminated the effect of the learning curve of *length of service at the current location* through a hierarchical multiple regression analysis. For the first step, the researcher used “*length of service at current location*” as the control variable and then entered all the rest of the variables in the second step. The results of the hierarchical multiple regression analysis are displayed in Table 4.

CHAPTER FOUR

Chapter four conducts the hypothesis by hypothesis review. First, the researcher discusses the significance of Pearson Correlations (Table 3) and the need to use *Time at Current Station* as a control variable to reduce the effects of administrators who have been at one station a long time. Next, the researcher conducts the hypothesis by hypothesis review individually followed by a review (Table 4) of each hypothesis' support or nonsupport based on the data analysis. Finally, Table 5 ends the section, showing the results of the hierarchical regression analysis.

Results

The sample means, standard deviations and zero-order Pearson correlations of the independent and dependent variables are provided in Table 3. A one sample t-test showed that all mean scores for all the variables (both criterion and predictor) were significantly higher than the midpoint of the scale. The four adjustment variables were work adjustment ($t=84.26, p<.001$), interaction adjustment, ($t=82.76, p<.001$), general cultural adjustment ($t=81.69, p<.001$) and psychological adjustment ($t=78.93, p<.001$ – mental/ $t=57.52, p<.001$ – actionable). These results indicate that the Department of Defense administrators were well adjusted to their country's culture, both socio-culturally and psychologically. Additionally, the sample t-test indicated that expatriates thought they were effective at their jobs ($t=91.30, p<.001$). Similarly, the one sample t-test showed that the expatriates had a high degree of self-efficacy ($t=93.72, p<.001$ – goal achievement/ $t=122.54, p<.001$ – performance).

The Pearson correlation analysis revealed a strong association between work and general adjustment ($r=.47, p<.001$), work and interaction with host national adjustment ($r=.43, p<.001$) and general adjustment and interaction with host national adjustment ($r=.84, p<.001$). This

finding supports previous research (Shay&Baack, 2003 and Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001).

The Pearson correlation analysis revealed that psychological adjustment was significantly associated with satisfaction ($r=0.45$, $p<.001$ – actionable/ $r=0.51$, $p<.001$ – mental) which agreed with previous research by Shaffer and Harrison (1998).

The significant association between *time on current station* and work adjustment ($r=.41$, $p<.001$), general cultural adjustment ($r=.38$, $p<.01$), interaction adjustment ($r=.34$, $p<.01$) and work effectiveness ($r=.24$, $p<.01$) confirms the need to use *time on current station* as a control variable.

TABLE 3: Means, Standard Deviation, and Correlations among the Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Work Adjust	6.18	.96	1																
2. General Adjust	5.72	.92	.47***	1															
3. Interaction w/host nationals	5.88	.93	.43***	.84***	1														
4. Psychological Adjust (Actionable)	2.60	.60	.12	.04	.06	1													
5. Psychological Adjust (Mental)	3.29	.55	.01	.03	.06	.26**	1												
6. Satisfaction	3.98	.66	.36**	.10	.06	.45***	.51***	1											
7. Intranet Use	2.69	1.35	.02	.01	.06	.04	.05	-.04	1										
8. Role Clarity	3.77	.82	.34**	.13	.08	.29**	.36**	.56***	.01	1									
9. Role Discretion	3.18	.76	.16*	.09	-.06	.37**	.24**	.46***	-.03	.26*	1								
10. Role Conflict	2.50	.84	-.20*	-.06	-.03	-.19*	-.38**	-.33**	.06	-.43***	-.24**	1							

11. Role Overload	3.50	1.13	-.11	-.01	.07	-.07	-.40***	-.21**	.05	-.20**	-.14	.43***	1						
12. Self Efficacy (Performance)	4.32	.46	.19*	.11	.13	.17*	.13	.27**	.12	.21**	.14	.07	.08	1					
13. Self Efficacy (Goal Achievement)	4.18	.58	.30**	.04	.00	.26**	.30**	.46***	.19*	.40***	.32**	-.11	-.11	.68***	1				
14. Preparatory Training	3.49	.78	-.06	-.06	-.07	.04	.07	.20*	.20*	.16*	.00	-.08	.06	.08	.19*	1			
15. Work Effectiveness	4.28	.61	.35**	.24**	.23**	.13	.18*	.27**	.08	.20*	.07	.07	.07	.58***	.48***	.01	1		
16. Total Time as Adm	56.25	52.25	.42***	.17*	.18*	.02	.01	.12	.01	.12	.01	.03	-.03	.01	.09	-.07	.09	1	
17. Time on Current Station	19.47	12.36	.41***	.38**	.34**	.02	.03	.01	-.05	.04	.08	-.06	.06	.09	-.17*	.07	.24**	.32**	1

* p<.05; **p<.01, ***p<.001

Applying the hierarchical multiple regression shown in Table 4 (below), the control variable, *time on current station*, was entered in Step 1. As seen in Table 4, *time on current station* was significantly associated with the three socio-cultural adjustments, explaining 15 percent of the work and general cultural adjustments (beta=.26, $p<.01$ and beta=.37, $p<.001$, respectively) and 12 percent of the interaction with host nationals adjustment (beta=.32, $p<.001$). *Time on current station* was also significantly associated with work effectiveness, explaining 5 percent of the work effectiveness (beta=.17, $p<.05$). In Step 2, eight predictor values were entered. This action produced a significant positive effect on the criterion values: explaining 20 percent of work adjustment, 3 percent of general cultural adjustment, 5 percent of interaction with host national adjustment, 23 percent of psychological adjustment, 36 percent of work effectiveness, and 43 percent of satisfaction. A hypothesis by hypothesis acceptance or rejection follows.

Hypotheses (Acceptance or Rejection)

Each of the hypotheses below was tested formally through multiple regression analysis. Based upon Table 4's hierarchical multiple regression analysis, the study will determine whether the research data analysis supports the hypotheses or not. Each hypothesis will be discussed individually.

H1. There is a positive association between length of service as administrator and degree of work adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed a significant association between total length of service and degree of work adjustment (beta = 0.32, $p<.001$).

Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a positive association between length of service and degree of work adjustment.

H2a. There is no association between length of service as administrator and general adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant association between total length of service as administrator and general adjustment ($\beta = 0.05$; n.s). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is no significant association between length of service as administrator and general adjustment.

H2b. There is no association between length of service as administrator and adjustment to interaction with host nationals.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant association between total length of service as administrator and interaction with host national adjustment ($\beta = 0.07$; n.s.). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is no significant association between length of service as administrator and the Defense Department administrator's adjustment to interaction with host nationals.

H2c. There is no association between total length of service as administrator and psychological adjustment.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant association between total length of service and psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense Administrator ($\beta = -0.03$; n.s. [actionable]/0.01; n.s. [mental]).

Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is no association between length of service as administrator and the administrator's psychological adjustment.

H3. There is a positive association between intranet use and satisfaction of turnover activities.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant association between intranet use and satisfaction of turnover activities ($\beta = -0.03$;

n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a positive association between intranet use of the Department of Defense administrator and satisfaction of turnover activities is rejected.

H4. There is a positive association between perceived role clarity and work adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed a significant positive association between perceived role clarity and work adjustment ($\beta = 0.33$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a positive association between the Department of Defense administrator's role clarity and work adjustment.

H5a. There is a negative association between role conflict and work adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed a significant negative association between role conflict and work adjustment ($\beta = -0.18$, $p < .05$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a negative association between the Department of Defense administrator's role conflict and work adjustment.

H5b. There is a negative association between role conflict and work effectiveness.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed no significant positive association between role conflict and work effectiveness ($\beta = 0.08$; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a negative association between role conflict and work effectiveness of the Department of Defense administrator is rejected.

H5c. There is a negative association between role conflict and satisfaction.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed a significant negative association between role conflict and satisfaction ($\beta = -0.34$; $p < .001$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a negative association between role conflict and satisfaction of the Department of Defense administrator.

H6a. There is a negative association between role overload and work adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed a significant negative association between role overload and work adjustment ($\beta = -0.16$; $p < .05$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a negative association between role overload and work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator.

H6b. There is a negative association between role overload and psychological adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed mixed partial support for a significant negative association between role overload and psychological adjustment. The association between role overload and psychological adjustment (actionable) was not significant ($\beta = -0.10$; n.s.) while a significant negative association does exist between role overload and psychological adjustment (mental) ($\beta = -0.42$, $p < .001$). Therefore, the hypothesis that a negative association exists between role overload and psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator is rejected since there is only a partial support for the hypothesis.

H6c. There is a negative association between role overload and interaction with host nationals adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed no association between role overload and interaction with host nationals adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator ($\beta = 0.01$; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a negative association between role overload and interaction with host nationals adjustment is rejected.

H6d. There is a negative association between role overload and general cultural adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis revealed no association between role overload and general cultural adjustment of the Department of Defense

administrator (beta = -0.05; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a negative association between role overload and general adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator is rejected.

H7a. There is a positive association between preparatory training and psychological adjustment.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no association between preparatory training and the psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense Administrator. The association between preparatory training and both psychological adjustment factors was not significantly positive (beta = 0.05; n.s. [actionable]/0.07; n.s. [mental]). Therefore, the hypothesis that there is a positive association between preparatory training and psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator is rejected.

H7b. There is a positive association between preparatory training and satisfaction.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed a significant positive association between preparatory training and satisfaction of the Department of Defense administrator (beta = 0.19; $p < .05$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a positive association between the preparatory training and satisfaction of the Department of Defense administrator.

H8. There is a negative association between role discretion and work adjustment.

As shown in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant positive association between role discretion and work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator (beta = 0.14; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that a negative association between role discretion and work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator exists is rejected.

H9a. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and work adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed a significant positive association between self efficacy (performance) and work adjustment (beta= 0.16, $p < .05$) and between self efficacy (goal achievement) and work adjustment (beta=0.30; $p < .001$). Therefore, the data analysis supports the hypothesis that there is a positive association between the self efficacy and work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator.

H9b. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and interaction with host national adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant positive association between self-efficacy and interaction with host national adjustment. The association between self efficacy (performance) and interaction with host national adjustment was not significant (beta = 0.12; n.s.), while the association between self efficacy (goal achievement) and interaction with host nationals adjustment was negligible (beta = -0.02; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that a positive association between self efficacy and interaction with host nationals adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator exists is rejected.

H9c. There is a positive association between self-efficacy and general cultural adjustment.

As seen in Table 4, the results of a hierarchical multiple regression analysis showed no significant positive association between self-efficacy and general cultural adjustment. The association between self efficacy (performance) and general cultural adjustment was positive (beta=0.08; n.s.), while the association between self efficacy (goal achievement) and general cultural adjustment was negligible (beta = 0.01; n.s.). Therefore, the hypothesis that a positive association between self efficacy and general adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator exists is rejected.

TABLE 4

Hypothesis Support Review

Hypothesis #	Predictor	Criterion	Research Question	Supported or Not Supported
1	Total length of service	Work adjustment	1	Supported
2a	Total length of service	General adjustment	1	Supported
2b	Total length of service	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	1	Supported
2c	Total length of service	Psychological adjustment (mental and actionable)	1	Supported
3	Intranet use	Satisfaction	2	Not Supported
4	Role clarity	Work adjustment	3	Supported
5a	Role conflict	Work adjustment	4	Supported
5b	Role conflict	Work effectiveness	4	Not Supported
5c	Role conflict	Satisfaction	4	Supported
6a	Role overload	Work adjustment	5	Supported
6b	Role overload	Psychological Adjustment (actionable and mental)	5	Not Supported

6c	Role overload	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	5	Not Supported
6d	Role overload	General adjustment	5	Not Supported
7a	Preparatory Training	Psychological adjustment (actionable and mental)	6	Not Supported
7b	Preparatory Training	Satisfaction	6	Supported
8	Role discretion	Work adjustment	7	Not Supported
9a	Self efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	Work adjustment	8	Supported
9b	Self-efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	Interaction with host nationals adjustment	8	Not Supported
9c	Self-efficacy – Performance and Goal Achievement	General adjustment	8	Not Supported

TABLE 5: Results of Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis (Standardized Coefficients):

Variable	Work Adjustment Beta	General Adjustment Beta	Interaction With Host Nationals Adj Beta	Psych Actionable Beta	Adjust Psych Mental Beta	Adjust Work Effect Beta
Step 1						
Length of Service At Current Station (Control)	0.26**	0.37***	0.32***	0.03	0.03	0.18*
R	0.40	0.39	0.36	0.06	0.02	0.23
R (Squared)	0.16	0.15	0.13	0.00	0.00	0.05
Adjusted R(squared)	0.15	0.15	0.12	-0.00	-0.01	0.05
F	30.47***	28.97***	23.17**	0.07	0.07	9.27*
Step 2						
Total Length of Service	0.32***	0.05	0.07	-0.03	0.01	0.02
Intranet Use	0.04	0.02	0.08	0.04	0.06	0.10
Role Clarity	0.33***	0.06	0.05	0.30***	0.36***	0.18*
Role Conflict	-0.18*	-0.04	0.01	-0.18*	-0.40***	0.08
Role Overload	-0.16*	-0.05	0.01	-0.10	-0.42***	0.06
Preparatory Training	-0.00	-0.02	-0.03	0.05	0.07	0.05
Role Discretion	0.14	-0.09	-0.08	0.39**	0.25**	0.06
Self-Efficacy (Performance)	0.16*	0.08	0.12	0.24**	0.12	0.58***
						0.27**

Self-Efficacy (Goal Achievement)	0.30***	0.01	-0.02	0.17*	0.30***	0.48***	0.49***
R(squared)	0.36	0.18	0.18	0.18	0.29	0.41	0.50
Change in R(squared)	0.20	0.03	0.05	0.18	0.29	0.36	0.50
Adjusted R (squared)	0.32	0.13	0.13	0.13	0.25	0.38	0.46
F	9.49*	3.49*	3.44*	3.74*	7.004*	11.85**	12.84**
Change in F	6.06	0.73	1.22	4.12	7.868	11.56	14.44

*p<.05, **p<.01, *** p<.001

CHAPTER FIVE:

Discussion, Limitations, Implications And Conclusion:

Chapter five discusses the results of the hierarchical regression data analysis and its implications. This analysis of results includes comments provided by the Department of Defense administrators themselves which enrich the data analysis results. The researcher includes comments by the Department of Defense administrators on the importance of language training and the importance of the job of Department of Defense administrator itself. Finally, the limitations of this study and implications for future research and practice are presented.

Discussion

As seen in Table 5, the longer the expatriate has served at his/her current station, the greater his/her work, general cultural, and interaction with host nationals adjustments and work effectiveness. Additionally, as the expatriate serves longer at the current station, the expatriate becomes more efficient at his/her job. Total time as administrator did not effect the general or interaction of host national adjustment as each country to which the expatriate is assigned is unique.

Role clarity has a large impact on the administrators' work adjustment, psychological adjustment, work effectiveness and satisfaction. Strong self-efficacy has a positive affect on the expatriate's psychological adjustment, work effectiveness, and satisfaction. Contrarily, role conflict and role overload inhibit the expatriates' work adjustment, satisfaction and psychological adjustment. A more detailed discussion of the findings follows.

Clearly, the length of service, self efficacy, and role clarity of the Department of Defense administrator affects the work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator the most. This study's results mirror results from Black's (1988, 1991), Black&Gregersen's (1991),

Morley, et al.'s (1997), and Gregersen&Stroh's (1997) research. Therefore, when seeking applicants for Department of Defense administrator positions, the four services should look beyond the technical abilities of the applicant and more toward sergeants and officers with a high self confidence (self efficacy) in their abilities. While a fine line may exist between self confidence and arrogance, candidates with a strong internal locus of control will adjust quicker and perform better. This finding contradicts current military policy in which the services gauge successful previous performance as the primary predictor of future success.

Conversely, role conflict and role overload had a profound negative impact on the work adjustment of the administrator. The results confirm previous research conducted by Black (1988, 1991). Administrators often feel overwhelmed by the enormity of the tasks required of them. Since these administrators did not feel that preparatory training gave them the resources to complete their tasks, they had to turn to other administrators for help. Consider the following comment from the senior administrator from Tajikistan:

(Tajikistan) "I came here as the first permanent senior administrator, many things were not done, nor did I have the experience to know the difference. The guidance from my headquarters has been not much more than "read the manuals" which are outdated. Everything I have learned has been from the help of other senior administrators in the region."

The strong positive association between role clarity and the Department of Defense administrator's work adjustment confirms previous research (Black, 1991; Parker/McEvoy, 1995; Morley, 1997). In order for Department of Defense administrators to perform successfully, they must clearly understand what the Defense Attaché and headquarters expect from them. Without this initial counseling, role overload may occur and the administrator may

have psychological adjustment problems. The following comments from administrators reinforce this idea:

(Ghana) “There are two things which stand out to make this assignment unpleasant: over-supervision from the ambassador’s office and under-support from the embassy’s administrative section. If these problems were solved, this would be a pleasant place to work.”

(Hungary) “I received very little instructions from headquarters.”

(South Korea) “I feel that many of the duties in the Defense Attaché System are governed by policy and regulations, but those are outlines to operate within, not necessarily mandates that keep me from doing my job. Those governed by law, such as “money issues” are very clear, other policies are guidelines to operate within. I have enough guidance to operate but not too much to limit my ability to creatively solve problems, as is often the case in the regular Army. Also, my goals are to get the job done, these are clear on station but necessarily as regulated by headquarters; I know what I have to do and what my office has to do, but that is often from a strategic perspective vice (instead of) being governed by a day to day tasking.”

The significant positive association between self efficacy and work adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator confirms previous research (Black, 1991). Military members chosen for Department of Defense administrator must demonstrate an ability to make decisions without adequate military support. Therefore, the strong association between self efficacy and work adjustment is natural. Coworker support or lack of proper staffing may have helped or hindered the administrator’s ability to perform. The comments below illustrate this.

(Belgium) “To me, this is an interesting and challenging job. The drawbacks are the lack of time and the lack of proper manning. There are only so many hours in a day and

one person can't do it all. Many things go undone because there simple isn't time to do it all. The good part of this job is that due to the lack of time, we are forced to use our own judgment to prioritize.”

(China) “This is the best assignment I have ever had. Everyone treats me with respect and with the kind of professionalism that should be everywhere in the Army. I think that's why I'm so hard on myself. Because I don't want to let my coworkers down and sometimes I feel that I am when I don't know the answer to a question or screw something up that is my responsibility. Also, my coworkers have been in embassy duty for years and know everyone from other embassies. This is my first DAS assignment, so I feel behind the power curve.”

The mean score for item 56 (*My assignment's culture is the same as American culture*) was significantly lower (mean – 1.87 standard deviation - .97) than the midpoint of the scale (3.0). A sample t-test showed ($t=25.15$, $p<.001$) that many Department of Defense administrators disagreed that their culture was similar to the culture in which they served.

The mean score for item 57 (*Knowing the host country's language would help me perform better*) was significantly higher (mean – 4.04, standard deviation – 1.15) than the midpoint of the scale (3.0). A sample t-test ($t=45.30$, $p<.001$) showed that many Department of Defense administrators agreed that they needed a certain level of language ability to help them perform better. Even though the military services may assign them to a language required billet, the military may not give the administrators the required language training due to time constraints. This situation may hinder the administrator's adjustment, satisfaction and work effectiveness.

Department of Defense administrators who either loved or hated their jobs did not all seem to come from either a culturally close or distant country as I had expected. Comments on a particular country appear below:

(Algeria) “In Algeria, the culture is not only far removed from US culture but in normal day to day living the personnel here are isolated due to the Embassy security requirement that all Americans live on the Embassy compound and are driven around in armed vehicles with drivers. There is no spontaneity.” (strongly disagreed that the culture was close to American culture).”

(Angola) “I wouldn’t wish Angola on my worst enemy (strongly disagreed that the culture was close to American culture).”

(Sierra Leone) “Best job I have had in my 18+ years in the Air Force (strongly disagreed that the culture was close to American culture).”

(Uruguay) “Best assignment I have had in my 15+ years in the Air Force (strongly disagreed that the culture was close to American culture).”

Overall, comments from the Department of Defense administrators showed that they believed preparatory training from the Joint Military Attaché School was a good start, but the school did not fully prepare them for all the tasks they would perform on station. Since they did not feel fully prepared for the job, the lack of association between preparatory training and the four adjustments may have resulted. Many administrator functions had to be learned by doing or by seeking guidance from other administrators with many years experience. However, even though they didn’t feel the school fully prepared them for life at the embassy, the administrators were satisfied with the preparatory training. This satisfaction may have come from the knowledge that the school could not prepare the administrator for every situation faced at all embassies around the world. Consider the following comments from the administrators:

(Cambodia) “In addition to the Joint Military Attaché School training, I rely heavily on the time management prioritization skills that were reinforced at the Warrant Officer School.”

(Canada) “It would be beneficial to have a refresher Joint Military Attaché School course in between assignments for the Department of Defense administrator. Even though each the administrator should have similar duties and should be familiar with any administrator duties at different posts. Sometimes the administrator acts in the senior administrator position due to small office manning and (a) large amount to traveling (by) the attaches. A reference of various duties and job knowledge would be beneficial.”

(Guatemala) “The school gave me the basic tools, but it required time and good supervisors to become competent. After nearly 12 years in this job, the only constant is the variation on the basic theme due to individual quirks in the country. While it isn’t necessary to relearn the task at each station, there is a requirement to be flexible.”

(Russia) “Training at the Joint Military Attaché School is outdated and not weighted correctly in terms of time of instruction devoted to the most consuming tasks on station. The school needs to focus attachés and support staff better on task prioritization and individual actions.”

(Oman) “The Joint Military Attaché School was a great help in getting me oriented the Defense Attaché System; however, it did not prepare me for current military operations in the Middle East, nor do I think the school was designed for this purpose. I tried to use the administrative tools the school taught me, but these operations forced me to become more creative than I have ever been in my life.”

(Kuwait) “Senior administrators need more training opportunities. If we had more training opportunities like attaches, we could contribute more. The training course went quickly. Real learning begins on station.”

(Tajikistan) “The Joint Military Attaché School was a very good starting point for this job, but they cannot prepare you for an assignment like Dushanbe.”

While my research partially supported Black’s (1988) research on role overload’s negative impact on the psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator, role conflict had a significant negative impact on the administrators’ psychological adjustment. Department of Defense administrators expressed frustration over underperforming senior officers who “dumped” work on them. Comments from Department of Defense administrators demonstrate this point:

(Hungary) “For me the job is not so overwhelming as to cause some of the problems listed (too much stress, loss of sleep – from the one of the longest serving senior administrators), however I am frustrated sometimes.”

Role discretion and role clarity had a significant positive impact on the psychological adjustment of the Department of Defense administrator. These findings agree with the Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley’s (1999) research into role conflict/role clarity and the psychological adjustment of the expatriate. Therefore, if the Defense Attaché clearly defines the role of the Department of Defense administrator upon arrival and gives the administrator the freedom to accomplish his/her duties, the administrator should psychologically adjust easier. Conversely, if the Defense Attaché tells the administrator “don’t listen to headquarters, do what I say,” the administrator may not psychologically adjust at all.

Additionally, the administrators stated that their psychological adjustment/adaptation can be affected not only by their work environment, but also, by the season (18 hours of darkness, for

example). A few administrators viewed the scale as too harsh and some even may have refused to put low numbers for fear of intervention by headquarters leadership (even though the researcher assured them of their confidentiality). The researcher received a couple of comments that emphasize the importance of role clarity and role discretion on the administrator's psychological adjustment.

(Burma) "I am not depressed but unhappy because I'm not in charge. I feel completely capable of making any decision; I'm just not allowed nor given an opportunity to. I started out a senior administrator for 6+ years then, due to a lack of vacancies, I was put in my current slot a major step down in responsibilities and authority."

(Finland) "How I feel sometimes changes with the season since sometimes its dark outside all the time."

The Department of Defense administrator's role clarity, role discretion, preparatory training and self efficacy have a profound effect on the administrator's satisfaction. This research confirms previous research by Black and Mendenhall (1990) and Martin (1999). Therefore, the Joint Military Attaché School must consistently poll the field to ensure that their training remains relevant to the administrator's duties. Conflicts of guidance between headquarters and the Defense Attaché cause conflicts in the administrator's mind, since the administrator knows that the Defense Attaché's opinion carries the most weight on his/her evaluation. It is incumbent upon headquarters to support administrators who make correct ethical choices (supporting headquarters policy) by protecting their career. Department of Defense administrators must leave training with the feeling that if they report impropriety, the headquarters will remove the Defense Attaché's evaluation authority (essentially ensuring "whistleblower protection.").

(Burma) “I feel like I do a good job. My Defense Attaché (DATT) is a little more demanding than most. He calls around the clock and tends to micromanage. Not because he doesn’t trust (me), rather (he’s) just a very intense person, who wants to know everything. I also feel levels of competition in the office. The Air Attaché (AIRA) wants to be the DATT.”

The significant negative association between role conflict/role overload and the satisfaction of the Department of Defense administrator confirms previous research (Morley, 1997; Shaffer, 1999). This association seems logical. While Department of Defense administrators feel that they can still be effective at their work, stress and tension to choose between headquarters and local leadership guidance may affect their satisfaction and psychological adjustment. Role overload may induce a feeling of helplessness. This feeling of stress and tension came out in the following comments from the administrators:

(United Kingdom) “The embassy in London is a very rank conscious organization to the point that regardless of who sits in my chair, he/she will never have free access to the embassy senior administrator, or other senior foreign service personnel since they only work with the Defense Attaché who is the agency head regardless how small the matter may be.”

(Russia) “Everything is a crisis. Attaches take little or no initiative to resolve even the most basic issues before elevating them to the support staff as a “crisis action” (everything from invitations to dinners through the last minute operational travel is given the same sense of urgency).”

The non-significant association between intranet use of the Department of Defense administrator and satisfaction of turnover activities may have been a scale malfunction. Since the researcher was associating internet use with satisfaction instead of satisfaction of turnover

activities, this negative association might have resulted. Alternatively, Department of Defense administrators may not correlate their satisfaction to their intranet use prior to arrival, but their satisfaction to how they adjusted in the country after their arrival.

The non-significant association between role conflict and the work effectiveness of the Department of Defense administrator is quite curious. Previous research indicates one item scales are sometimes ineffective and this may have occurred here as work effectiveness was measured via a one item scale. (Tabachnik & Fidell, 1989). However, when taking a more holistic look, work effectiveness was significantly correlated with self efficacy and role clarity. Therefore, Department of Defense administrators with a high belief in their abilities can make the most effective performers on station. One administrator commented that the way his boss treated him helped his work effectiveness.

(Egypt) “I am doing better in Cairo, because my boss treats me better here than my previous posting.”

Lack of Headquarters/Language Support

Previous research confirmed the need for organizational support to affect the expatriate’s adjustment positively. (Andreason, 2003; Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley, 1999). Comments from the Department of Defense administrators confirmed the findings of this research. A continuing theme among those administrators who provided comments was the need for greater language capability (as seen in the response to item 57 above), better human resources and better headquarters logistics support. Without this support, the administrator’s role clarity may decline and thereby the administrator’s satisfaction. Comments below reinforce this:

(Canada) “In my four years of working for this organization, I have been very disappointed with the poor customer service and unprofessional services received from

Bolling Air Force Base (Air Force human resource support services). When an individual is stationed in a third world country with no access to internet or fax, that same individual expects strong support from his/her (headquarters) in the US. This has been a recurring problem for a while.”

(Ethiopia) “It’s a great job, but stateside support is bad.”

(Hungary) “Our headquarters must increase their manning levels for the stations that are understaffed. Without the manning increase, many people in understaffed office will get burned out after their first tour and return to their military service. This wastes training and experience gained over the assignment and leaves a bad impression of the system. For Army personnel, human resource support needs improvement.”

(Lithuania) “Proper manning would alleviate many of my negative replies.”

(Macedonia) “The pay disparity between military members and members of other agencies, of similar background and career experience is astounding. I personal believe that sending anyone to live and work on a permanent basis in a foreign country without the native language is a mistake.”

(Malaysia) “The transition to the Defense Attaché system was a bit hectic at first but I feel comfortable now. Service specific personnel support back at headquarters is really lacking. Navy detailers and technical advertisements need to see what actually our job is in the Defense Attaché System. Promotion opportunities throughout each service are lacking.”

(Botswana) “My only personnel reservation about coming into this system is the absolutely dismal promotion rate for Army NCOs.”

(Oman) “I wish I could have learned Arabic before arriving. It would have made the job much easier.”

(Mongolia) “Talking to headquarters doesn’t always get the job done.”

(China) “I highly recommend all staff members receive a basic language course prior to coming to Beijing. Administrators will not have enough time to pick up the necessary language skills on station. Even administrative tasks, local procurement, hotel reservations for visitors, planning functions, and supervising local nationals can be better accomplished by someone with language skills.”

(Hungary) “The headquarters needs to support their people and stations in the field much better. On numerous occasions when asked a question or presented with a problem here are typical responses: 1) No action taken (ignored); 2) the action taken was ineffective as to be useless. Only after repeated attempts and months of badgering the appropriate office/person was anything accomplished. This type of support is very frustrating to personnel in the field. We are doing our job and have to take time away from that to closely monitor actions and tasks that should be accomplished on our behalf. (i.e. finance and pay problems for years, email complaints, restructurings, office changes).”

(China) “I have had a previous senior administrator tour in a small Defense Attaché Office but now I am an administrator in a large office. I sometimes feel that I am not being used to my fullest potential. My biggest challenge is not comprehending the language well. I was only able to have one month of language training prior to arrival.”

(Belgium) “I love the Defense Attaché System but find that, in 5.5 years, I still don’t know many of the people in it who can get things done or where their offices are. That has rendered me much less effective. It doesn’t help that (the headquarters) office symbols are changed every year....”

(Ethiopia) “Military branch human resource services need lots of improvement. Regulations should be updated giving more leeway to people in our condition. How can I update my promotion package with this type of support from Ethiopia? We only receive on funded trip to Germany from Africa for two years of service while State Department employees get two for the same time service to the United States.”

Surprisingly, one administrator did have a positive comment about headquarter support. Notice, that the administrator perceived outstanding headquarters support and thus had greater satisfaction.

(South Korea) “Like most military leaders, the Defense Attaché leaders speak very highly of their field or area of operation. The Defense Attaché System is the only job I have ever had that backs their lofty claims to quality of life and family support, and job satisfaction. I am impressed.”

Job Comparison

Some of the Department of Defense administrators commented that comparison to previous military jobs was quite difficult. Therefore, to these individuals, answering the items honestly proved challenging. Consider the following:

(Vietnam) “Comparing my last job to this one with the response provided quite honestly cannot be done. Each job offered its own freedoms and work objectives. Let me station that this job allows me to work independently to an extent and I am allowed to set work objectives on my own to an extent. Prioritizing is easy additional requirements the only things that do tend to get in the way.”

Intrinsic Job Satisfaction.

While role discretion, role clarity and self efficacy may have had the greatest effect on the administrator’s satisfaction, the job of Department of Defense administrator in an embassy

setting itself seemed to bring satisfaction from the perceived importance of the job regarding US national security. Consider the following comments by the administrators (both positive and negative):

(Botswana) “Attaché duty has been a very rewarding experience. It’s not for everybody, but if you and your family want to experience different cultures and take the good with the bad, this is the place to be.”

(Tajikistan) “I feel that the job I am doing here is very important for the United States and Tajikistan.”

(Belgium) “The Defense Attaché System is one of the best assignments from a job satisfaction stand point as you may see very often see positive results almost immediately.”

(New Zealand) “I love my job! What a wonderful opportunity!”

(Poland) “Working in the Defense Attaché System has given me the highest job satisfaction of any other position I have held in any unit in the Army and quite possibly is the reason that I chose to remain in the Army.”

(Ethiopia) “Each day I wake up and say to myself, I love my job. They will have to drag me out of here.”

(China) “Working in Beijing has been the most exciting and challenging tour in my 22 years in the Army. I have completed tasks I never thought possible in the Army. I.E, translate for a possible defector, cut up a US Navy EP-3 plane, help with POW/MIA recovery missions, meet the President/Secretary of Defense and patrol Tiananmen Square.”

(Kosovo) “Living and working in Kosovo is a great experience. Not only to I get to work with the State Department, but also with the military forces assigned to

headquarters, Kosovo Forces. Additionally I have an opportunity to work with individuals assigned to the UN.”

Conversely, when the administrator felt the job was beneath his abilities, satisfaction plummeted.

(Norway) “We perform the duties of a private and get the respect of a private at this post. There is no incentive to do more than the bare minimum. The chain of command does not promote a good working environment.”

(Mali) “I feel that the jobs of the senior administrator and the administrator are thankless ones. We’re expected to and do more work than the attaches and most other people in the embassy. Defense Attaché Office support staff, in my opinion, are regarded as nothing more than secretaries by some attaches and embassy personnel. I sometimes feel that some of the work/tasks I must do are beneath me – some admin related duties are better suited for junior enlisted personnel. Attaches in general, seem helpless to take care of simple tasks on their own (making copies, etc). Also, many attaches in my experience, are not very effective (this may be due to my background) and cannot seem to keep up with their own paperwork and reports.

Limitations

Since all data collected for use in this study was self-reported, single method variance could have affected the results of the investigation. Although the general condemnations of self-report methods have been found exaggerated (Crompton & Wagner, 1994), The study did use reverse polarity in the psychological adjustment scale to make it more difficult for the respondents to give uniform answers. This reverse polarity may generate more reliable responses as it lessens the problem of respondents depending on a cognitive set of rules in evaluating items intended to measure constructs that are supposed to be conceptually different (Lord & Maher, 1991).

As shown in previous research (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986), having the Department of Defense Administrators answer questions through a self reported questionnaire could lead to a compressed response range. (I.e. giving answers they think should be desirable instead of their actual feelings). To check for this mono-method bias, the researcher subjected the data to statistical analyses designed to test for single method variance bias. One of the most common tests available for examining mono-method bias is Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986). Based on this test, all variables are hypothesized to load on a single factor representing the common method. Therefore, the researcher conducted Principal Components factor analysis on all variables. The results showed no serious concerns for mono-method bias.

Furthermore, although expatriate adjustment is considered to be a process over time (*cf.* Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Church, 1982; Furnham & Bochner, 1986), the method employed here only used measures of the average levels of adjustment and language ability for the investigated group of Department of Defense Administrators at a certain point in time. A longitudinal approach may have produced a more rich data source. On the other hand, longitudinal studies pose other serious methodological challenges (*cf.* Menard, 1991).

It was beyond the scope of this dissertation to completely develop a validated questionnaire (scale) that would focus completely pertinent items on Defense Department administrators. In fact, three or four of the respondents noted that their psychological adjustment for that day may have been different than if they took the test one or two days later (one respondent stated that the day he answered the questionnaire happened to be a “good day.”). Time and distance limitations prohibited any initial sampling and revising of the items. Therefore, the researcher chose scales that most closely matched what the researcher was trying to measure.

Department of Defense administrators do not interact with host nationals at the office in the host national's native language. Therefore, the administrators may associate adjustment to interaction with host nationals at the office (in their own language) with the items of the questionnaire from Black's (1988) scale. Therefore, the adjustment to interaction with host nationals may be a little skewed and thus no significant association between any of the independent variables occurred. In reality, adjustment to interaction with host nationals may not be complete if the administrator has not adjusted to interaction with host nationals in the culture itself.

Some of the respondents stated that they had difficulty comparing their current job of Department of Defense administrator to other previous military jobs (some administrators from the Air Force had previously been aircraft mechanics). This failure to compare jobs may have skewed the results.

Additionally, as seen in this study, the local national working at the embassy expects to conform to American culture when interacting with the Department of Defense administrator and not vice versa. This situation may, in fact, inhibit the expatriate's general cultural adjustment as the rest of the host nation society expects the expatriate to conform to their culture (exactly opposite as it is in the work place). This situation may have been the reason that no significant correlation occurred between the independent variables and interaction with host national adjustment.

While this research (holding the position constant while changing the cultural context) can be replicated to a certain extent, the fact that Department of Defense administrators work in an almost identical home cultural context (the embassy) may be difficult (but not impossible) to replicate. To find a similar type of environment, future researchers may look toward multinational corporations who have a large number of expatriates in a single office. As a

personal example, the researcher had a friend who worked as an auditor in Moscow for Booz, Allen and Hamilton. While the streets of Moscow below his office operated in a Russian cultural context, the friend and his 24 American expatriates operated and worked in a completely American cultural context. Once they stepped outside of the office, they had to adjust their mental roadmaps to the Russian cultural context.

Implications

Implications for future research

The effects of internet use on the adjustment of the expatriate and subsequently his/her satisfaction on the job remains an open area for expatriate research. The internet brings with it the ability to stay connected to the host country, family and friends like never before and may need to be included as a factor in the expatriate's general adjustment. Therefore, the expatriate who would otherwise fail due to loneliness, can stay connected with home. This may have an affect on the administrator's general adjustment not seen in studies in the mid-90's and before.

While interaction with host nationals adjustment may still adequately measure a part of the expatriate's adjustment, further research may better define adjustment to interaction with host nationals when local national coworkers speak the host nation's language with the expatriate at the office and when they speak only in the expatriate's native language at the office. Speaking only the host nation's language with the expatriate may assist the expatriate's general adjustment and psychological adjustment since the expatriate must speak the host nation's language in life's daily activities.

Since many of the Department of Defense Administrators drew satisfaction from how important they felt their job was to US national security, researchers may wish to see how an expatriate's perception of the importance of his or her job affects the employee's satisfaction and possibly his/her work effectiveness.

As the administrator gains more assignments and promotions in the Defense Attaché System, the administrator has more say so (choices) on where he/she will go on another overseas assignment. The ability to choose a particular assignment may accelerate the expatriate's socio-cultural adjustment since the expatriate has "taken ownership" of the assignment process. Administrators on their first assignment, where overseas assignment choices were limited, may have mental roadblocks toward adjusting to an assignment not to his/her particular liking.

Further research may wish to determine how quickly the expatriate adjusts to his/her new assignment based on how clear the expatriate thought his/her expectations were from his/her boss upon arrival in the new assignment overseas. As seen in this study, administrators who received clear directions on what constitutes satisfactory performance were more likely to adjust quicker, and become more effective, satisfied workers.

Further research may wish to determine how the company views itself (subsidiary, joint venture, national/international) affects the expatriate's adjustment to work and interaction with host nationals. Foreign offices which run under the same cultural context as the main office may assist the expatriate's work adjustment more than foreign offices run under the host nation's cultural context.

Since comments from the Department of Defense administrators indicated that language efficiency/deficiency contributed/detracted from their ability to adjust and become more effective workers, future research may help researchers understand the effect of belief in one's language ability (across many languages while holding the job constant) on socio-cultural adjustment and work effectiveness.

Since some administrators in the survey indicated that their answers to psychological adjustment items could be affected by season (winter) or whether they had a good or bad day, future research into expatriate adjustment may wish to ask respondents to indicate their mood on the day they took the questionnaire.

Researchers may wish to further delineate expatriates who can clearly understand the differences between their current work and previous work and its affect on socio-cultural adjustment. In this study, some expatriates could not compare the administrator work to previous work and therefore had difficulty in answering some items.

Implications for Practice

The design of this study was to determine how multinational corporations can assist in the adjustment of expatriates of one particular specialty across many cultures. The researcher studied his own particular specialty, Department of Defense administrators in embassies, in hopes of applying the principles learned to multinational corporations. The researcher believes at the heart of expatriate adjustment process is the relationship of the expatriate to his/her immediate supervisor whether in country or elsewhere. In this study, Defense Attaches who clearly defined the role of the administrator in their office caused the administrator to adjust quicker, become more effective and thus more satisfied. Therefore, expatriates must first understand exactly what their bosses expect of them. Undefined, broad objectives clearly overload and overstress the expatriate. While entry into a new market may take on these work objectives, multinational corporations with established presence in countries need to clearly define “success” for the expatriate (mid to lower level expatriates particularly).

Secondly, those recruiting from countries with an internal locus of control, self-efficacy of the recruit should be a major factor in determining which employee to send overseas. Self-efficacy,

along with an “others” orientation (Teagarden and Gordon, 1995), should make a better selection criterion, than sole relying on past performance to predict future success.

Thirdly, pre-departure training need not be all encompassing to be effective in assisting the expatriate’s adjustment. In this study, the administrator did not feel that his/her training enabled him/her to accomplish all tasks but gave him/her a good start. Another key in the adjustment of the expatriate is to provide a network of sponsors (expatriates familiar with the job and the culture) to which the expatriate can tap in to when the expatriate is frustrated with a lack of adjustment. These sponsors need not be in the host country but must be accessible to the expatriate through the company’s intranet or internet.

Fourth, multinational companies must provide ethical (whistle blower) training for future expatriates in order to deal with conflicts of guidance between the corporate headquarters and the local leadership. In this study, administrators felt torn between following the Defense Attaché (do as I say) and conflicting headquarters guidance due to fears of poor evaluations. The researcher is sure that this type of conflict happens at foreign offices of multinational firms also.

This ethical

training will help the expatriate to make wise choices, reducing role overload and role conflict and thus inhibiting socio-cultural adjustment, work effectiveness and satisfaction.

Fifth, multinational companies should provide appropriate language training to assist the expatriate in his/her adjustment. This language training can be given before or after arrival or a combination of both. A strong ability to communicate in the host country’s language can boost the expatriate’s confidence in himself/herself and thus facilitate adjustment.

Conclusion

While holding the Department of Defense Administrator’s job constant, The study tested the effect of total time as administrator, role clarity, role discretion, role overload, role conflict, and

self-efficacy on the socio-cultural adjustment, psychological adjustment, work effectiveness, and satisfaction of the Department of Defense Administrator (the expatriate in the study).

Results of the research confirmed that those expatriates who clearly understand their role in the organization and what constitutes successful performance can accomplish anything when the expatriate has strong self efficacy. Training, while an important part of any expatriates' performance, does not establish the way ahead once the expatriate arrives. At the heart of a successful, well adjusted expatriate is a strong-two way communication between the expatriate and his/her boss.

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Appendix
Survey Instrument

Country of Assignment: _____

A. Background Data

1. How long have you served as an Operations NCO/OPSCO in the Defense Attaché System?
_____ Years _____ Months.
2. How long have you served at your current location?
_____ Years _____ Months.
3. What is your educational level? _____
_____ High School Diploma _____ Some College _____ BA/BS _____ MS/MA _____ PhD
4. What is your age?
_____ 20 – 29 _____ 30 – 39 _____ 40 – 49 _____ 50 - 59
5. How many support personnel are at your DAO? _____ (Always count OPSCO as support personnel no matter the circumstance)
6. What is the ratio of support personnel to attaches at your DAO? _____ (i.e. two support personnel and four attaches would be 2/4; Count OPSCO's as support personnel)

B. Adjustment: The following questions ask about various adjustments to your current assignment

Using a scale of 1 to 7 rate the following items: (1 = Not adjusted at all; 2 = Very Unadjusted; 3 = Much less adjusted; 4 = Somewhat adjusted; 5 = Moderately adjusted; 6 = Well Adjusted; 7 = Very Well Adjusted) (Use N/A (not applicable) where appropriate)

7. How adjusted are you to your job and responsibilities? _____
8. How adjusted are you to working with your local national coworkers? _____
9. How adjusted are you to getting around in your city? _____
10. How adjusted are you to working with local national outside the embassy? _____
11. How adjusted are you to eating food in your country? _____
12. How adjusted are you to the weather in your country? _____
13. How adjusted are you to interacting with the local nationals in general? _____
14. How adjusted are you to shopping in your country? _____
15. How adjusted are you to supervising local nationals? _____
16. How adjusted are you to generally living in your country? _____
17. How adjusted are you to leisure activities in your country? _____

C. Feeling: The following questions ask how you feel about yourself in your current assignment

Using a scale of 1 to 4 rate the following items: (1=Not at all; 2=No more than usual; 3=Rather more than usual; 4=Much more than usual)

18. Have you been able to concentrate on whatever you're doing? _____
19. Lost much sleep over worry? _____
20. Feel constantly under strain? _____
21. Felt you couldn't overcome your difficulties? _____
22. Been feeling unhappy or depressed? _____
23. Been losing confidence in yourself? _____
24. Been thinking of yourself as a worthless person? _____
25. Felt that you were playing a useful part in things? _____
26. Felt capable of making decisions about things? _____
27. Been able to enjoy your normal day to day activities? _____
28. Been able to face up to problems? _____
29. Been feeling reasonably happy, all things considered? _____

D. Work: The following questions ask you how you feel about your duties.

Using a scale of 1 to 5 rate the following items: (1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= Not Sure; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly agree)

30. This job is excessively demanding. _____
31. There is insufficient time to do my job. _____
32. I find it hard to balance headquarters and office needs. _____
33. I receive contradictory demands from headquarters and attaches. _____
34. I receive contradictory orders from headquarters leadership and local leadership. _____
35. My job's goals are clear. _____
36. I know what my responsibilities are. _____
37. I have clear instructions on how to do my job. _____
38. I have sufficient information to get my job done. _____
39. The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the financial parts of my job. _____
40. The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the administrative parts of my job. _____
41. The Joint Military Attaché School prepared me well to perform the logistical parts of my job. _____
42. I am satisfied with my job. _____
43. I am satisfied with my performance. _____
44. I enjoy working with my coworkers. _____
45. My efforts are appreciated. _____
46. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself. _____
47. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them. _____
48. In general, I think that I can obtain outcomes that are important to me. _____
49. I believe I can succeed at most any endeavor to which I set my mind. _____
50. I will be able to successfully overcome many challenges. _____
51. I am confident that I can perform effectively on many different tasks. _____
52. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well. _____
53. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well. _____
54. Before I moved, I used to e-mail my predecessor at least every two weeks (on average)

- to familiarize myself with the situation at the new assignment. _____
55. I am effective at my job. _____
56. My assignment's culture is the same as American culture _____
57. Knowing the host country's language would help me perform better. _____

Using a scale of 1 to 4 rate the following items: (1= much less than my previous job; 2= less than my previous job; 3=the same as my previous job; 4=much more than my previous job)

E. Freedom: the following questions ask how free you feel to do your job

58. I am free to act independently. _____
59. I can set my own work objectives. _____
60. I can prioritize my work. _____
61. I can talk to anyone at the embassy/headquarters to get my job done. _____

Any additional comments you wish to add: _____
