STRESS PROBLEMS OF EXPATRIATES IN

MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISES IN CHINA

Kim, Oi Mei KUOK

Thesis submitted as partial requirement for the conferral of

PhD in General Management, Strategy and Entrepreneurship

Supervisor:

Prof. Nelson Santos António, ISCTE- Instituto Universitário de Lisboa, Departamento de Marketing, Operações e Gestão Geral

May 2012

ISCTE ⬡ **Business School**
Instituto Universitário de Lisboa

STRESS PROBLEMS OF EXPATRIATES IN MULTINATIONAL ENTERPRISES IN CHINA

Kim, Oi Mei KUOK

Resumo

Este estudo é longitunal e utiliza métodos quantitativos e qualitativos para investigar as causas potenciais de stress dos expatriados a trabalhar na China. As perspectivas de carreira futura e a exposição à China foram as razões principais para os expatriados aceitarem ir para este país. A amostra apresenta também pontuação mais elevada no respeitante à China e à satisfação do trabalho do que à satisfação com a organização. A atitute em relação ao trabalho dos empregados chineses é o preditor mais negativo para todos os três tipos de satisfação. Os relacionamentos e o reconhecimento foram os outros dois preditores mais negatives enquanto o não apoio da sede e a "vigarice" foram os preditores positivos mais importantes para explicar a satisfação com o emprego. Para além da atitude dos Chineses em relação ao trabalho, os relacionamentos e o clima organizacional foram os preditores negativos mais importantes, por sua vez, a responsabilidade pessoal, o balaceamento entre trabalho e casa, a envolvente de negócios na China, constituíram os preditores positivos mais importantes para a satisfação organizacional. Trabalhar com os Chineses foi outro preditor negativo enquanto a responsabilidade pessoal, o não apoio da sede, as regras e regulamentos e os diferentes hábitos constituíram os preditores mais positivos para a satisfação com a China. Foram também realizadas análises para as causas do stress dos expatriados originários da Ásia e de países não asiáticos e comparações entre os géneros. Foram ainda indicadas as limitações do estudo assim como as implicações para as Empresas Multinacionais e para o Governo Chinês. Futuras investigações foram também indicadas.

Palavras Chave: Expatriados, Stress, China, Satisfação

Classificação JEL:
J8 (Labor Standard: National and International)
M1 (Business Administration)

Abstract

This study is a longitudinal study employing both quantitative and qualitative methods in investigating the potential sources of stress for expatriates relocated to China. Future career and China exposure were the most important and the second most important reasons for the sample to accept the China assignment. The sample also scored higher in China and job itself satisfaction than organization satisfaction. Work attitude of local employees was the core negative predictor for all three satisfaction types for the entire sample. Relationships and recognition were the other two significant negative predictors while non-supportive headquarters and cheating were the significant positive predictors for job itself satisfaction. Besides work attitude of local employees, relationships and organization climate were significant negative predictors while personal responsibility, home/work balance, hassles and Chinese business environment were the significant positive predictors for organization satisfaction. Working with Chinese was the other significant negative predictor while personal responsibility, non-supportive headquarters, rules and regulations, and different habits were significant positive predictors for in China satisfaction. Analyses of stress sources were also made between expatriates coming from Asian and non-Asian countries, and also the two gender groups. Limitations of the study were laid out and implications for MNEs, China government and future research were also discussed.

Key words:
Expatriates, stress, China, satisfaction

JEL classification:
J8 (Labor Standard: National and International)
M1 (Business Administration)

Acknowledgement

I would like to extend my sincere gratitude to all those who participated and helped with this study and to those who truly cared about its completion.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background to the research

The People's Republic of China started its Open Door Policy in 1978. Since then, it gradually became the destination with the largest amount of influx of foreign direct investment. The total amount of utilized foreign direct investment has accumulated to $1153.53 billion at the end of 2011 (USCBC, 2012; Invest in China, 2012). The influx of capital was more in a form to set up manufacturing plants to take advantage at its cheap and sufficient supply of labour; natural resources; and favourable policies to multinational enterprises (MNEs) in the early years. Later on, MNEs also started to target at China's huge market potential rather than its production capacity. It can be seen from a majority of European investors who held a positive attitude toward the market potential of the China market for their global business in 2011 and they were also optimistic about the future growth of their respective sectors in China (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012).

It is not just joint ventures or subsidiaries of MNEs are set up in China. Furthermore, these MNEs also send expatriates to run their China joint ventures or subsidiaries. Literature reported that failure rates of expatriates were high and "the failure occurs more frequently in China than is the case elsewhere" (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986). Relocation to China is a stressful posting for expatriates due to its demanding cultural environment (Teagarden & Gordon, 1995; Selmer, 1998c, 1999, 2001; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008; Cooke, 2009). In addition, although China has attracted a lot of foreign investment and has developed rapidly in the recent decades, its general environment and living quality may still not up to standard, especially in the eyes of

Westerners. Therefore, even though the expatriates are still staying in China, they may not be performing well due to the stress problem (Lanier, 1979; Copeland & Griggs, 1985; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Harvey & Moeller, 2009). Thus, the main purpose of this study is to identify if the expatriate group in China encountered stress, and if so, what the sources are they would bring them stress.

1.2 Research problem and hypotheses

Stress exists when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand upon a person and the demand threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources to meet it (McGrath, 1976). When expatriates are allocated abroad, they experience adjustment on a multi-dimensional level which involves adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host nationals and adjustment to the general non-work environment (Black, 1988, 1990; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Further the work of Black (1988), this study investigates if expatriates in China experienced stress from the above three main sources: work environment, the general non-work environment, and interaction with locals. All fifty-five hypotheses generated in Chapter two are derived from the above mentioned three main areas.

1.3 Justification for the research

A huge number of expatriates came along with the investment of MNEs to China. The sixth national census of China was the first time to include foreigners as targets. A total of 1,020,145 foreign people, including people from Hong Kong, Macau and Taiwan, resided in the territory of China and received census enumeration while the census was conducted in 2010 (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011). Among the total, 204,962 of them came for business and 201,955 came for employment (National Bureau of Statistics of China, 2011).

Therefore, the expatriate population was at least as large as 406,917. Expatriates are relocated overseas for strategic purposes, global workforce development, knowledge transfer and specific projects (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977, 1994; Tung, 1982a; Scullion, 1991; Oddou, Derr & Black, 1995; Downes & Thomas, 1997; Chapel, 1998; Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Tung & Worm, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Yan & Warner, 2002; Hulme, 2006; Bonache and Zarraga-Oberty, 2008). The problems they encountered would directly affect the performance of these MNEs in China, which is a strategic market for many MNEs at the moment (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012). Therefore, stress problem of expatriates cannot afford to be overlooked.

1.4 Methodology

A longitudinal study was conducted with a mixed research method, in which face to face in-depth interviews were first conducted to scrutinize the exact conditions and problems that expatriates were facing, and then data collected from the qualitative study was used as input for developing a questionnaire used in a survey later on. After the survey was conducted and data was analyzed, a second phase of in-depth interviews was conducted to see if variables studied changed over time.

A total of 391 copies of questionnaire were collected and only 370 copies were found useful. Principal component analysis was first performed to condense the idea on both the independent variables and dependent variables. Then, multiple regression analyses was performed to test the hypotheses set in Chapter two to find out the main sources of stress for the entire sample. T-tests was also be performed on the two genders and also as on Asian and non-Asian continent origins to see if they were different in the three satisfaction types studied.

1.5 Outline of this thesis

The following chapters show a more detailed presentation of the entire research. Extensive literature was reviewed and hypotheses were also generated in chapter two. Chapter three shows a more detailed discussion on methodology: data collection, sample information, measures, and different versions of questionnaire. Then tests were performed and major findings are shown in chapter four. Discussions of findings and quotes from interviews were provided to support findings in chapter five. Conclusion was made with implications of the findings for MNEs, for China government, for future research and so as limitations are presented in chapter six.

1.6 Delimitations of scope and key assumptions

As China is the major country receiving the highest inflow of capital worldwide, this study limits itself to investigate potential stress problems of expatriates sent to China rather than to worldwide. That is, the findings may not be relevant to situations in other countries. For the exploratory purpose of the study, there is no restriction on the nationalities and industries the sample belong to. Although both Hong Kong and Macau are the special administrative regions of China, people sent by companies in these two cities to work in mainland China are also considered as expatriates because people in Hong Kong and Macau do believe in such a situation that they work in another place with a different culture if they are sent to work in mainland China. Therefore, people allocated to work in China from Hong Kong and Macau are also counted as expatriates in this study.

1.7 Conclusion

This chapter laid out the basic structure of this thesis. After introducing the background of the study, it introduced the three main areas that the research problem and hypotheses were from. Then, the research was justified. Followed then was the introduction of a brief methodology used in the study. The report was then outlined; delimitations of scope were also given. Based on these foundations, the following chapters proceed as outlined above to provide more details of how the research was conducted.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

After years of isolating itself from the rest of the world, in the 1970s, the sleeping dragon woke up and initiated the Four Modernizations on: industry, science and technology, agriculture, and national defense (Kaye & Taylor, 1997; Warner, 1998). The most influential step, which influenced many lives of modern mainland Chinese and re-joined the Chinese back to the world was the Open Door Policy (Chen, 2001). It was introduced by the former chairman of the People's Republic of China, Mr. Deng XiaoPeng, in 1978. As the name of the policy indicates, China opened itself to the rest of the world and welcomed their investment in China. This started the influx of foreign direct investment (FDI), in the forms of equity joint ventures, contractual joint ventures, wholly foreign-owned enterprises, shareholding ventures and joint resource exploration (USCBC, 2004). Due to cultural and historical reasons, overseas Chinese investors (mainly from Hong Kong and Taiwan) were the main sources of inflow of FDI on mainland China (Tse, Pan & Au, 1997; Warner, 1998; Chen, 2001). Hong Kong and Taiwan together had $60.60 billion of FDI in China in 2009 and it was 67.34% of the total utilized FDI in that year (USCBC, 2011). Since 1995 China became the second largest FDI destination target after the U.S. and finally surpassed the U.S. in 2002 (USCBC, 2004). Since the Open Door Policy, the total amount of utilized foreign direct investment has accumulated to $1153.53 billion at the end of 2011 (See **Appendix A**) (USCBC, 2012, Invest in China, 2012).

A giant country with population of 1.3 billion, investment was attracted to China by its cheap and sufficient supplies of land, labour and natural resources (Tung, 1986; Chen, 1994; Li,

1998; Zhu, Speece & So, 1998; Hulme, 2006; Li & Sheldon, 2010). Most FDI was in light manufacturing sector during the 1980s and early 1990s (Luk and Chiu, 1998; Li & Sheldon, 2010). As much of the general work force upgraded from unskilled to semi-skilled, a larger proportion of the inflows shifted to higher value-added sectors, namely semiconductors, electronics and computer chips (Buckley, 2007; Li & Sheldon, 2010). For example, Taiwan has shifted its investment in China from those labour-intensive, low-technology manufacturing sectors (textiles and garments, food and beverage processing) to more capital-intensive, high-technology products in the electronic and electrical appliance sector (Filatochev, Strange, Piesse & Lien, 2007). In addition, many research and development (R&D) centers have been set up in China from the U.S., India, South Korea and Japan (Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999a; Chen & Dean, 2006). The number of R&D centers surged from 200 to 750 in four years' time (Chen & Dean, 2006). Procter & Gamble, Motorola and Microsoft are examples of companies that have employed an extensive research force in China over the years. All this FDI was a driving force to give China stable and high growth rates in its GDP. China has enjoyed an annual growth rate of 9.70% since the late 1970s (World Bank, 2009).

Subsequently, MNEs have also reallocated their attention on cheap and sufficient manufacturing capacity of China to its huge market potential by setting up their retailers' operations in China (Daniels, Krug & Nigh, 1985; Tse et al., 1997). For example, 57% of the respondents in the European Chambers of business survey 2011 indicated China as an increasingly important strategic market for their global business in 2011 and there were just 40% of respondents shared the same view in a similar survey conducted in 2010 (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012). In a similar survey, 79% of the respondents were optimistic about the future growth in their respective sectors in China (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012). By setting their retailers' operations in China, MNEs have to enhance the services

provided by their employees. Therefore, through both company training and experiential workplace-based learning, MNEs have contributed substantially to skills development of local employees (Gamble, 2006). On the other hand, Resources Global Professionals, a firm providing consultancy services to its clients, expanded to China to serve its international clients. Donald Murray, the chairman of Resources Global Professionals, believed the Chinese companies would become the main clients in China in a long run (Cremer, 2005). Besides production sector, foreign investment has also expanded to service sectors, e.g., securities brokerage and legal services (USBC, 2004).

2.2 Entry Modes of MNEs

A company can enter a foreign market through wholly-owned subsidiaries, acquisitions, joint ventures, licenses and franchises, agents and distributors, and representative offices. The actual mode chosen depends on overall attractiveness of the market; political and operational risks involved; government requirements; cultural distance; time pressures; internal capabilities of the firm to enter and develop local resources, assets and competencies in order to gain and sustain competitive advantage; and costs/benefits analysis and the expected return on investment (Davidson & McFetridge, 1985; Kim & Hwang, 1992; Lasserre, 2003). China did not allow MNEs to use all these entry modes when it first opened its market in 1978 (Buckley, Clegg & Tan, 2003). It gradually released the freedom of entry mode choices (Buckley, 2007). Specifically, majority of foreign firms preferred to set up shop in the Open Cities (48.7%) and special economic zones (SEZs) (44.5%) where laws and policies are more explicitly specified, and infrastructure is comparatively better planned and built during the earlier years of the market reform in China (Tse, Pan & Au, 1997).

Table 2.1 shows a summary of the different entry modes in China. Among the different entry modes, wholly-owned subsidiaries, acquisitions and joint ventures usually require MNEs to send more expatriates to the operations in China.

Table 2.1: Summary of Different Entry Modes

Entry Modes / Features	Wholly-owned subsidiaries	Acquisitions	Joint Ventures	Licensing & Franchising	Local Agents & Distributors	Representatives
Advantages:	- Tight control & protection of technology - Full management control all decisions & profits - Entitled to all profits - Need to recruit & train staff by themselves	- Immediate presence, availability of resources, assets & competencies	- The method of FDI with the longest history in China - Can enjoy some incentive policies - Can invest in encouraged and restricted sectors - Sharing investment costs & capitals - Access local details from partners	- Quicker entry methods - Less investment & commitment - Stable income	- Mostly export - Less investment & commitment	- Preparation stage: conduct market research; promote parent company; conduct business liaison activities; foster technology exchanges
Disadvantages:	- Only allowed since 1990s - Prohibited & restricted sectors are not allowed to enter - A longer time to set u - Need higher government levels approval	- Corporate cultural conflicts - May inherit the poor culture of the acquired companies - Difficult to evaluate the potential companies being acquired	- Conflicting goals with partners -Sharing of management & profits - May inherit low quality staff from partners - Less responsive to environmental changes than wholly-owned subsidiaries	- Nurture future competitors - Quality control problem	- More rely on local agents & distributors - Conflict of interest	- Cannot conduct profit-making activities on behalf of its foreign parent companies
Expatriates	- Need to send more expatriates to manage & control	- Need to send more expatriates to manage & control	- Need to send more expatriates to manage & control - Expatriates need to be selected carefully as they have many chances to work with the local partners	- Need to send expatriates, i.e., engineers, for technology set up or transfer	- Need not to send expatriates	- May need to send expatriates or simply hire locals

Source: Lassere, P. (2003).

2.2.1   *Wholly-Owned Subsidiaries*

The full control over the operations and the full ownership to the investment and profitability make the entry mode of wholly-owned subsidiaries attractive. An MNE should prepare itself by getting familiarize the legal, institutional, commercial and relational environment of the country that it is entering (Lasserre, 2003). China is well known as one of the legal systems that is very complicated and not yet well developed in this world. On the other hand, guanxi development, as an important component in the relational environment, is needed in any business relationship and it is difficult for foreigners to handle this relationship (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Chen, 1994, 2004; Chen, 2001; Zimmermann, Holman & Sparrow, 2003; Vu, 2005; Wilson & Brennan, 2010).

MNEs need to conduct a feasibility study which is to study the real estate, construction, project management, sourcing, recruitment, incorporation, registrations, financing, fiscal and legal matters that would be related to the investment before they set up a new wholly owned subsidiary in a new market. A feasibility study is one of the requirements that the MNEs have to conduct in order to seek approval of the investment from the China side (USCBC, 2011). Unlike joint ventures, wholly owned subsidiaries have to do recruitment and training by themselves in China (Goodall & Warner, 1998; Buckley et al., 2003; USCBC, 2011). These MNEs have to rely on sending expatriates as top managers to these wholly owned subsidiaries (Buckley et al., 2003). Able to select expatriates with in-depth knowledge of the country entering, e.g., China, and good cross-cultural communication skills are vital for the success of the wholly-owned subsidiaries (Lasserre, 2003). Wholly-owned subsidiary is the best method in terms of control, management of all decisions, ownership of profit and protection of technology know how in the interests of the MNEs invested in China (USCBC, 2011). However, it was not an official

method allowed and welcome by the Chinese government until 1990s (Yan & Warner, 2002; Buckley, 2007). It also takes a longer time to enter a market, e.g., China, through wholly-owned subsidiaries (USCBC, 2011).

China divides its industries into three basic categories: encouraged, restricted, and prohibited (China Market Intelligence, 2008). Encouraged industries are those permit MNEs to set up their wholly-owned subsidiaries (China calls these MNEs wholly-owned subsidiaries wholly-foreign-owned enterprises), e.g., high tech sectors, environmentally friendly and energy-saving technologies. Usually preferential policies, e.g., tax-related policies, are provided to encourage investment. Restricted industries are those industries that are limited to equity or contractual joint ventures if MNEs want to invest in these areas, e.g., chemicals, auto parts, edible oil processing sectors. The local Chinese partners may take the majority of the share and these projects are usually required higher-level government approvals, e.g., national government and provincial government. Prohibited industries are those foreign investment are not allowed to enter. Media-related industries, like print and publishing, film and TV production, and internet content are some examples of prohibited industries (Zhao & Hu, 1998; China Market Intelligence, 2008). In other words, there are certain sensitive areas that MNEs cannot pursue activities in China through wholly-owned subsidiaries (Zhao & Hu, 1998). Wholly-owned subsidiaries can be set up through greenfields or acquisitions.

China has become a country with a dominating presence of foreign-owned corporations (Ayala, Lai, Mok, Wei & Zhang, 1996; Buckley, 2007). The fast growing of competitors in a market means it is getting more difficult to capture a post in the market if a player enters the market late. In this case, many MNEs prefer to use other entry modes, e.g., joint ventures, which

provide faster access to the China market. Then, they can build their distribution network fast and enhance their momentum in the core markets and then the other markets in the country. After their presence in the China market and also after China loosen its regulations to prevent the establishment of wholly-owned subsidiaries, many MNEs, e.g., Mitsubishi, Siemens and Nestle, have changed their joint ventures into wholly owned subsidiaries (Buckley, 2007). Although the number of wholly-foreign-owned enterprises has begun to outnumber sino-foreign joint ventures since 1997 (Yan & Warner, 2002) and the wholly-foreign-owned enterprises occupied 79.97% of the total FDI in 2009, many MNEs which first entered China through joint-venture find changing to another form of ownership difficult when these MNEs expand in a later stage (Buckley et al., 2003).

2.2.2   Acquisitions

Acquisition allows a foreign firm to have an immediate presence, availability of resources, assets and competencies that saves time than through establishment from greenfields. It is a good choice if the target market is already being occupied by other players (Lasserre, 2003). MNEs with less international experience are less likely to use acquisitions but the likelihood becomes higher when the MNEs are expanding to culturally distant countries (Slangen & Hennart, 2008). Research proves a strong negative association between cultural distance and entry mode choice for US-based MNEs (Tihanyi, Griffith & Russell, 2005). There are supports to show that cross-border acquisitions perform better in the long run when both the acquirer and the acquired come from countries that are culturally distant to each other (Chakrabarti, Gupta-Mukherjee & Jayaraman, 2009). However, Reus and Lamont (2009) found cultural distance has both positive and negative effects on acquisitions performance. On the negative side, cultural distance hinders understandability of key capabilities that need to be transferred. It also constrains communication between acquirers and the acquired. All these have

13

negative indirect effect on acquisition performance. On the positive side, cultural distance enriches acquisitions by enhancing the positive effects of understandability and communication on acquisition performance (Reus & Lamont, 2009). MNEs with diversified products like to expand overseas through acquisitions than greenfields while MNEs intend to transfer large amounts of technological know how to the subsidiaries are more likely to choose greenfields (Slangen & Hennart, 2008).

After the acquisitions, internal problems, particularly the corporate cultural conflicts, may exist as there are two identities joined together through the process. The cross corporate cultural conflicts create stress to both managers and employees in areas of lower trust, commitment, satisfaction, and productivity, and increase absenteeism, turnover, and attitudinal problems (Buono, Bowdich & Lewis, 1985; Nahavandi & Malekzedah, 1988; Schweiger & Walsh, 1990; Schweiger & Denisi, 1991; Nikandrou, Papalexandris & Bourantas, 2000; Larsson & Lubatkin, 2001). Knowledge transfer usually takes place from the acquirer to the acquired right after the acquisition but the direction of transfer will be in the reverse direction over time (Bresman, Birkinshaw & Nobel, 2010).

When China first opened its market to foreign companies for investment, it did that gradually. During that time, joint ventures were the only method allowed in which the local partner can keep an eye on the performance of the joint ventures. Therefore, neither wholly-owned subsidiaries nor acquisitions were allowed until the 1990s. When China reformed state owned enterprises (SOEs) in 1990s, it sold many of them in low prices. Acquisitions in China are still not easy unless the Chinese party wishes to offload a quantity of their assets to the incomers (Buckley, 2007). However, SOEs are usually over-diversified and difficult to

evaluate their performance due to their not standardized accounting procedures. Although it may allow many MNEs to access the China market much quicker, it is still a difficult and costly entry mode to take place in the China market (Buckley, 2007).

2.2.3   Joint Ventures

China adopted the closed door policy since the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949. It only re-opened its market in 1978 (Warner, 1998). Then, it welcomes foreign investment in China with limited accessibility. MNEs were only allowed to enter the Chinese market through joint ventures during the early years of the market reform for the purposes of gaining both capital inflow and expertise exchange (Tse, Pan & Au, 1997; Warner, 1998; Yan & Warmer, 2002; Buckley et al., 2003; Puck, Holtbrugge & Mohr, 2009). To attract more MNEs to set up joint ventures in China with local partners, the Chinese government used incentives like tax holidays and import duty exemptions for essential production equipment and materials (Zhang, 1999). It is also proved that as China gained more experience as a host country for FDI, MNEs adopted more equity-based ventures in China (Tse et al., 1997). Wholly-owned foreign ventures were allowed to set up since 1992, which is 15 years after the market liberalization. In strategically sensitive sectors like media, telecoms, defense or legal professions, foreign investment is still prohibited or the foreign investor is obliged to enter a joint venture with a local firm (Lasserre, 2003). In other words, joint-venture is the only method that MNEs can use if they want to invest in those restricted sectors in China (China Market Intelligence, 2008).

Joint venture is a cooperative partnership in which organizations share investment costs, risks, management, and profits in the development, production, or selling of products (Yan &

Warner, 2002; Bovee & Thill, 2008). Sharing is the core concept of joint venture. It is also both the advantage and disadvantage. Sharing is an advantage in the sense that both parties would bring in capital, assets, human capital, know-how and network to complement what the other party is lacking. As a result, synergy is emerged. Local knowledge of local partner (Beamish, 1989; Chen, 1994; Zhao and Zhu, 1998), their distribution networks (Davidson, 1987; Chen, 1994; Yan & Warner, 2002) and knowledge to work with government and "red-tape" (Sutter, 2000) are the attractiveness for foreign partners to set up joint ventures with local partners in China. In general, joint ventures can realize sales volumes much quicker than a new wholly-owned affiliate (Davidson, 1987). It is a better entry method in terms of greater revenues, lower costs, and less risk (Davidson, 1987).

Puck, Holtbrugge and Mohr (2009) found support that the foreign international joint venture partner increases its likelihood to convert from a joint venture to a wholly owned subsidiary in China (1) when it acquires more local knowledge, or (2) when there is a reduction in the level of perceived external uncertainty. However, if the foreign partner is from a culturally distant country, the joint venture is less likely to be converted to a wholly owned subsidiary than if the foreign partner is from a country that is culturally closer to China (Puck, Holtbrugge and Mohr, 2009). Other than sharing resources and knowledge, both parties are sharing the risks of failure too. Sharing is a disadvantage in the sense that profitability, ownership and control are being shared too. Many partners, especially the side, which has more superior technology and know-how, hesitate for a joint venture. Problems still exist even the partners pass the initial stage and a joint venture is set up. Expatriates commented that guanxi was still considered important throughout the development of a joint venture (Wilson & Brennan, 2010). That might explain why when MNEs first entered China through joint ventures, many of them partnered with state-owned enterprises as they might get the guanxi of the

state-owned enterprises with its network. Other than accessing useful guanxi immediately, the joint ventures also needed to "inherit" staff from the local partner, regardless of the quality and know-how of the staff (Goodall & Warner, 1998). Another pitfall of joint ventures is they are less flexible in responding to environmental changes than wholly-owned subsidiaries. For example, Belderbos and Zou (2007) documented such a difference with a large sample of Japanese manufacturing affiliates in nine Asian countries during the years leading up to and into the Asian financial crisis (1995-1999).

Many MNEs are larger, in the sense of capital and technological background, than their emerging market partners. These differences make the partners difficult to have a fair pairing balance in between. For example, foreign partners do not want to give away advanced and proprietary technology to the local joint venture partners as they are afraid being copied (Vanhonacker, 1997) but for the local partners, technology is what they are looking for in the joint venture (Davidson, 1987; Chen, 1994; Warner, 1998). Other born differences, include ownership structure, objectives, culture and management styles, could also make the partnership difficult (Adarkar, Adil, Ernst and Vaish, 1997). The partnership can also be suffered from a lack of consensus on the goals of the joint venture (Buckley et al., 2003). Sometimes both foreign and local parties have different perceptions in terms of profit (Vanhonacker, 1997). The foreign joint venture partners consider China as a key country and enter with market development objectives (Adarkar, Adil, Ernst and Vaish, 1997; Lassere, 2003). To obtain the first mover advantage, they are willing to sustain losses for growth, and they are more willing to reinvest their profits for further expansion (Vanhonacker, 1997). The interest of local parties for immediate profits makes the partners target to different directions. Then, tensions arise.

Another issue that would initiate a tension between partners or worse the existing tension comes from the expatriates sent by the MNEs. Expatriates are sent by MNEs as a means to maintain control of the joint venture (Legewie, 2002; Buckley, 2003). However, many MNEs just select expatriates based on their technical skills rather than the human and cross-cultural skills (Tung, 1987a). To worse the case is most of these expatriates are sent unprepared. Finally, they fail to understand their partner's and employees' logic and exacerbate the tensions (Lasserre, 2003). The lack of support from headquarters put the expatriates at helpless situations.

It takes about 18 months to complete the paper work for setting up a joint venture in China (Zhang, 1995). As a requirement by the China government, a feasibility study that is jointly prepared by the Chinese and foreign investors, has to be conducted before the actual establishment of the join venture (USCBC, 2011). The feasibility study covers information on issues like background of the proposal and economic significance of the investment; market demand and the scale of the proposed project; necessary resources, raw materials, fuel and public utilities; proposed project location and conditions for putting up the factory; project design scheme; environmental protection; organization of production and a fixed number of workers and staff and personnel training; implementation plan for the proposed project; investment estimate and manager of raising funds; estimated product cost; and assessment of economic results (Chen, 1994). In order to attract foreign party to enter the join venture, the local party may exaggerate the results of the feasibility in a positive way (Chen, 1994). Many foreign partners see the difference and complain about it after the joint venture set up.

2.2.4   Licensing and Franchising

Due to the time needed for the above discussed methods, licensing and franchising are other entry modes that many MNEs would use to gain immediate presence in a market or to test the market. In addition, when the market is too small to justify for a full investment or when the market is considered too risky, licensing and franchising are good choices to minimize its commitment and risk. Sometimes, a MNE may have a direct investment in a nearby country and considered an additional one as a duplication of effort. The will of the local government may also make these contractual arrangements the only entry mode allowed (Lasserre, 2003).

Licensing agreements are contractual arrangements allow one company to use some or all of another firm's intellectual property (patents, trademarks, brand names, copyrights, or trade secrets) in return for a royalty payment (Bovee & Thill, 2008). Royalties can be calculated as a percentage of sales or as a fixed amount per unit sold. The licensor may also send its engineers to help in technology set up and transfer, and the licensor would receive technological fees. The contractual agreement may also specify that the licensee has to buy intermediate products or components from the licensor (Lasserre, 2003). A licensor will agree with the licensee the licensing duration. Since licensing is mostly used as a trial to a market before the MNEs fully commits it, a too short of a trial may not acquire the needed experience and knowledge of the foreign market. On the other hand, when the trial is too long, the MNEs may lose the chance of optimal expansion timing (Jiang, Aulakh & Pan, 2009). The immediate presence is attractive. However, licensing to a certain way is to nurture a future competitor in the local and international market. Another possible problem of licensing is quality control as the licensee is entitled to use the intellectual property rights of the licensor. If the licensee is not conscious in quality, that may hurt the reputation of the licensor (Lasserre, 2003). Tse et al. (1997) found about one-fifth of its sample size of 2998 foreign business activities in China was in licensing

agreements with local partners. Japanese firms had a comparatively higher percentage (27.2%) of its firm engaged in licensing. About 25% and 18% of West European and American operations were in licensing agreements with local partners. However, the percentage was much lower for non-Japanese Asian operations (10.2%).

Franchising is another contractual agreement similar to licensing. In franchising, the franchisor allows the franchisee to use its name to operate a business and in return to receive a fixed payment and a royalty. The selling point of franchising is the secrets of success. The franchisor would share the secrets with the franchisees and would also develop operating policies that the franchisees have to follow to ensure the quality of the products/services. Thus, the reputation of the franchisor would not be damaged easily. Franchising can be found in hospitality industry, fast food, beverages and distribution (Lasserre, 2003). Not only till 1997, China's Ministry of Internal Trade promulgated the Administration of the Commercial Franchise Procedures (Grandall Legal Group, 2008). Then, the franchising industry becomes more organized. This method is especially good for international franchisors that do not have the resources or do not want to set up a legal presence in China (Hughes, 2011). However, many well known franchising brands, like McDonald's, KFC and Starbucks, entered the China market by setting up joint ventures or wholly-owned subsidiaries.

2.2.5   *Local Agents and Distributors*

An even less committed entry mode is through a local agent or a distributor. This is a method used by MNEs when they enter risky or small markets. An agent is simply a salesperson and an order-taker, while a distributor provides more logistic services like stocking, transporting and billing. In other words, MNEs simply export their products to a target country. The less

investment and commitment from the MNEs mean they have less contact with the market and they rely on the local agents and distributors for market information. These methods would also lead to the happening of conflict of interest. Distributors are usually remunerated by a commission which is based on the sales amount they can make for the MNEs. MNEs may consider set up its own subsidiary if the sales grow to an amount in which the commission is larger than the cots for setting up a subsidiary. Thus, in order to keep the partnership, the local distributor may not work hard enough to make the sales pass the critical point (Lasserre, 2003).

In a longitudinal sample of 2,998 foreign business activities in China between 1979 and 1993, Tse et al. (1997) found joint ventures (39.8%) and exports (39.0%) were the favorite entry modes chosen by U.S. firms, while majority of Western European firms were in favorite of exports (45.0%) and joint venture (28.0%). That may due to the reason that these Western European firms are famous with the high quality and reputed brand name of their products. Therefore, they preferred to export to rather than produce the products in China. In the same study, joint ventures (38.8%) and exports (31.7%) were the major entry modes for Japanese operations. Non-Japanese Asian operations had the highest percentage of joint ventures (68.8%) and less of them exported to China (17.7%). Exports (35.0%) were the second largest entry mode after joint ventures (41.50%) for the sample of Tse et al. (1997).

2.2.6   *Representatives*

A representative office is another frequently used entry mode with the least investment and commitment from the MNE (Lasserre, 2003). In China, a representative office usually cannot engage in profit-making activities on behalf of its foreign parent company (USCBC, 2011). Their operations in China include conducting marketing research; promoting products of the

parent company; conducting business liaison activities on behalf of its parent company; and fostering technology exchanges (USCBC, 2011). Therefore, many MNEs use it as a stepping stone by sending an expatriate manager to China, to collect information, set up contacts, organize direct sales, lobby for licenses, and negotiate distribution or joint venture agreements. The number of expatriates sent at this stage is limited as this is usually considered as a preparation stage before the MNE transits itself to another entry mode (Lasserre, 2003).

2.3 Expatriates

Although localization is taking place (Kobrin, 1988; Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Yan & Warner, 2002; Hulme, 2006; The Wall Street Journal Asia, 2006) and internationalists are high in demand (Goodwin, 1999), the use of expatriates is still the main way many MNEs fill vacancies in their overseas subsidiaries (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; McEllister, 1998; Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999a), especially for those ethnocentric companies (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1994). Many MNEs prefer to send expatriates instead of hiring locals or third-country nationals (Scullion, 1991) even though the cost of sending is huge (Hulme, 2006; Peltokorpi, 2008). They do so because appropriate talents are not available in the host countries (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Tung, 1982b,1986, 1987a; Kaye & Taylor, 1997; Hulme, 2006; The Wall Street Journal Asia, 2006); they want to transfer tacit knowledge to subsidiaries (Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Bonache and Zarraga-Oberty, 2008) and they want to have direct control on subsidiaries (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977, 1994; Harzing, 2001; Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Legewie, 2002).

Availability of local management talent; familiarity of expatriates about the corporate culture and the control system of headquarters; and the maintenance of trust in key foreign businesses after large international acquisitions are the principal reasons for many MNEs

employing expatriates rather than host-country managers (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Scullion 1991; Yan & Warner, 2002; Hulme, 2006). To a large extent, the use of expatriates helps to eliminate the worries of MNEs (McEllister, 1998) and expatriation also enhances the communications between the parent organization and operations abroad (Rosenzweig, 1994; Boyacigiller, 2000; Harzing, 2001). The expatriates from parent country work as a bridge to transfer headquarters' philosophy, culture and strategy from the parent company to the foreign operations (Downes & Thomas, 1997; Manev & Stevenson, 2001) on top of technologies and know-how (Tung, 1987a; Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999b; Harzing, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Bonache & Brewster, 2001). In addition, they also involve in a direct and indirect control on the foreign operations (Harzing, 2001; Manev & Stevenson, 2001).

2.3.1   *Management Development*

Many MNEs consider international assignments as a means of management development and career advancement (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977, 1994; Tung, 1982a; Scullion, 1991; Oddou, Derr & Black, 1995; Chapel, 1998; Tung & Worm, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002). The dual experience of both working and living abroad and at home allows expatriates to see things from the perspectives of different cultures (Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000), and be sensitive to international opportunities and threats (Boyacigiller, 2000). Of the U.S. Fortune 500 firms that Gregersen and his colleagues surveyed, 85% of the management of these firms did not think they had an adequate number of global leaders (Gregersen, Morrison & Black, 1998). In addition, 67% of the firms thought their existing leaders needed additional skills and knowledge before they met or exceeded needed capabilities. International transfer is one of the strategies to develop global leaders (Tung & Worm, 2001) and also a way for ones to advance in their career development program (Tung, 1987a). These are the reasons why so many MNEs relied on expatriates in their Chinese subsidiaries (McEllister, 1998). Shell

International Petroleum, B.V., headquartered in both London and Hague with a 5,600 expatriate workforce, carried out a survey with 11,000 questionnaires returned from its past, present and future expatriates and their spouses. These respondents believed that global assignments definitely enhanced their professional and personal growth as well as their career possibilities (Solomon, 1996). In other words, most of them viewed international assignment as an advantage for future career.

Yurkiewicz and Rosen (1995) found that 40% of managers believed an overseas assignment would enhance their careers with the current employer. More than that, 78% of them expected it would enhance their opportunities with other companies. Their survey also indicated that most expatriates believed their current employers would not value their international experiences and that they would move to work for other companies after they finished their overseas assignments. Stahl, Miller and Tung (2002) also shared similar findings as Yurkiewicz and Rosen (1995). In a study with 494 German expatriates assigned to 59 countries worldwide as a sample, Stahl, Miller and Tung (2002) found the majority of the German expatriates viewed their international assignment as an opportunity for personal and professional development and career advancement, despite perceived deficits in corporate career management systems and a wide spread skepticism that the assignment could help them advance within their companies. Other than position offered on assignment as the most important reason for expatriates to accept their assignments, potential for leadership skills development; career progression; and potential for job skills development were other important reasons high on the list in a study conducted by Dickman, Doherty, Mills and Brewster (2008). All these are evidences that support the boundaryless careers that expatriates are pursuing. In other words, expatriates do not simply care about the immediate benefits of the overseas assignments can bring them in their current companies, but rather the skills and international experiences that they have gained would help

them for their future careers (Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). This argument is confirmed in a sample of Finnish expatriates that they consider international work is an important learning experience and they enjoy development in knowing-how, knowing-why and knowing-whom career capital, regardless of their contractual types (Jokinen, Brewster & Suutari, 2008). All these development definitely benefit their future careers.

For future managers, Adler (1986) surveyed 1129 graduating MBA students from seven top management schools in the US, Canada and Europe. Eighty-four percent of these future managers would like an international assignment at some time during their careers. Most of these students believed that an international career leads to a more interesting professional life (65.4%) and to a higher salary (63.0%) than a domestic career. In the same survey, the students also believed that a domestic career leads to slightly greater status (47.6%), a more satisfying personal life (38.9%), more rapid career advancement (33.0%), and greater recognition for their work (30.3%) than would an international career.

Retention of expatriates is also worth for further investigation as it is expensive to send people overseas (Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). Spending lots of money to help your competitors to develop useful talent was not a wise strategy (Stahl et al., 2002).

2.3.2 Wanted Policy by the Local Government

Sending expatriates may actually be one of the needed requirements in order to "operate" in the targeted country. For example, the local governments may have certain requirements or

regulations for the number or proportion of expatriates sent by the MNEs. During the early years of the Open Door Policy in China, expatriates were welcome by the Chinese government. Due to the "Closed Door Policy" after the establishment of the People's Republic of China in 1949, the Great Leap Forward in 1950s and the Cultural Revolution in 1960s, the Chinese generation during these periods was hardly having any chance accessible to education. Therefore, China was not able to develop a group of experienced managers with international mind-sets and experiences (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). Managerial personnel were appointed or selected among those workers who were considered both "red" (politically sound) and "expert" (technically competent) (Tung, 1987b). Therefore, managerial skill was one of the core things China wanted from its joint venture (JV) partners (Tung, 1986; Child, 1991; Vanhonacker, 1997; Blackman, 1998; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Zhu, Speece & So, 1998; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002) other than the advanced technology and capital (Chen, 1994; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002). In addition, these expatriates with high consuming power stationed in China could also stimulate the local economy. Technology know-how, jobs and foreign exchange were things looked forward by the Chinese from foreign investors (Vanhonacker, 1997).

2.4 Stress of Expatriates and the Sources

Reviewing literature on expatriates' adjustment, includes extensive of research on expatriates sent to North America (e.g., Canada and the United States), Europe (e.g., France and the United Kingdom) and Asia (e.g., Hong Kong and Japan) (Tung, 1981; McEvoy & Parker, 1995; Usunier, 1998; Selmer, 1998b, 2002). Although China is the top international investment destination (Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008) and it is also reported that "expatriate failure occurs more frequently in China than is the case elsewhere" (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986), research investigating expatriates relocated in China in general is limited (Selmer 1998b; Takeuchi, Wang & Marinova, 2005). The main purpose of this study is to investigate whether

expatriates encounter stress by staying in the People's Republic of China (China) and identify the sources of any stress that is found. China is an old country with a strong culture. Many countries, especially those European and American countries, are culturally different and distant from China (Torbiorn, 1982; Teagarden & Gordon, 1995) and expatriates from these countries would face unique challenges of the Chinese business and cultural environment (McEllister, 1998; Selmer, 1998c). Cultural distance may also affect the stress levels (Parker & McEvoy, 1993; Redmond, 2000).

2.4.1 *Under-performing Expatriates*

Success or failure of expatriates is usually defined that expatriates cannot finish the assignment as the pre-determined duration and need to return home early (Nasif, Thibodeaux & Ebrahimi, 1987). Based on this definition, earlier studies indicated the failure rates of expatriate assignments were high (Misa and Fabricatore, 1979; Copeland and Griggs, 1985; Black, 1988; Shilling, 1993; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). However, none of these studies gave empirical data to support their claims (Harzing, 2002). On the basis of empirical data, Tung (1981) found the average failure rates for Japanese and European MNEs were around 5%, while American MNEs, had an average rate of premature return of 14% (Harzing, 2002).

An average compensation for an expatriate could be as high as $500,000, which includes compensation, housing, schooling, rest-and-relaxation trips, allowances and other benefits. If there is a failure, the cost could be as high as $1 million – including expenses, selection, visiting site trips before accepting assignments, training, relocation, storage, cost-of-living adjustments, and tax equalization (Shilling, 1993; Harvey & Wiese, 1998b; Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999b). For certain cities, like Tokyo, costs for sending an American senior manager alone reach $1

million a year (Fortune, 1988) and costs of relocations to cities like Hong Kong and Beijing are not cheap.

More recent studies extended expatriate failure into a wider scope. Since expatriate failure can also be extended to the loss of productivity, efficiency, sales, market share, market positions to competitors, damage of corporate image and reputation, inability to attract further top candidates to overseas positions, as well as damaged relations with the host-government, local organizations and customers (Harvey, 1985; Tung, 1986; Nasif, Thibodeaux & Ebrahimi, 1987; Black and Gregersen, 1990; Shilling, 1993). The indirect cost of under-performing expatriates can even surpass the direct cost of their early returns (Wederspahn, 1992; Scullion & Collings, 2006; Olsen & Martins, 2009). In addition, these failures in the eyes of expatriates, who had good performance at home, were career setbacks for them (Tung, 1987b; Harvey & Moeller, 2009). A loss of self-esteem and self-confidence can easily result (Tung, 1987a; Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999a). That may lead to future career problems for them. These expatriate failures may even spread in the MNEs and other potential expatriate candidates may reject to take any foreign assignments (Harvey & Moeller, 2009). In addition, many expatriates are sent overseas to serve the strategic purpose of transferring corporate knowledge to overseas subsidiaries, especially when the knowledge being transferred was more in tacit rather than in explicit nature (Bonache & Zarraga-Oberty, 2008). The failure of expatriate assignments or the ineffectiveness of their performance may hinder the MNEs to utilize their knowledge to its worldwide network. As a matter of fact, the MNEs would be less competitive in the worldwide market. That is a loss-loss situation for both the MNEs and the expatriates.

Kealey (1990) found only 20% of those expatriates assigned overseas performed in a highly effective manner. Many under-performing expatriates, called "brownouts", who might not be recalled (Lanier, 1979). Literature reports that as high as 50% of expatriates performing below their normal productivity level are not being recalled by the headquarters (Copeland & Griggs, 1985). Some researchers (Baker, 1975; Lanier, 1979; Tung, 1979; 1986; Stone, 1991; Teagarden & Gordon, 1995; McEllister, 1998; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008) attributed failures to family problems and lack of cultural awareness. Difficulties of finding a replacement and the possible loss of face explain why these under-performing expatriates not recalled home (Scullion, 1991; Selmer & Shiu, 1999). The low performance of expatriates may be due to problems related to family, managers' inability to adjust to a new culture and poor international human resources management (e.g., inappropriate selection criteria, inadequate training, poor job designed, unreasonable performance expectations and inadequate appraisal process) (Lanier, 1979; Scullion, 1991; Naumann, 1992; Suutari & Burch, 2001; Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002).

Sharing the idea from Lanier (1979), Foster (1997) and Olsen and Martins (2009) employed a broader definition for expatriate "failure" rather than simply meaning the group of expatriates who returned home early before finishing their assignments on the predefined terms. The new definition includes: an acknowledgement of the considerable stresses and strains experienced by the expatriate group; the "poaching" of successful managers by other companies while they are abroad or at the end of their overseas assignments; the negative outcomes of repatriation; the negative effects of expatriation on families and on their career prospects and negative views about the prospect of overseas postings in the future. As a result expatriates may still stay abroad due to different reasons while the time experienced stress from different sources

to affect their overseas performance. The purpose of this study is to identify the stress problems the expatriates in China might face.

2.4.2   Sources of Stress

Expatriates being allocated to an unfamiliar culture produced so many unknowns in their family life, social life, and career life, which could lead to stress feelings to the expatriates (Oberg, 1960; Byrnes, 1966; Mendenhall & Oddouo, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1990; DeLeon & McPartlin, 1995; Suutari & Burch, 2001). Forster (1997) found a noticeable increase in reported stress levels of its UK sample of expatriates in a longitudinal study. The ability to deal with stress enhances expatriate adjustment (Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Hammer, Gundykunst & Wiseman, 1978). Expatriates face challenges to both their mental and physical health. For example, Takeuchi, Wang and Marinova (2005) found an inverse u-curve relationship between psychological workplace strain and supervisory rated job performance for both cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses on a sample of expatriates who were allocated to China. Stress coping methods that work in one's home country became obsolete in overseas (Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000). Relocation to China is a stressful posting for expatriates due to its demanding cultural environment (Teagarden & Gordon, 1995; Selmer, 1998c, 1999, 2001; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008; Cooke, 2009). Stress management is a more important characteristic for expatriates than technical competence and relational abilities (Barrett & Bass, 1976; Hammer, Gundykunst & Wiseman, 1978; Hawes & Kealey, 1981; Tung, 1982a; Abe & Wiseman, 1983; Ratiu, 1983; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1986; Shilling, 1993).

2.4.3 Definitions of Stress

According to McGrath (1976), a potential for stress exists when an environmental situation is perceived as presenting a demand upon a person and the demand threatens to exceed the person's capabilities and resources to meet it. Gmelch (1982) shared a similar opinion with McGrath. The key point of this definition is the perception of the inability of an individual to meet the demand made upon him or her.

Lazarus (1995) added the elements of transaction and process to the concept of stress. He considered stress as transactional because both the individual and environment influence each other. Further, only through the evaluation of the individual does stress occur. This is similar to the viewpoint of McGrath (1976) and Gmelch (1982). According to the definition of Lazarus (1995), stress is a process because even if there was originally a good fit between the person and the environment, it is not constant over time. Due to changes in the external environment or even in the person himself/herself, a mismatch may emerge. Then, stress occurs.

When MNEs select expatriates, high performers are usually selected (Miller, 1973). Although a good fit might exist between the expatriate and the environment when he/she was at the home setting, a mismatch may emerge when they are placed in the new environment, in which demands from the work setting and general environment are different from home. As a result stress can be resulted.

2.5 Stress and Expatriates

Holmes and Rahe (1967) developed the *Life Event Rating Scale* by studying 5,000 patient case histories (Refer to **Table 2.2** for the *Life Event Rating Scale*). The study proved that changes in life events of a person cause stress and illness to that person. The effects of the events in the scale are accumulative. For anybody who scored more than 300 points within a year, the chance of developing a serious health problem in the next two years is over 80%. The chance becomes 50% when the score one obtained is between 150 and 300 points. The chance of suffering a serious physical disorder changes to 33% when the score is below 150 points. Findings from the study of Steffy and Jones (1988), and Manning, Jackson and Fusilier (1996) also supported the argument of Holmes and Rahe (1967). A survey conducted with over 3,000 US Navy personnel as the subjects confirmed that life-change data has a causal relationship with illness (Rahe & Arthur, 1968).

Table 2.2: Life Event Rating Scale (Social Readjustment Rating Scale)

Rank	Life Event	Score
1	Death of spouse	100
2	Divorce	73
3	Marital separation	65
4	Jail term	63
5	Death of close family member	63
6	Personal injury or illness	53
7	Marriage	50
8	Fired at work	47
9	Marital reconciliation	45
10	Retirement	45
11	Change in health of family member	44
12	Pregnancy	40
13	Sex difficulties	39
14	Gain of new family member	39
15	**Business readjustment**	**39**
16	**Change in financial state**	**38**

17	Death of close friend	37
18	**Change to different line of work**	**36**
19	**Change in number of arguments with spouse**	**35**
20	Mortgage over $10,000	31
21	Foreclosure of mortgage or loan	30
22	**Change in responsibilities at work**	**29**
23	**Son or daughter leaving home**	**29**
24	Trouble with in-laws	29
25	Outstanding personal achievement	28
26	**Wife begin or stop work**	**26**
27	Begin or end school	26
28	**Change in living conditions**	**25**
29	**Revision of personal habits**	**24**
30	Trouble with boss	23
31	**Change in work hours or conditions**	**20**
32	**Change in residence**	**20**
33	Change in schools	20
34	**Change in recreation**	**19**
35	Change in church activities	19
36	**Change in social activities**	**18**
37	Mortgage or loan less than $10,000	17
38	Change in sleeping habits	16
39	**Change in number of family get-togethers**	**15**
40	**Change in eating habits**	**15**
41	Vacation	13
42	Christmas	13
43	Minor violations of the law	11

Source: Homes T.H. and Rahe, R.H. (1967), pp. 213-218.

Although there are some limitations to the *Life Event Rating Scale*, the scale implies that the sources of stress come from every direction of the individual who experienced it. Those items highlighted in **Table 2.2** are changes that expatriates are very likely would experience when they are assigned overseas. According to the interpretation of Homes and Rahe (1967), expatriates would get a higher chance to develop more serious diseases when they started their relocations overseas.

2.6 Expatriate Adjustments and Stress

Expatriates have attracted quite a lot of scholars to study their adjustment overseas (Cooke, 2009). Adjustment is defined as the degree of a person's psychological comfort with various aspects of a new setting (Oberg, 1960; Nicholson, 1984; Black, 1988). The cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates developed from a unitary concept, which was adjustment to the general environment (Oberg, 1960), to a multi-dimensional concept involving adjustment to work, adjustment to interacting with host nationals and adjustment to the general non-work environment (Black, 1988, 1990; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Black (1988) found empirical evidence in an American sample that expatriate managers not only adjust to the general environment. In a later study, Black (1990) studied a sample of Japanese managers who were on temporary assignment to the United States and findings supported the multi-faceted phenomenon. A lot of later empirical studies support the multi-dimensional approach too (Feldman, 1976; McEvoy & Parker, 1995; Selmer, 1998b, 2006b; Osman-Gani & Rockstuhl, 2008).

All settings in the three areas, work, host nationals and general non-work environment require expatriates energy to deal with. Borrowing the idea from McGrath (1976), if there are situations that the expatriate believe the demand from the three areas are out of his/her capabilities to meet it, then stress occurs. In other words, adjustment of an expatriate is highly related to the stress level he or she experiences in an overseas assignment. Lazarus' (1995) transaction approach also applies to expatriation. Many MNCs choose high performers at home and send them overseas (Miller, 1973). Since there was a match between the work and home environment with the expatriate, the expatriate was a high performer at home. However, as the work environment and the general environment of overseas are very different from home, it is

very likely that a mismatch may happen. According to the transaction approach of Lazarus (1995), stress may emerge. For example, a sample of European expatriates experienced high levels of stress during their assignment in Finland (Suutari & Burch, 2001).

Selmer (1998b) found a significant positive relationship between work adjustment and subjective well-being of expatriates in China. No significant relationships were found for the other two dimensions of adjustment and subjective well-being. Although shared variance is modest ($R2 = 0.11$), it implies that work environment is one of the factors that influences the health of expatriates in China. In a subsequent study, Selmer (2006a) found that expatriates sent to China were the least adjusted group on general, work and interaction adjustment than expatriates sent to Singapore and Hong Kong. Sharing with the same concept, this study investigates if stress of expatriates relocated to China is come from work and China related work sources, general environment, interacting with local people, and local employees related areas.

2.7 Stress from Work and Work Related Sources

2.7.1 Workload

Many expatriates are under stress because of their heavy workload in their overseas assignments (Forster, 1997; Hullinger & Nolan, 1997; Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010). Chinese are used to autocratic managerial style (Chen, 1995). Therefore, the local Chinese workers are less independent in their work decisions and show little initiative in work, which make expatriates difficult to delegate their work (Zimmermann et al., 2003).

Many expatriates are assigned to China to set up the China branches from nil and they are also responsible to train the local staff to run the local branches (Lu & Bjorkman, 1997; Hulme, 2006). The cultural differences with the locals require expatriates extra efforts for the training. Some expatriates complained that they had to spend a lot of time teaching and training the work to their subordinates but the subordinates seldom followed instructions, making the work seldom got done properly on time (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). Lack of computer system, employee files and office structure also increase the workload of expatriates and they have to stay long hours in the office (Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Chao & Sun, 1997). Many MNEs have started the localization process in order to minimize the cost and expatriates are also responsible for the localization (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Hulme, 2006). Expatriates also spend quite a lot of their time on travelling for business purposes (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977; Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010; Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011). On the other hand, time difference is also a problem (Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). Due to the time differences between China and the headquarters, expatriates have to stay long in the office in order to meet (on wire or over the phone) with colleagues at headquarters, or in other cases, they have to be accessible by phone even after work. Many expatriates have computers at home and can access to email and make contact to headquarters during non office hours (Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010). Differences between holidays of the headquarters and in China create similar problems. Meeting customers after office hours and work related travel also consume the private time of expatriates. Therefore, the heavy workload in China would lead expatriate experience stress in which would be manifested in work satisfaction. The following hypotheses are drawn for expatriates in China.

H1: There is no relationship between workload and job itself satisfaction.

H2: There is no relationship between workload and organization satisfaction.

2.7.2   *Home/Work balance*

Home/work balance refers to whether a person is able to switch off from the pressure of work when at home and vice versa (Williams & Cooper, 1998). Literature proves that spillover effects take place for expatriates which means the influence that expatriate attitudes in a particular domain (e.g., work) have on attitudes in other domains (e.g., nonwork) (Takeuchi, Yun & Tesluk, 2002). In other words, expatriates would bring stress and negative emotions from work to home (Netemeyer, Boles & McMurrian, 1996; Forster, 1997) or vice versa (Feldman, 1976; Bhagat, 1983; Harvey, 1985, 1995; Vannoy and Philliber, 1992; Frame and Shehan, 1994; Solomon, 1994; Forster, 1997; Harvey & Buckley, 1998) if they do experience stress in either domain. Edwards, Cockerton and Guppy (2007) proved that spillover took place across domains in which work and nonwork stressors significantly influenced work, nonwork, and general well-being. On the other hand, crossover effects between expatriate and spousal cross-cultural adjustment was also proved (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Crossover effects refer to the influence of expatriate's attitudes on the spouse's attitudes and vice versa.

A positive family situation can enhance the probability of a successful foreign experience (Black & Stephens, 1989). The new foreign environment or culture of the host country can influence the relationship between a couple in a positive way because mutual coping with the same problems or cultural differences may reinforce the relationship (Taylor & Napier, 1996), especially if the trailing spouses are supportive in the way to help the expatriates further their careers and repatriation opportunities by using social strategies (Lauring & Selmer, 2010) and to reconcile work/life balance issues (Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011).   On the other hand, it can make the situation worse if marital problems already exist (Torbiorn, 1982; Fischlmayr &

Kollinger, 2010). Although it is documented that disruption to family/home life causes a great deal of concern to 31% and causes some concern to 64% of expatriates in a sample of UK expatriates (Forster, 1997), non-work related important issues like family situation, dual-careers, support of spouses are still understudied (Stahl et al., 2002).

An adequate balance between personal and professional life is significantly a more important reason to accept foreign assignments in the eyes of expatriates than in the eyes of MNEs (Dickmann et al., 2008). For example, many potential expatriates refuse to relocate internationally because the reluctance of their spouses to give up their own careers or to support expatriates to accept the international assignments (Polegato & Barras, 1984; Barham & Devine, 1990; Reynolds & Bennett, 1991; Harvey, 1996; Solomon, 1996; Dickmann, Doherty, Mills & Brewster, 2008; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008; Makela et al., 2011). MNEs are neither supportive in providing dual-career support to expatriates nor to trailing spouses (Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Suutari & Burch, 2001). In some situations, the whole family has moved to overseas but many expatriates return home early because their spouses or family members cannot adapt to the overseas environment (Tung, 1982a, 1984b; Harvey, 1985; Hullinger & Nolan, 1997; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008).

Spouses have higher stress ratings than expatriates (Forster, 1997). Research has also documented that the spouses of expatriates frequently experience depression, health problems, little community involvement, strong dependency on the expatriate for emotional support, and they may have poor adjustments to the new community (Anderson & Stark, 1988). These problems may due to the reasons that they give up their jobs and come along with the expatriates (Frame & Shehan, 1994; Riusala & Suutari, 2000). In addition, many of them are not

able to get a job in the new environment (Anderson, 2001). The expatriates have to work in a new physical location but they still stay within a familiar corporate cultural setting (Naumann, 1992). For the spouses, even though they want a job, the inability to get a work permit, language problems, lack of job availability, and unrecognized credentials often make them not able to get work (Solomon, 1996; Harvey & Wiese, 1998a; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Suutari & Burch, 2001; Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011). The jobless conditions of family members plus a new environment with the lack of fluency of the local language may make spouses felt a loss of self-worth, identity and control of their own lives. In addition of a lack of social networks in the host country for social support (Harvey & Wiese, 1998a; Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011), they cannot get much attention from their husbands who are preoccupied with the demands of the new assignments. All these increase the level of stress the trailing spouses may face in the new environment (Harvey & Buckley, 1998; Harvey & Wiese, 1998a). Furthermore, they have no sounding boards, except the expatriates, that they can talk to in releasing stress (Harvey, 1985; Taylor & Napier, 1996). The tension from the trailing spouse affects the performance of expatriates in the overseas assignments (Harvey & Buckley, 1998). This can be explained through the crossover effects that the attitudes of expatriates are affected by their spouses (Takeuchi et al., 2002). Then, the spillover effect can bring the stress of expatriates from the home domain to the work domain (Takeuchi et al., 2002). For example, Shih, Chiang and Hsu (2010) found that expatriate work-family conflict is negatively related to expatriate satisfaction and performance. Both work can interfere with personal life and personal life can interfere work (Grant-Vallone & Ensher 2001; Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2010). Grant-Vallone and Ensher (2001) reported expatriates had higher levels of work interfering with their personal life than their personal life being interfered by their work. In the same study, work-personal life conflict was related to employees' depression and anxiety. On the other hand, personal-work life conflict was related to employees' concern for their health. In another study, there were also evidences to show family interfering with work was negatively associated with self-efficacy and work

interfering with family was negatively associated with work satisfaction (Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2010). There are also studies which found support that family context variables, i.e., spouse adjustment, have direct impact on expatriate withdrawal cognitions (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998). In addition, their satisfaction also affects expatriate satisfaction and their adjustment also affect expatriate adjustment (Shaffer & Harrison, 1998).

In a Finnish sample study, 11% of the expatriates had their spouses stayed in Finland because they were not able to get a job in the host countries to accompany the expatriates (Riusala & Suutari, 2000). In other words, they were geographically separated while the expatriates were abroad for the overseas assignment. Literature indicates that couples living separately may cause personal, psychological, social, work- and career-related and situational dilemmas (Polegato & Barras, 1984; Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010).

Therefore, home/work balance may cause stress to expatriates. In addition of work environment, the problem may also spillover to another domain and affects their satisfaction in China. The following hypotheses are proposed.

H3: There is no relationship between home/work balance and job itself satisfaction.

H4: There is no relationship between home/work balance and organization satisfaction.

H5: There is no relationship between home/work balance and in China satisfaction.

2.7.3   *Personal responsibility*

Due to the cultural differences between the home country and China, management at headquarters may not understand the difficulties encountered by expatriates managing the China operations. For example, the employee turnover rates of some companies in China can be as high as 30% (Hulme, 2006). Recruitment on unskilled workers is less a problem comparing with hiring skilled workers (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Buckley, 2007). Luk and Chiu (1998) used the psychological concept "cash mentality" to explain that the immediate cash rewards are a powerful motivation for Chinese workers to jump to work for other firms. Turnover rates of managerial posts are not much lower than the operational levels (Yan & Warner, 2002). McKinsey and Co. found the turnover rate of middle managers can be as high as 20% among its multinational clients in China (Meier, Perez & Woetzel, 1995). When the headquarters does not understand the local environment and conditions, it may not use the appropriate criteria to measure the performance of the expatriates. Thus, promotions and compensations can be negatively affected and all these can create a lot of stress and pressure to expatriates working in China.

Expatriates usually got higher positions while they are placed overseas. Many of them are in managerial and executive ranks (Napier & Peterson, 1991). Autonomy and authority come along with the higher status of the expatriates (Taylor & Napier, 1996). Expatriates need to bear larger responsibilities in overseas assignments (Adler, 1987). The MBA students in a survey of Adler's (1986) see the benefits of an international assignment as greater challenge and more responsibility, more interesting work, and better financial rewards. Logically speaking, as expatriates occupy more important positions in China, they are responsible to make many strategic and important daily decisions. Since they may not fully understand the Chinese culture well enough, they may involve risk taking while they are making decisions for the company.

Their essential positions may also make them responsible for the impacts of the decisions made by them. Therefore, personal responsibility may create stress to expatriates and affect their satisfaction in their assigned positions in China.

H6: There is no relationship between personal responsibility and job itself satisfaction for expatriates in China.

H7: There is no relationship between personal responsibility and organization satisfaction for expatriates in China.

2.7.4   Daily Hassles

The Chinese government welcomes foreign investment because it wants to absorb new technology, ideas, innovation and management know how from Western countries (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986; Adarkar, Adil, Ernst & Vaish, 1997; Hsieh, Lavoie & Samek, 1999a; Bonache & Brewster, 2001). In order to capture the huge Chinese market, timely reflection of these capabilities is also important. Therefore, expatriates work as a bridge introducing these know how to the Chinese branches (Bonache & Brewster, 2001). The poor general working conditions, like office services and supplies were either unavailable or not satisfactory, were not up to Western standards and a lot of hassles were created to expatriates (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986).

The figurehead role demands the expatriates performing many activities which require more of the presence of the expatriates rather than their talents (Minztberg, 1973). Just simply being a boss and attending meetings may also make them feel the insignificance of their roles in the company. It seems that their talent is not fully utilized. Many of the times, due to the reason

that Chinese have a less systematic approach in conducting meetings also make expatriates think that it is wasting time to conduct or attend meetings with Chinese people (Zimmermann et al., 2003). In addition, these daily miscellaneous also compete the office time of expatriates on other important issues or their private time on family gathering or leisure activities. As a result, daily hassles may bring stress to expatriates and make them not satisfied in both work and life in China.

H8: There is no relationship between daily hassles and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H9: There is no relationship between daily hassles and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H10: There is no relationship between daily hassles and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.7.5   *Recognition*

Besides of more autonomy, power and income overseas (Napier & Peterson, 1991; Taylor & Napier, 1996), overseas assignments are attractive because they are platforms allowing expatriates to earn the dual experiences of both working and living abroad than at home. Thus, they are able to see things from different cultural perspectives (Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000) and they become more sensitive to international opportunities and threats (Boyacigiller, 2000). Therefore, many MNEs consider international assignments as means for management development and career advancement (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Tung, 1982b; Oddou, Derr & Balck, 1995; Chapel, 1998; McEllister, 1998; Tung & Worm, 2001).

On the other side, many expatriates also worry of accepting an overseas assignment may ruin their careers. They are afraid that once overseas, they would not be informed of changes at headquarters even though in some of the cases there is a mentor assigned. On the other hand, "Out of sight, out of mind" is another concern (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1994). In other words, company officials would not discuss with expatriates or even think of them when there are specific job opportunities at home (Napier & Peterson, 1991). Although overseas assignments look very prospective, many MNEs actually do not reward the expatriates appropriately, especially the time when they return home (repatriates). Job security (Noer, 1974); readjustment to corporate structural changes; new and lower pay level than overseas (Clague & Krupp, 1978; Napier & Peterson, 1991; Solomon, 1995); lower or even on out-placement status (Carter, 1989); housing problems (Kendall, 1981; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992); less autonomy (Napier & Peterson, 1991); lack of interest of home superiors on the experiences and skills of expatriates learned overseas; and lack of permanent assignment (Gray, 1982; Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Solomon, 1995) are problems that many repatriates would encounter when they are or while they are almost returning home.

Not many MNEs have a concrete expatriation program, not to say a repatriation plan. Harvey (1995) found that only 31 percent of the 75 firms who returned usable questionnaires reported of having a formal repatriation program. An effective repatriation provides a positive feedback loop to the next generation of expatriates (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992). An ineffective one provides the opposite result and makes candidates of expatriates hesitate to accept the overseas assignments. An ambiguous and insecure future also make expatriates felt of not being recognized by the company. Therefore, the problem of recognition would bring stress to expatriates and make them not satisfied at work.

H11: There is no relationship between recognition and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H12: There is no relationship between recognition and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

2.7.6   *Relationships*

Relationships refers to "How well one gets alone with the people around them, particularly those at work" (William & Cooper, 1998). Relationships with others were found to contribute to all three burnout dimensions, namely emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment, in a sample of hotel supervisors in Taiwan (Hu & Cheng, 2010). For expatriates who are allocated to another country in which they have no network and working in a corporate setting with colleagues that they have not worked with before, it is assumed that they may encounter relationship problems. This assumption is supported with the findings from Brett (1982) that mobile employees and their wives were less satisfied with social relationships. Therefore, relationships at work would bring stress to expatriates and affect their work satisfaction.

H13: There is no relationship between relationships and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H14: There is no relationship between relationships and organization satisfaction for expatriates

2.7.7   *Managerial Role*

As one approaches a higher rank in the hierarchy, human skills and conceptual skills are more important than technical skills (Katz, 1974; Robbins & Coulter, 2007). Due to their technical expertise, many expatriates are chosen for overseas assignments (Harris, 1973; Hautaluoma & Kaman, 1975; Hawes & Kealey, 1981) and their lack of training and experiences may make them encounter difficulties when they need to manage people and especially those people who have different cultural backgrounds from their own.

As a manager, an expatriate also performs several managerial roles, namely figurehead, liaison, spokesperson and negotiator (Mintzberg, 1973, 1990). These mentioned roles require them a lot of interactions with both insiders and outsiders. These roles also make them have to do a lot of traveling. Traveling in China is not a pleasant task. The roles of being a leader and a resource allocator make them as the core person to allocate resources. Thus, sometimes they are in favour in the eyes of the subordinates or they may occupy some negative roles when they represent the company to withhold some resources (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). These managerial roles demand a lot of energy from the expatriates. When the demand is too high, that may bring stress to expatriates and make them have satisfaction problems in their work.

H15: There is no relationship between managerial role and job itself satisfaction.

H16: There is no relationship between managerial role and organization satisfaction.

2.7.8 Organization Climate

Although many MNEs enter China through a more highly committed entry mode (wholly owned subsidiary) nowadays, joint venture, which is strongly favorable by the Beijing government (Weidenbaum & Hughes, 1992), is still occupying a heavy proportion (Vanhonacher, 1997). Due to the special culture in China, many MNEs may need to adjust their ways of doing business in China especially when they have a local partner. Although many MNEs station expatriates in their China branches, due to the reasons of lower cost in terms of remuneration and better understanding of the local culture and market, many of these MNEs have started to localize their China branches (Wong & Law, 1999). Thus, expatriates have to closely work with Chinese co-workers and subordinates in China (Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002). Even for wholly owned subsidiaries, they would hire local employees. Their different cultural backgrounds and ethical values would arise various interaction problems. Many expatriates found that it is difficult to motivate the local employees to work hard. Guanxi development also applies to employees working within a company rather than just on business relationship with other companies (Jones, 1997; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Chen, 2004). Working atmosphere and morale are very different in China. The organization climate may bring stress to expatriates and affect their level of satisfaction at work.

H17: There is no relationship between organizational climate and job itself satisfaction.

H18: There is no relationship between organizational climate and organization satisfaction.

2.7.9   Inadequate Supports from Headquarters

Expatriates usually hold leading positions in the overseas branches. They enjoy more power and freedom to work overseas than at headquarters. They also serve as the interface between the headquarters and the branches (Tung, 1986; Harzing, 2001) and knowledge transferor from headquarters to branches (Harzing, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Hulme, 2006; Bonache & Zarraga-Oberty, 2008). However, there are times when the expatriates may need support from the home office for work and daily-life related conditions or problems - especially when the level of cultural, environmental and economic dissimilarity is large (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Harvey, 1996; Suutari & Burch, 2001). If they cannot get the support quickly, they feel helpless and ignored. For example, Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) found that perceived organizational support reduces employee absenteeism. Liu and Ipe (2010) also proved that perceived organizational support is positively related to affective commitment of expatriates. Other than related to work-personal conflict, organization support is also negatively related to expatriate employees' depression, anxiety and concern on health (Grant-Vallone & Ensher, 2001). Many managers would consider "lower contact with peers and supervisors" as one of the work-related barriers that may make them decline of the assignments (Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). Bribery and corruptions are issues that expatriates in China are unaccustomed and they want supports from headquarters (Hung, 1994; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Buckley, 2007). In addition, they are afraid of the "out of sight, out of mind" problem, which may influence their chances of promotion (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1994).

The need for support is not restricted to work settings. Many MNEs provide supports to the family members. For example, 3M pays tuition fees for spouse in the host country if they want to continue their education and Kodak assists spouses of its expatriates' to look for jobs in

the host country (Black, Gregersen & Mendenhall, 1992). These MNEs hope to enhance the employability of the spouses during or after the relocation, and also lessen the stress that expatriates and their family may experience during the relocation. However, the majority of MNEs do not providing that much supports to their employees (Harvey, 1996). Some MNEs guarantee of supports in language and cultural training after arrival (Suutari & Burch, 2001). However, many expatriates find they are too busy to have time for such training when they are overseas. Therefore, expatriates may experience stress from inadequate supports from headquarters and their work and so as life satisfaction in China may also be affected.

H19: There is no relationship between inadequate supports from headquarters and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H20: There is no relationship between inadequate supports from headquarters and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H21: There is no relationship between inadequate supports from headquarters and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.7.10   Chinese Business Environment

Traditionally, China has been influenced by Confucianism, "Who you know is more important than what you know". "Who you know" refers to one's guanxi (social connections) in a society and "what you know" refers to the technological expertise one possesses. Western management practices emphasize more on contracts and procedures while Chinese businessmen emphasize more on guanxi. China is a collectivist country with high-context culture compared with most of its Western counter-parts (Chen, 1995; Cooke, 2009). Chinese people prefer to

know somebody and then trust somebody before they do business with them (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Hutchings & Murray, 2002). Therefore, cultivating, maintaining and developing guanxi (connection and relationship) are important for one to have an easier life and this also applies to both life and business settings (Chu & Ju, 1993; Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Chen, 1995; Kienzle & Shadur, 1997; Zhu, Speece & So, 1998, Worm, 1998; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Li & Wright, 2000; Chen, 2001; Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000; Tan & Yeung, 2000; Vu, 2005; Cooke, 2009; Wilson & Brennan, 2010; Nolan, 2011).

The benefits of guanxi on business side is, most of the time, it replaces excessive bureaucracy or formal hierarchies with flexibility (Chu & Ju, 1993; Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Buttery and Wong, 1999; Chen, 2001; Zimmermann et al., 2003; Wilson & Brennan, 2010; Nolan, 2011). It is an essential issue if one wants to do business in China, especially for smaller size organizations (Hutchings & Murray, 2002; Wilson & Brennan, 2010). Yeung and Tung (1996) presented eleven factors to a group of executives who worked in MNEs that had operations in China and asked the executives to rank the importance of these factors to their long-term business success in China. The eleven factors were: choosing the right business location, choosing the right entry strategy, competitive prices, complementarity of goals, familiarity with Chinese negotiation style, flexibility in business operations, guanxi with Chinese business associates, long-term commitment to the China market, management control, product differentiation and quality, and understanding of China's policy. Among the eleven factors, guanxi was the only factor that was consistently rated as a key success factor. Although there were only nineteen firms in the initial sample, a later study, with a larger sample found that guanxi was also the only item being nominated by both Hong Kong and non-Hong Kong firms as a key factor for success in doing business in China (Tung & Yeung, 1998). If foreign firms ignore Chinese culture, including guanxi, their ventures in China tend to fail (Tung, 1982b,

1989). It is also statistically proved that a strongly developed right guanxi makes companies performed better financially (Yeung & Tung, 1996).

What are the benefits come along with good guanxi? In a study with respondents of 150 Hong Kong Chinese executives who have Chinese business practices, smooth running of routine and frequent transactions (payment and transport); able to access the needed information (government policies and import regulations); and able access to resources (approval of applications to central government and import license applications) are the top most important guanxi benefits (Davies, Leung, Luk & Wong, 1995).

Chinese managers are not comfortable doing business with strangers. Developing long-term trust relationships with Chinese can enhance the business effectiveness (Chapel, 1998; Worm, 1998; Hutchings & Murray, 2002; Vu, 2005). In a study with 2,000 respondents from Shanghai, Chu and Ju (1993) found 80 percent of the respondents wound not trust strangers until they had the opportunity to know them more. Guanxi building is essentially important, especially at the initial stages of entering the China market (Tung & Yeung, 1998; Hutchings & Murray, 2002; Wilson & Brennan, 2010). Once the operation is set up, other conditions like technical competence, high-quality products, suitable business strategies and in-depth knowledge of the market must be met to sustain business success in China (Yeung & Tung, 1996). Besides the business environment, guanxi also helped in dealing with the government (Wilson & Brennan, 2010).

Guanxi building is person-specific rather than organization-specific. It means if a manager leaves a company, he would bring along the guanxi that he has developed as his personal asset

to leave the company (Chen, 2001). For a new manager or expatriate replacing this position, he has to develop the guanxi again or he may bring along the guanxi that he already possessed to this company (Tung & Worm, 2001). In order to let the Chinese party have more understanding of the foreign parties, expatriates have to engage in those guanxi building activities (Zimmermann et al., 2003). Tendering favours (e.g., gift-giving and entertainment at lavish banquets); nurturing long-term mutual benefits (e.g., create an interdependence between the two parties); nourishing personal relationships (e.g., based on sincerity and frankness to share inner feelings and personal secrets); and cultivating trust (e.g., learn the culture and language), are four complementary strategies that can build and maintain guanxi (Yeung & Tung, 1996; Tung & Yeung, 1998). These four strategies are not mutually exclusive and they should be used complementarily. For the companies that used an integrated approach with these four strategies to build and maintain guanxi, they recorded with significantly higher levels of financial performance than those companies which just one of these strategies.

Westerners are more difficult to build guanxi than local Chinese or overseas Chinese because they do not have any blood or locality ties with Chinese, and many local Chinese choose passively to develop guanxi with foreigners (Yeung & Tung, 1996; Tung & Yeung, 1998; Chen, 2001). In a descriptive, self-report survey, which telephone and face-to-face interviews were followed, 38 percent of the 26 professionals who had been on assignment in China said they did not develop "close or personal relationships with PRC employees." They reported the fear and suspicion of foreigners by Chinese, and the belief that personal relationships with foreigners are generally discouraged in the Chinese culture, are the barriers for close relationship development with the local Chinese (Weiss & Bloom, 1990). The lack of common ground between Chinese and Westerners existed outside the workplace is another barrier inhibiting a closer relation with Chinese. As a result, a better preparation in language

(Zimmermann, et al., 2003), culture, history and politics before the departure can enhance the relations (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Selmer & Shiu, 1999). Their effort to understand the local cultural practices and the language are highly appreciated by the local Chinese (Hutchings & Murray, 2002; Zimmermann, et al., 2003). In addition, using an intermediary is a good way to open the guanxi door for foreigners (Yeung & Tung, 1996; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Chen, 2001; Tung & Worm, 2001; Zimmermann et al., 2003; Wilson & Brennan, 2010).

Many expatriates placed in country where guanxi or networking building is an important criteria for business success, consider guanxi building unethical and many of them have negative attitudes toward these activities and strategies (Worm, 1998) and treated it as a benign form of corruption (Chen, 2001; Warner, 2010; Wilson & Brennan, 2010). In addition, they find them exhausting since most of these guanxi building activities take place out of office, after working hours (Tung & Yeung, 1998; Worm, 1998; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Tung & Worm, 2001; Hutchings & Murray, 2002; Zimmermann, et al., 2003; Vu, 2005).

Despite the argument that the importance of guanxi was declining due to China's market liberalization and the emergence of online business intermediaries (Anderson & Lee, 2008; Davison & Ou, 2008), guanxi was still proved to be an influential factors in doing business in China (Wilson & Brennan, 2010). The presence and depth of guanxi might affect how firms and MNEs were treated and how easy businesses were conducted in China. In the eyes of expatriates, they might consider competition was not fair in China. For example, in the European Chamber Business Confidence Survey 2011, 43% of the respondents perceived government policies were less fair for foreign invested enterprises and 83% of the respondents indicated the promotion of

fairer competition in the Chinese market is important for the future economic performance of China (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012).

Therefore, it is proposed that Chinese business environment would bring stress to expatriates, and their satisfaction in work and in China are possibly affected. The following hypotheses are suggested.

H22: There is no relationship between Chinese business environment and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H23: There is no relationship between Chinese business environment and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H24: There is no relationship between Chinese business environment and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.7.11   *Rules and Regulations*

A group of European expatriates indicated there was a biggest difference between perceived necessity and actual availability of supports from their MNEs in local laws/rules, healthcare system and public authorities after they arrived at Finland (Suutari & Burch, 2001). Therefore, lack of knowledge and information in these areas create troubles to expatriates. China is famous with its excessive bureaucracy (Buttery & Wong, 1999; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). Expatriates are reported to encounter bureaucratic obstacles from time to time (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). In terms of bureaucracy, China is the second most corrupted country in doing business with, findings from a survey with 3016 business executives who were

relocated to 30 different countries worldwide (Lai, 2011). In a survey conducted by the International Business Leaders Advisory Council, respondents reported there were too much government control and interference, red tape, complex procedures and inconsistent policies in Shanghai (Lococo, 1996; Wong, 1994; Agence France-Press, 1996). Both China and India are ranked as the countries with the highest failure rates of international assignment and they are also considered as the countries that are the most challenging for international assignments (Global Relocation Trends Survey 2010).

Another problem is law is not complied and legitimate as it is in the West (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). To make things worse is the national legislation may be implemented differently in different locations by the local governments (Goodall & Warner, 1998; Chen, 2001). There are three levels of governments in China: national, provincial and municipal governments (Tse et al., 1997). The nature, location and scale of the operations affect which level of government that a foreign operation needs to work with. The higher the level implies it is safer. The higher level implies it has more authority in approving projects, interpreting government policies, coordinating resources and exercising control. The lower level implies that there can be more flexibility given to a foreign operation (Tse et al., 1997). It may also imply that different local (municipal) governments may interpret and implement the same policy differently. Therefore, expatriates may find the rules and regulations are different in different locations in China. For example, in the European Chamber Business Confidence Survey 2011, 88% of the respondents indicated that rule of law and transparent policy-making and implementation would be the key driver for China's economic performance in the coming years (European Chambers of Commerce, 2012).

Contracts are written in Chinese and many of the times, there is an English translated version. In addition, the law is also in Chinese. However, since Chinese is the official language, the Chinese version contract and law have precedence over the English version (Hung, 1994). Expatriates would be frustrated when there are disputes and they need to argue with the Chinese on the contract term which is written in Chinese.

Therefore, all these rules and regulations related issues in China would create stress to expatriates and therefore affect their work and life related satisfaction in China. Proposed hypotheses are as follows:

H25: There is no relationship between rules and regulations and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H26: There is no relationship between rules and regulations and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H27: There is no relationship between rules and regulations and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.7.12   Working with Chinese

The lengthy negotiation process customarily encountered in China (Pye, 1982; Chen, 1994; Hung, 1994; Selmer, 1998b) and the tortuous bureaucracies in companies or government departments shocked many expatriates relocated in China (Selmer, 1998b; Wong and Stone, 1998). The decision making of the Chinese side usually involves many parties and different levels of authority (Blackman, 1998) and it is difficult to identify the real decision maker in

business dealings (Hung, 1994; Selmer, 1998b; Chen, 2001). In addition, Chinese believe that patience is a value in negotiations, particularly with Americans. Therefore, they use a lot stalling tactics and delays and make the negotiation process long (Pye, 1982; Chen, 1994). Furthermore, the indirectness of Chinese (Chen, 2004) also make the Western parties take time to find the actual meaning of the Chinese side in the negotiations.

Chinese view time as synchronic and abundant in supply while Westerners view time as sequential and in short supply (Trompenaars, 1993). Therefore, western expatriates can easily experience frustrations when they work with local Chinese, especially there is a deadline to meet (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). Frustrations can also be experienced when expatriates need to negotiate with PRC business representatives who are usually not faced with deadlines and targets like the expatriates do (Hung, 1994).

H28: There is no relationship between working with Chinese and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H29: There is no relationship between working with Chinese and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

2.8 Sources from General Environment

2.8.1   *Environmental Pollution*

Pollution in China is commented to be worse than Los Angeles (Lindorff, 1996). Traffic, noise and air pollution are serious problems in the eyes of expatriates (Zimmermann et al., 2003). A recent ranking of the World Bank shows that New Delhi, the capital of India, is the

most polluted city in the world, followed by Cairo, Kolkata, and Tianjin. Sixteen of the rest of the twenty most polluted cities are in China (Cheng, 2006). Another survey conducted in 2005 released that 39.7 percent of the 522 cities surveyed were either moderately or seriously polluted in China (Epoch Times, 2006).

Pollution control and attraction of foreign investment always go in the opposite directions. Many MNEs transfer production process overseas because many developing countries have inadequate pollution controls, e.g., China (Kahn & Yardley, 2007). A recent survey conducted by a local Environmental Protection Agency in Shanxi, a mineral-rich northern province in China, reported that over 90% of the local government officials believe that more stringent pollution controls would slow economic growth (Cheng, 2006). As a result, many provincial governments may sacrifice environment to economic figures (Buckley, 2007; Kahn & Yardley, 2007). The same thing happens in many other developing countries in this world (Blacksmith Institute, 2006)

In addition of fast industrial expansion, coal burning is still the main form of household heating in winter time, even in cosmopolitan cities like Beijing and Shanghai. Coal is also the main input for electricity plants in mainland China and two-thirds of China's energy is from coal burning (Kahn & Yardley, 2007). Recently the main source of air pollution has changed from soot to emissions from motor vehicles (China Daily, 2010). According to the Ministry of Environmental Protection, the number of motor vehicles in China and their total quantity of exhaust fumes are 24 times and 12 times respectively more than that of 1980s (China Daily, 2010). On the other hand, the lack of regulations on the releases of chemicals and sewages of factories make China seriously polluted in both air and water (Kahn & Yardley, 2007). The

rapid industrialization and urbanization has brought China with serious water pollution (Ma, 2010). For water pollution, the significant "dirty" sectors are coal mining, building materials, transport equipment, chemicals and metals. The use of fertilizers in agricultural industry also adds up on the water pollution in China (Ma, 2010). In the case of air pollutants, metals, petroleum/gas and ferrous metals are exceptionally "dirty" for sulfur dioxide (SO_2) emissions; furniture, metals, electrical equipment, textiles, paper, and ferrous metals for total suspended particulate (TSP) emissions (Dasgupa, Wang & Wheeler, 1997). It is estimated that approximately 4,000 people suffer premature death from pollution-related respiratory illness each year in Chongqing; 4,000 in Beijing; and 1,000 in both Shanghai and Shenyang (Xu, Gao, Dockery & Chen, 1994).

Many health conscious expatriates in China are afraid of potential consequences pollution would bring problems to themselves and their children (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Selmer & Shiu, 1999). In a survey conducted by the Nielsen Company, sponsored by the American Chamber of Commerce (Hong Kong), found that 51 percent of executives who responded to the survey said they have had difficulty recruiting professionals to come and work in Hong Kong. Seventy percent personally know professionals who have refused to work in Hong Kong, and eighty-three percent know expatriates in Hong Kong who are thinking of leaving the place because of the environmental problems (American Chamber of Commerce, 2007). DeLeon and McPartlin (1995) conducted a survey with expatriate children in Hong Kong as the sample and found that 69% of them complained the most was polluted environment. However, the PM 10 concentrations (PM 10 refers to particulate with diameter less than 10 microns) were 87 micro grams per cubic meter in China while it was only 38 micro grams per cubic meter in Hong Kong in 1999 (Pandey, Wheeler, Ostro, Deichmann, Hamilton & Bolt, 2006). Although the readings of PM 10 have recorded a decrease from 77 to 66 micro grams from 2006 to 2008

(World Bank, 2011), it is still not meeting the European Union's safe standard of below 40 micrograms (Kahn & Yardley, 2007). In addition, the readings should be higher for more developed cities like Beijing and Shanghai. Therefore, it is not difficult to imagine that the problem for sending expatriates to China would be more serious than to Hong Kong in regard of the pollution issue.

Although Prime Minster of China Wen Jiabao had publicly addressed 48 references to "environment", "pollution" or "environmental protection", most of the government's environmental targets have not met yet (Kahn & Yardley, 2007). To continue one of the objectives set in the Eleventh Five Year Plan of China (2006-2010), the Twelfth Five Year Plan (2011-2015) also advocates the environmental protection (Xinhua Net, 2011). The results should wait to see. However, for the moment, the following hypothesis is proposed.

H30: There is no relationship between environmental pollution and in China satisfaction.

2.8.2   *Leisure Activities*

Lack of favorite leisure time activities affect whether expatriates would accept the overseas assignments (Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). With heavy workload and frequent travels, expatriates would like to enjoy during their leisure time (Fischlmayr & Kollinger, 2010). China is lack of good quality recreational facilities and expatriates consider it is one of the prime difficulties to stay in China (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986; Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Zimmermann et al., 2003).

Expatriates cannot enjoy leisure driving in China. Streets in major Chinese cities are busy with all types of vehicles, namely cars, trucks and motor cycles, and others like bicycles, trams and trolleys (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986). Pedestrians and all these vehicles are competing for spaces on the streets. Leisure travelling within China is another problem as hotel accommodations are mostly unsatisfactory outside of the major cities (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986; Zimmermann et al., 2003). Conditions on trains have been improved a lot although they were slow and well known with the poor sanitary facilities (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986). Travelling by air was troublesome too as confirmed tickets may be invalidated without reason and flight schedules are inconsistent due to poor communication and systems (Weiss & Bloom, 1990). Again, conditions on airlines have also been improved. There are obvious improvements in terms of the availability of hotels, restaurants and daily necessities compared with when China was first rejoined to the world in 1978. However, is the hardware up to standard? Is the software, e.g., quality of service, be able to matched with the hardware?

For those expatriates who are not satisfied with the leisure activities in China, they change their habits to go out more often for meals and meeting people more often (Zimmermann et al., 2003); to read more books; to spend more time with family; to play more Mahjong and watch more video tapes (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). Others change their sports or work more as a way to deal with the lack of good quality leisure activity problem (Zimmermann et al., 2003).

Leisure activities are more related to one's general life instead of work life. Therefore, lack of leisure activities may bring stress to expatriates and may affect their in China satisfaction. The following hypothesis is drawn accordingly.

61

H31: There is no relationship between leisure activities and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.8.3   *Quality of Life*

Dissatisfaction with the quality of life in foreign assignment made expatriates failed in their overseas assignments (Adler, 1987). China is famous as a production hub for counterfeit products and it is the biggest source of pirated goods in Asia (Jha, 2005). The counterfeits include farming materials, food, medicines, medical instruments, medical foodstuffs, cosmetics, electronics, household appliances, computer peripherals, auto parts, lighters, optical media, toys, apparel, footwear, luxury accessories (including handbags, jewelry, watches and eyewear), cigarettes, and building materials (Xinhua net, 2007; NewsGD, 2007; International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition, 2007).   It is estimated that counterfeit products are ranged from 15 percent to 20 percent of all products made in China and account for about eight percent of the total GDP of China (Levin, 2006). Guangdong, Zhejiang and Fujian are the biggest problem spots for counterfeiting in China (International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition, 2007)

Sometimes, it is easy to tell whether a product is a fake one or a real one by the price difference or by their appearances. Sometimes, there is no way to make a distinction when both appearances and price levels are identical. Expatriates are annoyed with the counterfeits as they are paying the market price for buying a fake product, especially when these products are health and safety concerned. About nine percent of the drug market in China is occupied by fake ones (International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition, 2007). They directly threaten consumer health in China. The worse case was some lives were lost. For example, the use of tainted drugs manufactured by Qiqihar No. 2 Pharmaceutical Co. made 11 people killed (Xinhua Net, 2007).

As a result, many expatriates worry about their usage of drugs if they are sick in China. This is especially true for those expatriates who are senior in age since they may need to use more medical care and products than younger expatriates.

A country that has experienced fast economic development may not have hygiene standards and medical services that are available in developed countries. As indicated in **Table 3,** China is the country which dedicated the lowest expenditure (4.3%) on health as a percentage on GDP than other countries like the US (16.0%), UK (8.7%), Japan (8.1%) and Taiwan (6.5%). For number of doctors, China and Taiwan both had the lowest density (1.6 per 1000 residents) among the countries on the list. The US (3.1) had the highest number of doctors per 1000 residents. Although the doctor density of China is not a lot lower from places like Hong Kong (1.8), its nurse number to population ratio (1.3) is a lot lower than other countries. It implies that the doctors in China may bear a lot of the workload that are supposed to be responsible by nurses in other countries. In other words, the less important workload which is supposed to be borne by nurses may compete for the time of the doctors. The attention and effort of doctors are driven to the nursing work; that may lower the quality of the medical care in China. The life expectancies for both males and females in China are also the lowest among the countries shown in **Table 2.3**.

Table 2.3: Medical Indicators of Some Countries in 2008

	Countries					
	China	**US**	**UK**	**Japan**	**Taiwan**	**Hong Kong**
Total Expenditure on Health (as a % on GDP)	4.3	16.0	8.7	8.1	6.5	4.8
Doctors Number per 1000 population	1.6	3.1	2.6	2.2	1.6	1.8
Nurses Number per 1000 population	1.3	10.6	9.5	9.5	5.2	5.4
Life Expectancy at Birth for Male	72.1	75.3	77.6	79.3	75.6	79.3

| Life Expectancy at Birth for Female | 75.7 | 80.4 | 81.8 | 86.1 | 81.9 | 85.5 |

Source: Food and Health Bureau Statistics. The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative, 2011

Medical services are important in the eyes of expatriates and their family (Suutari & Burch, 2001). The standard is low in China (Hung, 1994; Selmer, 1998b) and many expatriates do not trust the medical services in China (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). The unavailability of high-quality medical services is considered as a barrier for expatriates to accept an overseas assignment (Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995). They do not simply concern about the quality. They also care about how well they can communicate with the Chinese doctors and nurses who cannot speak English very well (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986). Hospitals and doctors are allowed to charge first and treat later (Cheng, 2006). Thus, it puts life below the value of money. Expatriates are afraid of under emergent situations that their lives may be at risk.

There are also other daily concerns in the eyes of expatriates. Although most expatriates are satisfied with Chinese food and restaurants, many consider the lack or price of western foods as a disadvantage of staying in China (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986; Zimmermann et al., 2003). The unavailability of high quality milk, cheese and meats affect the quality of life of expatriates (Zimmermann et al., 2003). In general, infrastructure facilities in transportation, communication, education, health and public utilities are still in poor quality (Hung, 1994). All these lack of modern conveniences made the life living in China difficult for expatriate personnel (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986). Although the quality of life may have been improved due to the improvement of its economy since China has been a member of the World Trade Organization for ten years, the people factors seem have no improvement, which can been seen on the fake products, contaminated products and medical care. As a result, it is suggested that quality of life would bring stress to expatriates and affect their in China satisfaction.

64

H32: There is no relationship between quality of life and in China satisfaction of expatriates.

2.9 Sources from Interacting with Locals

2.9.1 *Different Habits*

Being culturally distant from the Western countries in terms of high collectivism and power-distance (Hofstede, 1993), Chinese people also possess a very different life style in the eyes of Western people. Spitting in street is still a cultural habit that shocks westerners when they are in China (Tung, 1986, Zimmermann et al., 2003). Other manners, like burping in public, talking loudly in public, staring at foreigners and closely observing their actions are commonly seen "rude" behavior in China that expatriates feel uncomfortable with (Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Zimmermann et al., 2003). The greater dirtiness of Chinese (Selmer, 1998b; Zimmermann et al., 2003) and their lack of privacy concept (Weiss & Bloom, 1990) also make expatriates find living in China not easy and less comfort.

The immediate economic take off after the Open Door Policy also nurtures Chinese people with very particular set of values different from foreigners. China means "Middle Kingdom" in Chinese (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Chen, 2001; Warner, 2010). Chinese people are so proud and believe all other races are not as good as them (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986). In addition, the vast differences of income and lifestyle (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986), and the fear and suspicion of foreigners by Chinese (Weiss & Bloom, 1990) result with an almost complete lack of social relations between expatriates and host nationals in China.

The different habits and also the lack of social interactions between locals and expatriates may make the expatriates have no chance to understand and accept the habit differences between themselves and the locals. Therefore, the different habits may create stress to expatriates and affect their general satisfaction in China. In addition, those locals who possess different habits are not just locals in streets or in restaurants but can also be their colleagues at work. Therefore, their satisfaction at work may also be affected other than in China satisfaction.

H33: There is no relationship between different habits and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H34: There is no relationship between different habits and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H35: There is no relationship between different habits and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.9.2 *Cheating*

Cultural shock is defined as the anxiety resulted from losing one's familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse when one enters a strange culture (Oberg, 1960). Symptoms include excessive hands washing; excessive concern over the cleanliness of water, food, dishes, and bedding; fear of physical contact with attendants or servants; a feeling of helplessness and a desire for dependence on long-term residents of one's own nationality; easy to get angry with delays and other minor frustrations; excessive fear of being cheated, robbed, or injured; and terribly longing back to home (Oberg, 1960; Juffer, 1986). Different individuals may have

different of the above symptoms and the degree would also be different. As cultural shock can be caused by ineffectiveness of intercultural or interpersonal communication (Juffer, 1986), it is possible that expatriates who are still in the cultural shock stage would suspect that the local Chinese would cheat them.

Guanxi is important in doing business in China (Chen, 2001; Chiu, Wu, Zhuang & Hsu, 2009). Among the parties involved, guanxi tends to benefit the weaker member of a relationship the most (Chen, 1995; Yeung & Tung, 1996). As a result, if these two parties involved were an expatriate and a local resident, the expatriate might gain the impression that the local party is taking advantage since expatriates are usually in better financial conditions. For example, Chinese local employees estimated that foreign expatriates were compensated from 15 to 50 times more than the local employees (Leung, Smith, Wang & Sun, 1996; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002). In doing business, Chinese think it is not unethical to rip off foreigners (Hutchings & Murray, 2002) that might due to the reasons that the locals were aware of and resent to such compensation differentials between themselves and foreign expatriates (Gladwin & Walter, 1980; DeLisle & Chin, 1994).

Due to historical reasons, some Chinese people still hold some hostile feelings towards foreigners. When there are clashes between local Chinese and foreigner, the foreign side can easily be blamed. For example, if a driver of a vehicle has an accident with a bicycle or pedestrians, Chinese law and local people tend to hold the vehicle driver partially liable for the accident. On the other hand, if a foreigner owned vehicle is hit by a local cyclist. The foreigner would be blamed of the cause of the accident as if he had not come to China, the accident would not have happened (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986).

The unfriendly feeling is not just toward foreigner but also toward overseas Chinese from place like Hong Kong and Macau (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Hung, 1994; Goodall & Warner, 1998; Chen, 2001). The reasons contributed to that feeling are the widespread of negative stereotypes of Hong Kong and Macau businessmen who were doing business dishonestly in China during the early days of the "Open Door" policy and the significant differences in the remuneration packages which are due to nationality rather than ability differences between these expatriates and local people (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Goodall & Warner, 1998; Selmer & Shiu, 1999). The following hypotheses are proposed:

H36: There is no relationship between feeling being cheated by local Chinese and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H37: There is no relationship between feeling being cheated by local Chinese and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H38: There is no relationship between feeling being cheated by local Chinese and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.10   Sources from Local Employees

2.10.1   *Qualifications of Local Employees*

Expatriates in China mostly occupy the managerial positions. In other words, they make strategic decisions and local employees are responsible for implementation. Therefore, the availability and the qualifications of local employees are important for the implementation of strategic decisions. Although China has attracted quite extensive number of foreign invested

companies established within its border, its labor force has been criticized of low quality, e.g., unskilled and lack of education (Zhu, Speece & So, 1998; Cooke, 2005, 2009). As **Table 2.4** which shows the educational attainment of the population in China in 2000 and 2009, less percentage of people who got no schooling (8.02% vs. 9.55%) and less percentage of the population who got the attainment of primary school only (31.80% vs. 38.18%) compared the situation in 2009 with 2000 (China Statistics Yearbook, 2001, 2010). Although more percentage of the population finished junior (40.23% vs. 36.52%) and senior secondary school (13.41% vs. 8.57%), the percentage of the population who finished college and higher levels was still very low (6.56%) (China Statistics Yearbook, 2001, 2010). This indicates that MNEs have difficulties in acquiring high skilled labor or acquiring qualified workforce with basic education for subsequent training (Cooke, 2005, 2009). As a result, many locals are not qualified and have no prior experience for their current positions, particularly in MNEs (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986; Lu & Bjorkman, 1997; Goodall & Warner, 1998; Hulme, 2006; Li & Sheldon, 2010). For example, local Chinese employees are less systematic in organizing work procedures then German employees (Zimmermann et al., 2003). Many expatriates find they need to train their secretaries personally. However, the training creates a lot of frustrations and it consumes a lot of time and energy from the expatriates (Chao & Sun, 1997; Lu & Bjorkman, 1997). The shortage of qualified and skilled labor lead to high labor turnover in China even more serious, which makes MNEs hesitate to invest in training as their trained local employees are poached by other MNEs or local companies (Li & Sheldon, 2010).

Table 2.4: Educational attainment of the population aged six and above in China in 2000 and 2009

	Percentage of population aged six and above	
Educational Level	**Year 2000**	**Year 2009**
No schooling	9.55	8.02
Primary school	38.18	31.80

Junior secondary school	36.52	40.23
Senior secondary school	8.57	13.41
College and higher level	7.20	6.56

Source: Adapted from China Statistics Yearbook, 2001 and 2010, the Ministry of Statistics of China.

In addition, local Chinese resist to changes, avoid decision and responsibility (McEllister, 1998; Zhu, Speece & So, 1998). This is because as compared with their Western counterparts, Chinese industrial personnel (both managers and workers) get use to the way that exact and detailed prescriptions of what is expected of them as members of a factory, workshop, or work unit are given to them (Tung, 1987b). The prescriptions can be as broad as the overall policies and guidelines that industries should follow in its enterprises, or as detailed as production targets, allocation of raw materials, marketing and also purchase for the enterprises. All these nurture the personnel avoid of making decisions and bearing responsibilities. Therefore, local employees are not meeting the standard in the eyes of expatriates (Cooke, 2005, 2009). The low quality of work provided by local employees who are lack of education and training may affect the work of expatriates. As a result, the qualifications of local employees may bring stress to expatriates and affect their satisfaction at work.

H39: There is no relationship between qualifications of local employees and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H40: There is no relationship between qualifications of local employees and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H41: There is no relationship between qualifications of local employees and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.10.2   Work Attitude of Local Employees

Traditional Chinese education system emphasizes a lot on rote learning and it leads people lack of independent thinking and problem-solving skills (Hulme, 2006). In addition, the Confucian values which influence a lot on local management resulted with too much emphasis on control and vertical linkages. As a result, staffs are passive and over-dependent on strong leaders (Warner, 2010). They do not like to take responsibility and initiative, especially staffs at lower rank (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Zimmermann et al., 2003). They do only what they are informed to do from a higher rank of the hierarchy (Davidson, 1987; Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Zimmermann et al., 2003). In addition, local employees prefer to stick with the old style of doing things and do not work according to the instructions of expatriates. That also creates frustrations to expatriates (Selmer & Shiu, 1999).

"Doing is 36 and not doing is 36 too" is a famous Chinese saying to describe the work attitude of Chinese workers in China. This work attitude is resulted from the "iron rice bowl" policy which is an enterprise-based employment system that guaranteed Chinese workers life-time employment and a comprehensive welfare system (Warner, 1996, 1998). This traditional practice of "eating from the big rice pot" of state-owned enterprises does not distinguish high and low performers (Chen, 1995; Zhu & Dowling, 1998). Their equitable reward system fails to encourage employees to build up accountable and responsible attitudes (Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Li, 1998). Even though there were reforms in human resource practices, such as "iron rice bowl" against "labor market", "grade-based" wages against 'performance based' ones, there were still no clear-cut between the old and the new system in many stated owned enterprises (Warner, 1996). The "Doing is 36 and not doing is 36 too" concept is deeply

rooted in the minds of many Chinese employees. Some of these employees even bring these destructive attitudes to joint ventures and foreign companies (Goodall & Warner, 1998). Some expatriates commented that Chinese are not used to hard work in workplace, and their work attitude and ethic toward work are observed as "superficial" and not serious (Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998).

Despite all these negative comments, some expatriates do comment that Chinese respect and are eager and quick to learn technical things (Davidson, 1987; Weiss & Bloom, 1990). Training is greatly valued by the Chinese authorities (Davidson, 1987).

H42: There is no relationship between work attitude of local employees and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H43: There is no relationship between work attitude of local employees and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H44: There is no relationship between work attitude of local employees and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.10.3 Indirectness of Local Employees

Getting a definite "Yes" or "No" answer from a Chinese is difficult. Even though you get a "Yes" from a Chinese, it does not mean the person agrees with you, it just simply means he/she has heard you (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998; Chen, 2001). Chinese people have an indirect style in communication in which the Chinese understand the underlying code for indirect communication but they assume that foreigners should learn the underlying code rather than

sticking with their western style of communication when they communicate with the local Chinese (Zimmermann et al., 2003). Therefore, many expatriates found Chinese people speak in a subtle way and they leave many messages to interpretation (Weiss & Bloom, 1990).

Hall (1976) classified culture into two extremes, high-context culture and low-context culture, in order to explain people who fall into these two categories communicate differently. Just like Japan, China belongs to high-context culture. Relationships between individuals in high-context cultures are relatively long lasting, and individuals feel deep personal involvement with each other. At the same time, it also takes a longer time to develop the relationship. The external environment, situation, and non-verbal behavior are crucial in creating and interpreting communications (Mead, 1994; Mendenhall, Punnett & Ricks, 1995; Harris & Moran, 1996). Thus, communication is more implicit in comparison with those low-context cultures, e.g., the United States. Since so much is communicated by shared code, communication could be economical, fast, and efficient among members. However, for people from low-context cultures might find it difficult to infer the actual meaning of the message from the context. That was one way to explain why many expatriates (who came from low-context cultures) believe Chinese people (who came from a high context culture) were indirect.

Chinese have very indirect style of communication for the reasons of "face" protection and the norms of politeness (Zimmermann, Holman & Sparrow, 2003). Many expatriates in China complain that they never know what is in the mind of their employees as they never speak out loud. This is a common problem in high power distance countries because their "face-saving" and high harmonious cultures discourage subordinates from having direct confrontation and conflicts with supervisors (Warner, 1993; 1995; Sweeney, 1996a; 1996b). To save face, Chinese

employees are reluctant to ask questions about the assigned task as they think that may make them look stupid and impolite (Selmer & Shiu, 1999), and they sometimes express agreement and then do something else afterwards (Worm, 1998) because they are reluctant to challenge authority (Hulme, 2006). Employees believe direct confrontation with supervisors would substantially decrease their promotional opportunities (Zhu & Dowling, 1998). The indirectness of Chinese employees creates frustrations to expatriates.

Being a culture of high collectivism, high power distance, medium to low uncertainty, with the coexistence of both masculinity and femininity, and also characterized by high-context communication (Kaye & Taylor, 1997), China is considered as a culture with strange "signs and symbols" in the eyes of expatriates. It was logical to say the expatriates would experience a lot of problems in their work and so as daily lives in China.

H45: There is no relationship between indirectness of local employees and job itself satisfaction for expatriates.

H46: There is no relationship between indirectness of local employees and organization satisfaction for expatriates.

H47: There is no relationship between indirectness of local employees and in China satisfaction for expatriates.

2.11   Influences of other Factors

2.11.1   Expatriates from Different Countries

Torbiorn (1982) identified that some countries are culturally tougher than others. For example, Africa, Middle East, Far East, South America, Eastern Europe/Russia, Western Europe/Scandinavia, Australia and New Zealand are in a descending order of cultural toughness. People find African culture is more novel from theirs than the Australian culture. In the sense of foreign direct investment, cultural distance explains the choice of foreign market investment locations; the choice of mode of entry into foreign markets; and also accounts for the success, failure and performance of MNE's overseas affiliates (Shenkar, 2012). Cultural differences and novelties inspire scholars to examine whether expatriates from certain countries have a higher failure rate or if they have more adjustment problems than others, or if adjustments are more difficult for those from other countries (Tung, 1981, 1982a; Janssens, 1995; Selmer, 1997, 2001, 2006b, 2007).

Rosaline Tung (1982a) found Japanese and European firms had lower recall rates than American firms. In addition, she also found that the American and West European samples were more in support of her selection and training paradigm for expatriates than the Japanese sample. This suggests that America and West Europe are more similar than Japan in cultural perspective. Other than supporting the work of Torbiorn (1982), it also means that the former groups may face different problems than Japanese when they are assigned to the same country.

Expatriates who come from a distant culture experience more difficulty in adjustment in a host country (Church, 1982). Janssens (1995) proved that the degree of intercultural interaction is significantly influenced by the length of time in the host country and the location of the

foreign assignment. Intercultural interaction increases as one stay longer in the host country. For European managers who completed a foreign assignment in Europe showed less intercultural interaction than those European managers who completed assignments in North America and Asia (Janssens, 1995).

Overseas assignments to well developed countries are not easy. Assignments to mainland China seem even more difficult as the environmental and work relationships in China are so different from other Western countries (Weiss & Bloom, 1990). Confucianism has strong impact on business and life practices of Chinese people. Authoritarian, high respects on hierarchy and importance of *guanxi* (personal relationship) show the uniqueness of the Chinese business culture (Warner, 2010; Nolan, 2011). Many foreign workers would encounter unique challenges of the Chinese business and cultural environment as their cultural distances are so large (Torbiorn, 1982; Teagarden & Gordon, 1995; McEllister, 1998; Selmer, 1998b). Cultural novelty makes expatriates experience more stress and difficulty in adjusting to the host country (Harvey & Wiese, 1998b). The more novel and different the host culture is from the home culture, the more uncertainty perceived and the more difficult the work, interaction, and general adjustment would be (Black & Gregersen, 1991).

Redmond (2000) documented that cultural distance is a mediating factor between stress and intercultural communication competence. Parker and McEvoy (1993) proved that expatriates assigned to cultural distant countries have a significantly lower interaction adjustment. However, expatriates stationed to cultural distant countries adjust significantly better in general living environment (Parker & McEvoy, 1993). Peltokorpi (2008) found that cultural distance has a negative influence on both interaction and work adjustment. Cultural

distance moderates the relationship between expatriate staffing and subsidiary performance in the way that subsidiaries have lower performance when a higher ratio of parent country expatriates are relocated, especially in cases when cultural distance is high (Colakoglu & Caligiuri, 2008).

The underdeveloped living conditions of China also make expatriate early return more frequently happened in China than in other overseas destinations (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986). In an expatriate research conducted on Mainland China, Western European managers were less well adjusted than their North American counterparts on interacting with host nationals (Selmer, 2001). U.S., British and German expatriates were significantly better adjusted on social interaction than their French counterparts. Thus, it may be related to their national background and origin, which would give different reliability perceptions to local people (Bonache & Barraga-Oberty, 2008). Knowledge transfer is much smoother when advice and examples taught are easily accepted by local employees if international staff is perceived as a reliable source (Szulanski, 1996). When a person is being treated less favorably because of his/her cultural membership, a feeling of stress is created (Sanchez & Brock, 1996) and it may be more likely to reject the local culture (Sanchez, Spector & Cooper, 2000). As a result, expatriates from certain origins may encounter more problems in China. Selmer (2006b, 2007) tried to prove cultural novelty has negative associations with general adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment with an expatriate sample in China. However, no significant findings sorted, which implies that it is difficult for expatriates to adjust when the cultural novelty is high or low.

Some MNEs send overseas Chinese (from Hong Kong, Malaysia and Taiwan etc) instead of Westerners to China in a belief that they have language and cultural skill requirements

(Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Yeung and Tung, 1996; Goodall & Warner, 1998; McEllister, 1998; Selmer, 1998a; Tung & Yeung, 1998; Wilson & Brennan, 2010) and so as their better understanding of Chinese religious and political systems (Kaye & Taylor, 1997). In addition, overseas Chinese are chosen because it is believed that they can develop guanxi easier with local parties as they may share some commonalities, e.g., kinship and locality (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Chen, 2001; Tung and Worm, 2001). These findings matched with the proposed idea of Bonache and Zarraga-Oberty (2008) that more effective communication would be resulted between international and local staff if they come from similar cultures.

Expatriates who are assigned to a cultural distant country are always conscious and alert of cultural dissimilarity, whereas expatriates assigned to a culturally closer country always fail to identify the existing cultural differences which may lead to a cultural clash (Brewster, Lundmark & Holden, 1993; Brewster, 1995a). For example, Brewster (1995a) argued that expatriates sent to culturally similar countries may encounter more "shock". Similar findings were proved in a study with expatriates working in hotel industry in Beijing, although it was not statistically significant (Kaye & Taylor, 1997). Non-Asian expatriates were found to have a slightly greater inter-cultural sensitivity than Asian expatriates. In the same study, it was proved that Asian expatriates are more prone to culture shock than non-Asians. Local people have more expectations on Asians than on non-Asians (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994; Kaye & Taylor, 1997). If both an Asian and a non-Asian make the same cultural mistake, the non-Asian can be easily forgiven but not the Asian (Hung, 1994). That helps to explain why Asian expatriates experience more cultural shock. Asians seem to have a more similar cultural background, e.g., culture, language, religion and political systems, to mainland people and it is the main reason why they are chosen and relocated to China. However, cities like Hong Kong, which has exposed to both the Western and Eastern influences, a set of unique values has been developed

in this pearl in Asia (Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung & Terpstra, 1992; Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung & Terpstra, 1993; Hung, 1994). Although an Australian negotiator commented that overseas Chinese are generally treated well in China, except if they come from Hong Kong (Stone, 1995), overseas Chinese are considered as "outsiders" as they hold the passports of other countries and many of them are not native speakers of Mandarin in addition that they were educated in the West (Nolan, 2011). Many local Chinese envy these overseas Chinese because of their chances of being educated in Western societies (Chen, 2001).

Many overseas Chinese in other countries also consider the China assignments as "hardship" postings (McEllister, 1998). Expecting to take advantage of the cultural heritage, sending overseas Chinese to China assignment was expected they would have an easy and quicker adjustment. However, many Hong Kong managers refrain from adapting their managerial styles to local practices in China (Selmer & Shiu, 1999). In addition, they insist the local subordinates strictly follow the parent company standards and behaviour. Many overseas Chinese working in China also agree that they faced more initial resistance as bosses and subordinates from the local colleagues than did their Caucasian counterparts (Napier & Taylor, 2002). Finally, frustrations, resentment and withdrawal are resulted in many cases because overseas Chinese expatriates cannot get the cooperation of the locals (Selmer, 1998d; Selmer & Shiu, 1999; Nolan, 2011). In addition of the following hypotheses, the study will also explore if Asian and non-Asian would experience different sources of stress in China.

H48: Expatriates from Asian countries and non-Asian countries experience the same level of job itself satisfaction.

H49: Expatriates from Asian countries and non-Asian countries experience the same level of organization satisfaction.

H50: Expatriates from Asian countries and non-Asian countries experience the same level of in China satisfaction.

2.11.2   Male vs. Female Expatriates

Although female expatriates are still regarded as a minority in comparison with the male group (Adler, 1984a; Stone, 1991; Harvey, 1996; Global Relocation Trends Survey, 2010; Tung, 1998; Caligiuri, Joshi, & Lazarova, 1999; Florakowski & Fogel, 1999; Linehan & Walsh, 1999; Hasberger, 2010; Selmer, 2006a), their increase presence in international assignment means that MNEs can no longer afford to ignore this pool of potential expatriate candidates (Anderson, 2001; Selmer & Leung, 2002). For example, there were only 3 percent of female expatriates identified in a group of 13,338 expatriate managers in a survey with 686 Canadian and American multinationals involved in 1980s (Adler, 1984b). There were 11 percent females in a study of Florakowski and Fogel (1999) with a sample of 225 expatriates in 1990s. Although there was an improvement in terms of their headcount over the years, the percentage was still small compared with the male counterpart.

Besides the headcount, females are still behind their male counter-parts in international assignments, in terms of positions hold (Linehan & Scullion, 2001; Hofbauer & Fischlmayr, 2004). MNEs prefer sending male rather than female expatriates. For example, in a survey with 60 MNEs as the sample, Adler (1984a) found that 53.8% of these MNEs were hesitant to send women for international assignments. Female international managers also hold the same belief. Linehan and Walsh (1999) interviewed 50 senior female international managers in a European

80

context and found the sample believes that it is much more difficult for female managers to be selected for an international assignment than their male counterparts. These senior female international managers believe that the home-country senior management presumes female managers would not be interested in international assignment because of their domestic responsibilities. Another concern of the interviewees is informal networking and access to mentoring relationships matter in being selected and men still hold and control the power for developing network and mentor relationships in organizations nowadays (Linehan & Walsh, 1999; Linehan & Scullion, 2001). The participants also suggest that many home-country senior male managers feel threatened by their female counterparts. In order to reduce this threat, they often promote people who are similar to them (i.e. other males) to international positions (Linehan & Walsh, 1999; Linehan & Scullion, 2001).

In addition, some HR professionals concern that women would feel lonely and isolated, and would even be victims of sexual harassment if they are relocated overseas (Izraeli, Banai & Zeira, 1980; Adler, 1984a; Napier & Taylor, 2002). However, Taylor and Napier (1996) argued the major frustrations and stress that expatriates experienced overseas are due to the isolation experienced. Comparing the two genders, it may be easier for female as they have long experienced exclusion from the corporate networks. Other scholars (Stroh, Varma & Valy-Durbin, 2000; Selmer & Leung, 2002) believe glass ceiling and sex-role stereotyping hinder females not being considered as the expatriate candidates.

Selmer and Leung (2003a) found that the female expatriates are significantly less often CEOs in Hong Kong and fewer of them are married in comparison with their male counterparts. On the other hand, there are no significant proofs to show gender differences on the number of

previous expatriate assignments, time as an expatriate or tenure with the parent corporation. These findings support the discussion that headquarters may hold a discriminating belief on the success potential of female expatriates on their overseas assignments. In addition, the lower positions of the female expatriates on the hierarchy of the overseas operations may also negatively influence the way they act and adjust there.

Due to cultural bias, being a female expatriate can be a significant liability in countries like Middle East, Latin America, and Japan (Thal & Cateora, 1979). In a wide range of countries, including Japan, Korea, Saudi Arabia, Italy, Greece, Australia and France, women are considered as second class citizens; their mobility is limited; their role in business is restricted; or in the worse case, they are excluded from the world of work (Adler, 1984a). As a result, male expatriates are considered more acceptable by the locals but not the female expatriates (Adler, 2002). Therefore, female expatriates may encounter difficulties when they work with internal and external parties in the overseas branches in these countries.

However, many researchers (Adler, 1984a, 1997; Adler & Izraeli, 1988) argue that the female cultural liability applies to domestic positions only but not to expatriates. Female expatriates are seen as parent-company representatives at first, as foreigners at second and then as females at third. In other words, female expatriates do not encounter the same problems that local female managers face (Culpan & Wright, 2002). The comparatively small of them in number also makes them highly visible in the eyes of local business partners, especially in countries with "male-dominated" value system. Therefore, it works as an advantage of being a female expatriate (Adler, 1984a; Taylor & Napier, 1996; Napier & Taylor, 2002). They are also

very well accepted in China as they are considered as a source of knowledge rather than females (Napier & Taylor, 2002).

However, Torbiorn (1982) argued that "the role and habits of life in the host country which apply particularly to women" and it affects the way of adjustment. In other words, it appears that some cultures are extra "culturally-tough" for women to adapt to because of an inherent "male-dominated" value system existed in these cultures (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). When female expatriates are assigned to more culturally tough countries, they find prejudice against them exists and they are more likely to perceive host country prejudice work as a barrier to their effectiveness (Adler, 1984a; Stroh, Varma & Valy-Durbin, 2000). In addition, duration of their assignments affects their perception. The longer they stay in these countries, the less likely they think the tough culture inhibits their effectiveness.

Tung (1995) argued that women are more suitable for overseas work in comparison with men due to indirectness in communication; emphasis on cooperation over competition; and isolation in a foreign setting. To verify the argument, Caligiuri and Tung (1999) compared the success of male and female expatriates in different cultures by using a sample of expatriates from a US-based multinational company. First of all, they found the appearance of women in the work force and managerial posts, and their linkages with the four cultural dimensions found by Hofstede. It was proved that countries lower in power distance have a higher percentage of women in management. Countries that are low in uncertainty avoidance are more likely to have women in the workforce, particularly in managerial positions. Another supported hypothesis also proves that women are more likely to achieve positions of management in individualistic societies, where attributes and abilities of individuals are valued.

83

In the same study, Cligiuri and Tung (1999) then tested if male and female expatriates have the same success on their global assignments, regardless of the degree of participation of women in professional and managerial ranks in a given country's workforce. The proxy factors used to measure success of global assignments were desire to terminate the assignment, cross-cultural adjustment, and supervisor-rated performance. The only significant finding proves that male expatriates are unaffected by the percentage of women in the workforce, whereas women expatriates themselves report lower adjustment in countries with fewer women in the workforce. There is no clear explanation on this low self-reported rating. It may due to the reason that female expatriates are highly aware of their salience in the professional ranks, and they rate accordingly on their own cross-cultural adjustment. It may also be the case that the host nationals respond to female expatriates differently, thus lowering their own rating on cross-cultural adjustment. In measuring the gender differences on success based on the over-arching work values of the countries to which they are assigned, female expatriates are significantly less adjusted in masculine countries; both male and female expatriates are equally adjusted in feminine cultures. On uncertainty avoidance, significant findings prove that female expatriates are less adjusted than men in high uncertainty-avoidant countries, compared to low uncertainty-avoidant countries. For the dimensions of power distance and individualism, no significant differences are found between male and female expatriates on any of the three proxy factors for success on global assignment. These results suggest that the two genders are more or less equally successful on their global assignments.

To check whether women would like to work overseas or not, Adler (1986) found no significant difference between male and female MBA students in their willingness to accept overseas assignments. However, Yurkiewicz and Rosen (1995) documented that in a group of

potential expatriates, men are more willing to relocate than women. There are many female expatriates who ask the MNEs to send them abroad (Linehan & Scullion, 2001; Fischlmayr, 2002). Although many of these female expatriates want to go abroad to accompany their husbands for an overseas assignment, it is another piece of evidence to show that MNEs are in preference of male expatriates in overseas assignments.

For female expatriates who are overseas at the moment, a study found that they are satisfied overall with their overseas assignments, especially when their jobs have multiple responsibilities and are more diverse compared with their jobs at home (Culpan & Wright, 2002; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Harrison & Michailova, 2012). There are also evidences showing that female expatriates are better adjusted than male expatriates in all three adjustment areas (Selmer & Leung, 2003b; Hasberger, 2010). In addition, female expatriates are significantly better in building and maintaining relationships with host nationals (Napier & Taylor; 2002; Hasberger, 2010). Therefore, they can work better with clients in Asian and Latin American countries where relationship development are important (Adler, 2002).

However, there are some cases that many female reject overseas assignments because of the career development and life problems (Adler, 1984b; Selmer & Leung, 2003c). For example, Selmer and Leung (2002) found that female business expatriates less often meet their career goals within their corporation than their male counterparts. Specifically, there is also a tentative indication that women regard their expatriation as a less useful move than men. In other words, international assignments are a poorer career choice than remaining at home from the perceptions of female expatriates. In addition, for those relocated to countries like Japan, female expatriates are not considered by the locals as suitable for romantic relationships and for those

who dated Japanese men reported too much incompatibility in their role expectations (Taylor & Napier, 1996). Thus, their social lives overseas are less attractive than those of their male counterparts (Vu, 2005). On the hand female expatriate candidates who come from traditional families where the husband's role is the bread winner and the wife's role is home maker and caregiver, females may reject overseas assignments since their careers are considered as optional in comparison with their husbands' (Harvey & Wiese, 1998b; Linehan & Scullion, 2001).

Although they are highly visible and bear more job responsibility than were at home, many female expatriates complain that they have difficulty in gaining credibility in countries like Japan, China and Turkey (Napier & Taylor, 2002). For single female expatriates, they have frustrations in their social life in China. For example, it is almost impossible for them to develop relationships with foreign men. The limited number of these foreign men are "captivated" by local women and pursued by them, or they are already married (Napier & Taylor, 2002). For married female expatriates, they feel guilty for the children when their work takes too much of their time (Linehan & Scullion, 2001). In comparison with their male colleagues, female managers more often have to come across with decisions about the importance of their careers with their personal lives (Linehan & Scullion, 2001). In addition of testing the following hypotheses, this study also investigates if male and female expatriates experience different sources of stress in China.

H51: Female and male expatriates have the same level of job itself satisfaction.

H52: Female and male expatriates have the same level of organization satisfaction.

H53: Female and male expatriates have the same level of in China satisfaction.

2.12 Conclusion

After reviewing literature, hypotheses were generated from work and China related business environment, non-work general environment, and interacting with local people and local employees in China. In addition, hypotheses were also generated to make comparison between expatriates of the two genders and expatriates who are from Asian and non-Asian countries. The next chapter presents clearly the methodology of this research.

Chapter 3 Methodology

3.1 Data Collection

Qualitative and quantitative research approaches complement each other (Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002). Both methods were used to collect data in this study. Qualitative techniques, namely conversation, unstructured and semi-structured interviews, are good to investigate details and to provide good understanding of the rich and contextual data (Mason, 1996). Such methods focus on to understand more of the points of view of respondents (Reichardt & Cook, 1979). However, usually it costs more on time and resources to arrange and conduct the interviews. Due to the reason of cost effectiveness, it is difficult to have a large sample under a qualitative research approach. In addition, there is also the problem of generalizability (Bryman & Bell, 2007). Comparatively, quantitative approach is more cost effective to collect data from a large sample and have a better rating on generalizability.

For this study, it is a longitudinal study with qualitative method is used to uncover the experiences and behaviors of the sample in the first research stage. Semi-structured interviews were conducted. Information collected in the first stage worked as inputs for the quantitative approach. In the second stage, quantitative method, namely survey, is used to collect data from the sample and aggregate them to analyze the expatriate population in China. In the last stage, semi-structured interviews are conducted again to investigate more in-depth the findings of the quantitative data in the second data collecting stage.

3.1.1 Qualitative Study I

Semi-structured interviews were conducted with expatriates, spouses of expatriates and a local Chinese who had close contact with expatriates in work in China. Due to budget limitation, the author had to limit expatriates located in certain cities for interviews. As Beijing, Shanghai and Guangdong (e.g., Guangzhou, Zhuihai and Shenzen) attracted heavy inflow of foreign investment. **Appendix B** shows that among all provinces in China, Guangdong has the largest number of foreign registered enterprises, Shanghai the second and Beijing the sixth. Since there are no official publications of the allocation of expatriates in China, it would be logical to assume there are high concentrations of expatriates in these regions in regard the number foreign registered enterprises set up there. Therefore, the author mainly interviewed expatriates relocated in these regions.

Convenient sampling was used to select interviewees in Guangdong area. The author utilized both her academic and personal networks, and successfully interviewed seven expatriates and three spouses stationed in Guangzhou, Zhuihai and Shenzen. An MBA student at a university in Guangzhou introduced one of her expatriate friend in Guangzhou to the author for interview. Since many expatriates would like to join together to develop their own community (Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Olsen & Martins, 2009), they live very close to each other. Thus, the author was able to interview two more expatriates and also their spouses through the snowballing method. Although expatriates are the main subject to study, literature (Anderson & Stark, 1988; Frame & Shehan, 1994; Riusala & Suutari, 2000; Takeuchi et al., 2002) proved satisfaction of spouses in the host country worked as an ingredient to influence the lives of expatriates in the overseas assignment. Therefore, the author tried to interview the spouses too when there were chances to do so. Through her personal network, the author was able to interview four other Asian expatriates relocated in Zhuihai and Shenzen. The rest of the

interviews took place in Beijing and Shanghai.

Reviewing the 1999 Directory of Canadian Companies and Professionals in China, the author was able to make contact with eleven expatriates who came from Canada, the United States and Holland. All these expatriates worked in Canadian companies and they stationed in Beijing and Shanghai while the interviewing stage was processing. Finally, the author successfully interviewed ten of these eleven expatriates in the summer of 2000.

The rest of the interviewees were mainly American and German expatriates. The author relied on her personal network and successfully conducted the interviews. All of these interviewees were relocated in Beijing and Shanghai. These interviews were also conducted in the summer of 2000.

Interviews started in April 2000 and ended in October of the same year. **Table 3.1** shows the brief information of the interviewees (i.e. nationality) and interviews (e.g., date of interview, duration of interview, language and location of interview). Forty-three people were interviewed. Among the interviewees, the majority (39 people) were expatriates from twelve different countries/places. Among the rest of the interviewees, three of them were spouses (housewives) of these expatriates. The remaining one was a researcher who works at the China branch of a well known international consulting firm. She has many chances to work with and contact with expatriates or foreign workers both in work and non work settings. English was the main language used in the interviews, except for the Japanese expatriates and other overseas Chinese expatriates who can speak Mandarin and Cantonese. All, except one interview, were tape recorded under the consent of the interviewees.

90

Table 3.1: Summary of the Interviewees and Interview Information in Qualitative Study I

Expatriate/Spouse /Consultant	Nationality	Interview Date	Time	Interview Language	Interview Location
e-001*	Indian	4-22-00	10:30 to 11:45	English	Guangzhou
w-001*	Indian	4-22-00	11:45 to 12:15	English	Guangzhou
e-002	Indian	4-22-00	14:00 to 15:25	English	Guangzhou
e-003	Indian	4-22-00	15:40 to 16:40	English	Guangzhou
w-003	Indian	4-22-00	16:40 to 17:00	English	Guangzhou
e-004	Hong Kong	4-26-00	22:15 to 23:30	Cantonese	Macau
e-005	Taiwanese	4-29-00	21:50 to 23:15	Mandarin	Shenzen
e-006 (interview 1)	Japanese	5-14-00	11:30 to 12:50	Cantonese	Macau
e-006 (interview 2)		5-20-00	15:10 to 16:40	Cantonese	Zhuihai
w-006	Japanese	5-20-00	16:45 to 17:30	Cantonese	Zhuihai
e-007	Canadian Chinese	7-27-00	12:45 to 18:20	English /Mandarin	Beijing
e-008	Dutch	7-28-00	10:20 to 11:15	English	Beijing
e-009	Canadian	7-28-00	14:20 to 16:10	English	Beijing
e-010	American	7-28-00	14:30 to 16:40	English	Beijing
e-011	American	7-31-00	10:55 to 12:50	English	Beijing
e-012	American Chinese	7-31-00	18:15 to 19:15	English	Beijing
e-013	Canadian	8-1-00	09:50 to 11:10	English	Beijing
e-014	Russian	8-1-00	12:15 to 13:30	English	Beijing
e-015	American	8-1-00	20:35 to 21:50	English	Beijing
e-016	Canadian	8-2-00	09:55 to 11:20	English	Beijing
e-017	Canadian	8-2-00	14:55 to 16:35	English	Beijing
e-018	German	8-2-00	18:00 to 19:20	English	Beijing
e-019	American	8-3-00	11:25 to 13:05	English	Beijing
e-020	Canadian	8-4-00	10:30 to 13:05	English	Beijing
e-021	American	8-4-00	18:00 to 19:30	English	Beijing
e-022	American Taiwanese	8-5-00	10:15 to 11:15	English /Mandarin	Beijing
e-023	American	8-5-00	16:20 to 17:45	English	Beijing
e-024	Scottish	8-5-00	19:30 to 20:45	English	Beijing
e-025	British	8-6-00	15:15 to 16:40	English	Beijing
e-026	American Taiwanese	8-6-00	17:50 to 20:15	English	Beijing
e-027	German	8-8-00	15:20 to 16:45	English	Shanghai
e-028	German	8-10-00	16:10 to 17:20	English	Shanghai
e-029	Dutch	8-11-00	10:00 to 11:20	English	Shanghai
e-030	Japanese	8-11-00	13:45 to 14:15	English /Mandarin	Shanghai
c-001*	Local Chinese	8-15-00	09:05 to 10:10	English	Shanghai
e-031	British	8-15-00	14:25 to 15:45	English	Shanghai
e-032	American	8-15-00	16:30 to 17:25	English	Shanghai
e-033	Australian Chinese	8-16-00	16:10 to 17:35	English	Shanghai
e-034	German	8-17-00	09:00 to 10:15	English	Shanghai
e-035	American	8-17-00	11:30 to 13:30	English	Shanghai
e-036	American	8-17-00	18:20 to 19:30	English	Shanghai
e-037	Canadian	8-19-00	11:00 to 11:45	English	Phone Interview

| e-038 | Macau | 10-28-00 | 14:30 to 16:10 | Cantonese | Macau |
| e-039 | Canadian | 7-20-00 | n.a. | English | Email |

* e-001: expatriate 001, w-001: wife of expatriate 001, c-001: consultant 001

The in-depth interviews allowed the expatriates to talk about their lives in China in detail. As shown in **Table 3.1**, most interviews with expatriates lasted for an average of one hour and fifteen minutes. The shortest interview was conducted on the phone and it lasted for forty-five minutes. The longest interview was conducted with a Canadian Chinese and it lasted for five hours and thirty-five minutes. In the middle of the interview, the expatriate spent thirty minutes to pack his luggage and checked out from a hotel in Beijing. Then the interview continued. One of the interviewees, who is a Japanese, was even willing to see the author twice for telling the author more details of his feelings and stories.

The expatriates mentioned the real life problems they faced in China. The interviews also provided expatriates chances to clarify many stereotypes about them. **Appendix C** contains the list of questions asked in the semi-structured interview. Note that the list is quite long. However, depending on the willingness of interviewees to speak and also the content of the answers for the previous questions, the interviewer skipped some of the questions on the list. All, but one interview, were tape recorded and then transcribed. There were no existing pre-developed instruments that completely matched with the conditions of expatriates in the PRC. Information collected through interviews was used as inputs to develop some measurements and they were used in conjunction with some existing instruments to measure the life problems that expatriates may face in the PRC.

3.1.2 *Quantitative Study*

When the qualitative study was conducted, the author was reminded by many of the interviewees that the response rate of a mailed survey would be very low in the PRC. As being senior managers or representatives of the China subsidiaries, these expatriates received many different kinds of questionnaire in a year and they normally did not answer. Therefore, they suggested the author to find ways to over come the problem. Literature shows that it is normal for a mailed survey to have a response rate of lower than 15% if there are no pre-mailing contacts, prepaid or promised monetary or non-monetary incentives (Malhotra, 1993; Yu & Cooper, 1983). For a cultural context, like China, which values contact so much (Chen, 1995), arranging collaborators to help eases things a lot. It applies to business world and academic research as well. With assistance of collaborators in administering the delivery and collection of questionnaire in the PRC, the response rate could reach as high as 66.67% (Kuok, 1998; Noronha, 2002). The response rate could even reach 96% when the sample was from particular companies, in which the collaborators came from (Huang, Shi, Zhang & Cheung, 2004).

Based on literature (Selmer & Shiu, 1999); suggestions of interviewees in the qualitative stage; and experiences of the author and colleagues, the delivery of the questionnaire was administered in special ways over several stages. Pre-mailing contact was made to the sample. An introduction email letter was first sent to the expatriates or the Human Resources managers of MNEs in China first in order to get their consent to participate in the survey or their assistance to delivery the questionnaire to the appropriate parties. Email addresses of these people in contact were drawn from a directory, Foreign Companies in China Year Book 2003, which listed contact information of subsidiaries, joint ventures and associate companies of 3170 international companies in the PRC.

In similar research, many scholars use business directories published by different business councils. Under the scopes and objectives of different research, researchers intended to restrict the nationalities of companies or expatriates so they used the business directories from the business councils of particular countries only. The directory used in this survey lists information of 3170 international companies rather than companies from a particular country. Since the survey had no intension to restrict the number of the participants to a few nationalities, the mentioned directory was being used for this reason.

The purpose of making the pre-mailing contact was to achieve a higher response rate. One advantage to use email method is to make certain the email is received by the target. If the email address was not valid or mistakenly typed and made the email not delivered, a clarifying message would be sent to the sender immediately. However, the matter was it took time to send email one by one and also to manage the database. For postage method, most of the cases, the sender would never know whether the letter/questionnaire was received or not unless they were returned back to the sender. Email is more efficient and costs less than traditional postage. It also requires the receivers less effort to send a reply email (whether to accept or reject to participate) than a reply letter. Concerned the time needed, the delivery of a email takes a few seconds or minutes but a postage may take at least several days. Emails also facilitate the follow up process. Another matter concerned is the capacity of the hard disk since the exchange of emails would occupy a lot of the hard disk. Insufficient space of the hard disk would make this email pre-contact method not possible.

3.1.2.1 Stage One

With the consent and assistance of a mainland email newsletter (XianZai)[1], which has subscribers of expatriates stationed in China only, a brief note was posted on the newsletter for two months started in March of 2003 for free to invite expatriates to participate in the survey. A sample of the advertising note is shown in **Appendix D**. A brief introduction of the survey was given and then contact information of the author was also listed on the note so the interested expatriates would make contact with her. Thirty expatriates who were currently working in China were interested and thirty copies of English questionnaire were sent to them. Twenty-nine useful copies of questionnaire returned. With the small sample, the author decided to proceed with another method to approach a larger number of expatriates.

3.1.2.2 Stage Two

The second stage of data collection of the quantitative study took place in May 2003 after posting the advertising note on XianZai. In this stage, one hundred and thirty expatriates replied the pre-mailing email to show their interests to participate in the survey. However, twenty-one of them left China already so they were not qualified to be participants since the study investigated expatriates who were currently working in the PRC. Based on the preference of language, a hard copy of the questionnaire was sent to each of these 109 expatriates. The questionnaire was available in three language versions, namely English, Chinese and Japanese (See **Appendix E**). Of the 109 expatriates agreed to participate, 89 copies of questionnaire returned. With the pre-mailing contact through email, the response rate was as high as 81.65%. Although the response rate was high, the sample size was too small to generalize representative findings for the population. Therefore, a group of collaborators were hired to assist the delivery

---

[1] Website address of XianZai: http://www.xianzai.com/

of questionnaire at the third stage.

3.1.2.3 Stage Three

Twenty-two collaborators helped to administer the delivery and collection of the questionnaire in the summer of 2004. Collaborators were previous students of the researcher. Previous instead of current students were selected to avoid conflicts of interests. All these students came from the PRC. A two hour briefing session was given to the 22 students about the objective of the study; the details of the sample target and also instructions to fill the questionnaire. Students delivered and collected the questionnaire in their home town in the summer (July to August) of 2004. To avoid giving these collaborators too much pressure, each of them was suggested to take a number of questionnaire that they felt comfortable to handle with, rather than being assigned a specific number by the author. The number of questionnaire taken by each student ranged from 10 to 55. Students were also told to make more copies of the questionnaire at their home town when they discovered they had not enough copies.

All together, the twenty-two collaborators delivered 353 copies of questionnaire and had 273 copies of them returned. The response rate was 77.33%. In comparison with stage two, a response rate of 77.33% was a bit lower but still a relatively high response rate compared with other distribution methods. The total number of collected questionnaire in all stages was 391. However, two of them were from the spouses of the expatriates and these spouses were simply housewives. In addition, there were nineteen copies with quite a lot of missing variables. Therefore, they were not counted and there were 370 useful questionnaires collected in all the above mentioned stages.

3.1.3 Qualitative Study II

The second round of semi-structured interviews was conducted in August of 2011 in Beijing. Nine interviews were conducted with expatriates of a MNE located in Beijing. Although all these expatriates worked in the same company, the author was on purpose to look for interviewees with diversified background, e.g., nationality and nature of assignment. **Table 3.2** shows the information of interviewees and interviews. All interviews last for an average of 60 minutes. **Appendix F** shows the interview questions.

Table 3.2: Summary of the Interviewees and Interview Information in Qualitative Study II

Expatriate	Nationality	Interview Date	Time	Interview Language	Interview Location
e-040	Taiwanese	8-23-2011	09:25 to 10:40	Mandarin/English	Beijing
e-041	American	8-23-2011	11:00 to 12:00	English	Beijing
e-042	American	8-23-2011	15:00 to 16:00	English	Beijing
e-043	Taiwanese	8-23-2011	17:00 to 18:00	Mandarin/English	Beijing
e-044	American Indian	8-24-2011	10:00 to 10:40	English	Beijing
e-045	American	8-24-2011	11:00 to 11:45	English	Beijing
e-046	Korean	8-24-2011	13:00 to 13:50	English	Beijing
e-047	Hong Kong	8-24-2011	14:00 to 15:00	Cantonese	Beijing
e-048	Hong Kong	8-25-2011	11:00 to 12:00	Cantonese	Beijing

3.2 Method

3.2.1 Sample

The sample had spent an average of 3.72 years in China (SD = 3.30) on the current assignment. On average, they had worked in their company for 6.22 years (SD = 6.08) including the China assignment. The average age of the expatriates was 39.34 years old (SD = 9.98).

Table 3.3 shows more details of the respondents. Similar to other research, male expatriates was the majority (77.00 %) in this sample. Most of them were married (62.10%), although this rate was lower in comparison with other studies (Selmer & Leung, 2003b). This may indicate that more potential expatriate candidates considered China as a hardship assignment. For those married candidates, they were not willing to accept the China assignment as the China postings might have put their family lives at risk.

Majority of the expatriates came from Taiwan (19.12%). The United States (12.19%), Hong Kong (8.59%), the United Kingdom (7.48%), Japan (6.28%) and Canada (5.54%) followed. Both Hong Kong and Macau became the Special Administrative Regions (SAR) of China after the British and Portuguese governments returned their sovereignties back to China in 1997 and 1999 respectively. Since these two places were colonies of the U.K. and Portugal for hundreds of years, Western cultures had rooted in these two cities. In addition, together with managers sent from Taiwan as well, they are employed on expatriate terms which are similar to expatriates from other Western countries (Hon & Lu, 2010). Therefore, many residents in these two places still considered themselves as expatriates if they were sent and relocated to work in China. As a result, they were also classified as expatriates in this study.

Most of these respondents were highly educated. Almost fifty-one percent of them got a bachelor degree and thirty-nine percent of them hold a postgraduate degree. The expatriates highly concentrated in Shanghai (23.71%), Guangdong (16.35%), Zhejiang (14.45%), Beijing (13.08%) and Tianjin (12.54%). Since majority of the questionnaire were collected by student collaborators, the high concentration of expatriates came from these places were directly related to the home towns of these student collaborators.

Table 3.3: Sample Background

Background Variables	Frequency	Per cent
Gender		
Male	284	77.00
Female	85	23.00
Married	228	62.10
Nationality		
Taiwanese	69	19.12
US	44	12.19
Hong Kong	31	8.59
UK	27	7.48
Japanese	23	6.38
Canadian	20	5.54
South Korean	18	4.99
German	17	4.71
Australia	16	4.44
Italian	13	3.61
Other western	55	15.24
Other Asian	28	7.76
Educational Qualifications		
Undergraduate Degree	184	50.80
Postgraduate Degree	142	39.20
Locations in China		
Shanghai	87	23.71
Guangdong	60	16.35
Zhejiang	53	14.45
Beijing	48	13.08
Tianjin	46	12.54
Jiangshu	34	9.27
Fujian	29	7.91

The final sample size is 370 which is a good size for tests like factor analysis according

to the recommendations of many statisticians (Kass & Tinsley, 1979; Comrey & Lee, 1992;

Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001; Field, 2005). A desired ratio of observation to variable for factor

analysis is 5 to 1 (Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010) and the smallest ratio of the current study is 6.61 to 1 which is better than the satisfactory ratio.

3.2.2   Measures

The questionnaire was organized into eight parts. Questions of these parts came from other existing instruments, ideas of literature and interview contents in the first qualitative stage. The first part measured demographic data of the sample. The second part measured motives of the sample to accept the China assignment (13 items) (from interviews). The third part measured training and preparation taken before the sample moved to China (7 questions) (from interviews). The next part measured health conditions by using SF-36 Health Survey (36 items) (Ware, Snow, Kosinski & Gandek, 1993). The other parts measured work and general satisfaction (18 items) (Williams and Cooper, 1998; and from interviews), experiences within China (68 items) (Black, 1988; and interviews), sources of pressure (56 items) (Williams & Cooper, 1998; and from interviews) and coping methods (23 items) (Williams & Cooper, 1998; and interviews). **Appendix E** shows the questionnaire in English, Chinese and Japanese versions. The questionnaire was circulated among academics to check the wordings and time for each questionnaire being filled. Minor corrections were made and it took about forty minutes to fill each copy. To meet the purpose of this study, not all parts of the questionnaire will be analyzed. Here a brief introduction is given to all parts that would be investigated in this study.

3.2.2.1 Background/Demographics

This part contained 24 questions which mostly solicited demographic data and background information of the subjects. Company information; years of experiences in the company; years of experiences in China; assignment status; duration of assignment; intention to leave China;

days of absence; and amount of cigarette and alcohol consumption were other information assessed in this part. There were also questions which checked if major events or illness happed in the last three months which might have impact toward the subjects. (Please see **Appendix E** section I for details).

3.2.2.2 Motives for Accepting Assignment

This section investigated the reasons for expatriates to accept the China assignment. During interviews in the qualitative stage of this study, the subjects were asked about the reasons for them to come to China. Answers provided by the sample were used to develop questions in this section. Thirteen items were developed to measure their motives to accept assignments in China. These motives included a higher position, better compensation, more autonomy to work in China, more opportunities, international experience, and contribution to China's growth etc. (Please see **Appendix E** section II for details). A 6-point "Likert" scale was used to let the subjects indicate if the items were the likely reasons for their choice to work in China (1 indicated "Very unlikely" and 6 indicated "Very likely").

3.2.2.3 Work and General Satisfaction

Twelve items adopted from the Pressure Management Indicator (PMI) (Williams & Cooper, 1998) were used to assess job satisfaction (6 items) and organization satisfaction (6 items) from the sample. In-depth interviews were conducted with a group of 39 expatriates and they suggested some other areas in which satisfaction was being derived. Therefore, additional six items were added in this section. These six items were more China and relocation related than the twelve items used in the PMI. (Please see **Appendix E** Section V for details). A 6-point "Likert" scale was used to measure their levels of satisfaction on these eighteen items

(1 meant "Very much dissatisfaction" and 6 meant "Very much satisfaction").

3.2.2.4 Experiences within China

Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) developed an adjustment model of expatriates on three dimensions, which were adjustment to the general living environment, work and interaction. Based on the model of Black *et al*. (1991), the first three tracks of this section investigated the perceptions of expatriates on the local environment (16 items on perception of the local environment and 3 items on recreational activities: f2a to f2p and f21 to f23), local people (16 items on their opinions about local people: f7a to f7p), local employees (12 items on their opinions about local employees: f9a to f9l). (Please see **Appendix E** Section VI for details.) A 6-point "Likert" scale was used again as the measuring scale for the items in assessing the opinions of the sample on local environment (16 items), local people (16 items), local employees (12 items), and recreational activities (3 items). (1 stood for "Completely disagree" and 6 stood for "Completely agree"). To avoid the acquiescence problem, 6 of the 16 items in assessing agreement of respondents on local environment; 6 of the 16 items in assessing agreement on local people; 5 of the 12 items in assessing agreement of respondents on local workers; and 2 of the 3 items in assessing the agreement of respondents on recreational activities were reverse worded (Spector, 1992). Factor analysis was performed on each of these sections separately as shown in the next chapter.

3.2.2.5 Sources of Pressure

Of the 40 items used to assess the sources of work related pressure, eight factors were generated from the study of Williams and Cooper (1998). They measured the levels of pressure of the subjects from workload, relationships, recognition, organization climate, personal

responsibility, managerial role, home-work balance, and daily hassles. **Table 3.4** shows the eight

scales and their reliabilities in this sample (For item details, please see **Appendix E** Section VII

for details). All factors were highly reliable except hassles (alpha = .61), managerial role (alpha

= .64) and organization climate (alpha = .69) but their alphas were also in a moderate level (Hair

et al., 2003).

Table 3.4: Scales of Work Pressure

Scale	Items	Reliabilities
Workload	g2, g6, g12, g13, g17, g25	.81
Home/Work Balance	g11, g24, g28, g30, g38, g39	.82
Personal Responsibility	g19, g31, g35, g36	.74
Hassles	g7, g9, g10, g27	.61
Recognition	g3, g23, g33, g37	.76
Relationships	g4, g5, g8, g14, g15, g16, g18, g20	.85
Managerial Role	g1, g21, g22, g32	.64
Organization Climate	g26, g29, g34, g40	.69

Since the targets of the study were expatriates who worked in China at the moment, the

specific cultural environment and business context in China may also give pressure to these

subjects. Therefore, additional 16 items were added based on the contents from interviews in the

previous qualitative stage of the research to investigate other possible sources of pressure for

this sample. These included time taken to obtain support from headquarters; participating in

business-related/relationship building activities during non-office hours; being available to

make contact with headquarters after office hours; lots of ambiguous rules and regulations; and

working with Chinese co-workers etc. (Please see **Appendix E** Section VII for details). A

6-point "Likert" scale was also used to measure if the mentioned item was a source of stress for

the respondent. (1 stood for "Very definitely is not a source" and 6 stood for "Very definitely is

a source").

3.3 Translation

Most items of the questionnaire were from well-developed scales (PMI). These items were originally developed in English. A Chinese version was also available. The added items by the author were also developed in English and then translated into Chinese. A back-translation was also carried out on the entire questionnaire to ensure both English and Chinese versions had the same meaning. A native Chinese speaker then checked the accuracy and grammar (smoothness) of the translated version.

The full English version of the questionnaire was also translated into Japanese by a Japanese translator and then back-translated into English by another translator to ensure the consistency of meaning of both English and Japanese versions. Then, a native Japanese speaker checked the accuracy and smoothness of the translated Japanese version.

3.4 Quantitative Models

Different quantitative tests would be performed on the data collected from the final sample of 370 respondents. First of all, principal component analysis would be performed to condense the idea on both the independent variables, e.g., sources of stress, and dependent variables, e.g., the different satisfaction types. Next, multiple regression analyses would also be performed to test the hypotheses set in Chapter two to see the main sources of stress for the entire sample. T-tests would also be performed on the different satisfaction types for the two genders and also as on Asian and non-Asian continent origins. Finally, multiple regression analyses would also be performed for the two gender groups separately and also for the Asian and non-Asian groups to see if sources of stress would be different for each of these groups. Details and results of these

analyses are shown in the next chapter.

3.5 Conclusion

This research is a longitudinal study in using both quantitative and qualitative methods to collect data about the expatriate groups in China. Both the quantitative and qualitative methods; measures; sample background; and quantitative models used are described in detail in this chapter. Next chapter would scrutinize how different quantitative models are applied on the data in detail.

Chapter 4 Results

4.1 Introduction

Mainly factor analysis and regression were conducted on the data set to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter 2. Details of how these tests were performed and results are presented in the following sections.

4.2 Motives of Coming to China

Responses on the 13 items were factor analyzed using principal components extraction and varimax rotation. Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were generated. Total variance retained was 58.14%. However, item b2 (.495), b5 (.445) and b9 (.473) had communalities lower than .50 which indicated that they accounted for less than one-half the amount of variance they were supposed to be accounted for. Therefore, b5 which had the lower communality was removed and factor analysis was performed again on the remaining 12 items. If there were items with communality lower than .50, the item with the lowest communality would be removed and factor analysis be conducted again. The same procedures applied until all communalities reached at least .50. Finally, factor analysis was performed on 9 items (b5, b2, b1, b9 removed). Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 62.96%. The overall Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO) was .684. The individual KOMs were from .603 to .744. The determinant was .128 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant. Factor loadings are presented in **Table 4.1.** The first factor was named China exposure. The second and third factors were named better reward and future career respectively. Coefficient alpha reliabilities for these factors were .67 for China exposure, .80 for better reward, and .61 for future career. Although the alphas for China

exposure and future career were below .70, their strengths of association were in a moderate level (Hair, Babin, Money & Samouel, 2003).

Table 4.1: Factor Analysis of Motives for Accepting China Assignment

	Component		
	China Exposure	**Better Reward**	**Future Career**
b10 Know more about the Chinese culture	.782		
b11 Environment in China would be better	.720		
b12 Gain international experience	.696		
b13 Gain more experience in China	.554		
b4 Better compensation		.852	
b3 A higher position in China		.850	
b8 Add values to my future career			.791
b6 Potential market			.670
b7 More opportunities in China			.563
Eigenvalues:	1.96	1.93	1.78
Percent of variance explained:	21.75	21.47	19.74

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

Means and standard deviations of the three motives of coming to China are shown in **Table 4.2**. For the entire sample, future career and China exposure were more important reasons for the sample to come to work in China as the means of these two factors were above the mid-point scale. Comparatively, future career was the most important reason (See **Table 4.2** for details).

Table 4.2: Motives of Coming to China

Motives	Mean	Std. Deviation
Future Career	4.21	1.09

China Exposure	3.93	1.04
Better Reward	3.35	1.43

When the motives of coming to China were compared between expatriates coming from Asian and non-Asian countries, future career was the same important for both groups (See **Table 4.3**). A marginal difference was found between the two groups on China exposure. Expatriates who came from Asian countries were more motivated to be in China by China exposure. For gender, no significant differences were found on their motives of coming to China (See **Table 4.4**).

Table 4.3: Motives of Coming to China for Continent Origin

Continent Origin	Future Career	China Exposure	Better Reward
Non Asian Countries (N = 192)	4.21 (1.11)	3.84$^{\#}$ (1.05)	3.24 (1.50)
Asian Countries (N = 168)	4.21 (1.08)	4.02$^{\#}$ (1.03)	3.46 (1.36)

$^{\#}$ p < .10

Table 4.4: Motives of Coming to China for Gender

Gender	Future Career	China Exposure	Better Reward
Female (N = 85)	4.21 (1.09)	4.06 (1.14)	3.19 (1.41)
Male (N = 284)	4.21 (1.10)	3.89 (1.01)	3.39 (1.44)

4.3 Satisfaction

Responses on the 18 items that measured satisfaction were factor analyzed using principal components extraction and varimax rotation. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were generated. Total variance retained was 59.56%. However, item e4 (.486), e14 (.340) and e18 (.496) had communalities lower than .50 which indicated that they accounted for less than

one-half the amount of variance they were supposed to be accounted for. Therefore, item e14 which had the lowest communality was removed and factor analysis was performed again on the remaining 17 items. The same procedures applied until all communalities reached at least .50. Finally, factor analysis was performed on 15 items (e14 and e4 removed). Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 62.66%. Overall KMO was .916 and individual KMOs were from .834 to .951. Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant. Factor loadings are presented in **Table 4.5**. The first factor was named job itself. The second and the third factors were named organization and in China respectively. The alpha for job itself was .90. The alphas for organization and in China were .86 and .79. All of the three scales were highly reliable as all the alphas were above .70 (Hair et al., 2003).

Table 4.5: Factor Analysis of Work and General Satisfaction

	Component		
	Job Itself	Organization	In China
e17 The job responsibilities you bear	.771		
e9 The degree to which your job taps the range of skills which you feel you possess	.764		
e7 The degree to which you feel that you can personally develop or grow in your job	.701		
e15 The job challenge of your current assignment	.670		
e3 The degree to which you feel "motivated" by your job	.663		
e6 The kind of work or tasks you are required to perform	.659		
e18 The career impact of your current assignment	.658		
e2 The actual job itself	.601		
e12 The degree to which you feel extended in your job	.583		
e11 The design or shape of your organization's structure		.801	
e5 The way changes and innovations are implemented		.775	
e8 The way in which conflicts are resolved in your organization		.761	
e10 The psychological "feel" or climate that dominates your organization		.752	

e1 Communication and the way information flows around your organization		.752	
e13 Living in China			.852
e16 Being and working in China			.798
Eigenvalues:	4.55	3.43	2.05
Percent of variance explained:	28.42	21.44	12.79

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 6 iterations.

Descriptive statistics of work and general satisfaction are shown in **Table 4.6**. In general, the entire sample was quite satisfied in the three dimensions of satisfaction as all of them were above the mid-point scale. In China satisfaction was the most satisfactory factor among the three scales. Job itself satisfaction the second and organization satisfaction the third (See **Table 4.6**).

Table 4.6: Work and General Satisfaction in China

Satisfaction	Mean	Std. Deviation
In China Satisfaction	4.46	.93
Job Itself Satisfaction	4.27	.74
Organization Satisfaction	3.78	.89

4.4 Sources of stress

4.4.1 Work and China related work sources

Of the 40 items used to assess the sources of work stress, eight factors were generated from the study of Williams and Cooper (1998). They measured the levels of pressure of the subjects from workload, relationships, recognition, organization climate, personal responsibility, managerial role, home-work balance, and daily hassles. **Table 4.7** shows the eight scales and

their reliabilities in this sample (For item details, please see **Appendix E** Section VII for details). All factors were highly reliable except hassles (alpha = .61), managerial role (alpha = .64) and organization climate (alpha = .69) but their alphas were also in a moderate level (Hair et al., 2003).

Table 4.7: Scales of Work Pressure

Scale	Items	Reliabilities
Workload	g2, g6, g12, g13, g17, g25	.81
Home/Work Balance	g11, g24, g28, g30, g38, g39	.82
Personal Responsibility	g19, g31, g35, g36	.74
Hassles	g7, g9, g10, g27	.61
Recognition	g3, g23, g33, g37	.76
Relationships	g4, g5, g8, g14, g15, g16, g18, g20	.85
Managerial Role	g1, g21, g22, g32	.64
Organization Climate	g26, g29, g34, g40	.69

Principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 16 items (g41 to g56) added through the first round of interviews. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were generated. Total variance retained was 57.09%. However, there were a few items (g42 = .468, g49 = .389, g53 = .478, g55 = .445 and g56 = .480) with communalities lower than .50. When the communality of an item is lower than .50, it indicates that the item accounts for less than one-half the amount of variance it is supposed to be accounted for. Therefore, g49 which had the lowest communality was removed and factor analysis was performed again on the remaining 15 items. The same procedures applied until all communalities reached at least .50. Finally, factor analysis was performed on 11 items (g49, g55, g53, g42 and g56 removed). Four factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 74.32%. The overall KMO was .896 and all the individual KMOs were above .800. The determinant was .007 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant. **Table 4.8** shows the

factor loadings of the factors. The first two factors were named working with Chinese (alpha = .85) and inadequate supports from headquarters (alpha = .76). The third and fourth factors were named Chinese business environment (alpha = .71) and rules and regulations (alpha = .66). All alphas were in good and very good strength of association except rules and regulations but it was still in a moderate level (Hair et al., 2003).

Table 4.8: Factor Analysis of China Related Work Pressure

	Component			
	Working With Chinese	Inadequate Supports from HQ	Chinese Business Environment	Rules & Regulations
g47 Working with Chinese outside our company	.796			
g46 Working with Chinese co-workers	.791			
g54 Doing business with local customers/companies	.695			
g48 Negotiate with local business partners	.604			
g41 Time taken to obtain support from HQ		.822		
g43 Being available to make contact with HQ after office hours		.763		
g50 HQ lacks of understanding of local business environment		.613		
g51 Developing guanxi with business partners or government authorities			.800	
g52 Double standard to foreign and local firms			.744	
g45 Rules and regulations are seldom published and are in Chinese				.857
g44 Lots of ambiguous rules and regulations				.744
Eigenvalues:	2.47	2.06	2.04	1.60
Percent of variance explained:	22.42	18.76	18.57	14.57

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations

4.4.2 General environment sources

Responses on the 19 items which measured general environment in China were factor analyzed using principal components extraction and varimax rotation. Six factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were first generated. Total variance retained was 59.71%. However, three items have communalities lower than .50 (f2g = .485, f2m = .482 and f2e = .380) which indicated that each of them accounted for less than one-half the amount of variance they were supposed to be accounted for. Therefore, item f2e which had the lowest communality was removed first and factor analysis was performed again on the remaining 18 items. Then communalities of all items were checked to see if they reached .50. If there were some items not reaching the criterion of .50 for communality, the one with the lowest level of communality would be removed and factor analysis be conducted again. The same procedures applied until all communalities of all items reached at least .50. Finally, factor analysis was performed on 9 items (f2e, f2n, f2g, f2c, f2l, f2i, f2o, f2m, f2h and f2f removed). Items in italic were reserve worded. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 67.61%. The overall KMO was .730 and the individual KMOs were all over .600. The determinant was .194 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant. Factor loadings of the three factors are presented in **Table 4.9**. The first factor was named environmental pollution (alpha = .82). The second factor was named leisure activities (alpha = .77) and the last factor was named quality of life (alpha = .63). The reliabilities of the first two factors were very good and good as their alphas were above .70. Although the alpha of quality of life was below .70, it was still in a moderate level (Hair et al., 2003).

Table 4.9: Factor Analysis of General Environment

	Component		
	Environmental	Leisure	Quality

	Pollution	Activities	of Life
f2a The environment is crowded	.867		
f2b The environment is polluted	.838		
f2d It is noisy here	.815		
rf21 Easy to find enjoyable leisure/recreational activities in China		.824	
rf23 Leisure and outdoor activities available in China are in high quality		.822	
f22 There is a lack of outdoor activities in China		.813	
f2k The infrastructure/transportation system in China is poor			.758
f2j There is a lack of accessibility of many products			.749
f2p The general living conditions are poor in China			.722
Eigenvalues:	2.25	2.09	1.75
Percent of variance explained:	24.98	23.20	19.43

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 4 iterations

4.4.3   Sources from interacting with local people

Responses on the 16 items which measured perception on local people were factor analyzed using principal components extraction and varimax rotation. Five factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were generated. Total variance retained was 57.13%. However, four items had communalities lower than .50 (f7d = .487, f7f = .481, f7o = .312 and f7n = .486) which indicated that each of them accounted for less than one-half the amount of variance they were supposed to be accounted for. Therefore, item f7o which had the lower communality was removed first and factor analysis was performed again on the remaining 15 items. The same procedures applied until all communalities of all items reached at least .50. Finally, factor analysis was performed on 4 items (f7o, f7f, f7l, f7k, f7b, f7n, f7g, f7a, f7h, f7j, f7d and f7p removed). Items in italic were reverse worded. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 71.24%. The overall KMO was .520 and all individual KMOs were over .500. The determinant was .647 and Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant.

Table 4.10 shows the factor loadings of the two factors. The first factor was named different

habits (alpha = .66) and the second factor was named cheating (alpha = .519). Although the alphas of both factors were below .70, they met the minimum criterion of .50 (Nunnally, 1967).

Table 4.10: Factor Analysis of Perception on Local People in China

	Component	
	Different Habits	**Cheating**
f7m Local people have different pattern of life from mine	.864	
f7i Local people have different leisure activities from mine	.862	
rf7e Local people do not cheat foreigners		.827
rf7c Local people are non-materialistic		.814
Eigenvalues:	1.50	1.35
Percent of variance explained:	37.43	33.81

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

4.4.4   Sources from perception on local employees

Principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed on the 12 items that measured perception on local employees. Two factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were generated. However, the total variance retained was only 48.45%. In addition, there were a few items (f9a = .450, f9c = .388, f9f = .475, f9h = .439, f9k = .424, f9b = .344 and f9j = .478) with communalities lower than .50. Then, factor analysis was performed again but restricted to three factors. The total variance retained reached 56.28% and only two items (f9c = .406 and f9k = .468) with communalities below .50 were found. After the item (f9c) with the lowest communality removed, factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed again. The same procedure applied until all communalities reached .50. Finally factor analysis was performed on 10 items (f9c and f9k removed). Items in italic were reverse worded. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than 1 were remained. Total variance retained was 61.08%. The overall

KMO was .804 and all individual KMOs were overall .600. The determinant was .081 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity was significant. Factor loadings are shown in **Table 4.11**. The first factor was named qualifications (alpha = .72). The second factor was named work attitude (alpha = .74) and the last factor was named indirectness (alpha = .56). The reliabilities of the first two factors were good and the third factor also met the minimum criterion of .50 (Nunnally, 1967).

Table 4.11: Factor Analysis of Perceptions on Local Employees

	Component		
	Qualifications	**Work Attitude**	**Indirectness**
f9a Local employees lack of needed skills	.741		
f9l Local employees are short-term oriented	.727		
rf9j Local employees/managers are with good experiences	.634		
f9e Local employees do not like to make decisions and take responsibilities	.546		
rf9i Local employees are hard-working		.809	
rf9b Local employees are self-motivated to learn		.804	
rf9g Local employees are reliable		.613	
rf9d Local employees are highly performed	.	.559	
f9h Local employees are very indirect			.783
f9f Local employees are very concerned about face			.779
Eigenvalues:	2.30	2.15	1.66
Percent of variance explained:	22.98	21.46	16.63

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

a. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

4.4.5   *All potential sources of stress and general description*

Table 4.12 shows the mean scores and standard deviations of the different potential sources of stress for the sample. Cheating and the different habits of local people, and

environmental pollution were the sources received the highest scores. At the other end, working with Chinese, home/work balance and managerial role were the sources received the lowest scores. Most of these items were below the mid-point of 6-point scale (3.50) and therefore represent the sample did not feel very much stressful from these items.

Table 4.12: Mean and Standard Deviations of Different Sources of Stress

Sources of Stress	Mean	Std. Deviation	Rank
Cheating	4.31	1.04	1
Different Habits	4.26	1.08	2
Environmental Pollution	4.25	1.24	3
Indirectness of Local Employees	4.11	1.06	4
Qualifications of Local Employees	3.76	.94	5
Leisure Activities	3.51	.88	6
Organization Climate	3.49	.91	7
Personal Responsibility	3.42	.96	8
Quality of Life	3.30	1.02	9
Relationships	3.27	.94	10
Rules & Regulations	3.23	1.20	11
Hassles	3.21	.89	12
Workload	3.18	.96	13
Recognition	3.16	1.03	14
Work Attitude of Local Employees	3.14	.89	15
Chinese Business Environment	3.12	1.21	16
Non-supportive HQ	3.11	1.13	17
Managerial Role	3.09	.95	18
Home/Work Balance	2.97	1.03	19
Working with Chinese	2.89	1.04	20

Correlations of factors are shown in **Table 4.13**. Although only six out of twenty independent variables were significantly correlated with job itself satisfaction (p < .05), fourteen out of twenty and fifteen out of twenty independent variables were significantly correlated with organization satisfaction (p < .05) and in China satisfaction (p < .05) respectively. Significant

correlations are found among some variables but all of them are below .80 which indicates no problem of multicollinearity (Field, 2005). Variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance are also checked to confirm if multicollinearity exist or not among variables. When VIF is at 10 and/or above 10 (Myers, 1990; Hair, Black, Babin & Anderson, 2010), and tolerance is below .20 (Menard, 1995) indicate mutlicollinearity exists among factors. **Table 4.14** shows the VIF and tolerance statistics of all factors. For the predictors, VIFs ranged from 1.317 to 3.408 and tolerances ranged from .293 to .759. All these statistics are within the limits. Therefore, it is confirmed that multicollinearity is not a problem for the factors in this study.

Table 4.13: Correlations among Factors

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1.	1														
2.	.69**	1													
3.	.64**	.63**	1												
4.	.59**	.44**	.55**	1											
5.	.57**	.54**	.55**	.62**	1										
6.	.66**	.65**	.66**	.56**	.57**	1									
7.	.57**	.70**	.63**	.45**	.58**	.57**	1								
8.	.56**	.64**	.55**	.41**	.54**	.56**	.56**	1							
9.	.47**	.41**	.51**	.58**	.48**	.51**	.38**	.38**	1						
10.	.57**	.53**	.56**	.58**	.53**	.56**	.53**	.52**	.56**	1					
11.	.42**	.35**	.44**	.55**	.45**	.37**	.31**	.34**	.62**	.52**	1				
12.	.46**	.47**	.38**	.42**	.39**	.39**	.37**	.45**	.49**	.53**	.44**	1			
13.	-.12*	-.13*	-.21**	-.23**	-.25**	-.22**	-.17**	-.15**	-.11*	-.20**	-.11*	-.08	1		
14.	.16**	.11*	.09	.18**	.00	.05	.01	.01	.17**	.07	.25**	.12*	.12*	1	
15.	.16**	.13*	.07	.10	-.01	.06	.07	.02	.11*	.08	.13*	.13*	.31**	.22**	1
16.	-.03	-.02	-.13*	-.12*	-.15**	-.07	-.10*	-.02	-.03	-.16**	-.04	.03	.41**	.09	.19**
17.	-.03	-.02	-.14**	-.06	-.05	-.07	-.12*	-.08	-.08	-.09	.03	-.05	.09	.20**	.06
18.	.06	.08	-.04	.02	-.00	-.02	-.06	.02	.03	-.02	.14**	.08	.21**	.24**	.33**
19.	.08	.19**	.06	.05	.06	.10	.08	.15**	.11*	.04	.11*	.05	-.02	.24**	.11*
20.	-.01	-.03	-.13*	.02	-.05	-.14**	-.09	-.03	-.03	-.12*	.08	.05	.19**	.19**	.20**
21.	-.13**	-.26**	-.08	.02	-.02	-.07	-.26**	-.11*	-.07	.00	-.01	-.05	.01	-.13*	-.07
22.	-.07	-.21**	.08	.16**	.13*	.06	-.06	-.20**	.07	.05	.10*	-.11*	-.20**	-.14**	-.13*
23.	-.24**	-.28**	-.26**	-.16**	-.11*	-.24**	-.24**	-.15**	-.22**	-.11*	-.17**	-.04	.13*	-.20**	-.14**

Table 4.13: Correlations among factors (cont.)

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23
16.	1							
17.	.13[*]	1						
18.	.28[**]	.26[**]	1					
19.	.13[*]	.23[**]	.44[**]	1				
20.	.25[**]	.20[**]	.35[**]	-.03	1			
21.	-.01	.06	-.09	-.3[**]	-.01	1		
22.	-.26[**]	-.16[**]	-.27[**]	-.32[**]	-.17[**]	.54[**]	1	
23.	.10	.03	-.15[**]	-.37[**]	.07	.57[**]	.28[**]	1

** $p < 0.01$(2-tailed); * $p < 0.05$ (2-tailed).

1. Work load; 2. Relationships; 3. Home/work balance; 4. Managerial role; 5. Personal responsibility; 6. Hassles; 7. Recognition; 8. Organization climate; 9. Working with Chinese;

10. Non-supportive headquarters; 11. Chinese business environment; 12. Rules and regulations; 13. Environmental pollution; 14. Leisure activities; 15. Quality of life; 16.

Different habits; 17. Cheating; 18. Qualifications of local employees; 19. Working attitude of local employees; 20. Indirectness of local employees; 21. Job itself satisfaction; 22.

Organizational satisfaction; 23. In China satisfaction

Table 4.14: Collinearity Statistics of Factors

Factors	Collinearity Statistics	
	Tolerance	VIF
Job Itself Satisfaction	.400	2.502
Org Satisfaction	.439	2.280
In China Satisfaction	.516	1.936
Stress from Workload	.344	2.911
Stress from Relationships	.293	3.408
Stress from Home/Work Balance	.368	2.719
Stress from Managerial Role	.390	2.566
Stress from Personal Responsibility	.393	2.546
Stress from Hassles	.365	2.740
Stress from Recognition	.369	2.707
Stress from Org Climate	.420	2.381
Stress from Working with Chinese	.430	2.325
Stress from Non-supportive HQ	.404	2.478
Stress from Chinese Business Env	.472	2.120
Stress from Rules & Regulations	.551	1.816
Environmental Pollution	.658	1.520
Leisure Activities	.725	1.379
Quality of Life	.736	1.358
Different Habits	.685	1.460
Cheating	.759	1.317
Qualifications of Local Employees	.571	1.753
Work Attitude of Local Employees	.595	1.680
Indirectness of Local Employees	.685	1.460

4.6 Different Models

In order to find out if these potential sources really explain the stress responses that expatriates experienced, all these sources were entered in different regressions with the three different types of satisfaction, namely job itself, organization and in China satisfaction.

The results of multiple regression model on job itself satisfaction are shown in **Table 4.15**. For job itself satisfaction, 24.90% of its variation was explained by the model. Recognition (b = -.327), work attitude of local employees (b = -.277), relationships (b = -.245), non-supportive headquarters (b = .162), and cheating (b = .126) were significant predictors among these variables. Therefore, H11, H13, H19, H36 and H42 were rejected. Personal responsibility (b = .132), home/work balance (b = .127) and working with Chinese (b = -.116) were approaching to be significant predictors but still not meeting the criterion of <.05 and the coefficients of the rest of the variables (workload, managerial role, hassles, organization climate, Chinese business environment, rules and regulations, different habits, qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees) were not significant. Therefore, H1, H3, H6, H8, H15, H17, H22, H25, H28, H33, H39 and H45 were not rejected. The negative signs of variables refer to the higher the scores on these independent variables, the lower the level of job itself satisfaction the sample would experience. On the other hand, the positive signs of variables refer to the higher the scores on these variables, the higher the level of job itself satisfaction the sample would experience. When the variables are significant and with negative signs, they would bring stress to expatriates or the stress experienced from them would be manifested on the dependent variable (job itself satisfaction) by the sample. When they are significant and in positive signs, they can actually motivate the expatriates and make them more satisfied in the three mentioned areas.

Table 4.15: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Job Itself Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	SE	Beta		
1	(Constant)	4.864	.311		15.652	.000
	Workload	-.076	.058	-.101	-1.306	.192
	Relationships	-.191	.064	-.245**	-2.960	.003
	Home/Work Balance	.091	.054	.127#	1.695	.091

Managerial Role	.082	.056	.106	1.456	.146
Personal Responsibility	.098	.053	.132#	1.866	.063
Hassles	.081	.062	.098	1.311	.191
Recognition	-.230	.051	-.327***	-4.483	.000
Org Climate	.029	.054	.036	.539	.590
Working with Chinese	-.081	.048	-.116#	-1.676	.095
Non-supportive HQ	.106	.047	.162*	2.283	.023
Chinese Business Env	.018	.040	.029	.448	.654
Rules & Regulations	.013	.037	.022	.363	.717
Environmental Pollution	.016	.033	.027	.484	.629
Leisure Activities	-.067	.044	-.079	-1.507	.133
Quality of Life	-.006	.038	-.008	-.158	.874
Different Habits	.028	.036	.042	.778	.437
Cheating	.092	.037	.127*	2.519	.012
Qualifications of LE	.021	.048	.026	.430	.668
Work Attitude of LE	-.234	.048	-.277***	-4.905	.000
Indirectness of LE	-.024	.038	-.034	-.631	.528

Dependent Variable: Av of Job Itself Satisfaction (F = 5.775, p < 0.001, R Square = .249)

About 36.70% of the variation in organization satisfaction was explained by the model (Please see **Table 4.16:**). Of these 20 variables, relationships (b = -.284), organization climate (b = -.270), work attitude of local employees (b = -.210), personality responsibility (b = .211), hassles (b = .175), Chinese business environment (b = .148), and home/work balance (b = .146) were significant predictors on organization satisfaction. Thus, H4, H7, H9, H14, H18, H23 and H43 were rejected. Different habits (b = -.095) and managerial role (b = .116) were variables approaching to the significant level of <.05 and the rest of the variables (workload, lack of recognition, non-supportive headquarters, rules and regulations, working with Chinese, cheating, qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees) were not significant neither, so H2, H12, H16, H20, H26, H29, H34, H37, H40 and H46 were not rejected.

Table 4.16: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Organization Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	SD	Beta		
1	(Constant)	6.031	.346		17.414	.000
	Workload	-.083	.065	-.091	-1.281	.201
	Relationships	-.268	.072	-.284***	-3.731	.000
	Home/Work Balance	.127	.060	.146*	2.122	.035
	Managerial Role	.108	.062	.116#	1.723	.086
	Personal Responsibility	.190	.059	.211**	3.247	.001
	Hassles	.176	.069	.175*	2.555	.011
	Recognition	-.056	.057	-.065	-.973	.331
	Organization Climate	-.264	.061	-.270***	-4.360	.000
	Working with Chinese	-.015	.054	-.018	-.287	.775
	Non-supportive HQ	.014	.052	.018	.274	.784
	Chinese Business Env	.109	.045	.148*	2.446	.015
	Rules & Regulations	-.063	.041	-.086	-1.544	.123
	Environmental Pollution	-.054	.037	-.076	-1.479	.140
	Leisure Activities	-.058	.049	-.057	-1.189	.235
	Quality of Life	.007	.042	.007	.154	.878
	Different Habits	-.079	.041	-.095#	-1.939	.053
	Cheating	-.041	.041	-.047	-1.018	.309
	Qualifications of LE	-.059	.053	-.062	-1.112	.267
	Work Attitude of LE	-.216	.053	-.210***	-4.059	.000
	Indirectness of LE	-.062	.042	-.072	-1.458	.146

Dependent Variable: Av of Org Satisfaction   (F = 10.113, p < 0.001, R Square = 367)

About 29.80% of the variation of in China satisfaction was explained by the model (Please see **Table 4.17** for details). Among them, work attitude of local employees (b = -.307), working with Chinese (b = -.157), non-supportive headquarters (b = .154), rules and regulations (b = .144), personal responsibility (b = .138), and different habits (b = .123) were significant predictors of in China satisfaction. Therefore, H21, H27, H35 and H44 were rejected. Although working with Chinese and personal responsibility were not hypothesized to have any relationships with in China satisfaction, they were proved to be significant predictors of so (Further discussions are shown in next Chapter). Recognition (b = -.122), leisure

activities (b = -.099), quality of life (b = -.095), cheating (b = .095) and environmental pollution (b = .097) were approaching significance but did not meet the criteria of <.05. Together with the rest of the variables (home/work balance, hassles, Chinese business environment, qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees) whose coefficients were not significant, H5, H10, H24, H30, H31, H32, H38, H41 and H47 were not rejected. The negative signs of variables refer to the higher the scores on these variables, the lower the level of in China satisfaction the sample would experience. On the other hand, the positive signs of variables refer to the higher the scores on these variables, the higher the level of in China satisfaction the sample would experience.

Table 4.17: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of In China Satisfaction

Model		Unstandardized		Standardized	t	Sig.
		B	SE	Beta		
1	(Constant)	5.573	.378		14.724	.000
	Workload	-.105	.071	-.111	-1.484	.139
	Relationships	-.106	.079	-.108	-1.353	.177
	Home/Work Balance	-.078	.065	-.086	-1.186	.237
	Managerial Role	.026	.068	.027	.376	.707
	Personal Responsibility	.128	.064	.138*	2.008	.045
	Hassles	-.050	.075	-.048	-.669	.504
	Recognition	-.108	.063	-.122#	-1.729	.085
	Org Climate	.036	.066	.036	.548	.584
	Working with Chinese	-.138	.059	-.157	-2.350	.019
	Non-supportive HQ	.127	.057	.154	2.231	.026
	Chinese Business Env	-.026	.049	-.034	-.534	.594
	Rules & Regulations	.110	.045	.144	2.465	.014
	Environmental Pollution	.072	.040	.097#	1.797	.073
	Leisure Activities	-.104	.054	-.099#	-1.941	.053
	Quality of Life	-.086	.046	-.095#	-1.855	.065
	Different Habits	.105	.044	.123	2.370	.018
	Cheating	.087	.045	.095#	1.948	.052
	Qualifications of LE	-.051	.058	-.051	-.875	.382

Work Attitude of LE	-.326	.058	-.307	-5.625	.000
Indirectness of LE	.031	.046	.035	.677	.499

Dependent Variable: Av of In China Satisfaction   (F = 7.395, p < 0.001, R Square = .298)

4.7 Asian vs. non-Asian Expatriates

When satisfaction was investigated based on the continent origin that the sample came from, it was found that non-Asian expatriates were significantly more satisfied on in China and job itself satisfaction. The opposite findings were found on organization satisfaction where Asian expatriates were significantly more satisfied on this scale than non-Asian expatriates (See **Table 4.18**). As significant findings were found, hypotheses 48, 49 and 50 were rejected.

Table 4.18: Work and General Satisfaction in China for Continent Origin

Continent Origin	Job Itself Satisfaction	Organization Satisfaction	In China Satisfaction
Non Asian Countries (N = 192)	4.35* (.81)	3.65** (.99)	4.66*** (.90)
Asian Countries (N = 168)	4.17* (.63)	3.92** (.74)	4.23*** (.90)

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

This section goes further to investigate if expatriates who had different continent origin would have differences on their sources of stress in China. **Table 4.19** shows regression results on job satisfaction for Asian and non-Asian expatriates. The models for both Asian (p < .01) and non-Asian expatriates (p < .001) were statistically significant. The model for Asian expatriates explained 22.60% of the variation of job satisfaction and the model for non-Asian expatriates explained 34.30% of the variation. Work attitude of local employees was the common significant predictor of job itself for expatriates who were either Asians or non-Asians. The coefficient was larger for Asians than for non-Asians.

For Asian expatriates, work attitude of local employees (-.410) and cheating (.181) were significant predictors of job satisfaction. For non-Asian expatriates, recognition (-.412), relationships (-.263), home/work balance (.209), non-supportive headquarters (.204), work attitude of local employees (-.160) and different habits (.145) were significant predictors of job satisfaction.

For Asian expatriates, the significant predictors of job itself satisfaction mainly came from local people and local employees related areas while the significant predictors for non-Asian expatriates mainly came from work, local people and local employees related areas. No predictor from general environment was significant for both groups.

Table 4.19: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Job Satisfaction on Continent Origin

	Non Asian Expatriates (Asian Expatriates)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	5.091 (4.291)	.493 (.418)		10.324 (10.275)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.098 (-.108)	.083 (.089)	-.123 (-.151)	-1.184 (-1.211)	.238 (.228)
Relationships	-.216 (-.019)	.093 (.099)	-.263* (-.027)	-2.333 (-.196)	.021 (.845)
Home/Work Balance	.173 (-.076)	.081 (.080)	.209* (-.119)	2.144 (-.951)	.033 (.343)
Managerial Role	.117 (.042)	.080 (.088)	.145 (.056)	1.462 (.482)	.146 (.631)
Personal Responsibility	.069 (.073)	.080 (.076)	.084 (.109)	.860 (.972)	.391 (.333)
Hassles	.143 (-.035)	.095 (.095)	.164 (-.042)	1.512 (-.368)	.132 (.713)
Recognition	-.319 (-.048)	.073 (.083)	-.412*** (-.073)	-4.383 (-.580)	.000 (.563)
Organization Climate	-.038 (.103)	.074 (.096)	-.047 (.128)	-.508 (1.074)	.612 (.285)
Working with Chinese	-.096 (.003)	.075 (.069)	-.129 (.005)	-1.289 (.049)	.199 (.961)
Non-supportive HQ	.136 (.056)	.062 (.080)	.204* (.087)	2.198 (.703)	.029 (.483)
Chinese Business Env	.016 (.051)	.057 (.061)	.024 (.089)	.276 (.835)	.783 (.405)

Rules & Regulations	.018 (-.001)	.050 (.066)	.029 (-.002)	.362 (-.019)	.718 (.985)
Env Pollution	-.023 (.041)	.060 (.043)	-.028 (.083)	-.380 (.962)	.705 (.337)
Leisure Activities	-.047 (.017)	.070 (.064)	-.052 (.023)	-.668 (.268)	.505 (.789)
Quality of Life	-.021 (-.037)	.063 (.051)	-.023 (-.068)	-.342 (-.722)	.733 (.471)
Different Habits	.121 (-.059)	.059 (.050)	.145* (-.106)	2.042 (-1.195)	.043 (.234)
Cheating	.057 (.106)	.062 (.047)	.069 (.181*)	.931 (2.245)	.353 (.026)
Qualifications of LE	-.004 (.054)	.074 (.067)	-.004 (.082)	-.053 (.817)	.958 (.415)
Work Attitude of LE	-.150 (-.300)	.073 (.069)	-.160* (-.410***)	-2.073 (-4.357)	.040 (.000)
Indirectness of LE	-.088 (.044)	.066 (.049)	-.110 (.074)	-1.333 (.901)	.184 (.369)

Non Asian Expatriates R^2: .343 (F = 4.469, p < .001)

Asian Expatriates R^2: .226 (F = 2.146, p < .01)

Table 4.20 shows the regression results of organizational satisfaction on continent origin. The regression models for both Asian (p < .001) and non-Asian expatriates (p < .001) were statistically significant. The model for Asian expatriates explained 31.60% of the variation of organizational satisfaction. For non-Asian expatriates, 44.20% of the variation of organizational satisfaction was explained by the model. Relationships was the common significant predictor for both groups but the coefficient was higher for Asian expatriates (-.339) than for non-Asian expatriates (-.220). Work attitude of local employees was a significant predictor for Asians but was only a marginally significant predictor approaching to be significant for non-Asian group.

Among the 20 variables, relationships (-.339), work attitude of local employees (-.302) and different habits (-.185) were significant predictors of organizational satisfaction for Asian expatriates. Leisure activities (-.141) was a marginally significant predictor only. Organization climate (-.405), relationships (-.220), home/work balance (.212), personal responsibility (.212) and indirectness of local employees (-.158) were statistically significant predictors for the non-Asian group. Hassles (.166), Chinese business environment (.137), qualifications of local

employees (-.136) and work attitude of local employees (-.123) were marginally significant predictors.

The significant predictors for Asian expatriates were mainly work, local people and local employees related predictors. The significant predictors for non-Asian expatriates were mainly predictors coming from work and local employees related areas. No significant predictor was from general environment and local people related areas for non-Asian expatriates and no significant predictor for Asian expatriates was from general environment.

Table 4.20: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Organizational Satisfaction on Continent Origin

	Non Asian Expatriates (Asian Expatriates)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	6.143 (5.772)	.552 (.463)		11.125 (12.467)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.153 (-.042)	.093 (.098)	-.159 (-.049)	-1.651 (-.423)	.101 (.673)
Relationships	-.219 (-.292)	.104 (.109)	-.220* (-.339**)	-2.117 (-2.667)	.036 (.009)
Home/Work Balance	.212 (.123)	.090 (.089)	.212* (.164)	2.349 (1.388)	.020 (.167)
Managerial Role	.066 (.087)	.090 (.097)	.067 (.098)	.738 (.898)	.462 (.371)
Personal Responsibility	.210 (.118)	.089 (.084)	.212* (.149)	2.349 (1.408)	.020 (.161)
Hassles	.176 (.037)	.106 (.105)	.166# (.038)	1.664 (.356)	.098 (.723)
Recognition	-.095 (-.048)	.081 (.092)	-.102 (-.062)	-1.171 (-.521)	.243 (.603)
Organization Climate	-.397 (.034)	.083 (.106)	-.405*** (.036)	-4.760 (.325)	.000 (.746)
Working with Chinese	.011 (-.038)	.084 (.077)	.012 (-.051)	.131 (-.490)	.896 (.625)
Non-supportive HQ	.063 (-.043)	.069 (.089)	.078 (-.056)	.911 (-.482)	.364 (.630)
Chinese Business Env	.109 (.070)	.064 (.067)	.137# (.104)	1.697 (1.044)	.092 (.298)
Rules & Regulations	-.022 (-.070)	.056 (.073)	-.029 (-.103)	-.397 (-.956)	.692 (.340)
Env Pollution	-.029 (-.031)	.067 (.048)	-.030 (-.052)	-.440 (-.642)	.661 (.522)
Leisure Activities	-.006 (-.127)	.079 (.071)	-.005 (-.141#)	-.076 (-1.775)	.940 (.078)
Quality of Life	-.024 (.004)	.070 (.057)	-.021 (.006)	-.338 (.064)	.736 (.949)
Different Habits	-.013 (-.122)	.066 (.055)	-.013 (-.185*)	-.202 (-2.213)	.840 (.028)

Cheating	-.046 (-.026)	.069 (.053)	-.046 (-.038)	-.671 (-.503)	.503 (.616)
Qualifications of LE	-.145 (.075)	.083 (.074)	-.136# (.095)	-1.744 (1.012)	.083 (.313)
Work Attitude of LE	-.141 (-.261)	.081 (.076)	-.123# (-.302**)	-1.734 (-3.417)	.085 (.001)
Indirectness of LE	-.154 (.011)	.074 (.055)	-.158* (.015)	-2.087 (.196)	.038 (.845)

Non Asian Expatriates R^2: .442 (F = 6.762, p < .001)

Asian Expatriates R^2: .316 (F = 3.403, p < .001)

Table 4.21 shows the in China satisfaction on continent origin. Both the models for Asian (p < .001) and non-Asian expatriates (p < .001) were significant. The model for Asian expatriates explained 29.90% of the variation of in China satisfaction. On the other hand, the model explained 20.90% of the variation of in China satisfaction for the Asian group. Work attitude of local employees was the common significant predictor of in China satisfaction for both groups.

Among the 20 variables, work attitude of local employees (-.285), working with Chinese (-.281) and environmental pollution (.163) were statistically significant predictors for in China satisfaction for Asian expatriates. Rules and regulations (.192) and personal responsibility (.188) were marginally significant predictors only. For non-Asian expatriates, the model explained 30.90% of the variation of in China satisfaction. Work attitude of local employees (-.307), different habits (.230), non-supportive headquarters (.209) and quality of life (-.158) were significant predictors of in China satisfaction for non-Asian expatriates.

The significant predictors for Asians were mainly from work, general environment and local employee related areas. Although there were not many significant predictors for non-Asians, these stressors scattered in all work, general environment, local people and local employees related areas.

Table 4.21: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of In China Satisfaction on Continent Origin

	Non Asian Expatriates (Asian Expatriates)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	5.978 (5.453)	.557 (.568)		10.732 (9.595)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.047 (-.102)	.094 (.121)	-.054 (.100)	-.504 (-.845)	.615 (.400)
Relationships	-.087 (-.140)	.104 (.134)	-.096 (.134)	-.833 (-1.042)	.406 (.299)
Home/Work Balance	-.084 (-.080)	.091 (.109)	-.093 (.088)	-.924 (-.733)	.357 (.464)
Managerial Role	.010 (.138)	.091 (.119)	.011 (128)	.109 (1.156)	.913 (.249)
Personal Responsibility	.119 (.181)	.090 (.103)	.132 (188$^{\#}$)	1.315 (1.757)	.190 (.081)
Hassles	-.128 (.009)	.107 (.129)	-.132 (007)	-1.194 (.069)	.234 (.945)
Recognition	-.120 (-.165)	.082 (.113)	-.141 (-.176)	-1.462 (-1.464)	.145 (.145)
Organization Climate	.038 (-.125)	.084 (.130)	.042 (-.108)	.448 (-.957)	.654 (.340)
Working with Chinese	-.064 (-.252)	.084 (.094)	-.078 (-.281**)	-.761 (-2.678)	.448 (.008)
Non-supportive HQ	.154 (.133)	.070 (.109)	.209* (.144)	2.206 (1.221)	.029 (.224)
Chinese Business Env	-.058 (.052)	.065 (.082)	-.080 (.064)	-.895 (.634)	.372 (.527)
Rules & Regulations	.069 (.158)	.057 (.089)	.099 (.192$^{\#}$)	1.221 (1.767)	.224 (.079)
Env Pollution	-.051 (.116)	.067 (.059)	-.057 (.163*)	-.753 (1.983)	.452 (.049)
Leisure Activities	-.055 (-.115)	.080 (.088)	-.055 (-.106)	-.690 (-1.313)	.491 (.191)
Quality of Life	-.159 (-.075)	.071 (.070)	-.158* (-.097)	-2.253 (-1.079)	.026 (.282)
Different Habits	.210 (.019)	.067 (.068)	.230** (.024)	3.152 (.285)	.002 (.776)
Cheating	.096 (.085)	.070 (.065)	.104 (.101)	1.380 (1.313)	.170 (.191)
Qualifications of LE	-.038 (-.066)	.084 (.091)	-.040 (-.069)	-.458 (-.728)	.647 (.467)
Work Attitude of LE	-.317 (-.298)	.082 (.094)	-.307*** (-.285**)	-3.873 (-3.178)	.000 (.002)
Indirectness of LE	-.025 (.089)	.075 (.067)	-.028 (.104)	-.329 (1.330)	.742 (.186)

Non Asian Expatriates R^2: .309 (F = 3.830, p < .001)

Asian Expatriates R^2: .299 (F = 3.138, p < .001)

4.8 Male vs. Female expatriates

No significant differences on any of the three types of satisfaction were found when comparisons were made on gender (See **Table 4.22**). Therefore, hypotheses 51, 52 and 53 were

not rejected when emphasis was made on satisfaction. In other words, both male and female expatriates were quite similar on the three types of satisfaction in China. In other words, they were quite similar in terms of the levels of stress they experienced in China when stress was considered to be manifested on the three types of satisfaction.

Table 4.22: Work and General Satisfaction in China for Gender

Gender	Job Itself Satisfaction	Organization Satisfaction	In China Satisfaction
Female (N = 85)	4.18 (.76)	3.69 (.96)	4.37 (.95)
Male (N = 284)	4.29 (.73)	3.80 (.87)	4.48 (.92)

In addition of investigating if the 20 above mentioned variables work as stressors for the sample, a further step of the current study is to investigate if expatriates who have different backgrounds would have different sources of stress. This section investigates the differences between male and female expatriates.

Table 4.23 shows the results of multiple regression analysis on job itself satisfaction on gender. Both models for male (p < .001) and female expatriates (p < .001) were statistically significant. Work attitude was the common stressor for both male and female expatriates and the coefficient was higher for male (-.293) than for female (-.225) expatriates. For other significant predictors, these two groups shared different opinions except on recognition and relationships where these were significant predictors for the male group but these were predictors approaching to be significant for the female group.

For the same 20 variables, a higher degree of variation was explained for female expatriates (53.5%) than male (23.00%) expatriates. In terms of the predictors themselves, home/work balance (.545), workload (-.499), managerial role (.340), and work attitude of local employees (-.225) were statistically significant predictors to job itself satisfaction for female expatriates. Relationships (-.345) and recognition (-.269) were variables approaching to be significant but still not meeting the criterion of <.05. For male expatriates, work attitude of local employees (-.293), recognition (-.280), relationships (-.213), non-supportive headquarters (.196) and cheating (.138) were significant predictors of job itself satisfaction. Personal responsibility (.160) was approaching to be significant but it was still not meeting the significant criterion of <.05. Overall, the significant predictors for job itself satisfaction laid on those work related predictors and local employee related predictors for both male and female groups. Those predictors that related to general environment and to local people were not significant for both groups.

Table 4.23: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Job Itself Satisfaction on Gender

	Male (Female)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	4.707 (5.068)	.353 (.753)		13.336 (6.895)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.009 (-.384)	.066 (.131)	-.012 (-.499**)	-.136 (-2.942)	.892 (.005)
Relationships	-.168 (-.258)	.075 (.137)	-.213 (-.345#)	-2.229 (-1.886)	.027 (.064)
Home/Work Balance	-.014 (.398)	.064 (.108)	-.020 (.545***)	-.218 (3.670)	.828 (.000)
Managerial Role	.053 (.251)	.065 (.116)	.068 (.340*)	.816 (2.165)	.415 (.034)
Personal Responsibility	.115 (-.084)	.060 (.123)	.160# (-.104)	1.921 (-.684)	.056 (.497)
Hassles	.083 (.187)	.069 (.147)	.102 (.214)	1.201 (1.267)	.231 (.210)
Recognition	-.196 (-.191)	.060 (.108)	-.280** (-.269)	-3.247 (-1.765)	.001 (.082)
Organization Climate	.024 (-.026)	.065 (.105)	.029 (-.035)	.362 (-.252)	.718 (.802)
Working with Chinese	-.067 (-.153)	.054 (.109)	-.097 (-.215)	-1.240 (-1.410)	.216 (.163)
Non-supportive HQ	.131 (-.032)	.055 (.104)	.196* (-.050)	2.363 (-.313)	.019 (.755)

Chinese Business Env	.050 (.003)	.047 (.080)	.081 (.006)	1.051 (.043)	.294 (.966)
Rules & Regulations	.011 (.044)	.043 (.077)	.017 (.076)	.250 (.571)	.803 (.570)
Env Pollution	.022 (-.013)	.038 (.069)	.038 (-.021)	.586 (-.183)	.559 (.856)
Leisure Activities	-.069 (-.101)	.052 (.087)	-.083 (-.115)	-1.333 (-1.155)	.184 (.253)
Quality of Life	-.024 (.066)	.043 (.090)	-.035 (.081)	-.558 (.731)	.577 (.467)
Different Habits	.031 (.046)	.042 (.072)	.046 (.064)	.725 (.629)	.469 (.532)
Cheating	.100 (.076)	.043 (.079)	.138* (.104)	2.353 (.952)	.019 (.344)
Qualifications of LE	.012 (.041)	.054 (.106)	.015 (.047)	.213 (.385)	.831 (.702)
Work Attitude of LE	-.248 (-.187)	.057 (.090)	-.293*** (-.225*)	-4.371 (-2.078)	.000 (.042)
Indirectness of LE	-.028 (.051)	.043 (.091)	-.042 (.063)	-.665 (.562)	.507 (.576)

Male R^2: .230 (F = 3.937, p < .001)

Female R^2: .535 (F = 3.688, p < .001)

Table 4.24 shows the regression results of organizational satisfaction on gender. The 20 variables significantly explain 56.70% of the variation of organizational satisfaction for female expatriates (p < .001) but explain 35.60% the variation of organizational satisfaction for male expatriates (p < .001). Work attitude of local employees also appeared as the common significant predictor for both male and female expatriates in explaining organization satisfaction. The coefficient was much higher for female than for male expatriates. For other significant predictors, these two groups had different opinions except on hassles where it was a significant predictor for the female group but it was an approaching to significant predictor only for the male group.

For female expatriates, hassles (.372), rules and regulations (-.361), work attitude of local employees (-.356) and environmental pollution (-.238) were significant variables to explain organizational satisfaction. Workload (-.313) is approaching to be significant. For male expatriates, relationships (-.322), organization climate (-.300), personal responsibility (.273), Chinese business environment (.194), work attitude of local employees (-.172), and different habits (-.128) were significant predictors of organizational satisfaction for male expatriates.

Hassles (.138), qualifications of local employees (-.108) and leisure activities (-.102) were approaching to be significant for male expatriates.

The main sources of significant predictors for female expatriates mainly came from predictors that were work, general environment and local employees related. For male expatriates, the main sources of significant predictors mainly came from work, local people and local employees related predictors.

Table 4.24: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Organizational Satisfaction on Gender

	Male (Female)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	5.852 (5.871)	.387 (.895)		15.113 (6.557)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.032 (-.305)	.072 (.159)	-.035 (-.313#)	-.436 (-1.913)	.663 (.060)
Relationships	-.304 (-.190)	.082 (.166)	-.322*** (-.202)	-3.682 (-1.144)	.000 (.257)
Home/Work Balance	.098 (.146)	.070 (.132)	.114 (.159)	1.394 (1.109)	.165 (.272)
Managerial Role	.075 (.200)	.071 (.141)	.081 (.214)	1.061 (1.416)	.290 (.161)
Personal Responsibility	.236 (.032)	.066 (.149)	.273*** (.031)	3.589 (.215)	.000 (.831)
Hassles	.135 (.410)	.076 (.179)	.138# (.372*)	1.777 (2.284)	.077 (.026)
Recognition	-.033 (-.061)	.066 (.132)	-.040 (-.068)	-.502 (-.465)	.616 (.643)
Organization Climate	-.296 (-.162)	.072 (.128)	-.300*** (-.170)	-4.130 (-1.271)	.000 (.208)
Working with Chinese	-.032 (-.006)	.059 (.132)	-.038 (-.007)	-.530 (-.045)	.597 (.964)
Non-supportive HQ	.024 (.061)	.061 (.126)	.030 (.074)	.395 (.482)	.693 (.631)
Chinese Business Env	.144 (.028)	.052 (.097)	.194** (.038)	2.762 (.290)	.006 (.773)
Rules & Regulations	-.012 (-.261)	.047 (.093)	-.017 (-.361**)	-.266 (-2.802)	.790 (.007)
Env Pollution	-.018 (-.180)	.042 (.084)	-.026 (-.238*)	-.434 (-2.142)	.664 (.036)
Leisure Activities	-.102 (.080)	.057 (.106)	-.102# (.073)	-1.779 (.753)	.076 (.454)
Quality of Life	-.007 (.110)	.047 (.110)	-.009 (.108)	-.152 (1.002)	.879 (.320)
Different Habits	-.103 (-.011)	.046 (.088)	-.128* (-.013)	-2.222 (-.127)	.027 (.899)
Cheating	-.015 (-.080)	.047 (.097)	-.017 (-.088)	-.313 (-.831)	.755 (.409)

Qualifications of LE	-.099 (.146)	.060 (.130)	-.108 (.132)	-1.665 (1.130)	.097 (.263)
Work Attitude of LE	-.175 (-.375)	.062 (.110)	-.172 (-.356)	-2.807 (-3.411)	.005 (.001)
Indirectness of LE	-.031 (-.106)	.047 (.110)	-.039 (-.104)	-.675 (-.963)	.501 (.339)

Male R^2: .356 (F = 7.257, p < .001)

Female R^2: .567 (F = 4.199, p < .001)

Table 4.25 shows the regression results of in China satisfaction on gender. Both the regression models for female (p < .01) and male expatriates (p < .001) were statistically significant. Although there were less significant predictors for the female group than for the male group, the model explained more variations for female group than for the male group. For female expatriates, 47.80% of their in China satisfaction was explained by the model while it was only 29.40% variation was explained for male expatriates. Again, work attitude of local employees was the common predictor for both male and female expatriates. The coefficient was also higher for female expatriates than for male expatriates. Rules and regulations was significant for female group but was only marginally significant for male group.

Workload (-.405), work attitude of local employees (-.312), and rules and regulations (.295) were significant predictors of in China satisfaction for female expatriates. Environmental pollution (.206) was also a marginally significant predictor for female expatriates as well. For male expatriates, work attitude of local employees (-.290), personal responsibility (.189), non-supportive headquarters (.175), working with Chinese (-.158), different habits (.140), and leisure activities (-.131) were significant predictors of in China satisfaction. Rules and regulations (.130) and cheating (.106) were marginally significant predictors of in China satisfaction for male expatriates.

The significant predictors for female expatriates were from work and local employee related areas, while the significant ones for male expatriates scattered over the work, general environment, local people and local employees related areas.

Table 4.25: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of In China Satisfaction on Gender

	Male (Female)				
	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
	B	SE	Beta	t	Sig
(Constant)	5.456 (5.804)	.428 (.974)		12.759 (5.958)	.000 (.000)
Workload	-.020 (-.389)	.080 (.173)	-.022 (-.405*)	-.256 (-2.249)	.798 (.028)
Relationships	-.090 (-.114)	.091 (.181)	-.091 (-.122)	-.994 (-.628)	.321 (.532)
Home/Work Balance	-.122 (.092)	.078 (.144)	-.135 (.101)	-1.572 (.643)	.117 (.523)
Managerial Role	-.015 (.219)	.078 (.153)	-.015 (.237)	-.194 (1.426)	.846 (.159)
Personal Responsibility	.173 (-.163)	.073 (.163)	.189* (-.161)	2.377 (-1.001)	.018 (.321)
Hassles	-.114 (.168)	.084 (.195)	-.110 (.154)	-1.354 (.863)	.177 (.391)
Recognition	-.073 (-.110)	.073 (.144)	-.082 (-.123)	-.995 (-.762)	.321 (.449)
Organization Climate	.032 (-.030)	.079 (.139)	.031 (-.032)	.405 (-.215)	.686 (.830)
Working with Chinese	-.138 (-.183)	.066 (.144)	-.158* (-.206)	-2.098 (-1.273)	.037 (.207)
Non-supportive HQ	.147 (-.026)	.067 (.137)	.175* (-.032)	2.194 (-.191)	.029 (.849)
Chinese Business Env	-.023 (-.005)	.057 (.106)	-.029 (-.006)	-.399 (-.043)	.691 (.966)
Rules & Regulations	.102 (.211)	.052 (.101)	.130# (.295*)	1.973 (2.085)	.050 (.041)
Env Pollution	.047 (.155)	.046 (.091)	.064 (.206#)	1.030 (1.693)	.304 (.095)
Leisure Activities	-.138 (-.086)	.063 (.116)	-.131* (-.079)	-2.182 (-.744)	.030 (.459)
Quality of Life	-.078 (-.069)	.052 (.120)	-.089 (-.068)	-1.502 (-.579)	.134 (.565)
Different Habits	.119 (.105)	.051 (.096)	.140* (.119)	2.321 (1.094)	.021 (.278)
Cheating	.097 (.050)	.052 (.105)	.106# (.055)	1.880 (.475)	.061 (.637)
Qualifications of LE	-.030 (-.163)	.066 (.141)	-.030 (-.149)	-.449 (-1.157)	.654 (.252)
Work Attitude of LE	-.310 (-.325)	.069 (.119)	-.290*** (-.312**)	-4.519 (-2.720)	.000 (.008)
Indirectness of LE	.017 (.122)	.052 (.120)	.020 (.121)	.329 (1.017)	.742 (.313)

Male R^2: .294 (F = 5.481, p < .001)

Female R^2: .478 (F = 2.926, p < .01)

4.9 Conclusion

Future career was the most important reason for the sample to accept the assignment in China. The entire sample had a higher level of satisfaction at in China satisfaction. Work attitude of local employees was the negative predictor for all three satisfaction types for the sample, specifically, relationships and recognition were significant negative predictors for job itself satisfaction. On the other hand, relationships and organization climate were other negative predictors for organization satisfaction. Other than work attitude of local employees, working with Chinese was the other negative predictor for in China satisfaction. Further comparisons of sources were also made on the three satisfaction types for continent origins and gender groups in this chapter. The next chapter would discuss the potential explanation for the findings in this chapter. In addition, quotes from interviewees would also be used as supports for the explanations.

Chapter 5 Discussion

5.1 Introduction

Adjustment of expatriates was first found on a unitary concept, in which there was just adjustment to the general environment (Oberg, 1960). Then, it was further developed to a multi-dimensional concept, in which expatriates would experience adjustment to work, to the general non-work environment and to interacting with host nationals (Black, 1988, 1990; Black, Mendenhall & Oddou, 1991). Based on this multi-dimensional adjustment theory, this study extended the scope to find sources of stress from work, general environment and interaction with local employees and local people.

5.2 Motives of Coming to China

The quantitative findings showed that future career was the most important motive for the sample to accept their assignments in China. It is consistent with literature where it found many MNEs considered international assignments as a means of management development and career advancement (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977, 1994; Tung, 1982b; Scullion, 1991; Oddou, Derr & Black, 1995; Chapel, 1998; Tung & Worm, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002), and at the same time employees also believed that overseas assignments which could benefit them in their careers for the current and/or future employers (Yurkiewicz & Rosen, 1995; Stahl, Miller & Tung, 2002; Dickman, Doherty, Mills & Brewster, 2008). Future career was the immediate most important motive which was related and benefit to the expatriates themselves. Interviews in the qualitative part of the study also shared similar ideas.

"Personally, the China assignment is enormously adding value to my career. I always want to develop skills that can add value to my future employers." --- An American expatriate believed the China assignment would add value to his career, not necessarily for his current boss but for his future employers.

The second important motive for the sample to accept the China assignment was the China exposure which was to the expatriates themselves and to their family too. Many interviewees from the qualitative part of the study believed the China assignment was good to them and to their family members, specifically to their children too. It can be seen through the following quotes from interviews with expatriates in China.

"For the future 20 years, the world's economy is in China. Hong Kong is small and the team there is small too. Even though the work is the same, the level of complexity is much higher in big organization (in China) and I can see many things. For me, the China assignment would give me a better vision. Have the chance of getting involved and working in a complex environment rather than just hearing of it is good. Since I believe that the future economy is in China in the coming 20 years, I believe that it is good if my daughter can get some experiences here. Since the assignment is in Beijing (the capital of China) but not in Guangzhou, it is worthwhile to come." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong expressed the China assignment is good for his future career, and also good for himself and his family to get the China exposure.

"When I first mentioned the China assignment to my family, they (specially my two smallest sons) liked it a lot and they were more open than I anticipated even though I didn't like the assignment that much. I was shocked by their reactions. The next day, they approached me and asked me if there was a chance that I could get back to the interview for the China assignment." --- An expatriate from America was shocked by the eagerness of his children to come to China. It was also the main reason he accepted the China assignment because of China exposure that his assignment could bring to his children and also their highly acceptance to the assignment. It confirmed with the findings of Schoepp and Forstenlechner (2010) that preferences of family had become a motivator for expatriate to stay rather than leave their overseas assignment.

"I am trying to increase the perspectives for my children and family, not just for myself. To see my children speaking Chinese to each other and having my kids being my translators in markets are cool and interesting." --- An American expatriate enjoyed his children having China exposure.

"My wife was very excited when she first heard of my assignment to China as she lived only in India and America. A famous German philosopher said, 'We must always change, renew and rejuvenate, otherwise we harden.' If we don't embrace new challenge, we don't grow. Coming to China is a change and a new challenge for me and for my wife. In addition, the China assignment helps me to nurture a sensitivity towards other opinions and ideas of another culture. It allows me a good understanding of the differences and how different people work and expectations of people in different societies. It also helps me to understand that not everything done in the States is the right way necessarily. Just like not everything done here is

necessarily the right way. It can be a mix of a continuum." --- An American Indian expatriate indicated that the China assignment was important for both himself and his wife. He enjoyed more personal growth and was able to be more sensitive toward people from other cultures.

5.3 Sources of Stress and Motivators

Table 5.1 shows the results of multiple regressions of job itself, organization and in China satisfaction. Organization satisfaction ($R^2 = .367$) was the dependent variable had most of its variation explained by the independent variables. In China satisfaction ($R^2 = .298$) and job itself satisfaction ($R^2 = .249$) also had fair high variations being explained.

Table 5.1: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Different Types of Satisfactions

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Job Itself B	Organization B	In China B
Workload	-.101	-.091	-.111
Relationships	-.245**	-.284***	-.108
Home/Work Balance	.127#	.146*	-.086
Managerial Role	.106	.116#	.027
Personal Responsibility	.132#	.211**	.138*
Hassles	.098	.175*	-.048
Recognition	-.327***	-.065	-.122#
Organization Climate	.036	-.270***	.036
Working with Chinese	-.116#	-.018	-.157*
Non-supportive HQ	.162*	.018	.154*
Chinese Business Env	.029	.148*	-.034
Rules & Regulations	.022	-.086	.144*
Env Pollution	.027	-.076	.097#
Leisure Activities	-.079	-.057	-.099#
Quality of Life	-.008	.007	-.095#
Different Habits	.042	-.095#	.123*
Cheating	.127*	-.047	.095#
Qualifications of LE	.026	-.062	-.051

Work Attitude of LE	-.277***	-.210***	-.307***
Indirectness of LE	-.034	-.072	.035
F	5.775***	10.113***	7.395***
R²	.249	.367	.298

# p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

When a closer attention is paid at the coefficients, hypotheses 4, 7, 9, 11, 13, 14, 18, 19, 21, 23, 27, 35, 36, 42, 43 and 44 were rejected. In other words, the results suggested that recognition, work attitude of local employees, relationships, non-supportive headquarters, and cheating were significant predictors for job itself satisfaction; relationships, organization climate, work attitude of local employees, personal responsibility, hassles, home/work balance, and Chinese business environment were significant predictors for organization satisfaction; and work attitude of local employees, working with Chinese, non-supportive headquarters, rules and regulations, personal responsibility and different habits were significant predictors for in China satisfaction.

Work attitude of local employees was a significant predictor for all three types of satisfaction (H42, H43 and H44). Relationship and personal responsibility were significant predictors for two of the three satisfaction types (H13, H14 and H7). When a predictor is significant and has a negative sign for the coefficient, it is negatively related to the dependent variable. Therefore, it would be considered as a source of stress for the expatriates. On the other hand, when the predictor has a positive sign for the coefficient, it is positively related to the dependent variable. Therefore, it would be working as a motivator for the expatriates. As a result, for the current study, recognition, work attitude of local employees, organization climate, relationships and working with Chinese were negatively related to satisfaction and they would be considered as factors bringing stress to the sample. Home/work balance, personal

responsibility, hassles, non-supportive headquarters, Chinese business environment, rules and regulations, different habits and cheating were positively related to the satisfaction of expatriates and thus could be treated as motivators at their present levels. The quantitative findings did not have sufficient findings to show workload, managerial role, environmental pollution, leisure activities, quality of life, qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees were significant predictors to the overall sample. Whether these predictors worked as sources of stress or motivators, they were mainly from the work and China related work sources, interacting with local people, and perception on local employees. However, none of the significant sources were from the general environment. Each of these sources is scrutinized as follows.

5.3.1 Work attitude of local employees

Literature shows that Chinese employees do not like to take responsibility and initiative, and they do what they are informed to do from a higher rank (Zambet & Bovarnick, 1986; Davidson, 1987; Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Zimmermann et al., 2003). It matched with the quantitative findings of this study which was work attitude of local employees was the significant predictor for all types of satisfaction (H42, H43 and H44). In addition, the coefficients found in this study were quite high (B ranged from -.210 to -.307). The inferior attitude of the local employees may due to the equitable reward system which fails to encourage employees to build up accountable and responsible attitudes (Weiss & Bloom, 1990; Li, 1998). In addition, the huge compensation differentials between locals and expatriates also helped to explain why the locals showed poor work attitude in front of expatriates (Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Chen, Kraemer & Gathii, 2011).

The quantitative findings were confirmed with the findings from the in-depth interviews conducted. Many of the interviewees who were expatriates relocated in China and found the work attitude of local Chinese workers was in a problem and they were frustrated about it. The followings are some interesting quotes from interviews with expatriates in China.

"People here are reactive rather than proactive. Taiwan employees have better work attitude than people here. People here do not want to work on duties and tasks that are not written in their job descriptions." --- An expatriate from Taiwan indicated the poor work attitude of local employees.

"Local Chinese are more self-oriented and calculative. 'What's the benefit for me?' For things that do not bring them benefits, they do not work very hard. They do not care people seeing this side of them because the market (China) is so big and there are so many opportunities." --- Another expatriate from Taiwan also complained about the poor work attitude of local employees in China.

"Other than the long working hours, I am not satisfied with the work attitude of the local workers too. It is very hard to make the local workers just do a small piece of work, e.g., it is hard to make an order completed." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong complained the long working hours he had to fulfill in China and the poor work attitude of local employees.

"China has an activity base culture. People here want to be seen busy. That's frustrating. People are not productive with their time but just doing things or to look busy. People here are

just simply doing something without thinking why they have to do it." --- An American expatriate indicated the frustrations he felt with employees not knowing the values they brought to the company.

"I am stressful when there are important meetings and these people (local colleagues) are not showing up or not showing up on time without telling you why. That is frustrating." --- An American expatriate.

"It is hard to work here. When you ask the Chinese to do something, they would promise it first and only then try to figure out how to do it. It means that they may promise to do something but under the reality that they may not know whether they can do it and many of the times, they could not carry out what they promised you." --- An American expatriate.

"The local staff was not aggressive, proactive, or even active at all. They wait for the phone to ring (instead of making contact with potential customers)." --- The perception of an American Chinese expatriate.

"In the work environment, the main challenge is to get people accountable and responsible. To get them agree on their responsibility. Getting them to be proactive and not just wait for details or orders from the boss. If you didn't tell them to do such and such before, nobody would do it. In the same token, people are afraid of admitting of making mistakes. If you do things, you get a chance to make mistakes and if you do not do anything, you would not make mistakes. Therefore, another challenge is to create a culture that admits of making

mistakes. Then address it and solve it." --- A German expatriate.

5.3.2   *Relationships*

Relationships were a significant predictor for both job itself satisfaction (B = -.245) and organization satisfaction (B = -.284) of the expatriate sample in this study. It was negatively related to these two satisfaction types (H13 and H14). How well they were dealing with colleagues did affect their levels of satisfaction for the job itself and the organization. Similar findings were found in a sample of hotel supervisors in Taiwan in which relationships with others were related with three burnout dimensions: emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and personal accomplishment (Hu & Cheng, 2010). Some interviewees did indicate they experience stress from relationships at work.

"Yes, I felt stress from job here. I am not comfortable with all the peers and people in leadership teams. I hope they can understand that I am here to help and not to control everything." --- An American expatriate felt that the local peers did not welcome him to work in China and were afraid that he was coming to China to control and replace the local management.

"I experiences stress from work because sometimes objectives cannot be met. Sometimes when objectives have to be met, I need to rely on people (manage people on lower ranks) and manage the relationship with people at top. All these can be stressful. People are the main source of stress for me." --- An expatriate from Taiwan indicated how well/poor he manage the relationships with people at the work environment can bring him stress.

5.3.3   *Personal responsibility*

Personal responsibility was another significant predictor that would affect organization (H7) and in China satisfaction, although it was only marginal predictor for job itself satisfaction (H6). However, it did it in a positive way. In other words, the more stress they experienced from personal responsibility, the higher the job itself and organization satisfaction they experienced. That may due to the reason that when expatriates are placed overseas, many of them are in higher ranks, e.g., managerial and executive ranks (Napier & Peterson, 1991). Then, autonomy and authority would come along with the higher ranks for the expatriates (Taylor & Napier, 1996). The quantitative findings suggested the sample enjoyed the personal responsibility they bore at work. In other words, personal responsibility worked as a motivator for the sample. Interviewees expressed both supporting and contradicting ideas to the quantitative findings.

"I am working at a level that is several levels more advance than if I were in the US." --- An American expatriate expressed that the assignment in China allowed him to work in a much higher position and bear more responsibility than if he stayed and worked in the States.

"The China assignment experience is definitely something good. In the past three years, I could develop outputs that could obviously contribute to the development of the company." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong indicated he bore more responsibility and he brought some contribution to the company after he moved to China.

"For business, there are not enough data in China. Therefore, it is difficult to judge or make decision. Sometimes, I need to make educated guess and judgment. In addition, different people would tell you different information. Therefore, it is important to ask the right questions and judge people's answers." --- An expatriate from Taiwan indicated that the lack of information might affect the quality of decision that he would make, which he needed to bear the responsibility.

"For example, there are clear definitions in Hong Kong and other places of the job responsibilities of a Sales and Marketing manager but in China they do not have a clear job description and specification. If there are duties/tasks not very well done, whose responsibility is this?" --- An expatriate from Hong Kong indicated when responsibility was not clearly defined. It also would make expatriates frustrated, especially when a piece of work was not well done.

5.3.4   *Home/Work balance*

Home/work balance was another significant predictor that would affect organization satisfaction in a positive direction (B = .146). Home/work balance refers to "how well one can 'switch off' from work while one is at home, and vice versa" (Williams & Cooper, 1998). Home/work balance was similar to the spillover effects (Takeuchi, Yun & Tesluk, 2002; Edwards, Cockerton & Guppy, 2007). Shih, Chiang and Hsu (2010) found that expatriate work-family conflict is negatively related to expatriate satisfaction and performance but the quantitative findings of this study indicated that the higher stress from the home/work balance, the more satisfied the sample was on organization satisfaction (H4), and it was contradicted with findings of literature (Wang, Lawler & Shi, 2010). That may due to the reason that

expatriates spent more time on their work in China and so they got more organization satisfaction. On the other hand, they had less worries on their home due to the manual labor is very cheap in China and they could hire domestic helpers at home so they could concentrate more at work. In other words, the domestic helpers allowed them to concentrate more on their work, especially expatriates who have young children. It can be seen in the following quotes from expatriates in China.

"I worry less about my family in China than in America because we have a domestic helper so I do not need to worry on what's happening at home. It is not just my wife at home but with the help of a domestic helper, I worry less." --- An expatriate from America.

In addition, the expatriates interviewed tried to introduce the policy of separate work and home lives. That may also contribute to the positive relationship between home/work balance and organization satisfaction.

"There is less work and life balance in China. With the American leadership, we introduced the concept of work and life balance to our subsidiary in China. There was no urgency so no priority before. Now, no more internal meetings in the company are on Saturdays. They did that before and people didn't think it was strange. Now, there are no such meetings on weekends. If a meeting is with customers, that's fine." --- An American expatriate said the expatriate group introduced the concept of life and work separation in the company.

Although many expatriates tried to introduce the home/work balance concept, many of

them found their transfers to China made them losing their private and family life.

"In Western societies, family and work have a very clear distinction. Here in China, work life and family life are mixed if the latter existed. I need spent much of my private (family) time for business meetings, dealings, dinners, and gatherings etc. I cannot spend much time here with my family, especially my kids. I got some complaints from my two daughters." --- A Canadian expatriate found the work and family lives are not clearly separated after he moved to China.

"In the sense that if I want to develop connections with local people, businessmen or authorities, the intensity of networking with people is so constant. In other words, one has to spend ones private time to dine, drink, sing, dance and entertain with these people…. It is so draining for foreigners who have very clear distinction between work life and private life." --- A female American Chinese.

Some interviewees were not able to separate work and home lives clearly. However, many of them did believe the assignment made them be closer with their family members.

"My family (wife and daughter) and I get closer here. However, sometimes I got stress from work and that may affect my emotions so my temper may not be so good at home sometimes." --- An expatriate from Taiwan thanked his family members, especially his wife, could bear the frustrations of his temper, which was due to work.

"The assignment is more of a problem for my wife because she feels lonely at home sometimes. If we pass this stage successfully, we can get closer as we overcome some tough times together. For me, the assignment makes me to have a closer relationship with my wife." --- An expatriate from Taiwan.

"The China assignment has no impact on our relationship. If there was any, it would be just positive impact on our relationship as there are common experiences, be good or bad, and we have something common to share with and have some common things to talk about." --- A Dutch expatriate expressed the common experiences of being in China with his wife was actually something that made their relationship better.

5.3.5 Hassles

Although the poor general working conditions, like office services and supplies were either unavailable or not satisfactory, were not up to Western standards and a lot of hassles were created to expatriates (Zamet & Bovarnick, 1986), hassles (B = .175) were found positively related to organization satisfaction in the survey (H9). In other words, it worked as a motivator for expatriates in China. However, the quantitative findings seem contradicted with opinions of interviewees in the qualitative part of the study.

"The environment is good here in terms of space and location. However, there are a lot of daily hassles at work that are disturbing. For example, the phone network quality is very poor. It is people related and hardware related. I need to do tele-conferences every week but the internet is always unconnected. Both mobile phones and tele-conferences have a lot of

disturbing noises. The infrastructure in office building is still lack of details or designed not from the point of view of users. All these problems irritate." An expatriate from Hong Kong found the daily hassles at work annoying and affecting his work.

Although from the opinion of interviewees that hassles seemed a problem for them, quantitative findings did not prove so. That might due to the reasons that other problems were more serious ones, e.g., work attitude of local employees, and so attention from expatriates was not paid on hassles.

5.3.6   Recognition

Many MNEs consider international assignments as means for management development and career advancement (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Tung, 1982a; Oddou, Derr & Balck, 1995; Chapel, 1998; McEllister, 1998; Tung & Worm, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002) and they used these as purposes to attract good home performers to accept overseas assignments. However, the findings show that recognition (B = -.327) was negatively related to job itself satisfaction (H11). In other words, the sample found the poor recognition they received from top management or from colleagues at home affect their job itself satisfaction. The complaints of the expatriates are as follows:

"Many colleagues at home do not understand why it is important to place so many expatriates in China. They would question how come these guys are hanging around in China? From their points of view, they would see there is no contribution from these expatriates in some hard criteria. For example, the China operation makes only very low sales with high cost

and low production. They cannot see the long-term benefits China can bring to the company in the future 10 to 15 years. They would not understand that dealing with people in China is in a much more intensive basis. It is very different from Germany. They would not understand the difficulty of doing business here. Only those who were here before or those CEOs or board directors understand the difficulties." --- A German expatriate got upset that general colleagues at home did not understand their contributions to the company.

In addition, the negative relationship between recognition and satisfaction may due to the reason that many of these MNEs guaranteed for promotion or career advancement when they sent expatriates overseas. However, these MNEs could not carry out what they promised later on, especially when the time the assignments ended.

"For performance evaluation, my local boss in China is doing that because he is the one who can understand my performance clearly. Nobody at home is doing that. For chances of promotion, China branches and HK branch are separated from the headquarters in Taiwan. Therefore, no matter how well I perform in China, it does not contribute to the chances of promotion at home." --- An expatriate from Taiwan found out the China operation was separated from the business in the Taiwan headquarters so he had no way to compete promotions with colleagues at home.

However, the problem of recognition seemed not exist for expatriates working in MNEs which have a more developed and organized international development program for their employees. In addition, the MNEs let the expatriates understand the experiences they had in China was good for their future development or career rather than making any promises in

career advancement. In this case, the interviewees did not care about the recognition from or future positions in the MNEs but they did care what knowledge and skills the China experiences could bring to them in the future career or values bring to their future boss.

"When the time I accepted the assignment in China, I gave up my position at the headquarters in the States. There was/is no guarantee I would get a position after I finish my assignment here. The assignment here lasts for two years. Personally, the China assignment is enormously adding value to my career. I always want to develop skills that can add value to my future employers. Working in an international team in New Jersey does not mean international experience. Living in China, visiting different cities and talking to different customers make me experienced how business is done in China. The actual marketing and activities can help me. It also proves that I can live and work abroad that may be good for me in the future international assignment whether it is in China or other places. In addition, I also have good network here as I can meet many high caliber Americans here that may also be helpful for me. These can help me even I go back to the States or will stay in China or Asia." --- An expatriate from America believed the China assignment added value to him and it can benefit to his future employers.

"I thought a lot if the China assignment can contribute to my career before accepting the job. I might not make the move if it is not in China. China experience in work can add me a very different dimension and I can see more the operating environment of the company in Asia. That can make me able to move forward in health care but not just in pharmaceutical. That can also help me move forward in cross sectors in this or in other companies. The assignment diversifies me and I am able to compete for higher level jobs. The China assignment helps me

155

to open more doors that I otherwise would have. I also know more leaders outside this company which would be helpful in the future." --- An American expatriate found the China assignment could open more career doors for him in the current or other companies.

"There was no guarantee from the company. However, to be a more senior manager, I need to have some working experiences in overseas countries. All top management in Korea has international experiences. Many people in my generation do not have international experience, but it is a common sense that they need it and after the assignment, they can have higher positions. It is not a requirement but it is a common sense in the company." --- An expatriate from Korea.

"The experience in Hong Kong made me understand that I cannot go to a higher position in my career ladder as the Hong Kong market is very small. The lack of experience in a macro market (big market) also makes me could not move higher. After the assignment, I can decide whether I should go back to Hong Kong or stay in China. I need some macro market experiences so I can have more choices in my career." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong believed he could have more career choices after he got some working experiences in China.

Some expatriates also got satisfaction through the recognition of the headquarters on their performance in China. A Canadian expatriate said, "The hotel group appreciates what I am doing by keeping me in China and allocating more work to me. I have just become the vice-president of Asia for our hotel group. The hotel group is financially successful under my supervision. I enjoy a strong sense of satisfaction."

5.3.7   *Organization climate*

Organization climate was defined as "the 'feel' or 'atmosphere' within the place of work (Williams & Coopers, 1998). It was very different from those in Western countries. It was found to have a negative impact on organization satisfaction (B = -.270) of expatriate in the survey. In addition, experiences retrieved from expatriates in interviews also confirmed the findings from the survey.

"Individualism is not encouraged here. People are not encouraged to do and to say what they want. The structure here does not help people to do something and succeed in something….. At the same time, people are trying to make money fast because they do not know how long the current environment will last according to the history of China. This is a very selfish environment." A Scottish expatriate complained about the social conditions which had impact on the work atmosphere.

5.3.8   *Working with Chinese*

The lengthy and strategic negotiation process of Chinese (Pye, 1982; Chen, 1994; Hung, 1994; Selmer, 1998b; Chen, 2001), the decision making styles of Chinese parties (Blackman, 1998; Chen, 2001) which was difficult to identify the real decision maker in business dealings (Hung, 1994; Selmer, 1998b; Chen, 2001) and also the differences in perception of time (Trompenaars, 1993) resulted with work conflicts and frustrations (Sergeant & Frenkel, 1998). However, working with Chinese was not a significant predictor to organization satisfaction (H29) but it was marginal predictor to job itself satisfaction (H28) in the quantitative part of

the study. Out of expectation, which working with Chinese was a significant predictor on in China satisfaction, although it was not hypothesized. It was negatively related to in China satisfaction (B = -.157). In the interviews, there were more complaints from expatriates in regard of working with Chinese.

"Meeting or negotiations are also stressful in China. We know what we want when we go to a meeting or a negotiation. We also know what the Chinese party wants after ten minutes of the meeting. However, they like to keep talking for hours and hours to get to the point." --- A German expatriate complained the way Chinese business parties engaged in meetings and discussions.

5.3.9   Non-supportive headquarters

Although there were complaints from expatriates in interviews in regard of receiving inadequate supports from headquarters, non-supportive headquarters was a significant predictor for job itself (B = .162) and in China satisfaction (B = .154). Its effect was in a positive way (H19 and H21). That may due to the reasons that it also meant the expatriates might have more freedom and less restrictions to work in overseas assignments when they got less supports from the headquarters. However, interviewees did complain the inadequate supports from the headquarters could affect their performance in the overseas assignment.

"I am so far away from the headquarters and I feel that I am isolated. There is no way to know what is happening at home and what is going on." --- An American expatriate complained about the inadequate support from the headquarters.

"When I need to get advice or consultation from the headquarters, I never get it on time. The inadequate supports I can get when I need it affect my work here, which would affect my performance evaluation at the end of the year." --- An Indian expatriate complained the inadequate support from the headquarters would affect his performance in China.

5.3.10 *Chinese business environment*

Chinese business environment was also a significant predictor on organization satisfaction (H23) but not on job itself (H22) and in China satisfaction (H24) in the quantitative part of the study. It worked as a motivator (B = .148). When a closer look was at the personal experiences of expatriates, they found it was tough to work in the Chinese business environment, which was especially true when the rules and regulations were implemented differently for a local firm than to a foreign firm (European Chamber of Commerce, 2012). Furthermore, guanxi development required a lot of energy and talents which the expatriates were lacked of. In addition, the business environment, e.g. guanxi practices, also challenged the ethnical standards of expatriates (Chen, 2001; Warner, 2010). It was found that some expatriates chose not to follow the local guanxi practices while there was also another group which tried to adapt to this particular Chinese business culture (Nolan, 2011).

"The work environment is tough because there are quite a lot of rules and regulations. The implementations and enforcement of them are very inconsistent to local than to foreign firms. There are also a lot of gray areas in which the law is not clear. There are a lot of intellectual property rights which are being abused." --- An Australian Chinese found there

were double standards applied to local firms than to MNEs.

"The Hygiene Group can come to the hotel (foreign hotel) and close down the whole hotel because they don't like your way to do the hygiene but if you go to the local hotels opposite of the street, the requirement is completely different. The requirements of the government to foreign companies are harsher, especially during the early and middle 90s." --- A Canadian expatriate complained the rules and regulations were different for foreign and local companies.

"If a Chinese conducted business in Canada, there is no doubt that he would be treated unfairly. On the other way around, if a Canadian conducted business in China, he would be treated unfairly. People would not trust him. In China, rules and regulations applied to local people and foreigners are different. Chinese people are afraid of foreigners would exploit them." --- A Canadian expatriate found that there were so many rules and regulations in China. In addition, the rules and regulations applied to local people and foreigners were different.

"Many our customers always ask us to sponsor them for conferences and in return they would buy more products from us. It is difficult. The conference is not business related but it would affect whether the customers would buy more from us. This business structure is different from what I learned at school. Should you please the company, your colleagues or following the ethical standard? As I am the decision maker, all these consume me a lot of thinking. There are many grey areas in China. When you are not using their own way of methodology to do things, the local people would think you are incorrect. When the team is getting bigger and bigger, more of these problems may occur. The company has guidelines for

ethical standard. If I follow these guidelines, it means the company is following the American standard and it is not a good way to communicate with and manage your subordinates. China emphasizes a lot RenQing (human feelings). If you do not use and respect RenQing, they would not help you at the end and finally it affects your business. People in China mix work and RenQing together. For serious mistakes like stealing, I can easily follow guidelines. For minor problems or grey areas, I should rely on something else. Local people are very good at manipulating in grey area." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong questioned the ethical standard he learned when he saw practices were so different in the Chinese business environment.

"Ongoing and obvious corruption in the workplace, government, security organizations and lack of transparency (honesty) in communication are two of the most frustrating challenges to work here." --- A Canadian expatriate found the lack of transparency in the Chinese business environment.

5.3.11 *Rules and regulations*

Rules and regulations were not a significant predictor for job itself (H25) and organization satisfaction (H26) but was a significant predictor for in China satisfaction (H27). Rules and regulations (B = .144) was in a positive relationship with in China satisfaction. It indicated expatriates might still perceive China as a place with lack of security. More rules and regulations which govern the daily life could give expatriates a more secured feeling and so their in China satisfaction was enhanced positively. Although the findings were not significant in the working settings, literature found it is a problem for expatriates in China (Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). In addition, many interviewees did complain about the troubles of rules and regulations applied on their work environment as follows.

"Working with Chinese government and state owned enterprises (SOEs) are time consuming because there are lots of rules and regulations. The quality of management in MNEs is much better than the management in government and SOEs." A Dutch expatriate.

"China has a lot of rules and regulations and they are changing all the time. Another problem is there are never enforcement of these rules and regulations. Unless some problems or accidents happen, people would trace back the legal system and see who is wrong." A Dutch expatriate complained about the rules and regulations in China.

"From business point of view, there are many regulations on foreign enterprises concerning what they cannot do here in China." --- A Japanese expatriate complained that MNEs were targeted and special rules and regulations were applied to them.

Many expatriates might have delegated the local employees who had the connections to deal with these rules and regulation problems in China (Nolan, 2011). That might explain the insignificant statistical findings of rules and regulations to their job itself and organization satisfaction.

5.3.12 Workload

When expatriates were in their overseas assignments, they bore heavy workload which would make them under stress (Hullinger & Nolan, 1997; Hulme, 2006; Fischlmayr &

Kollinger, 2010; Makela, Kansala & Suutari, 2011). Although many interviewees did express they had heavy workload in China (see interview quotes as follows), both H1 and H2 were not rejected. In other words, workload was not found as a predictor for any satisfaction type in this study. It may due to the reason that stress could be manifested in different aspects, e.g., behaviourally, physically and psychologically. Since stress can be manifested through behavioural responses, e.g., absenteeism and turnover (Parker & DeCotiis, 1983; Clarke & Cooper, 2000), physiological responses, e.g., headaches, blood pressures, pulse rate, neck and shoulder muscle tension (Pearson, 1981; Bruning & Frew, 1987; Selmer, 1998b; Clarke & Cooper, 2000), and psychological responses, e.g., anxiety, job satisfaction (Tetrick & LaRocco, 1987; Doby & Caplan, 1995; Clarke & Cooper, 2000; Donald, Taylor, Johnson, Cooper, Cartwright & Robertson, 2005), this study used satisfaction (job itself satisfaction, organizational satisfaction and in China satisfaction) as proxy factors for the responses if one is under stress. It is possible that stress of expatriates can be manifested on their behaviour and/or on their physical well being. In addition, when the sample was studied as a whole, workload was not a significant predictor. When the sample was broken down into sub-samples for further investigation, a difference was found (Please see continent origin and male vs. female expatriate sessions). The following are some quotes from interviews with expatriates and many expatriates found out that workload was a problem for them.

"I have heavy workload here. I am very busy with my work during week days so I can only spend more time with my family during weekends." --- An expatriate from Taiwan complained the heavy workload competed the time he spent with his family.

"The office hours are supposed to be from 9:00 a.m. to 6:00 p.m. and only 5 days a week

in China. However, I normally leave my office at 8:30 or 9:00 at night. In other words, I work nearly 60 hours a week. When the time I arrive home at 9:30, my kids are already in bed. Another reason for my long working time is the time difference between India and Guangzhou. Guangzhou is two and a half hours earlier than India. Therefore, when it is 7:00 p.m. in India, it is already 9:30 in Guangzhou. However, people at headquarters keep making contact with me. Another problem is China and India have different holidays. When there are holidays in Guangzhou, India is in working days. Sometimes the headquarters is hurried to get report from China but it is a holiday in Guangzhou and workers do not come back to work. The company pushes me but I cannot push my workers here in China." --- An expatriate from India complained the time and holiday differences made him working long hours.

"The Shanghai office is so small in size and not very well structured or departmentalized. Therefore, many works and tasks, which were responsible by some assistant departments in Canada, have to be done by us (expatriates). On the other hand, the Chinese workers are afraid of bearing responsibility. They would not make decisions themselves, even just some minor decisions. Again, these minor decisions consume me a lot of time." --- An expatriate from Canada explained the reasons for heavy workload in China.

Some expatriates complained that they had health and/or physical problems which might show that stress of expatriates were manifested physically. The follows are some of the complaints.

"I have back ache after I came here. That may deal to the heavy workload I have here. Sometimes I can't even sleep because of the back ache." --- A Canadian expatriate.

"I was stress and wanted to go home. During that time, I could not drink or eat anything. Whatever I took, I just threw up. I could not sleep too. I just wanted to go home. It lasted for 3 days but seemed like a year and I believed the job stress was the main reason for my sickness." --- An American expatriate found out he had some physical problems when he was under stress in his current job in China.

"For the losses, I have lost my nerves and energy. It eats up a lot of my energy in such a demanding environment. I doubt about my future physical strength because of the pollution…. I am always exhausted." --- A German expatriate found out that he was always and got exhausted easier in China.

"I got a back problem after moving to China and my wife arranges somebody to do massage for me." --- A British expatriate experienced some physical problem after moving to China.

"I never quite sure about the stress I experience here. My wife said that I am under stress. The issues here are different from elsewhere but the nature of the job is certainly less stressful." --- A British expatriate experienced stress not from work but from somewhere else in China.

5.3.13   *Managerial role*

As expatriates who moved to overseas assignments, they may encounter difficulties when

they need to manage people and especially those people who have different cultural backgrounds from their own. However, managerial role – "Being responsible for managing and supervising other people" was found not as a predictor for job itself and organization satisfaction that were hypothesized in the quantitative part of this study. However, the quotes from interviews with expatriates showed that many of them found their managerial roles bring them problems in work or in life. It is also possible that the consequences of their stress experienced from this factor might be manifested in other areas, e.g., physiologically and behaviourally (Clarke & Cooper, 2000).

"Since the Shanghai office is so far from Canada headquarters, not many experts are available here. In the case that there are some technically related problems, which I would like to seek consultation from, I cannot get it here like when I was in Canada headquarters. I have to make quite a lot of decisions myself. Although I would like to find somebody I can delegate my work to, it is difficult for me to find appropriate people here." --- An expatriate from Canada complained the managerial role he had to bear and the difficulty of delegation in China.

"The group I worked before (in the States) cannot recognize the local China team and what they can do. That creates frustrations to me. Part of my job is to bridge the gap." --- An American expatriate.

"My subordinate, a marketing manager, (a Chinese but worked in the States for seven years) is very confident in everything he is doing so he does not want to get any negative response from others. He looks accepting comments but I get a feeling that he is not. He thinks

166

that he is under employed as he worked in strategic marketing before but he only works as a marketing manager now. He worked in internet and on-line marketing which is a complete different business from ours. There is still a gap in his knowledge and skills. He always visits my boss directly and bypasses me." --- The managerial role without power and not able to get the appropriate respects from subordinates made the Japanese expatriate frustrated all the time.

"I have to do more and work longer here because of more work. I usually work 12 to 14 hours a day here. On the other hand, I need to work in weekends or to join some business purpose social activities as figurehead. For example, I had only 8 free weekends without any business activities in the first 8 months of this year. After work, I may also need to attend many different social gatherings or banquet for relationship building purposes." --- A German expatriate complained about long working hours in China and time spent on managerial roles as a figure head for the company.

"I may need to be involved in discussions which normally do not need to be involved as being a general manager in Canada. I may need to join some hygiene meetings or fire safety bureau meetings. Sometimes I thought I was going to listen to a presentation and it ended up that I needed to give a speech." --- A Canadian complained about the managerial role that he was performing at his company in China.

5.3.14 Environmental pollution

Surprisingly environmental pollution was not a significant predictor for in China satisfaction (H30) for the sample in the survey as hypothesized. However, there were quite

extensive complaints from the expatriate interviewees in regard the seriousness of pollution in China and their worries that the pollution may affect their own health and so as the health of their family members who came to China with them. It is highly possible that the stress expatriates experienced from the environmental pollution was manifested on other physical responses like physical fatigue and painfulness, or on psychological responses like worries which were cited above (Please see the workload session).

"Another problem is pollution here (air pollution). Asthma attack also makes me worry about my kids here. Air pollution (asthma) would have permanent impact on health." --- An American expatriate with young children staying with him in China was worried about the impact of pollution on the health of his kids.

"I am going back to North America because my wife and I want to have babies. We don't want to raise our kids in Chinese environment. Air pollution and dirty streets are not a good environment for children to grow up with. Plus I don't want my kids to grow up with kids of other expatriates. I am afraid of these expatriate kids would have bad habits. I don't want my kids to be spoiled. I just want them to have normal lives." --- A Canadian expatriate left China because of the bad pollution there.

"I am not able to do many outdoor activities in China because of the air pollution. Spend half an hour for outdoor activities in China is equivalent to smoking one pack of cigarette. Furthermore, Shanghai is very crowded. There are no attractive areas where you can go or do cycling in Shanghai." --- Although the German expatriate had discovered a place, where the outdoor environment is very nice there but it took two hours of transportation to go there. It

was very time consuming to enjoy the nature than when they were at home.

5.3.15   *Leisure activities*

Although it was only hypothesized that leisure activities was a significant predictor on in China satisfaction (H31), statistically, there was no support that leisure activities could predict in China satisfaction, neither for job itself and organization satisfaction in this study. It was only a marginally significant predictor for in China satisfaction. However, the following quotes showed that expatriates could not find nice and appropriate leisure activities in China. Again, the consequences of stress might manifest in other areas.

"The travelling for leisure is pretty poor and I do not enjoy it because of poorly set up tourist spots and these places are very crowded. Local Chinese like to touch my kids. I have to spend all my time guarding against those local Chinese who like to touch or take pictures of my small children. In addition, those travelling spots are also not set up for handicapped people and children. The quality of leisure activities in China is no good." --- An American expatriate thought the quality of leisure activities in China was poor.

"Every activity can be found in China but they are expensive and far away. Nothing is convenient located. I like golfing and I did it around 10 to 20 times a year in the States but I did it twice only in these two years in China because it is inconvenient located and expensive. Based on American perspective, other things like shopping is also inconvenient located." --- An American expatriate complained that although he could find many leisure activities in China but they were just expensive and took effort to arrange compared with the abundant high

quality and easy located leisure activities found in the States.

"You need much more effort and have to be more serious to organize leisure activities in China. Their qualities are so poor here. There is no boating here. Biking is dangerous with the traffic and it is actually a life threatening experience. It is a kind of transportation instead of recreation activity. The river is polluted and you cannot do fishing here. Swimming in the sea or river here would get infections. I enjoyed my leisure time much more at home, and the leisure activities were much higher in quality at home." --- A Canadian found he suffered a lot from the lack of and poor leisure quality in China.

"It is bored in China. I have to think of what to do and it is not relaxing and not convenient to do these things. We can go to play golf but playing golf is very expensive here than in the States….. Nothing is simple. It needs to play a catch or a cost to do it….. People drive terribly here. Public parks in the States are very well organized, with nice picnic tables and bathrooms. If you luckily find a bathroom here, you would not want to use it after seeing its condition." --- An American Chinese expatriate

5.3.16   Quality of life

Quality of life was only a marginal significant predictor for in China satisfaction (H32) in this study although literature showed that quality of life in terms of medical care, product availability and service quality were quite poor or much below standard (Zimmermann et al., 2003; Jha, 2005; Cheng, 2006; International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition, 2007). Although the following quotes from interviews with expatriates in China showed the quality of life in China

was not in a good condition, it seemed that it did not bother their in China satisfaction as it was shown in the quantitative data. Again, it might be reflected on other physiological or behavioural responses.

"China has basic health care but not cure care. The cure care (urgent care) in China is very sub-standard. That is a problem for me as I have kids. If there is a real problem (accident happen), I have no confidence in the cure care here." --- An American expatriate was worried about the standard of cure care in China.

"Food is also ok but the risk is much higher going to a local restaurant (restaurants for local people). Seeing a doctor in the local hospital is a disaster. For medical system, doctors are not in professional level yet. The management is poor and also there are quite a lot of people (patients), making the medical system not in good quality. In general, there is no service oriented concept in this place, e.g., medical system. There are a lot of patients. Quality of doctors and the medical system are still behind." --- An expatriate from Taiwan also concerned about the quality of medical care in China.

"China is very closed off from the world when it comes to the distribution and dissemination of news." --- An American expatriate complained that his quality of life was affected because the difficulty in accessing to sensitive news in China.

An expatriate from Hong Kong also shared similar point of view, "The internet is also very slow and many websites are blocked by the Chinese government. I enjoy mental growth

and satisfaction on intellectual curiosity. Chinese government's strict restriction of information or access to information makes me feel the assignment to China is a hardship."

"Western food is expensive. People just simply don't know how to cook it. You don't get what you paid for. There is also no service in China. If you go to health club, they don't clean up and do many stupid things." --- A Canadian expatriate complained about the poor qualify of life in China.

"Things are beginning to be more available now. Certain things that were not available before are available now, but their availability is still restricted in major cities, like Shanghai and Beijing. Getting out of these regions, many things are still not accessible. Pollution is a major problem here. China is much polluted comparing with Australia. On the other hand, there is lack of sporting facilities here in China. From a social point of view, Australia and Taiwan are more developed in recreational facilities." --- An Australian Chinese expatriate found there was improvement in terms of product availability in China but other areas like pollution and sport facilities still concerned him.

"The quality of life is poor here. For example, the vegetables here are with lots of insecticide, which is not good for health at all and have to be washed for an hour in water. On the other hand, there are many faked products, e.g., faked medicines. It is not safe." --- A Japanese expatriate commented the poor quality of life in China was related to the poor quality of daily products and medical products.

"Service is poor here even with big hotels. Once I sent a pair of my shoes for the shoe shining service at a five star hotel when I first moved to here. They damaged my shoes without any explanation. Although they offered to fix them, the work was not properly done." --- An American Indian expatriate indicated the services at five star hotels in China were still not up to standard.

Some of the expatriates did admire that the quality of life got some improvement. For example, an American Chinese found that many products were available, "One thing I have to admire is the growth is amazing here in China. Many products were not available before and we have them now despite that they are expensive."

5.3.17   *Different habits*

Different habits were a significant predictor for in China satisfaction (H35) but was only a marginal predictor for organization satisfaction (H34) and it was not significant for job itself satisfaction (H33) in the quantitative study. Different habits and in China satisfaction were in a positive relationship (B = .123). In other words, the higher the recognition of the different habits of the local people to the expatriates, the more in China satisfaction the expatriates experienced. The following are some quotes from interviews with expatriates that show their perceptions of the habits of local people.

"I was shock that China was so ugly when I first arrived here. It is ugly in terms of its city infrastructure, its pollution and people's bad habits, e.g., they spit around." --- A Scottish expatriate.

"People have a strong desire to eat meat and the different parts of animals. For example, they eat the bladder of a snake. There is a lot of smoking and a heavy amount drinking in this society which I do not expect to see that in a communist control country." --- An American expatriate was shocked with the various kinds of food the local Chinese eat and also their heavy drinking and smoking habits.

"Nowadays, not many guys take off their shirts but before there were so many guys took their shirts off. That was really a cultural shock." --- A Korean female expatriate found many local Chinese men had improved their behavior.

"Other than the environmental problems, e.g., pollution and over population, people here also possess different habits which are quite impolite in the eyes of Western people. For example, people yelling to each other. People always bump into you without turning around and saying sorry to you." --- A female American expatriate complained about the habits of local people in China.

"When I first came, I was not able to get used to the spitting habits of Chinese people and also the way they act, e.g., they slamming the door very loud and screaming in the hallway. It is hard for me to sleep when your neighborhood acts in this way. People smoke a lot and they throw the cigarette into the trash --- the trash!" --- An American was frustrated by the different habits of local Chinese.

"People litter here. For cities, it is ok because many women sweep the floor in the morning but people even litter in the nature, e.g., mountains. Nobody would sweep in the nature so it is kind of hurting the environment." --- An American expatriate complained the bad habits of Chinese people would hurt the nature.

5.3.18   *Cheating*

Cheating was a significant predictor for job itself satisfaction (H36) and was only a marginal significant predictor for in China satisfaction (H38). No significant relationship was found between cheating and organization satisfaction (H37). The ethical standard of Chinese people was very different from the Western standard. They would not think it was an unethical problem to rip off foreigners (Hutchings & Murray, 2002) and that might due to historical reasons and compensation differentials (Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008). Although many interviewees expressed they were cheated or got a feeling that local Chinese would cheat them (see the following quotes), cheating did not work as a main stressor for expatriates. That might due to the reason that expatriates have a stronger expressive tie with other expatriates from their own country or other expatriates from other cultures which have a smaller cultural distance (Manev & Stevenson, 2001) and they avoid themselves of being contacted or interacted with local people in their out-of-office life (Olsen & Martins, 2009).

"Once I was in Shanghai airport, a local person said that he had no money to return home and asked me to lend him RMB 800. He said he would return me the money after he arrived to his home town and he gave me his mobile number for contact. I lent him RMB 800. However, I called him later but that number was a fake one. I had the same experience twice. That made me

losing the trust from and not willing to help local people any more." --- An expatriate from Taiwan had experiences of being cheated by local Chinese.

"China is a more complicated society and there is also a big difference among people in their financial status. Therefore, it is difficult to trust people. You have to keep check and monitor people." --- Another expatriate from Taiwan also thought that it would be common for local Chinese cheating foreign people.

"Foreigners are always cheated when they buy things just simply because they are foreigners and locals would say to them that they are charged higher because they earn more." --- An American expatriate believed that expatriates were also cheated by the local people simply because they were foreigners.

"Local Chinese always try to cheat foreigners. Once I went to Qingdao with my girlfriend, the shopkeeper talked to my girlfriend and proposed to cheat me together with her. Since I speak Chinese, I understood what the shopkeeper meant. Usually I try not to get angry or simply ignore it. Although I was frustrated, I pretended not to hear it because if I raised the issue, it would be troublesome since it would make people losing face." --- The experience of an American expatriate.

"For the time being, I mainly approach foreign customers instead of local Chinese. I avoid dealing with Chinese if I can still make money, why not? Chinese people like to cheat foreigners. There are so many middlemen. It may end up that most of the money we paid goes

to the middlemen. Besides you also have to have the right connections in order to get things done." --- A Scottish expatriate avoid dealing with local Chinese on his business because he found local people like to cheat foreigners.

"For the stress I experience in China, it is more people related. Chinese people like to cheat people. Once I paid the price of buying a pack of real foreign cigarettes, the shopkeeper gave me a faked one. That's annoying." --- A Scottish expatriate was annoyed of being cheated by local people.

"Foreigners are treated on one hand with superficial respect and on the other hand blatantly perceived as being wealthy so they can ride the storm of being taken advantage of financially more so. Chinese believe the rationale that the foreigners took advantage of the Chinese for hundreds of years so it is payback time. These misperceptions cause a high degree of uncertainty when trying to conduct legitimate business and personal relations." --- A Canadian expatriate believed the differences in financial status and also the historical reason made foreigners as the targets of being cheated by local Chinese.

5.3.18   *Qualifications of local employees*

As can be seen from the following quotes, there were evidences to show that expatriates admitted and experienced stress from the improper qualifications of local employees. The interviewed expatriates explained that poor qualifications of local employees were mainly due to the insufficient work experiences and the wide range of capabilities they had which were consistent with what the literature stated (Lu & Bjorkman, 1997; Goodall & Warner, 1998;

Zhu, Speece & So, 1998; Zimmermann et al., 2003; Hulme, 2006). However, qualifications of local employees were not a significant predictor for all of the three dependent factors (H39, H40 and H41). It was highly possible that stress experienced from this area was manifested in other aspects not studied here.

"Capabilities in work are different than what I used to in the States. It is a broader range here. I find here have a tighter skill set than a global function that I dealt with. It was a bit frustrating at the beginning." --- An American expatriate experienced frustrations about the poor skill sets of the local employees when he first came to China.

"I became a copy editor here. I need to edit and rewrite what people have written in English here. Their English is so poor." --- The qualifications of local employees increased the workload of an American expatriate.

"Staffs are more independent in Canada and they cover a wide spectrum of activities and have more contribution to management practices. You don't need to check their work. You don't have to worry whether they would misunderstand you due to the communication or cultural problem. For example, if I asked my secretary to reach a certain customer for me, the secretary would keep trying if the person is not in his office or the secretary would leave a message to ask the person calls back. However, my secretary in China would just try once to reach the person and if the person is not in his office, the secretary would simply forget it and not doing any follow up or telling me about that until I discover it the next day." --- A Canadian expatriate suffered from frustrations due to the low qualifications of local employees.

"Efficiency is low in China but it is getting better. You have no control of how things go in China. If you want your subordinates do something for you, you have to be very specific telling them what you want and how you want them to do it. Then you have to do follow up to see whether they do it. They never go to you. They just do not have the responsibility so you need to go to them yourself. Therefore, it ends up the expatriates spend most of their time to teach the local staff or to do the follow up or some very simple things." --- A female American Chinese expatriate found that she needed to keep a close eye on the work of her local subordinates.

"I cannot find the right people to delegate my work in order to decrease my workload. Most people in China are lack of skills to do certain things so it ends up that I have to tell my subordinates of what to do and how to do." --- A Dutch expatriate complained that his heavy workload was related to the insufficient qualifications of his subordinates.

"For the work environment, many people have the general competence. In other words, they possess certain skills, e.g., mathematics. However, they are lack of experience and they still need to be developed." --- A British expatriate believed the insufficient experience of local employees was the main reason to explain their poor qualifications.

"For the stress I experienced here is work related. For my expatriate friends, some of them have a lot of complaints. Usually expatriates are sent here to achieve certain targets for the company. However, China is still a place lack of highly skilled people. These expatriates

would find they cannot find appropriate people to work for them and it would influence whether their goals can be achieved or not. Therefore, they would have lots of complaints." --- An American expatriate found many of his expatriate friends also complained about the qualifications of the local employees.

5.3.19   *Indirectness of local employees*

Many expatriates felt and complained about the indirectness of local employees which would affect their quality of work and also their emotions. Although expatriates made a lot of complaints, the sample did not show indirectness of local employees as a significant predictor for job itself (H45), organization (H46) and in China satisfaction (H47). Again it is possible that stress experienced from this source might be manifested physically or behaviourally.

"American companies emphasize a lot on honesty and integrity. People in Taiwan would say 'I don't know' if they do not know something. In China, people would not say "I don't know". Even they know only a bit, they would say they know." --- A Taiwanese expatriate working in an American company complained about the indirectness of local Chinese in China.

"People like to save face even though they are wrong. My education brings me to be a direct person. For foreigners, we are so direct so there is a cultural conflict. For me, if a person is not direct, I wonder if the person is honest." --- Cultural differences made an American expatriate suspected the honesty of local employees.

"The actual meaning of what they mean may be different from what they say. When they

say "No", does it really mean no or they are just being polite." --- An American expatriate complained what local Chinese employees said might be different from what they meant.

"Another problem in China is lack of transparency. People do not really say what they want. In this sense, it is difficult for foreigners to do business in China with Chinese people. In western cultures, people are direct and frank." --- A female American Chinese expatriate.

"Stress can be divided into positive stress and negative stress. I am the kind of person needs stress. I like to work under pressure. Positive stress is good to work. The negative stress that I experience in China is usually emotional things. For example, staff here is not open to discussion. They like to talk about you or other people or talk behind you. These relationship things are frustrating."--- A German expatriate was frustrated about the indirectness of the local employees.

5.4 Continent origin: Asian vs. non-Asian Expatriates

It was found from the quantitative findings that non Asian expatriates had higher job itself and in China satisfaction than their Asian counterparts, while the Asian expatriates had higher organization satisfaction than non-Asian expatriates. The findings demonstrated that hypotheses 48, 49 and 50 were rejected. Their differences on job itself, organization and in China satisfaction indicated the proposed sources had different impact on these two groups of expatriates. In addition, the non-Asian group got significantly higher score on their in China satisfaction which might due to the low expectations that they had about China before they came. They were horrified by the existing publications about China so they had a poor

181

perception about China. For Asian expatriates, as they were located closer to China and they were able to assess information or had been in China before they came, they were able to generate a picture that is closer to the reality in China. Therefore, the real experience met with their expectations, so their in China satisfaction was not as high as their non-Asian counterparts. On the other hand, Chinese people also respected westerners better than Asian and/or people who had Chinese origin. That might also help to explain the higher in China and job itself satisfaction that non-Asian expatriates experienced and also the potential sources that create stress and motivation the groups.

"Local people treat western foreigners the best (nicer); Taiwanese the middle; Hong Kong people, Singaporean and Indian the worse. Local people do not like people from HK, Singapore and India very much. Taiwanese is in the middle. I have no racial problem but survival problem here." --- A Taiwanese expatriate identified that expatriates from different countries experienced different kind of treatments by the local people in China.

"Yes, local people treat people from various countries differently. The local people think that Hong Kong is not a place that the company should send expatriates to Beijing. Hong Kong is just a city like Guangzhou. It is not justified that the company should send people from Hong Kong to work in Beijing. They do not see any value contributed by Hong Kong people so the company should not pay additional price to send Hong Kong people here. For people from the States or Europe, physically they are very different from Chinese. The local people are more interested in them. They have more questions to these foreign expatriates comparing to Hong Kong expatriates. There are more Korean expatriates sent to take important positions in China. Korean expatriates got more respect from local people even though they do not speak

Mandarin very well. Korean expatriates gain more respect than before. The relationship between Taiwan, Japan and Korean expatriates with local Chinese are better than the relationship between Hong Kong expatriates and local Chinese. People in Taiwan and Korea have to join military training and they emphasize a lot on discipline. Local people may have very diversified opinions but other Asian expatriates simply give direct instructions to local people for what they have to do. Hong Kong people have no culture of controlling people's mind. Many of the times, they involve in open discussions. The Hong Kong expatriates ask people's opinions and generate ideas in meetings. The local people would get lost in this kind of management style when they are required to participate and give ideas. But for people from Korea and Taiwan, they simply give instructions which the local people would think these instructions are clear and helpful. For the management of Hong Kong people, the local people would think it is valueless as they need to think and they do not directly get or learn something from Hong Kong expatriates. They prefer direct instructions rather than participation. I find these observations are getting more and more obvious. For other expatriates from other foreign countries, they also would give freedom and ask opinions of local people. Language differences would make the local people respect these other foreign expatriates. For foreign expatriates, if they do not get the wanted results from the locals, they would admit it and they would not push the subordinates. The American and European expatriates would consider these are the results and accept them. For Hong Kong people, if they cannot get the wanted results from the locals, they would push the local people and if they still cannot get the needed results, the Hong Kong people may do it by themselves or complain about the qualifications of the local people. This discrepancy thinking may make the Hong Kong expatriates leave finally. Many Americans and Europeans hold more senior positions and they work with more senior people here. These people are good at English. Hong Kong people can speak Chinese and they may need to work with people at lower and various levels. Local people have a different perception on them. Hong Kong expatriates may face a diversified work force than the

American and European expatriates." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong explained that Hong Kong expatriates were treated less favorably by local Chinese in mainland due to their nationalities and management styles. Mainland people respected Westerners more because they believed Westerners could bring in higher technology and new knowledge. On the other hand, Chinese people got used to the autocratic managerial style where there was limited or no delegation of power (Chen, 1995; Lu & Child, 1996), so they can accept the disciplined managerial style from Japanese and Korean expatriates. Hong Kong managers, who tried to seek participation from Chinese, seem not fitting the needs of the locals. In addition, they also could not gain the respect from the locals as the Western expatriates do (Bjorkman & Schaap, 1994). Local employees who worked with overseas Chinese expatriates had less job satisfaction compared with those who worked with Western expatriates and the lower level of satisfaction seemed to be related to a lower level of perceived performance-based and comparative distributive justice (Leung, Smith, Wang & Sun, 1996). When compare working with Western and Japanese management, local Chinese employees showed far less satisfaction when working with Japanese management than with Western management (Leung, et al., 1997). In conclusion, local Chinese were more satisfied to work with Western expatriates than with Japanese and overseas Chinese expatriates.

"Local Chinese only respect foreigners and they do not respect overseas Chinese. They never think that it is the abilities of the overseas Chinese so they are posted to their current positions. The local employees work against overseas Chinese instead of work with them. 'How come you come to teach me as a Chinese but not a foreigner coming to teach me?' The local people would forgive foreigners but never to ethnic Chinese when they make some mistakes." --- A female American Chinese expatriate found out that local people treated foreigners and overseas Chinese differently.

Table 5.2 shows the regression results of the three types of satisfaction on continent origin. The overall model explained stress problems of non-Asian expatriates better than Asian expatriates as the variations explained were larger for the non-Asian expatriates than the Asian expatriates. About 34.30% of job itself satisfaction for non-Asian expatriates while it was only 22.60% of the variation of job itself satisfaction for Asian expatriates was explained by the model. The variations explained were also higher for non-Asian expatriates (44.20% and 30.90%) than Asian expatriates (31.60% and 29.90%) in organization and in China satisfaction.

Table 5.2: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Three Types of Satisfaction on Continent Origin

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Job Itself B Non Asian (Asian)	**Organization B** Non Asian (Asian)	**In China B** Non Asian (Asian)
Workload	-.123 (-.151)	-.159 (-.049)	-.054 (.100)
Relationships	-.263* (-.027)	-.220* (-.339**)	-.096 (.134)
Home/Work Balance	.209* (-.119)	.212* (.164)	-.093 (.088)
Managerial Role	.145 (.056)	.067 (.098)	.011 (128)
Personal Responsibility	.084 (.109)	.212* (.149)	.132 (188#)
Hassles	.164 (-.042)	.166# (.038)	-.132 (007)
Recognition	-.412*** (-.073)	-.102 (-.062)	-.141 (-.176)
Organization Climate	-.047 (.128)	-.405*** (.036)	.042 (-.108)
Working with Chinese	-.129 (.005)	.012 (-.051)	-.078 (-.281**)
Non-supportive HQ	.204* (.087)	.078 (-.056)	.209* (.144)
Chinese Business Env	.024 (.089)	.137# (.104)	-.080 (.064)
Rules & Regulations	.029 (-.002)	-.029 (-.103)	.099 (.192#)
Env Pollution	-.028 (.083)	-.030 (-.052)	-.057 (.163*)
Leisure Activities	-.052 (.023)	-.005 (-.141#)	-.055 (-.106)
Quality of Life	-.023 (-.068)	-.021 (.006)	-.158* (-.097)
Different Habits	.145* (-.106)	-.013 (-.185*)	.230** (.024)
Cheating	.069 (.181*)	-.046 (-.038)	.104 (.101)

Qualifications of LE	-.004 (.082)	-.136# (.095)	-.040 (-.069)
Work Attitude of LE	-.160* (-.410***)	-.123# (-.302**)	-.307***(-.285**)
Indirectness of LE	-.110 (.074)	-.158* (.015)	-.028 (.104)
F	4.469*** (2.146**)	6.762*** (3.403***)	3.830*** (3.138***)
R²	.343 (.226)	.442 (.316)	.309 (.299)

# p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Work attitude of local employees was the predictor that was significant for all types of satisfaction for Asian expatriates and it was also significant for job itself and in China satisfaction but was only approaching to be significant for organization satisfaction for non Asian expatriates. Except work attitude of local employees, there was no item that was significant predictor for two types of satisfaction for both groups at the same time. Relationships and home/work balance were significant predictors for both job itself and organization satisfaction for non-Asian expatriates. Non-supportive headquarters and different habits were significant predictors for both job itself and in China satisfaction for non-Asian expatriates.

In general, there were more significant predictors for non-Asian group than Asian group in all three types of satisfaction. There were six significant predictors in job itself satisfaction for non-Asian expatriates but there were only two significant predictors for Asian group. In addition, these predictors were scattered at work, local people and local employees related areas for non Asian group but the two significant predictors for Asian group were mainly from local people and local employees related areas. For organization satisfaction, there were five significant predictors for non-Asian expatriates but there were only three for Asian expatriates. The significant predictors were mainly concentrated on work environment but there was also a factor from local employees for non-Asian group. For the Asian group, the three significant

predictors were scattered among work, local people and local employees related areas. For in China satisfaction, there were four significant predictors for non-Asian expatriates while there were only three significant predictors for Asian expatriates. The four predictors for the non-Asian group was scattered on work, environment, local people and local employees related areas while the three predictors for Asian expatriates were scattered on work, environment and local employees related areas. Significant predictors from environment were only appeared on in China satisfaction. They had no relationships with job itself and organization satisfaction for both the Asian and non-Asian groups.

5.5 Male vs. female expatriates

Overall, there were no significant differences between female and male expatriates in terms of the three types of satisfaction. Therefore, hypotheses 51, 52 and 53 were not rejected. In this situation where they experienced similar levels of stress, were they facing similar stressors? There were cases to show and to confirm that female encountered some difficulties in their work and in their personal life due to the born gender (Adler, 1995, 2002; Taylor & Napier, 1996; Napier & Taylor, 2002; Vu, 2005). The following are some examples from the interviewees.

"Female are more accepted to be managers here (in China) than in Germany. It is definitely a plus here. However, I face some gender problems in business, especially when I need to deal with authority in China. People are not so friendly to me." --- A female German expatriate expressed that being a female did not allow her to get a pass to everywhere in China. She as a female expatriate got no problem in normal business dealings but consistent with literature that she got problems in gaining the respect from the authority in China (Adler,

1995).

"Men and women are more equal in Western societies. Women are more active and aggressive. They can say what they want to say. In China, it is easier to be a male than a female. Women have to be very tough. Being a woman in China is difficult. Women seem to be quieter here. I am upset to see the boyfriend and girlfriend relationship in China. It is much easier for expatriate men to have local girlfriends. There are many expatriates who would like to go out with local ladies instead to go out with female expatriates. On the other hand, the female expatriates do not like the local men because they think the local men are rude and have bad habits. I think it is more difficult to be a female expatriate than a male expatriate here." --- An American male expatriate commented the lives of female expatriates were more difficult than male expatriates in China.

"I am a tall white guy. Tall white men may not be better than everyone else but a tall white man is easier than anyone else. There are many girls approaching me because they want a plane ticket to the US." --- A male American indicated and confirmed with the literature that male expatriates were approached by local girls (Napier & Taylor, 2002). They would not be as lonely as those single female expatriates.

Table 5.3 shows the regression results of the three types of satisfaction of the two genders. Organization satisfaction was the dependent variable had most of its variation explained for both female ($R^2 = 56.70\%$) and male ($R^2 = 35.60\%$) expatriates. Job itself satisfaction ($R^2 = 53.50\%$) was second for female expatriates and in China satisfaction ($R^2 = 47.80\%$) was the third. For male expatriates, in China satisfaction ($R^2 = 29.40\%$) was the

188

second dependent variable had most of its variation explained by the model and job itself satisfaction ($R^2 = 23.00\%$) was the third one. Generally speaking, the variations explained for female expatriates were quite high and higher than the males even though there were less significant predictors for them in the three types of satisfaction than for males. In other words, the magnitudes (Betas) of these sources were higher for the female than for the male expatriates.

Table 5.3: Results of Multiple Regression Analysis of Three Types of Satisfaction on Gender

Independent Variables	Dependent Variables		
	Job Itself B **Male (Female)**	**Organization B** **Male (Female)**	**In China B** **Male (Female)**
Workload	-.012 (-.499**)	-.035 (-.313#)	-.022 (-.405*)
Relationships	-.213* (-.345#)	-.322*** (-.202)	-.091 (-.122)
Home/Work Balance	-.020 (.545***)	.114 (.159)	-.135 (.101)
Managerial Role	.068 (.340*)	.081 (.214)	-.015 (.237)
Personal Responsibility	.160# (-.104)	.273*** (.031)	.189* (-.161)
Hassles	.102 (.214)	.138# (.372*)	-.110 (.154)
Recognition	-.280** (-.269#)	-.040 (-.068)	-.082 (-.123)
Organization Climate	.029 (-.035)	-.300*** (-.170)	.031 (-.032)
Working with Chinese	-.097 (-.215)	-.038 (-.007)	-.158* (-.206)
Non-supportive HQ	.196* (-.050)	.030 (.074)	.175* (-.032)
Chinese Business Env	.081 (.006)	.194** (.038)	-.029 (-.006)
Rules & Regulations	.017 (.076)	-.017 (-.361**)	.130# (.295*)
Env Pollution	.038 (-.021)	-.026 (-.238*)	.064 (.206#)
Leisure Activities	-.083 (-.115)	-.102# (.073)	-.131* (-.079)
Quality of Life	-.035 (.081)	-.009 (.108)	-.089 (-.068)
Different Habits	.046 (.064)	-.128* (-.013)	.140* (.119)
Cheating	.138* (.104)	-.017 (-.088)	.106# (.055)
Qualifications of LE	.015 (.047)	-.108# (.132)	-.030 (-.149)
Work Attitude of LE	-.293*** (-.225*)	-.172** (-.356**)	-.290*** (-.312**)
Indirectness of LE	-.042 (.063)	-.039 (-.104)	.020 (.121)
F	3.937** (3.688**)	7.257** (4.199**)	5.481** (2.926*)

R^2	.230 (.535)	.356 (.567)	.294 (.478)

# p < .10, * p < .05, ** p < .01, *** p < .001

Generally speaking, work attitude of local employees, workload, rules and regulations and environmental pollution were factors that were negatively related with job itself, organization or in China satisfaction for the female group but home/work balance, managerial role and hassles were more on the side of motivators for the female expatriate group. For the male expatriates, work attitude of local employees, relationship, recognition, organization climate, different habits, working with Chinese and leisure activities were negatively related with the job itself, organization or in China satisfaction while non-supportive headquarters, cheating, personal responsibility and Chinese business environment were positively related with one of these three satisfaction types.

Work attitude of local employees was the only predictor that was significant for both female and male expatriates and for all the three types of satisfaction. Therefore, it was an important source of stress for both the male and female groups.

"It is difficult to get people bear their responsibility. They want to be told of what to do." --- A German female expatriate commented the poor attitude of Chinese employees. There were some similar quotes from other expatriates who also commented the attitude of local employees made them frustrated.

"I don't know what they are doing here. They play with the mobile phone during work. They go out to lunch for a long time. It seems that they are not coming here to work." --- A

male American expatriate complained the work attitude of local employees (Please see the other quotes from both male and female expatriates from the section of attitude of local employees in this chapter).

Workload was a significant predictor for female expatriates on job itself and in China satisfaction, and it was approaching to be significant for organization satisfaction. It was not significant at all or even approaching to be significant for male expatriates. It showed that workload was more an important source of stress for female expatriates. A female American expatriate commented as follows that the heavy workload of female did not just come from work but also from their housewife responsibilities too.

"I consistently stress out here. Being a female expatriate is more challenging than a male expatriate, especially if they have both their professional and their household lives. It is more challenging for women, especially if they have kids. For a man, he may have his spouse to deal with the household job. The man just has to deal with the work-related issues." --- A female American expatriate indicated both the work and family lives of being a female expatriate demanded too much energy from them.

"I worked from 8:30 in the morning to 6:00 or 7:00 latest in Germany. In China, I work from 8:00 to 7:00 or 8:00. After that, I have to attend some business purpose gatherings or some relationship gatherings. These are exhausting." --- A female German expatriate found she had to work longer hours in China and it was exhausting.

As can be seen in the following quote from a female expatriate that she could hire help for her housework in China, they still felt guilty if their work occupied too much of their time so they had less time for their families, especially for traditional families which still held a strong belief that men were the bread makers and female were the home makers and caregivers (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Taylor & Napier, 1996; Harvey & Wiese, 1998b; Linehan & Scullion, 2001).

"Since things are cheaper here, I can hire a maid to do the domestic work for me but it is impossible in the States as it is very expensive to hire a maid in the States." --- A female American expatriate found out that able to hire a domestic helper made her reduce a lot of her workload at home.

Relationships were a significant predictor for male expatriates on job itself and organization satisfaction. It was only approaching to be significant for female expatriates on job itself satisfaction. Relationships were a more important factor which negatively related with the job itself and organization satisfaction for the male group but not for the female group. It might due to the reason that both males and females communicate differently. Men use talk to emphasize status but women use it to create connection. The usages of conversations for men are to demonstrate independence and maintain status in a hierarchical social order but used as negotiation for closeness to get supports and confirmation for women (Tannen, 1995). Females were also more indirect than their male counterparts (Franzwa & Lockhart, 1998). The interpersonal skills of female expatriates allowed the local employees and business partners, including the local men, covered many different topics in the conversations with them (Adler, 1995). These differences help women expatriates develop better relationships with

people around (Napier & Taylor; 2002; Hasberger, 2010) so relationships were not a problem for female but for male expatriates.

Recognition was a significant predictor for and also negatively related with job itself satisfaction for male expatriates but was only a marginally significant predictor for female expatriates. No significant findings were found between it and the two rest types of satisfaction for both male and female groups. It showed that male expatriates were more concerned on how their work and contribution were recognized by management and also people from headquarters. Since female expatriates had already overcome the most difficult hurdle which was being selected and sent to the international assignment (Adler, 1995), they considered themselves already getting the recognition from the headquarters by sending to China. Therefore, it was more logical that the lack of recognition was more of a stress source for male expatriates rather than for female expatriates.

Organization climate was a significant predictor for male expatriates on organization satisfaction. Again, it was not a significant predictor for males on both job itself and in China satisfaction nor significant for females on any of the three types of satisfaction.

Personal responsibility was significant for male expatriates on organization and in China satisfaction, and it was approaching to be significant for job itself satisfaction. In addition, all the betas were in positive signs. However, it was neither significant nor approaching to be significant for female expatriates. Therefore, personal responsibility was more of a motivator for male than for female expatriates.

"The China assignment experience is definitely something good. In the past three years, I could develop outputs that could obviously contribute to the development of the company." --- A male expatriate from Hong Kong indicated he bore more responsibility and he brought some contribution to the company after he moved to China. He also felt happy and got more satisfied to bear more responsibility after moving to China.

Chinese business environment also worked as a motivator for male expatriates as it was significantly related to organization satisfaction for the male group but not for other types of satisfaction and also not for female expatriates. However, the qualitative part of the study still found that the male expatriates had some complaints about the Chinese business environment.

"I do not smoke and drink. However, these skills are important in developing guanxi and doing business in China. Local people may question how come I do not understand the drinking culture in China. People would question my ability because I cannot smoke and drink." --- An expatriate from Hong Kong acknowledged this culture but he did not appreciate it. He also got a feeling that people would think he did not belong to the team.

"The game and social activity are very crazy here. Local people have different talents (in terms of arts and acts). They perform many different activities, e.g., singing, dancing and some gymnastic performances, during social gatherings. If you cannot engage in these social activities, they would think that you are not in the team. I am no good at these kinds of performance talents. They have different opinions on the meaning of team from Hong Kong

and Macau. I got pressure from this as I do not have these social skills." An expatriate from Hong Kong found out that guanxi developing was important in China and in order to develop good guanxi, one had to possess various kinds of talents.

Cheating was also a motivator for the male group as it was significantly related to job itself satisfaction for the male group in a positive way. It was not significant predictor for the female group in any of the satisfaction types. Only male interviewees who had experiences of being cheated by locals but no evidences found from female interviewees yet (Please see the quotes from cheating session in this chapter). Female expatriates would develop social ties and seek social support from the expatriate community rather than from locals out of their work settings (Harrison & Michailova, 2012) and that might help to explain why cheating was not a significant predictor for their three satisfaction types in this study as they did not have chance to socialize and interact with local people outside work.

Rules and regulations were significant predictors for organization satisfaction and in China satisfaction for female expatriates. It was only approaching to be significant for male expatriates on in China satisfaction. It was interesting that the beta sign was positive for the female group on in China satisfaction but it was negative for organization satisfaction. It might be explained as the female considered the tremendous rules and regulations in regard of business conduction would hinder the way they do business compared with how they did it at home. However, since expatriates considered the general environment in China is insecured, the more rules and regulations in daily life would make them feel the Chinese environment more secured. As a result, rules and regulations had positive relationship with in China satisfaction. The following quote showed how rules and regulations affected work efficiency

from the perception of a female expatriate.

"The efficiency in China is also affected by the less transparency of its rules and regulations. First of all, there are no clear legal procedures. It is time consuming to make contact with authorities and seek for clarification. Second of all, even though there are regulations, they are not published officially. Therefore, it is difficult to get the official regulations. On the other hand, rules here change really fast. You may think rule 1 still applies but actually rule 2 is applying already. There are also times you may see different memoranda have contradictory content in regard of the same issue. In this case, you need to seek clarification and it is time consuming." --- A German female expatriate commented the rules and regulations made her work not efficient.

Non-supportive headquarters were significant predictors for male expatriates on job itself and in China satisfaction, while different habits were significant predictors for male expatriates on organization and in China satisfaction. Similar to rules and regulations for female in organization and in China satisfaction, the beta was negative in organization satisfaction but it was positive on in China satisfaction for the male expatriates. That might due to the reason that expatriates usually could avoid having any contact with local people in their daily life if they wanted due to the existence of huge expatriate community (Johnson, Kristol-Brown, Van Vianen, De Pater & Klein, 2003; Harrison & Michailova, 2012). However, they had no way to avoid interacting with local employees in their work settings. That might explain that the different habits of local people were negatively related to organization satisfaction but positively related to in China satisfaction for male expatriates. Environmental pollution was only significant for the female group in organization satisfaction but not for other satisfaction

types for female and also not for any satisfaction type for male group. Comparatively environmental pollution had a bigger effect on female in organization satisfaction.

"The pollution is bad in China so I feel tired easily here than when I was in the States." --- A female American expatriate found the polluted environment in China would make her feel tired easily. This quote also indicated that environmental pollution might work as a stressor for expatriates but it might manifested physically.

On the other hand, leisure activities were only significant for the male group on in China satisfaction. Again, it was not significant for the other types of satisfaction for the male group and it was not a significant predictor for the female group in all satisfaction types. As implied from the findings, environmental pollution was a more important source for female group while leisure activities were a more important source for male group. It might also indicate that males would like to release their energy through leisure activities compared with females so leisure activities were related to their satisfaction but not for females.

"China is a country lack of recreational activities. There are not many outdoor activities and sports can be carried out here. I don't have much to do and enjoy during my leisure time. Pollution is very serious and there is no green." --- A male German expatriate commented it was lack of recreational activities in China.

Working with Chinese was a negative predictor for male expatriates on in China satisfaction but not for the job itself and organization satisfaction nor it can work as a predictor

for the female group in all three types of satisfaction. It was interesting that the work related factor would have relationship with in China satisfaction but not those work related satisfaction. Since guanxi development usually extends to non office hours as shown from the following quote, working with Chinese directly compete the time expatriate can enjoy and relax during their leisure time. That may help to explain how working with Chinese is a significant negative predictor for in China satisfaction.

"Things are less efficient in China. Many things take more time here, e.g., their indirect way of doing business. People need to get to know each other first before they go directly to business. They spend lots of time to talk about something else before they really talk about business in lunch or meetings." --- A male German expatriate complained it was time consuming to do and negotiate with Chinese counterparts.

Home/work balance and managerial role were significantly related to job itself satisfaction for female expatriates in a positive way and not for other types of satisfaction, nor they were significant predictors for the male expatriates in the quantitative part of the study. Hassles were a significant predictor for female in organization satisfaction only and it was not a significant predictor for male expatriates in all three types of satisfaction. Therefore, home/work balance, managerial role and hassles were all motivator for female but not for male.

Although quality of life was not a significant predictor for both the female and male groups in all three types of satisfaction, a female expatriate did complain about the prices of western products despite their availabilities in China. Since the expatriates were highly

motivated to come to China by future career and China exposure, they were also prepared that there would be a gap of their quality of life in China compared with at home. Therefore, quality of life might not as strong as a stress predictor but expatriates did notice that their life quality in China was lower compared with at home.

"Every product in foreign brands is available in China but they are much more expensive. I can get whatever I want here but they are very expensive. For example, the same brand of yoghurt in China can be three times more expensive than the price charged at home." --- A German female expatriate found the availability of many western products in China but they were very expensive.

"I enjoy dining out in China because there are lots of different kinds of food I can find in China. The variety is even more than at home." --- Another German female expatriate indicated her quality of life was better in terms of the varieties of food she could enjoy in China.

"I experienced stress in many of the hardware factors in China. They include the lack of or very low quality of Western restaurants, consumer services, medical care, safety (being targets of backmail), and entertainment (lack of high quality TV channels)." --- An expatriate from Macau also thought the quality of life in China was poor.

"They have good medical care here but they do not have good cure care. If my kid had an accident at home and had a broken arm, I don't trust the cure care here." An American

expatriate expressed his concern about the conditions of his kids if accidents happened as the cure care in China was not up to standard in his eyes.

"There are just two or three big book shops with English books here in Beijing. That's insufficient for a city like Beijing." A male American expatriate indicated the availability of English book shops did affect his quality of life in Beijing. In terms of quality of service, it was also not up to standard from the point of view of the same expatriate, "The service is poor there. When I want to buy something, I want to compare among models. Once I asked a shop attendant let me have a look at a model and then I asked for another model. What she did was she put back the first model she showed me and then let me lave a look at the second model I asked for. I wanted to make a comparison of the two. They never think from the point of view of the customer."

Other than quality of life, qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees were other proposed sources that were not significant at all for either male or female, and for any type of satisfaction. Again, as can be seen from the quotes cited in the sessions of qualifications of local employees and indirectness of local employees in this chapter, both male and female expatriates did express they found these problems in China. Although these two sources were not related to any of the three satisfaction types and no differences were found for between male and female groups, it is possible that these sources might be manifested behaviourally and physically. In addition, differences might appear between male and female but that might need to wait for future studies.

5.6　Conclusion

In this chapter, findings from the quantitative session of the study were discussed in detail with quotes from interviews used to explain the findings. Most of the time, both findings from qualitative and quantitative sessions confirmed each other. There were also times that quotes from interviewees supported stress experienced but not the quantitative findings. That might due to the reason that only satisfaction types were used as the means for the manifestation of stress but not other variables, like physical wellbeing and behavioural symptoms. The next chapter would make a conclusion of the entire study and also present the implications of this study for MNEs, China government, future research.

Chapter 6 Conclusion

6.1 Introduction

The sample was motivated to accept assignment in China because they believed the assignment is important for their future career and they were also attracted by the China exposure. However, better reward was comparatively a less attractive factor. Although not all proposed hypotheses were proved significant, the significant predictors did come from work and work related (relationships, home/work balance, personal responsibility, hassles, recognition, organization climate, working with Chinese, non-supportive headquarters, Chinese business environment, and rules and regulations), general environment (environmental pollution, and leisure activities), and interaction with local people (different habits, cheating, and work attitude of local employees) in the quantitative part of the study. Although most of the significant predictors were from work and work related sources, work attitude of local employee (from interaction with local people) was the significant predictor for all three dependent variable and the beta values were quite high comparatively. In other words, work attitude of local employees was a quite important predictor for the sample.

6.2 Implications for MNEs

For the stress sources that the sample was encountering, they provide implications for MNEs to improve the lives of expatriates in China, in which the performance of their subsidiaries in China can also be improved. MNEs can tackle the problems from human resources point of view and so as to better communicate with and to show their appreciations

to the contributions of expatriates. In addition, MNEs can also keep check on or discover the problems of their expatriates by doing survey to access this information from time to time.

6.2.1 *Recruitment and Selection*

Work attitude of local employees which is a significant negative predictor of job itself, organization and in China satisfaction for the sample. Interview content with expatriates also supports the quantitative findings. On top of a match between an employee and a job (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1990), a match between the employee and the organization is also needed and it can help to ensure employees and the company are on the same direction in pursuing the goal of the company, while at the same time be able to satisfy the personal goals and values of the employees (Bowen, Ledford & Nathan, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991; Kristof, 1996). The match between employee and organization also includes whether employees have the right attitude. Appropriate selection methods, e.g., personality tests, can be used to select local employees who matched with the values and goals of the company. However, if the company is a joint venture between a MNE and a local Chinese company, instead of a wholly owned branch of a MNE, the recruitment and selection responsibilities may fall on the hand of the Chinese side. It is possible that the joint venture may hire local people with the work attitude that may touch the nerves of expatriates. MNE may need to cover the staffing topic when it discusses the establishment of a joint venture with the local parties. Besides appropriate selection methods, training courses, performance management and compensations are some human resources practices that can also emphasize and encourage on required work attitude from local employees. These human resources practices are discussed in the following sections of this chapter.

Interviewed expatriates commented that local employees respected Western expatriates better than Asian expatriates. The respect is mainly due to the reason these Westerners are foreigners and they also speak a foreign language. For Asian expatriates, local employees would consider that themselves and the Asian expatriates have the same root and they come from the same origin. Therefore, in selection of expatriates sending to China, especially for Asian and overseas Chinese expatriates, it would be good to use technical skill as one of the selection criteria. For expatriates who have good technical skills, they can receive more respect from the locals as the local employees can learn the technical skills from them. Local employees would not have complaints or uneasy feelings on compensation differentials which they believed were from differences in nationalities. As a result, expatriates would experience less frustration from interacting and managing local Chinese subordinates. Hostility feelings towards overseas Chinese and Asian expatriates could also be minimized when their technical skills receive more respects from the local employees.

6.2.2   Training and Development

Working with Chinese is a negative predictor for in China satisfaction for the sample. It is impossible for expatriates to avoid working with local Chinese, either inside or outside their companies. Therefore, MNEs can prepare expatriates and so as their families by providing cross-cultural training to them before they arrive to China. Content of cross-cultural training can include cultural values, work attitudes of local employees, different habits, local environment, and local rules and regulations. Advance understanding of and hints to deal with Chinese practices could help to avoid the shock to and frustrations experienced by expatriates. A thoughtful timing of cross-cultural training is also important. Other than the advance cross-cultural training provided before actual relocation, a reminder section of cross-cultural training should also provide to both expatriates and their family members right after they arrive

China. Expatriates would find the course content more useful in the reminder section as the information is timely because they are actually facing some of the problems and cross-cultural differences they have learnt in classes.

Although statistically managerial role is not a significant predictor to any satisfaction types, expatriates did admire that they bore unexpected roles as managers in China. For example, in China, they might need to attend meetings which should be attended by lower level/rank of supervisory employees if it was at home. Cross-cultural training to expatriates should also include this aspect so they are psychologically prepared that the managerial role in China would and could be so different from their normal role when they were back at home. In addition, cross-cultural training should also cover information like differences in living standards; particular cultural habits of Chinese; tips on bargaining strategies; and tips on where to shop high quality necessities, which are important to reduce the inconveniences they may bring to expatriates and their families due to the relocation. If high quality necessities are not available in the relocated city, MNEs should also manage to send expatriates in China the products, e.g., magazine, snack and other daily products, they want from home country. It shows the care of MNEs on the lives of their expatriates in China. As such, quality of life of expatriates can be ensured and expatriates would also have a clear picture and are more prepared about the environment they needed to live in the future several years. In addition, predecessors (expatriates who were sent to the same place before) can be invited to share their experiences with and provide some survival hints to the successors (expatriates who are going to the same place soon). Other than survival hints, information of how to work with Chinese, Chinese business environment, local rules and regulations and how to build and maintain relationships with people inside and outside of companies can also be shared from predecessors.

According to interviews, most expatriates encountered problems related with the qualifications and indirectness of local employees when expatriates work with them. Most MNEs assume that expatriates would and could settle all these overseas problems automatically once they are abroad. Expatriates are relocated overseas for strategic purposes, global workforce development, and specific projects (Baker & Ivancevich, 1971; Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977, 1994; Tung, 1982b; Scullion, 1991; Oddou, Derr & Black, 1995; Downes & Thomas, 1997; Chapel, 1998; Manev & Stevenson, 2001; Tung & Worm, 2001; Chen, Choi & Chi, 2002; Yan & Warner, 2002; Hulme, 2006; Bonache and Zarraga-Oberty, 2008). Spending most of the time to train local employees just to meet the basic work standard would drive their attention away from the above purposes. Frustrations can result and performance of expatriates may also be affected. Therefore, suggestions are given to MNEs so on top of a good cooperation with the recruitment and selection process in hiring qualified employees, they can organize training courses to be delivered to the local employees in the Chinese subsidiaries, so that the local employees would be more compatible and their work would also not be transferred back to expatriates. Thus, expatriates do not need to spend time to train the local people personally and they can adjust to work with the appropriate momentum in a faster speed and their workload would also not be burdened.

6.2.3   Compensation and Benefits

When the sample was studied separately between males and females, leisure activities were a significant negative predictor of in China satisfaction for male expatriates. In addition, the author did receive many complaints of this from the interviewees who were re-located to China when the interviews were conducted. It is out of the capabilities of the MNEs to change

the environment and facilities available in China. However, MNEs can provide the best assistance by sponsoring expatriates to join health clubs, where expatriates can practice many different sports, and also to have more recreational trips, so expatriates can have chances to release their energy, refresh their minds and be away from the polluted environment from time to time. In addition, allowances can also offer to expatriates for compensating the poor leisure activities that the expatriates and their families can enjoy and the polluted environment they have to bear in China. It is not a problem of how high quality leisure activities and unpolluted environment can be replaced by allowances but allowances can serve as a token to show the appreciation of the MNEs on the sufferings of the expatriates by willing to take up the jobs to support the expansion of the MNEs in China.

Findings of both the quantitative and qualitative studies show that female expatriates experienced more stress from workload. MNEs can assist in looking for domestic helpers for female expatriates in order to lower the household duties they need to face after work. On the other hand, counseling services may also be needed so the guilty feeling of female expatriates of not paying enough attention to home can be fine tuned. In addition, MNEs should also address the private life issues for female expatriates. Single female expatriates did complain that they feel lonely in China. Different MNEs can join together to organize more social activities targeted to its single but do not restricted to single expatriates to help them develop a more colorful social life in China.

It has pointed out in the previous section that other than cross-cultural training provided to expatriates, training should also be provided to local employees in regard of company and headquarters culture and values on top of training on work tasks. Turnover rate of employees is

high in China; therefore, competitive compensation scheme should be designed to retain qualified local employees and those employees the MNEs have heavily invested in training them.

6.2.4   Performance Management

Recognition was a significant negative predictor for expatriates in job itself satisfaction. MNEs can manage career planning and development for their expatriate group and so as better communicate to their expatriates overseas so they would not have the feeling of being ignored. The headquarters can try various means to identify and confirm the existence and contribution of expatriates overseas, e.g., emails sending to all employees of the company to thank the expatriates when certain projects are completed, when they are overseas and after they are relocated back to the headquarters, e.g., welcome back email; meetings of sharing experiences; and designation to projects and tasks that can utilize their international experiences earned.

Chinese business environment was a motivator for organization satisfaction in the survey but expatriates did complain about it, especially issues related to ethical issues. Headquarters should set clear standard for expatriates to follow if they face any ethical problems in China so that expatriates have straight regulations to follow. Since the appropriate ways of handling ethical dilemmas may affect performance of expatriates in China, e.g., losing of business due to rejection of bribing government officials or local business partners, the company should also allow expatriates have chances to explain their performance and also appeal if they are not satisfied with results of their performance appraisal, which may affect whether they can continue their assignment in China and also what kind of positions would be offered to them when they returned home.

Retaining qualified local employees can lower the workload of expatriates and so as fasten the localization process. Evaluating performance correctly and giving appropriate feedback to local employees can further enhance the performance of local employees and smooth the localization process. To enhance the satisfaction of expatriates, MNEs cannot ignore local employees. In addition, the evaluation of local employees should not just focus on their performance but forget their work attitude which was a negative predictor for expatriate satisfaction.

6.2.5   *Communications*

In regard of the problem of relationships, good communications about the goals of sending expatriates and the goal of localization can help. MNEs should clearly spell out that expatriates are visitors in the China subsidiary or joint venture. Expatriates come in a role to lead at the preliminary stage of the business and also transfer knowledge and corporate values in the China branch. Once the China subsidiary or joint venture is on track, localization would take place and the Chinese employees would replace these expatriates finally. However, how fast the locals can replace the expatriates depends on how fast and how well the locals can equip themselves for the smooth operations of the business. A clear communication of this message to the locals can eliminate the hostile relationship between the two parties. That can also ease the management of expatriates on the locals. In addition, it can also motivate locals to have performance that satisfy the headquarters.

As expatriates complained about the non-supportive headquarters, more support should be given which can help to eliminate the worries of expatriates, e.g., better communications

between headquarters and expatriates; timely feedback and advices, which can also affect performance of expatriates. Assigning a mentor from headquarters, who keeps constant and instant contact with expatriates, can give advices to expatriates when needed and also keep them informed of information and conditions at headquarters. At the same time, recognition problem can also be handled.

Many married expatriates have their spouses and kids moved to China with them. The heavy workload of expatriates and the Chinese business culture which emphasizes a lot on guanxi, may make expatriates have less time spent with family members and home/work balance problem emerged. Other than providing the necessary assistance mentioned in the compensation and benefits section above, to expatriates by the MNEs, attention to spouses and children are also needed, especially spouses who may not be easily getting a work permit or a decent job in China. MNEs should also try various acts to show their appreciation to family of expatriates for their willingness and efforts made to come to China for supporting the expatriates and the MNEs. Invitation to company parties and trips, and so as small gifts can show the appreciation.

Although workload was significant predictor only for female expatriates in job itself and in China satisfaction, male expatriates also complained about the heavy workload in China. How can headquarters help to decrease the workload of expatriates? If the main reason is due to time differences, headquarters should be alert and avoid directly making contact with expatriates if it is off office hours or if it is on a holiday in China. For example, headquarters can use email instead of making phone calls to make contact with expatriates during non-office hours. On the other hand, headquarters should respond quickly if expatriates need help or

advice. Thus, it can avoid the feeling that headquarters is not supportive. On the other hand, headquarters should also set objectives with expatriates. One of which is to start and complete the localization process so expatriates can train up local staff who can assist and replace the expatriates in the near future. Thus, with the help of qualified and well-trained local employees, workload of expatriates can be reduced.

6.2.6   Appreciation

Recognition was a strong negative predictor for job itself satisfaction. It is better for MNEs use actions to show that the company values international experiences. MNEs do not have to promise expatriates about their future advancement after their assignments in China, which may disappoint expatriates if MNEs could not carry out their words due to down turn of economy. However, MNEs can simply prove that international experiences are recognized by placing employees who have international experiences to important positions at headquarters. Even in the case that higher positions are not available, MNEs should utilize the knowledge and experiences of expatriates gained abroad to the operations of the headquarters, e.g., assigning repatriates to projects or tasks that can use their international experiences. In addition, visible praises on contribution and successful performance of expatriates who are currently abroad can be made and circulated in the company. Nevertheless, MNEs should not forget the spouses and family of expatriates.

6.2.7   Survey on expatriates

MNEs should constantly keep check on the satisfaction of their expatriates and family members; and the problems they encountered in China. Thus, MNEs can find ways to help expatriates to eliminate the sources of stress or impact of the sources to them. Besides of

getting the relevant information through performance management and assigning a mentor to expatriates, survey is suggested to be conducted from time to time to keep abreast of the conditions of expatriates.

6.3 Implications for China Government

When environmental pollution and leisure activities were investigated for the two gender groups, the former was a significant negative predictor for female expatriates in organization satisfaction and the latter one was a significant negative predictor for male expatriates. China government welcomes foreign investment for the inflow of capital and so as the transfer of technical and managerial experiences from international talents to local people. The negative impact of the environmental pollution and the leisure activities did affect the satisfaction of expatriates. These might not be the core but they definitely would be one of those factors that affect the performance of expatriates or even be the reasons for expatriates to return home early; the worse can even be the reasons for potential expatriates to decline assignments to China. Other than favorable investment environment, China government should also construct a good city development plan in order to attract more operations of MNEs in China. In addition, stringent rules to prevent individual and corporate bodies to pollute the environment should be set up and enforced strictly. In addition, education of environment preservation to people should also be emphasized. All these are various means that the China government can help to efficiently improving the environment in China.

6.4 Limitations

There were certain shortcomings of this study which deserved for attention when evaluating the results. Firstly, there were only two items measuring in China satisfaction. The

low number of items might affect this factor to have a low reliability. However, the in China satisfaction has an alpha of .79 which is in the acceptable range of .7 to .8 (Cortina, 1993; Kline, 1999). Therefore, in China satisfaction is considered as a reliable factor although it just has two items for this factor.

Secondly, the survey results might be susceptible to common method bias as both the independent and dependent variables were self-reported by the same individuals (expatriates). To cope with this potential problem, items of each section were assigned to the particular section in a random order and six items in general environment; six items in interaction with local people; and five items in local employees were reverse-worded, in order to avoid respondents providing uniform answers.

Thirdly, the survey covered over ten different provinces and cities in China but due to time and cost limitations, interviews were conducted with expatriates relocated in five major cities in the PRC (Zhuhai, ShenZhen, GuangZhou, Shanghai and Beijing). Therefore, stress sources that are for special locations in China might be overlooked.

Fourthly, three satisfaction types were used as dependent variables to express if expatriates experienced stress in China and their potential stress sources. Since stress can be manifested behaviourally, physiologically and psychologically, it is possible that the sample might experience stress from the stated sources but they were manifested behaviourally and physiologically, e.g., smoked more and had some physical illnesses. This study did not intend to investigate if potential stress experienced were manifested from these aspects.

6.5 Implications for Further Research

Although it was not directly tested, findings in qualitative session of the research did show that stress can be manifested physiologically in the sample. It suggested that future studies should not just simply concentrate on studying only one aspect, e.g., psychological responses, but can be extended to investigate the impact of potential stress sources on both behaviour and physical well being of expatriates. A multidimensional study can scrutinize the problem more thoroughly. It may also allow to find out which sources would more likely be manifested on behavioural, physiological and/or psychological aspects. Thus allows MNEs to tackle the stress problems of their expatriates better. In addition, investigating several dependent variables which need different media to measure, e.g., recording the number of cigarettes smoke and sick leaves taken; measuring pulse rate and blood pressure, can also address the common method bias problem.

On top of investigating different dependent variables, future studies can also use multiple informants, e.g., spouse, supervisors and local colleagues, to assess information and stress levels of expatriates, in order to delineate a clear picture of the lives of expatriates and so as to avoid the potential of common method bias problem.

6.6 Conclusion

The literature suggested that work environment, non-work general environment and interaction with local people were potential sources of stress for expatriates. Although not all hypotheses proposed were rejected, the study did prove that sources of stress for expatriates

relocated to China did come from these sources. Other than implications for MNEs and China government that were provided in this chapter, this research also laid a concrete foundation that for future stress studies for expatriate samples or other sample groups, other dependent variables, like physical wellbeing and behvioural symptoms, should be investigated as well.

References

Abe, H., & Wiseman, R.L., (1983). A Cross-Cultural Confirmation of the Dimensions of Intercultural Effectiveness. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 7, 53-68.

Adarkar, A., Adil, A., Ernst, D., & Vaish, P. (1997). Emerging market alliances: Must they be win-lose? *McKinsey Quarterly*, 4, 120-137.

Adler, N.J. (1984a). Expecting international success: Female managers overseas. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 19(3), 79-85.

Adler, N.J. (1984b). Women in international management: Where are they? *California Management Review*, 16(4), 78-79.

Adler, N.J. (1986). Do MBAs want international careers? *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 10(3), 277-300.

Adler, N.J. (1987). Global leadership: Women leaders. *Management International Review Special Issue*, 1, 171-196.

Adler, N.J. (1995). Expatriate women managers. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 254-275). Westport CT: Quorum.

Adler, N.J. (1997). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*, 3rd ed. Ohio, South-Western College Publishing.

Adler, N.J. (2002). Global managers: No longer men alone. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(5), 743-760.

Adler, N.N., & Izraeli, D.N. (1988). *Women in management*. New York: M.E. Sharp Inc.

Agence France-Presse (1996). Bureaucracy hinders Shanghai investment. *Hong Kong Standard Financial Review*, 19 March, p4.

The American Chamber of Commerce (2007). Air pollution affects recruitment, survey shows. The American Chamber of Commerce (Hong Kong), September 2, 2008, at http://www.amcham.org.hk.

Anderson, A.R. & Lee, E.Y. (2008). From tradition to modern: Attitudes and applications of guanxi in Chinese entrepreneurship. *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development,* 15(4), 775-787.

Anderson, B.A. (2001). When expatriation means 'Follow that woman!' *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 39(3), 109-116.

Anderson, C. & Stark, C. (1988). Psychological problems of job relocation: Preventive roles in industry. *Social Work*, 33(1). 38-41.

Ayala, J., Lai, R., Mok, B., Wei, F., & Zhang, H. (1996). Winning China's consumer market in the 21st century. *McKinsey Quarterly*, 2, 178-180.

Baker, J.C. (1975). An analysis of how the U.S. multinational company considers the wife of American expatriate managers. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 35, 258-260.

Baker, J.C., & Ivancevich, J.M. (1971). The assignment of American executives abroad: Systematic, haphazard or chaotic? *California Management Review*, Spring, 13, 39-44.

Barham, K., & Devine, M. (1990). *The quest for the international manager: A survey of global human resource strategies.* Ashridge Management Resource Group/The Economic Intelligence Unit, Special Report #2098.

Barrett, G., & Bass, B. (1976). Cross-cultural issues in industrial and organizational psychology. In M.D. Dunnette (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1639-1686). Chicago: Rand-McNally College Publishing.

Beamish, P.W. (1989). *Multinational joint ventures in developing countries.* London/NEW York: Routledge.

Belderbos, R., & Zou, J.L. (2007). On the growth of foreign affiliates: Multinational plant networks, joint ventures, and flexibility. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38, 1095-1112.

Bhagat, R.S. (1983). Effects of stressful life events on individual performance effectiveness and work adjustment processes within organizational settings: A research model. *Academy of Management Review*, 8(4), 660-671.

Bjorkman, I., & Schaap, A. (1994). Outsides in the middle kingdom: Expatriate managers in Chcinese-Western joint ventures. *European Management Journal*, 12(2), 147-153.

Black, J.S. (1988). Work role transitions: A study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 19(2), 277-294.

Black, J.S. (1990). The relationship of personal characteristics with the adjustment of Japanese expatriate managers. *Management International Review*, 30(2), 119-134.

Black, J.S., & Gregersen, H.B. (1990). Expectations, satisfaction, and intention to leave of American expatriate managers in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 14, 485-506.

Black, J.S., & Gregersen, H.B. (1991). Antecedents to cross-cultural adjustment for expatriates in Pacific Rim assignments. *Human Relations*, 44(5), 497-515.

Black, J.S., Gregersen, H.B., & Mendenhall, M.E. (1992). *Global assignments: Successfully expatriating and repatriating international managers.* California: Jossey-Bass.

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

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

Blackman, C. (1998). Chinese negotiation strategies and Western counter-strategies. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 223-240). London: Routledge.

The Blacksmith Institute (2006). *The world's 10 worst polluted places: The top ten.* A Project of the Blacksmith Institute: New York City.

Bonache, J. & Brewster, C. (2001). Knowledge transfer and the management of expatriation. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 43, 145-168.

Bonache, J., & Zarraga-Oberty, C. (2008). Determinants of the success of international assignees as knowledge transferors: A theoretical framework. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(1), 1-18.

Boyacigiller, N. (2000). "The international assignment reconsidered. In M.E. Mendenhall and G.R. Oddou (Eds.), *International human resource management*, 3rd edition (pp. 125-132). PWS-Kent, Boston, MA.

Bovee, C.L., & Thill, J.V. (2008). *Business in action*, 4th ed. Pearson Education International: New Jersey.

Bowen, D.E., Ledford, G.E., Jr. & Nathan, B.R. (1991). "Hiring for the organization and not the job," *Academy of Management Executive*, 5(4), 35-51.

Bresman, H., Birkinshaw, J., & Nobel, R. (2010). Knowledge transfer in international acquisitions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 41, 5-20.

Brett, J.M. (1982). Job transfer and well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 67(4), 450-463.

Brewster, C. (1995a). Effective expatriate training. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 57-72). Westport CT: Quorum.

Brewster, C. (1995b). The paradox of expatriate adjustment. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 115-135). Westport CT: Quorum.

Brewster, C., Lundmark, A., & Holden, L. (1993). *A different tack: An analysis of British and Swedish management styles*. Lund Studentlitteratur.

Brunning, N.S. & Frew, D.R. (1987). "Effects of Exercise, Relaxation, and Management Skills Training on Physiological Stress Indicators: A Field Experiment." *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72, 4, pp. 515-521.

Bryman, A., & Bell, E. (2007). *Business research methods*, 2nd edition. New York: Oxford.

Buckley, P.J. (2007). The strategy of multinational enterprises in the light of the rise of China. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 23(2), 107-126.

Buckley, P.J., Clegg, J., & Tan, H. (2003). The art of knowledge transfer: Secondary and reverse transfer in China's telecommunications manufacturing industry. *Management International Review*, 43(2), 67-93.

Buono, A.F., Bowdich, J.L., & Lewis, J.W. III (1985). When cultures collide: The anatomy of a merger. *Human Relations*, 38, 477-500.

Buttery, E.A., & Wong, Y.H. (1999). The development of a guanxi framework. *Marketing Intelligence and Planning*, 17(3), 147-154.

Byrnes, F.C. (1966). Role shock: An occupational hazard of American technical assistants abroad. *The Annals*, 368, 95-108.

Caldwell, D.F. & O'Reilly, C.A. (1990). "Measuring person-job fit with a profile-comparison process," *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 75, 648-657.

Caligiuri, P.M., Joshi, A., & Lazarova, M. (1999). Factors influencing the adjustment of women on global assignments. *International of Human Resource Management*, 10(2), 163-179.

Caligiuri, P.M., & Tung, R.L. (1999). Comparing the success of male and female expatriates from a US-based multinational company. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(5), 763-782.

Carter, N. (1978). Moving managers internationally: The need for flexibility. *Human Resource Planning*, 12(1), 43-47.

Chakrabarti, R., Gupta-Mukherjee, S., & Jayaraman, N. (2009). Mars-Venus marriages: Culture and cross-border M&A. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 216-236.

Chao, G.T., & Sun, Y.J. (1997). Training needs for expatriate adjustment in the People's Republic of China. In D.M. Saunders and Z. Aycan (Eds.), *New approaches to employee management* (*Vol*. 4, pp. 207-226). Greenwich: JAI Press Ltd.

Chapel, W.B. (1998). Effective management communication for China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 169-182). London: Routledge.

Chen, C.C., Choi, J. & Chi, S.C. (2002). Making justice sense of local-expatriate compensation disparity: Mitigation by local referents, ideological explanations, and interpersonal sensitivity in China-foreign joint ventures. *Academy of Management Journal*, 45(4), 807-817.

Chen, C.C., Kraemer, J. & Gathii, J. (2011). Understanding locals' compensation fairness vis-à-vis foreign expatriates: The role of perceived equity. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(17), 3582-3600.

Chen, K., & Dean, J. (2006). China becomes R&D magnet; low-cost talent pool draws global firms; Beijing's campaign. *The Wall Street Journal Asia*, March 14, p.1.

Chen, M. (1994). Unlocking joint venture potentials in China. *The International Executive*, 36(2), 189-202.

Chen, M. (1995). *Asian management systems: Chinese, Japanese and Korean styles of business*. London: Routledge.

Chen, M. (2004). *Asian management systems: Chinese, Japanese and Korean Styles of business*. London: Thomson.

Chen. M.J. (2001). *Inside Chinese business: A guide for managers worldwide*. Boston, Massachusetts: Harvard Business School Press.

Cheng, M.H. (2006). China's cities get a little healthier. *World Report*, vol 368, November 25, 1859-1860 at www.thelancet.com.

Child, J. (1991). A foreign perspective on the management of people in China. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 2(1), 93-107.

China Daily (2010). Air pollution accelerates. *China Daily, Hong Kong Edition*, September 6, p. 2.

China Market Intelligence (2008). China's 2007 foreign investment guide. *The China Business Review*, accessed on August 1, 2011, at https://www.chinabusinessreview.com/public/0801/cmi.html

China Statistics Yearbook (2001), *National Bureau Statistics of China*.

China Statistics Yearbook (2010), *National Bureau Statistics of China*.

China statistical yearbook (2011). *National Bureau Statistics of China*.

Chiu, Y.P., Wu, M., Zhuang, W.L. & Hsu, Y.Y. (2009). Influences on expatriate social networks in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 20(4), 790-809.

Chu, G.C., & Ju, Y. (1993). *The Great Wall in ruins.* Albany, NY: State University of New York Press.

Church, A.T. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 9, 540-572.

Clague, L., & Krupp, N.B. (1978). International personnel: The repatriation problem. *The Personnel Administrator*, 45, 29-33.

Clarke, S.G. & Cooper, C.L. (2000). The risk management of occupational stress. *Health, Risk and Society*, 2 (2), 173-187.

Colakoglu, S., & Caligiuri, P. (2008). Cultural distance, expatriate staffing and subsidiary performance: The case of US subsidiaries of multinational corporations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19 (2), 223-239.

Comrey, A.L., & Lee, H.B. (1992). *A first course in factor analysis,* 2nd edition. Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cooke, F.L. (2005). Vocational and enterprise training in China: Policy, practice and prospect. *Journal of the Asia Pacific Economy*, 10(1), 26-55.

Cooke, F.L. (2009). A decade of transformation of HRM in China: A review of literature and suggestions for future studies. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 47(1), 6-40.

Copeland, L., & Griggs, L. (1985). *Going international: How to make friends and deal effectively in the global marketplace*. New York: Random House.

Cortina, J.M. (1993). What is coefficient alpha? An examination of theory and application. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 98-104.

Cremer, J. (2005). "Fix it" firm eyes mainland: Resources global professionals sees new opportunities to help. *South China Morning Post,* p.42.

Culpan, O., & Wright, G.H. (2002). Women abroad: Getting the best results from women managers. *International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 13(5), 784-801.

Daniels, J.D., Krug, J., & Nigh, D. (1985). U.S. joint ventures in China: Motivation and management of political risk. *California Management Review*, 27(4), 46-58.

Dasgupta, S., Wang, H., & Wheeler, D. (1997). Surving success: Policy reform and the future of industrial pollution in China. *Policy Research Working Paper*, No. 1856, the World Bank, Development Research Group.

Davies, H., Leung, K.P., Luk, T.K., & Wong, Y.H. (1995). The benefits of "guanxi": The value of relationship in developing the Chinese market. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 24, 207-214.

Davison, R.M. & Ou, C.X.J. (2008). Guanxi, knowledge and online intermediaries in China. *Chinese Management Studies*, 2(4), 281-302.

Davidson, W.H. (1987). Creating and managing joint ventures in China. *California Management Review*, 19(4), 77-94.

Davision, W.H. & McFetridge, D. J. (1985). Key characteristics in the choice of international technology transfer mode. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 16(2), 5-22.

DeLeon, C.T., & McPartlin, D. (1995). Adjustment of expatriate children. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 197-214). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

DeLisle, P., & Chin, S. (1994). Remunerating employees in China – The complicated task faced by foreign firms. *Benefits and Compensation International*, 2, 16-20.

Dickmann, M., Doherty, N., Mills, T., & Brewster, C. (2008). Why do they go? Individual and corporate perspectives on the factors influence the decision to accept an international assignment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(4), 731-751.

The 1999 Directory of Canadian Companies and Professionals in China. Published by The Canada China Business Council.

Doby, V.J. & Caplan, R.D. (1995). "Organizational Stress as Threat to Reputation: Effects on Anxiety at Work and at Home." *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 4, pp. 1105-1123.

Donald, I., Taylor, P., Johnson, S., Cooper, C., Cartwright, S. & Robertson, S. (2005). "Work Environments, Stress, and Productivity: An Examination Using ASSET." *International Journal of Stress Management*, 12, 4, pp. 409-423.

Downes, M., & Thomas, A.S. (1997). Expatriation and internationalization: A theoretical linkage. *Journal of International Management*, 3 (4), 323-349.

Edstrom, A., & Galbraith, J. (1977). Transfer of managers as a coordination and control strategy in multinational firms. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 22 (2), 248-263.

Edstrom, A., & Galbraith, J. (1994). Alternative policies for international transfers of managers. *Management International Review*, 1, 71-82.

Edwards, J.A., Cockerton, T., & Guppy, A. (2007). A longitudinal study examining the influence of work and non-work stressors upon well-being: A multi-group analysis. *International Journal of Stress Management*, 14(3), 294-311.

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

The Epoch Times (2006). The most polluted city in the world: Sixteen of the 20 most polluted cities in the world are in China. *The Epoch Times*, June 10, at http://www.theepochtimes.com/news/6-6-10/42510.html

European Chamber of Commerce (2012). Key Findings of the European Chamber Business Confidence Survey 2011. http://www.europeanchamber.com.cn/images/documents/pp_2011-2012/Position%20Paper_Press%20Release_EN_FINAL.pdf (accessed 7 February 2012).

Feldman, D.C. (1976). A contingency theory of socialization. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 21(2), 433-452.

Field, A. (2005). Discovering statistics using SPSS, 2nd edition. London: Sage.

Filatotchev, I., Strange, R., Piesse, J., & Lien, Y.C. (2007). FDI by firms from newly industrialized economies in emerging markets: Corporate governance, entry mode and location. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 38, 556-572.

Fischlmayr, I.C. (2002). Female self-perception as barrier to international careers? *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(5), 773-783.

Fischlmayr, I.C., & Kollinger, I. (2010). Work-life balance – A neglected issue among Austrian female expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(4), 455-487.

Florakowski, G.W., & Fogel, D.S. (1999). Expatriate adjustment and commitment: the role of host-unit treatment. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 10(5), 783-807.

Food and Health Bureau (2011): The Government of the Hong Kong Special Administrative Region, accessed on March 17, 2012, at http://www.fhb.gov.hk/statistics/en/statistics/health_expenditure.htm

Foster, N. (1997). "The persistent myth of high expatriate failure rates": A reappraisal. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(4), pp. 414-433.

Fortune, (1988). The righetti factor. January, 1988, 117, 2, p.8.

Frame, M.W., & Shehan, C.L. (1994). Work and well-being in the two person career: Relocation stress and coping among clergy husbands and wives. *Family Relations*, 43(2), 196-205.

Franzwa, G. & Lockhart, C. (1998). The social origins and maintenance of gender communication styles, personality types and grid-group theory. *Sociological perspectives*, 41(1), 185-208.

Gamble, J. (2006). Multinational retailers in China: Proliferating 'McJobs' or developing skills? *Journal of Management Studies*, 43(7), 1463-1490.

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

Global Relocation Trends Survey 2008 (2009). Global relocation trends 2008. Accessed on February 23, 2012, at http://www.expatica.com/hr/story/Reporting-on-global-relocation-trends-in-2008.html#

Global Relocation Trends Survey 2010 (2011). The Forum for Expatriate Management. Accessed on November 30, 2011, at http://www.articles.totallyexpat.com/global-relocation-trends-survey-2010/

Gmelch, W.H. (1982). *Beyond stress to effective management*. New York: John Wiley.

Goodall, K., & Warner, M. (1998). HRM dilemmas in China: The case of foreign-invested enterprises in Shanghai. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 4(4), 1-21.

Goodwin, T. (1999). Entering the internationalist. *Asian Business*, Sept, 35(9), 55-57.

Grandall Legal Group (2008). Guide to franchising in China. Accessed on July 28, 2011, at http://www.hg.org/article.asp?id=5289

Grant-Vallone, E.J. & Ensher, E.A. (2001). An examination of work and personal life conflict, organization support, and employee health among international expatriates. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 25, 261-278.

Gray, A. (1982). Repatriation at the Burr Hamilton Bank. *Business Horizons*, March-April, 13-14.

Gregersen, H.B., Morrison, A.J., & Black, J.S. (1998). Developing leaders for the global frontier. *Sloan Management Review*, 40(1), 21-32.

Hair, J.F., Babin, B., Money, A.H., & Samouel, P. (2003). *Essentials of business research methods.* New York: Wiley.

Hair, J.F., Black, W.C., Babin, B.J., & Anderson, R.E. (2010). *Multivariate data analysis,* 7th edition. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hall, E.T. (1976). *Beyond culture.* Anchor Press: New York.

Hammer, M.R., Gundykunst, W.B., & Wiseman, R.L. (1978). Dimensions of intercultural effectiveness: An exploratory study. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 2, 382-393.

Harris, J.G., Jr. (1973). A science of the South Pacific: Analysis of the character structure of the Peace Corps volunteer. *American Psychologist*, 28, 232-247.

Harris, P.R., & Moran, R.T. (1996). *Managing cultural differences*, 4th ed. Gulf: Texas.

Harrison, E.C. & Michailova, S. (2012). Working in the Middle East: Western female expatriates' experiences in the United Arab Emirates. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 23(4), 625-644.

Harvey, M.G. (1985). The executive family: An overlooked variable in international assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 10, Spring, 84-93.

Harvey, M.G. (1995). The impact of dual-career families on international relocation. *Human Resources Management Review*, 5(3), 223-244.

Harvey, M.G. (1996). Addressing the dual-career expatriation dilemma. *Human Resource Planning*, 19(4), 18-39.

Harvey, M.G., & Buckley, M.R. (1998). The process for developing an international program for dual-career couples. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(1), 99-123.

Harvey, M., & Moeller, M. (2009). Expatriate managers: A historical review. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 11(3), 275-296.

Harvey, M., & Wiese, D. (1998a). Global dual-career couple mentoring: A phase model approach. *Human Resource Planning*, 33-48.

Harvey, M., & Wiese, D. (1998b). The dual-career couple: Female expatriates and male trailing spouses. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, 40(4), 359-388.

Harzing, A.W. (2001). Of bears, bumble-bees, and spiders: The role of expatriates in controlling foreign subsidiaries. *Journal of World Business,* 36(4), 366-379.

Harzing, A.W. (2002). Are our referencing errors undermining our scholarship and credibility? The case of expatriate failure rates. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23, 127-148.

Haslberger, A. (2010). Gender differences in expatriate adjustment. *European Journal of International Management*, 4(1/2), 163-183.

Hautaluoma, J.E., & Kaman, V., (1975). Description of Peace Corps volunteers' experience in Afghanistan. *Topics in Culture Learning*, 3, 79-96.

Hawes, F., & Kealey, D. (1981). An empirical study of Canadian technical assistance. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 5, 239-258.

Hofbauer, J., & Fischlmayr, I.C. (2004). Feminization of international assignments: Conquering empty castles? *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 34(3), 46-67.

Hofstede, G. (1993). Cultural constraints in management theories. *Academy of Management Executive*, 7(1), 81-94.

Holmes, T.H., & Rahe, R.H. (1967). Social readjustment rating scale. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 11, 213-218.

Hon, H.Y. & Lu, L. (2010). The mediating role of trust between expatriate procedural justice and employee outcomes in Chinese hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 669-676.

Hsieh, T.Y., Lavoie, J., & Samek, R. (1999a). Are you taking your expatriate talents seriously? *The McKinsey Quarterly*, 3, 70-83.

Hsieh, T.Y., Lavoie, J., & Samek, R. (1999b). Think global, hire local. *The McKinsey Quarterly*, 4, 93-101.

Hu, H.H., & Cheng, C.W. (2010). Job stress, coping strategies, and burnout among hotel industry supervisors in Taiwan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(8), 1337-1350.

Huang, X., Shi, K., Zhang, Z.J., & Cheung, Y.L. (2004). The impact of participative leadership behavior on psychological empowerment and organizational commitment in Chinese state-owned enterprises: The moderating role of organizational tenure. Working paper.

Hughes, N. (2011). FICE franchising in China: A flourishing business model. *China Briefing*, July 15, accessed on July 28 at http://www.china-briefing.com/news/2011/07/15/fice-franchising-a-flourishing-business-m

odel.html

Hullinger, H. & Nolan, R. (1997). Antecedents of intercultural adjustment of American expatriates in the People's Republic of China. Paper presented at the Adult Education Research Conference, Oklahoma State University in Stillwater.

Hulme, V.A. (2006). Short staffed. *The China Business Review*, March/April, 33(2), 18-23.

Hung, C.L. (1994). Business mindsets and styles of the Chinese in the People's Republic of China, Hong Kong, and Taiwan. *The International Executive*, 36(2), 203-221.

Hutchings, K., & Murray, G. (2002). Australian expatriates' experiences in working behind the bamboo curtain: An examination of guanxi in post-communist China. *Asian Business & Management*, 1, 373-393.

The International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition (2007). *Submission of the International AntiCounterfeiting Coalition, Inc. to the United States Trade Representative: Special 301 Recommendations*, February, 12.

Invest in China (2012). Statistics about utilization of foreign investment in China from Jan to Dec. 2011. Accessed on March5, 2012, at http://www.fdi.gov.cn/pub/FDI_EN/Statistics/FDIStatistics/StatisticsofForeignInvestment/ default.htm

Izraeli, D.N., Banai, M., & Zeira, Y. (1980). Women executives in MNC subsidiaries. *California Management Review*, 22, 53-63.

Janssens, M. (1995). Intercultural interactions: A burden on international managers? *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16, 155-167.

Jha. A. (2005). China, biggest source of counterfeit products. *Business Line: Internet Edition*, November 15, at http://www.thehindubusinessline.com/2005/11/15/stories/ 2005111502750800.htm

Jiang, M.S., Aulakh, P.S,. & Pan, Y.G. (2009). Licensing duration in foreign markets: A real options perspective. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 559-577.

Johnson, E.C., Kristol-Brown, A.L., Van Vianen, A.E.M., De Pater, I.E., & Klein, M.R. (2003). Expatriate social ties: Personality antecedents and Consequences for Adjustment. *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 11(4), 277-288.

Jokinen, T., Brewster, C., & Suutari, V. (2008). Career capital during international work experience: Contrasting self-initiated expatriate experience and assigned expatriation. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(6), 979-998.

Jones, S. (1997). *Managing in China: An Executive Survival Guide*. Butterworth-Heinemann Asia: Singapore.

Juffer, K.A. (1986). The first step in cross-cultural orientation: Defining the problem. In R.M. Paige (Ed.), *Cross-cultural orientation: new conceptualizations and applications*. Lanham (MD): University Press of America.

Kahn, J., & Yardley, J. (2007). As China roars, pollution reaches deadly extremes. *The New York Times*, August 26.

Kass, R.A., & Tinsley, H.E.A. (1979). Factor analysis, *Journal of Leisure Research*, 11, 120-138.

Katz, R.L. (1974). Skills of an effective administrator. *Harvard Business Review, September-October*, 90-102.

Kaye, M., & Taylor, W. (1997). Expatriate culture shock in China: A study in the Beijing hotel industry. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*, 12(8), 496-510.

Kealey, D.J. (1990). *Cross-cultural effectiveness*. Hull, Canada: CIDA.

Kendall, D.W. (1981). Repatriation: An ending and a beginning. *Business Horizons*, 24(6), 21-25.

Kienzle, R., & Shadur, M. (1997). Developments in business networks in East Asia. *Management Decision*, 35(1), 23-32.

Kim, W.C. & Hwang, P. (1992). Global strategy and multinationals' entry mode choice. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 23(1), 29-53.

Kline, P. (1999). *The handbook of psychological testing*, 2nd edition. London: Routledge.

Kobrin, S.J. (1988). Expatriate reduction and strategic control in American multinational corporations. *Human Resource Management*, 27(1), 63-75.

Kristof, A.L. (1996). "Person-organization fit: An integrative review of its conceptualizations, measurement and implications," *Personnel Psychology*, 49, 1-50.

Kuok, O.M.K. (1998). *Occupational stress of university teachers in China*. MBA Thesis of University of Macau.

Lai, A. (2011). Word's most corrupt place to do business is…Accessed on December 17, 2011, at http://business.blogs.cnn.com/2011/11/03/world-most-corrupt-place-to-do-business-is/

Lanier, A.R. (1979). Selecting and preparing personnel for overseas transfers. *Personnel Journal*, 58, 160-163.

Larsson, R., & Lubatkin, M. (2001). Achieving acculturation in mergers and acquisitions: An international case survey. *Human Relations*, 54(12), 1573-1607.

Lassere, P. (2003). *Global strategic management*. New York: Palgrave MacMillan.

Lauring, J., & Selmer, J. (2010). The supportive expatriate spouse: An ethnographic study of spouse involvement in expatriate careers. *International Business Review*, 19, 59-69.

Lazarus, R.S., (1995). *Psychological stress and the coping process*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Legewie, J. (2002). Control and co-ordination of Japanese subsidiaries in China: Problems of an expatriate-based management system. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(6), 901-919.

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

Leung, K. et al. (1997). Job satisfaction in joint venture hotels in China: An organizational analysis. In Beamish, P.W. and Killing, P. (Eds), *Cooperative strategies: Asian Pacific Perspectives*. San Francisco: The New Lexington Press, pp. 226-244.

Levin, C. (2006). U.S.-China economic and security review commission hearing on intellectual property rights issues and dangers of counterfeited goods imported into the United States. *U.S.-China Economic and Security Review Commission*, June 7, at http://www.uscc.gov/hearings/2006hearings/written_testimonies/06_06_07wrts/06_06_7_8 _levin.carl.php.

Li, E. (1998). Building trust for successful partnership in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp.57-72). London: Routledge.

Li, J., & Wright, P. (2000). Guanxi and the realities of career development: A Chinese perspective. *Career Development International*, 5(7), 369-389.

Li, Y.Q., & Sheldon, P. (2010). HRM lives and outside the firm: Employers, skill shortages and the local labour market in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(12), 2173-2193.

Lindorff, D. (1996). As Shanghai again strives for glory. *Business Week* 12 August: 4.

Linehan, M., & Scullion, H. (2001). European female expatriate careers: Critical success factors. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 25(8), 392-418.

Linehan, M., & Walsh, J.S. (1999). Recruiting and developing female managers for international assignments. *The Journal of Management Development*, 18(6), 521-530.

Liu, Y., & Ipe, M. (2010). The impact of organizational and leader-member support on expatriate commitment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(7), 1035-1048.

Lococo, E. (1996). Shanghai red tape chafes investors. *Hong Kong Standard*, 26 January, p. 3.

Lu, Y., & Bjorkman, I. (1997). HRM practices in China-Western joint ventures: MNC standardization versus localization. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 8(5), 614-628.

Lu, Y., & Child, J. (1996). Decentralization of decision making in China's state enterprises. In D.H. Brown, and R. Porter (Eds.) *Management issues in China: Domestic enterprises, vol 1*. London: Routledge.

Luk, V.W.M., & Chiu, R.K. (1998). Reward systems for local staff in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 137-151). London: Routledge.

Ma, Z.H. (2010). Technology vital to tackling water pollution issues. *China Daily,* Hong Kong Edition, September 6, p. 20.

Makela, L., Kansala, M., & Suutari, V. (2011). The role of expatriates' spouses among dual career couples. *Cross Cultural Management: An International Journal*, 18(2), 185-197.

Malhotra, N.K. (1993). *Marketing research: An applied orientation*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, Inc.

Manev, I.M. & Stevenson, W.B. (2001). Nationality, cultural distance, and expatriate status: Effects on the managerial network in a multinational enterprise. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 32(2), 285-303.

Manning, M.R., Jackson, C.N., & Fusilier, M.R. (1996). Occupational stress, social support, and the costs of health care. *Academy of Management Journal*, 39(3), 738-750.

Manson, J. (1996). *Qualitative Researching,* London: Sage.

McEllister, R. (1998). Recruitment and retention of managerial staff in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 98-114). London: Routledge.

McEvoy, G.M., & Parker, B. (1995). Expatriate adjustment: Causes and consequences. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 97-114). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

McGrath, J.E. (1976). Stress and behaviour in organizations. In Dunnette M.D. (Ed.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology* (pp. 1351-1395).

Mead, R. (1994). *International management: Cross cultural dimensions*. Blackwell: Massachusetts.

Meier, J., Perez, J., & Woetzel, J.R. (1995). Solving the puzzle: MNCs in China. *McKinesey Quarterly*, 2.

Menard, S. (1995). Applied logistic regression analysis. Sage university paper series on quantitative applications in social sciences, 07-106. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G., (1985). The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: A review. *Academy of Management Review*, 10(1), 39-47.

Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1986). Acculturation profiles of expatriate managers: Implications for cross-cultural training programs. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 21(4), 73-79.

Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1988). The overseas assignment: A practical look. *Business Horizons*, September-October, 78-84.

Mendenhall, M., Punnett, B.J., & Ricks, D. (1995). *Global management*. Blackwell: Massachusetts.

Miller, E.L. (1973). The international selection decision: A study of some dimensions of managerial behavior in the selection decision process. *Academy of Management Journal*, 16, 239-252.

Mintzberg, H. (1973). *The nature of managerial work*. New York: Harper & Row.

Mintzberg, H. (1990). The manager's job: Folklore and fact. *Harvard Business Review*, March-April, 163-176.

Misa, K.F., & Fabricatore, J.M. (1979). Return on investment of overseas personnel. *Financial Executive*, 47, 42-46.

Myers, R. (1990). Classical and modern regression with application, 2nd edition. Boston, MA: Duxbury.

Nahavandi, A., & Malekzadeh, A. (1988). Acculturation in mergers and acquisition. *Academy of Management Review,* 13, 79-90.

Napier, N.K., & Peterson, R.B. (1991). Expatriate re-entry: What do repatriates have to say? *Human Resource Planning*, 14(1), 19-28.

Napier, N.K., & Taylor, S. (2002). Experiences of women professionals abroad: Comparisons across Japan, China and Turkey. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 13(5), 837-851.

Nasif, E.G., Thibodeaux, M.S., & Ebrahimi, B. (1987). Variables associated with success as an expatriate manager. Proceedings Academy of International Business annual meeting, Southeast Region, New Orleans, November 4-7, pp. 169-179.

National Bureau of Statistics of China (2011). Major figures of residents from Hong Kong, Macao and Taiwan and foreigners covered by 2010 population census. Accessed on May 4, 2012   at http://www.stats.gov.cn/was40/gjtjj_en_detail.jsp?searchword=population+census&chann elid=9528&record=2.

Naumann, E. (1992). A conceptual model of expatriate turnover. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 3rd Quarter, 499-531.

Netemeyer, R.G., Boles, J.S., & McMurrian, R. (1996). Development and validation of work-family conflict and family-work conflict scales. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81, 400-410.

NewsGD (2007). Guangdong IPR 2006 (8) – Suppression of counterfeit products. NewsGD.com, April 20, at http://newsgd.com/news/chinakeyword/guangdongipr2006/ 200704200035.htm.

Nicholson, N. (1984). A theory of work role transition. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 29, 172-191.

Nikandrou, N. Papalexandris, N., & Bourantas, D. (2000). Gaining employee trust after acquisition: Implications for managerial action. *Employee Relations*, 22(4), 334-344.

Noer, D.M. Integrating foreign service employees to home organization: The godfather approach. *Personnel Journal*, January, 45-51.

Nolan, J. (2011). Good *guanxi* and bad *guanxi*: Western bankers and the role of network practices in institutional change in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 22(16), 3357-3372.

Noronha, C. (2002). *The theory of culture-specific total quality management: Quality management in Chinese regions*. New York: Palgrave.

Nunnally, J.C. (1967). *Pschometric theory*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Oberg, K. (1960). Cultural shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropologist,* 7, 177-182.

Oddou, G., Derr, C.B., & Black, J.S. (1995). Internationalizing managers: Expatriation and other strategies. In J. Selmer (Ed.) *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business*, (pp.3-16). Westport, CT: Quorum.

Olsen, J.E. & Martins, L.L. (2009). The effects of expatriate demographic characteristics on adjustment: A social identity approach. *Human Resource Management,* 48(2), 311-328.

O'Reilly, C.A., Chatman, J. & Caldwell, D.F. (1991). "People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organization fit," *Academy of Management Journal*, 34, 487-516.

Osman-Gani, A.M. & Rockstuhl, T. (2008). Antecedents and consequences of social network characteristics for expatriate adjustment and performance in overseas assignments: Implications for HRD. *Human Resource Development Review*, 7(1), 32-57.

Pandey, K.D., Wheeler, D., Ostro, B., Deichmann, U., Hamilton, K., & Bolt, K. (2006). Ambient particulate matter concentrations in residential and pollution hotspot areas of world cities: New estimates based on the global model of ambient particulates (GMAPS). The World Bank Development Economics Research Group and the Environment Department Working Paper. The World Bank, Washington, DC.

Parker, B., & McEvoy, G.M. (1993). Initial examination of a model of intercultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 17, 355-379.

Parker, D.F. & DeCotiss, T.A. (1983). "Organizational Determinants of Job Stress." *Organizational Behaviour and Human Performance*, 32, pp. 160-177.

Pearson, R.G. (1981). "Subjective Reports of Stress and Strain as Concomitants of Work." In Salvendy, G. and Smith, M.J. (Eds.) *Machine Pacing and Occupational Stress ---* Proceedings of the International Conference, Purdue University, March 1981, pp. 169-176. London: Taylor and Francis, Ltd.

Peltokorpi, V. (2008). Cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates in Japan. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(9), 1588-1606.

Polegato, R., & Barras, R.G. (1984). Geographically separated dual-career families. *Business Quarterly*, 49(1), 145-150.

Puck, J.F., Holtbrugge, D., & Mohr, A.T. (2009). Beyond entry mode choice: Explaining the conversion of joint ventures into wholly owned subsidiaries in the People's Republic of China. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 388-404.

Pye, L. (1982). *Chinese commercial negotiating style*. Cambridge, MA: Gun & Hain.

Rahe, R.H., & Arthur, R.J. (1968). Life-change patterns surrounding illness experience. *Journal of Psychosomatic Research*, 11, 341-345.

Ralston, D.A., Gustafson, D.J., Elsass, P.M., Cheung, F.M., & Terpstra, R.H. (1992). Eastern values: A comparison of managers in the United States, Hong Kong and the People's Republic of China. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 77(5), 664-671.

Ralston, D.A., Gustafson, D.J., Cheung, F.M., & Terpstra, R.H. (1993). Differences in managerial values: A study of US, Hong Kong and PRC managers. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 24(2), 249-275.

Ratiu, I. (1983). Thinking internationally: A comparison of how international executives learn. *International Studies of Management and Organization*, 134-150.

Redmond, M.V. (2000). Cultural distance as a mediating factor between stress and intercultural communication competence. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 24, 151-159.

Reichardt, C.S., & Cook, T.D. (1979). Beyond qualitative versus quantitative methods. In T.D. Cook and C.S. Reichardt (Eds.), *Quantitative Methods in Evaluation Research*. Beverly Hills: Sage.

Reus, T.H., & Lamont, B.T. (2009). The double-edged sword of cultural distance in international acquisitions. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 40, 1298-1316.

Reynolds, C., & Bennett, R. (1991). The career couple challenge. *Personnel Journal*, March, p. 48.

Riusala, K., & Suutari, V. (2000). Expatriation and careers: Perspectives of expatriates and spouses. *Career Development International*, 5(2), 81-90.

Robbins, S.P., & Coulter, M. (2007). *Management*, 9th ed. Pearson: New Jersey.

Rosenzweig, P.M. (1994). The new 'American challenge': Foreign multinationals in the United States. *California Management Review* (Spring), 107-123.

Sanchez, J.I., & Brock, P. (1996). Outcomes of perceived discrimination among Hispanic employees: Is diversity management a luxury or a necessity? *Academy of Management Journal*, 39, 704-719.

Sanchez, J.I, Spector, P.E., & Cooper, C.L. (2000). Adapting to a boundaryless world: A developmental expatriate model. *Academy of Management Executive*, 14(2), 96-106.

Schoepp, K. & Forstenlechner, I. (2010). The role of family considerations in an expatriate majority environment. *Team Performance Management*, 16(5/6), 309-323.

Schweiger, D.M., & Denisi, A.S. (1991). Communication with employees following a merger: A longitudinal field experiment. *Academy of Management Journal,* 34, 110-135.

Schweiger, D.M., & Walsh, J.P. (1990). Mergers and acquisitions: An interdisciplinary view. *Research in Personnel and Human Resources Management*, 8, 41-107.

Scullion, H., (1991). Why companies prefer to use expatriates. *Personnel Management*, 23(11), 32-37.

Scullion, H., & Collings, D. (2006). *Global staffing*. New York: Routledge.

Selmer, J. (1997). Which is easier? Adjusting to a close or a distant culture? The experience of Western and ethnic Chinese expatriate managers in the People's Republic of China. Paper presented to the International Management Division at the 1997 Annual Meeting of Academy of Management, Boston, Massachusetts, USA, 10-13 August.

Selmer, J. (1998a). Strategic human resource management: Expatriate managers in China. In , J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 152-165). London: Routledge.

Selmer, J. (1998b). The expatriate manager in China: A research note. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 8(1), 80-86.

Selmer, J. (1998c). Conclusions: Current issues and emerging trends. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 253-264). London: Routledge.

Selmer, J. (1998d). Cross-cultural management in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp.1-9).   London: Routledge.

Selmer, J. (1999). Culture shock in China? Adjustment pattern of western expatriate business managers. *International Business Review*, 8, 515-534.

Selmer, J. (2001a). Adjustment of Western European vs. North American expatriate managers in China. *Personnel Review*, 30(1), 6-16.

Selmer, J. (2001b). Coping and adjustment of western expatriate managers in Hong Kong. *Scandinavian Journal of Management*, 17, 167-185.

Selmer, J. (2002). Practice makes perfect? International experience and expatriate adjustment. *Management of International Review*, 42(1), 71-87.

Selmer, J. (2006a). Adjustment of business expatriates in greater China: A strategic perspective. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(12), 1994-2008.

Selmer, J. (2006b). Cultural novelty and adjustment: Western business expatriates in China. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 17(7), 1209-1222.

Selmer, J. (2007). Which is easier, adjusting to a similar or to a dissimilar culture? American business expatriates in Canada and Germany. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 7(2), 185-201.

Selmer, J., & Leung, A.S.M. (2002). Career management issues of female business expatriates. *Career Development International*, 7(6/7), 348-358.

Selmer, J., & Leung, A.S.M. (2003a). Are corporate career development activities less available to female than to male expatriates? *Journal of Business Ethics*, 43, 125-136.

Selmer, J., & Leung, A.S.M. (2003b). International adjustment of female vs. male business expatriates. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(7), 1117-1131.

Selmer, J., & Leung, A.S.M. (2003c). Personal characteristics of female vs. male business expatriates. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 3(2), 195-212.

Selmer, J., & Shiu, S.C. (1999). Coming home? Adjustment of Hong Kong Chinese expatriate business managers assigned to the People's Republic of China. *International Journal of Intercultural Relation*s, 23(3), 447-465.

Sergeant, A., & Frenkel, S. (1998). Managing people in China: Perceptions of expatriate managers. *Journal of World Business*, 33(1), 17-34.

Shaffer, M.A., & Harrison, D.A. (1998). Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: Work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel psychology*, 51, 87-118.

Shenkar, O. (2012). Cultural distance revisited: Towards a more rigorous conceptualization and measurement of cultural differences. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 43(1), 1-11.

Shih, H.A., Chiang, Y.H., & Hsu, C.C. (2010). High involvement work system, work-family conflict, and expatriate performance – examining Taiwanese expatriates in China. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 21(11), 2013-2030.

Shilling, M. (1993). Avoid expatriate culture shock *HRMagazine*, 38(7), 58-63.

Slangen, A.H.L., & Hennart, J.F. (2008). Do multinationals really prefer to enter culturally distant countries through greenfields rather than through acquisitions? The role of parent experience and subsidiary autonomy. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 39, 472-490.

Solomon, C.M. (1994). Success abroad depends on more than job skills. *Personnel Journal*, 73(4), 51-60.

Solomon, C.M. (1995). Repatriation: Up, down or out? *Personnel Journal*, January, 28-37.

Solomon, C.M. (1996). Expats say: Help make us mobile. *Personnel Journal*, 75(7), 47-52.

Spector, P.E. (1992). *Summated rating scale construction: An introduction (Series: Quantitative applications in the social sciences)*. Newbury Park: Sage University Paper.

Stahl, G.K., Miller, E.L., & Tung, R.L. (2002). Toward the boundaryless career: A closer Look at the expatriate career concept and the perceived implications of an international assignment," *Journal of World Business*, 37 (3), 216-227.

Steffy, B.D., & Jones, J.W. (1988). Workplace Stress and Indicators of Coronary-Disease Risk. *Academy of Management Journal*, 31(3), 686-698.

Stone, R.J. (1991). Expatriate selection and failure. *Human Resource Planning*, 14(1), 9-18.

Stone, R.J. (1995). *Commercial negotiations in China.* Unpublished MA thesis, Ottawa: Ottawa University.

Stroh, L.K. Varma, A., & Valy-Durbin, S.J. (2000). Why are women left at home: Are they unwilling to go on international assignments? *Journal of World Business*, 35(3), 241-255.

Sutter, K. (2000). Investors' growing pains. *The China Business Review*, November/December, 14-21.

Suutari, V., & Burch, D. (2001). The role of on-site training and support in expatriation: Existing and necessary host-company practices. *Career Development International*, 6(6), 298-311.

Sweeny, E.P. (1996a). Managing strategic change in China. *Strategic Change* 5, 331-341.

Sweeny, E.P. (1996b). Human resource management implications of managing business change in China. In N.S. Antonio and H. Steele (Eds.) *Proceedings of the Second South China International Business Symposium*, 2, Macau.

Szulanski, G. (1996). Exploring internal stickiness: Impediments to the transfer of best practice within the firm. *Strategic Management Journal,* 17, 27-43.

Tabachnick, B.G., & Fidell, L.S. (2001). *Using multivariate statistics*, 4th edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Takeuchi, R., Wang, M., & Marinova, S.V. (2005). Antecedents and consequences of psychological workplace strain during expatriation: A cross-sectional and longitudinal investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 58, 925-948.

Takeuchi, R., Yun, S., & Tesluk, P.E. (2002). An examination of crossover and spillover effects of spousal and expatriate cross-cultural adjustment on expatriate outcomes. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4), 655-666.

Tan, C., & Yeung, H. (2000). The regionalization of Chinese business networks: A study of Singaporean companies in Hainan, China. *The Professional Geographer*, 52(3), 437-455.

Tannen, D. (1995). *Talking from 9 to 5: Women and Men in the Workplace*. New York: Avon Books.

Taylor, S., & Napier, N. (1996). Working in Japan: Lessons from women expatriates. *Sloan Management Review*, Spring, 37, 76-84.

Teagarden, M.B., & Gordon, G.D. (1995). Corporate selection strategies and expatriate manager success. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp 17-36). Westport CT: Quorum.

Tetrick, L.E. & LaRocco, J.M. (1987). Understanding, prediction, and control as moderators of the relationships between perceived stress, satisfaction, and psychological well-being. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 72(4), 538-543.

Thal, N.L., & Cateora, P.R. (1979). Opportunities for women in international business. *Business Horizons*, 22(6), 21-27.

Tihanyi, L., Griffith, D.A., & Russell, C.J. (2005). The effect of cultural distance on entry mode choice, international diversification, and MNE performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 36, 270-283.

Torbiorn, I. (1982). *Living abroad: Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting*. New Delhi: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

Trompenaars, F. (1993). *Riding the waves of culture: Understanding cultural diversity in business*. London: Economists Books.

Tse, D.K., Pan, Y., & Au, K. (1997). How MNCs choose entry modes and form alliances: The China experience. *Journal of International Business Studies*, 28(4), 779-805.

Tung, R.L. (1979). U.S. multinationals: A study of their selection and training for overseas assignments. *Academy of Management Proceedings*, 39, 298-301.

Tung, R.L. (1981). Selection and training of personnel for overseas assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, 16(1), 68-78.

Tung, R.L. (1982a). Selection and training procedures of U.S., European, and Japanese multinationals. *California Management Review*, 25(1), 57-71.

Tung, R.L. (1982b). US-China trade negotiations: Practices, procedures and outcomes. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Fall, 25-37.

Tung, R.L. (1984a). Strategic management of human resources in the multinational enterprise. *Human Resource Management*, Summer, 129-143.

Tung, R.L. (1984b). *Key to Japan's economic strength: Human power.* Lexington, Mass.: Lexington Books.

Tung, R.L. (1986). Corporate executives and their families in China: The need for cross-cultural understanding in business. *Columbia Journal of World Business*, Spring, 21-25.

Tung, R.L. (1987a). Expatriate assignments: Enhancing success and minimizing failure. *Academy of Management Executive*, 1(2), 117-126.

Tung, R.L. (1987b). People's Republic of China. In Raghu Nath (Ed.), *Comparative management: A regional view* (pp. 139-168). Ballinger.

Tung, R.L. (1989). A longitudinal study of United States-Chinese business negotiations. *China Economic Review*, 1(1), 57-71.

Tung, R.L. (1995). Women in a changing global economy. In J.L. Farr (Chair), Myths and realities of foreign assignments: Human resource practices in multinational corporations. Symposium conducted at the meeting of the Society for Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Orlando, FL.

Tung, R.L. (1998). American expatriates abroad: From neothytes to cosmopolitans. *Journal of World Business*, 33(2), 125-140.

Tung, R.L., & Worm, V. (2001). Network capitalism: The role of human resources in penetrating the China market. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 12(4), 517-534.

Tung, R.L., & Yeung, I.Y.M. (1998). Confucian connections in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 197-206). London: Routledge.

USCBC (2004). FDI in China. Accessed at http://www.uschina.org/statistics/fdi1979-03.html

USCBC (2011). Foreign direct investment in China. Accessed at on March 5, 2012, at https://www.uschina.org/info/members-survey/

USCBC (2012). Foreign direct investment in China. Accessed on March 5, 2012, at https://www.uschina.org/statistics/fdi_cumulative.html

Usunier, J.C. (1998). Oral pleasure and expatriate satisfaction: An empirical approach. *International Business Review*, 7, 89-110.

Vanhonacker, W. (1997). Entering China: An unconventional approach. *Harvard Business Review*, March-April, 130-141.

Vannoy, D., & Philliber, W. (1992). Wife's employment and quality of marriage. *Journal of Marriage and the Family*, May, 387-398.

Vu, U. (2005). Doing business in China has everything to do with people. *Canadian HR Reporter*, 18(16), 5-7.

The Wall Street Journal Asia (2006). More firms in China think globally, hire locally: Management ranks get a new makeup as expat costs grow. *The Wall Street Journal Asia*, February 27, p.29.

Wang, P., Lawler, J.J. & Shi, K. (2010). Work-family conflict, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, and gender: Evidences from Asia. *Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*, 17(3), 298-308.

Ware, J., Snow, K.K., Kosinski, M., & Gandek, B. (1993). *SF-36 health survey: Manual and interpretation guide*. Boston, Mass., The Health Institute, New England Medical Center.

Warner, M. (1993). Human resource management 'with Chinese characteristics'. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 4(1), 45-55.

Warner, M. (1995). *The management of human resources in Chinese industry*. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Warner, M. (1996). Human resources in the People's Republic of China: The "three systems" reforms. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 6(2), 32-43.

Warner, M. (1998). Modernizing China's economy and management in the 1990s. *Asia Pacific Business Review*, 4(4), 80-84.

Warner, M. (2010). In search of Confucian HRM: Theory and practice in greater China and beyond. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 21(12), 2053-2078.

Wederspahn, G. (1992). Costing failures in expatriate human resources management. *Human Resource Planning*, 15(3), 27-37.

Weidenhaum, M., & Hughes, S. (1996). *The bamboo network: How expatriate Chinese entrepreneurs are creating a new economic power in Asia.* New York: Free Press.

Weiss, J.W., & Bloom, S. (1990). Managing in China: Expatriate experiences and training recommendations. *Business Horizons*, 33(3), 23-29.

Williams, S., & Cooper, C.L. (1998). Measuring occupational stress: Development of the pressure management indicator. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology*, 3(4), 306-321.

Wilson, J. & Brennan, R. (2010). Doing business in China: Is the importance of *guanxi* diminishing? *European Business Review*, 22(6), 652-665.

Wong, C.S., & Law, K.S. (1999). Managing localization of human resources in the PRC: A practical model. *Journal of World Business*, 34(1), 26-40.

Wong, J. (1994). Long way to go. *The Asian Wall Street Journal*, 22 November, p. 4.

Wong, Y.Y., & Stone, R.J. (1998). Chinese and Western negotiator stereotypes. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural Issues* (pp. 207-222). London: Routledge.

World Bank. (2009). *Country brief: China.* Accessed on April 8, 2009, at http://web.worldbank.org/WBSITE/EXTERNAL/COUNTRIES/EASTASIAPACIFICEXT/CHINAEXTN/0,,menuPK:318960~pagePK:141132~piPK:141107~theSitePK:318950,00.html.

World Bank (2011). PM 10, country level (micrograms per cubic meter). Accessed on July 23, 2011, at http://data.worldbank.org/indicator/EN.ATM.PM10.MC.M3

Worm, V.D. (1998). Interpersonal cooperation in Western subsidiaries in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural Issues* (pp. 183-196). London: Routledge.

Xinhua Net (2007). Chinese police arrest 5,000 people in counterfeit, inferior goods cases. Accessed at http://new.xinhuanet.com/english/2007-01/10/content_5588254.htm.

Xinhua Net (2011). Key targets of China's 12th five-year plan. Accessed on March 15, 2012, at http://news.xinhuanet.com/english2010/china/2011-03/05/c_13762230.htm

Xu, X., Gao, J., Dockery, D.W. & Chen, Y. (1994). Air pollution and daily mortality in residential areas of Beijing, China. *Arch Environ Health*, 49(4), 216-222.

Yan, D., & Warner, M. (2002). Foreign investors' choices in China: Going it alone or in partnership? *Human Systems Management*, 21, 137-150.

Yeung, Y.M., & Tung, R.L. (1996). Achieving business success in Confucian societies: The importance of guanxi (connections). *Organizational Dynamics*, Autumn, 54-65.

Yu, J., & Cooper, H. (1983). A quantitative review of reassert design effects on response rates to questionnaires. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 20, 36-44.

Yurkiewicz, J., & Rosen, B. (1995). Increasing receptivity to expatriate assignments. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *Expatriate management: New ideas for international business* (pp. 37-56).Westport, CT: Quorum.

Zamet, J., & Bovarnick, M. (1986). Employee relations for multinational companies in China. *The Columbia Journal of World Business*, 13-20.

Zhang, J.Z. (1995). Sino-foreign joint ventures: Lessons learned from experiences. In H. Davies (Ed.), *China business: Context and issues*. Hong Kong: Longman Asia.

Zhang, Z.Y. (1999). A comparative study of foreign direct investment in China and Vietman. *American Asian Review*, 17(2). 117-151.

Zhao, H., & Zhu, G. (1998). Determinants of ownership preference of international joint ventures: New perspective. *Organization Science*, 13(6), 569-589.

Zhao, W., & Hu, Z.C. (1998). Perfect solitude: Foreign investors go it alone. *China Director Investor*, August, 19-23.

Zhu, C.J., & Dowling, P.J. (1998). Performance appraisal in China. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 115-136). London: Routledge.

Zhu, G.L., Speece, M.W., & So, S.L.M. (1998). Conflicts in Sino-European joint ventures. In J. Selmer (Ed.), *International management in China: Cross-cultural issues* (pp. 13-28). London: Routledge.

Zimmermann, A., Holman, D., & Sparrow, P. (2003). Unravelling adjustment mechanisms: Adjustment of German expatriates to intercultural interactions, work, and living conditions in the People's Republic of China. *International Journal of Cross Cultural Management*, 3(1), 45-66.

Appendix A: FDI in China 1979-2010.

Year	No. of Contracts	Amount Utilized ($ billion)
1979-1989	21,776	18,47
1990	7,273	3.41
1991	12,978	4.37
1992	48,764	11.01
1993	83,427	27.52
1994	47,549	33.77
1995	37,011	37.52
1996	24,556	41.73
1997	21,001	45.26
1998	19,799	45.46
1999	16,918	40.32
2000	22,347	40.72
2001	26,139	46.85
2002	34,171	52.74
2003	41,081	53.51
2004	43,664	60.63
2005	44,001	60.30
2006	41,485	69.50
2007	37,871	74.80
2008	27,514	92.40
2009	23,435	90.00
2010	27,406	105.70
2011	27,712	116.01
Total	**191,553**	**1153.53**

Sources: The US-China Business Council (2011) and Invest in China (2012).

Appendix B: Registered Foreign-Funded Enterprises by Region, 2010

Rank	Region	Number of Registered Enterprises	Total Investment (Billion $)
1	Guangdong	93756	421.30
2	Shanghai	55666	339.40
3	Jiangsu	51666	508.10
4	Shandong	29486	124.50
5	Zhejiang	28769	183.20
6	Beijing	24853	119.20
7	Fujian	23463	124.80
8	Liaoning	18377	147.60
9	Tianjin	12918	109.60
10	Sichuan	12050	54.40
11	Henan	10254	37.90
12	Hebei	9531	40.30
13	Jiangxi	7574	43.90
14	Hubei	7486	42.90
15	Heilongjiang	5814	19.60
16	Anhui	5633	30.30
17	Hunan	5410	32.40
18	Shaanxi	5378	18.00
19	Guangxi	5327	28.00
20	Chongqing	4827	34.90
21	Jilin	4309	22.30
22	Hainan	4171	25.90
23	Yunnan	3833	17.90
24	Inner Mongolia	3693	23.20
25	Shanxi	3665	22.90
26	Gansu	2116	6.30
27	Guizhou	1936	4.10
28	Xinjiang	1751	5.20
29	Ningxia	529	4.00
30	Qinghai	499	2.30
31	Tibet	264	0.50
32	Department Total	240	110.80
	Total	**445244**	**2,705.90**

Source: *China Statistical Yearbook 2011*

Appendix C: Interview Guideline for First Phase of Interview

1. How do you find your experience as an expatriate in China?
    → Anything good? e.g. work vs. nonwork?
    → Anything bad? e.g. work vs. nonwork?
    → Which over-weighs the other? e.g. the good or bad experience, or the work or nonwork experience?

2. Please tell some background information about your company, yourself and the assignment
    → e.g. company type? Industry? Joint-venture?
    → e.g. number of years that you have served your company?
    → e.g. number of years that you have been in China? Was it your own choice to come here? Are your family members with you here or still at home?
    → e.g. purpose of the assignment? Length of it?

3. What were your expectations before you came here? How are the realities different from your expectations?

4. What does your company provide you for the entire assignment, e.g., training, reward and other assistances? What do you think the company should provide you but it did not?

5. What were your expectations about China and the assignment before you came here?

6. Any problems you encountered here (work or nonwork)? What are they? How do you solve them? How does the company help?

7. Do you come with your family? Spouse or children? What were their reactions after they heard of this assignment?

8. What were the good and bad things of the China assignment expected by your family?

9. How do they find the life here?

10. What kinds of problems do they encounter here? How do they solve it? What kind of help does the company offer?

11. What kind of social contact have you developed in China? With expatriates? With locals?

12. How do you communicate with your family or friends back home? How frequent? In what way could you improve your relationship with home?

13. How do you communicate with parent company? How frequent?

14. How does your parent company evaluate your performance here? What would be the best or more realistic method? (e.g., Criteria? Who?)

15. How would you describe your effectiveness, efficiency, and productivity in your workplace? How are they compared when you were home? If there is a deficiency, what are the reasons (from your point of view)? (Mainly due to the workplace environment? Nonwork environment? Culture?)

16. What were your previous overseas experiences? For what purposes? How long ago? How long was the duration? How are those experiences affecting/influencing your current assignment?

17. What were your family's previous overseas experiences in other places? What purposes? How long ago? Duration? How are those experiences affecting/influencing their current experiences in China?

18. How does this mainland China assignment influence your relationship with your family? (Both family here and your family at home)

19. What did you do at your leisure when you were in your home country? What do you do at your leisure when you are here? (e.g., Entertainment/activities after work?)

20. What did your family do at their leisure when they were in your home country? What do they do at their leisure here?

21. In what ways does your company show its appreciation to what you are doing here?

22. What contributions would your current experience bring to your career path?

23. Do you like the general environment in China? What are they? What about your family members?

24. What do you not like the general environment in China? What about your family?

25. Do you like the working environment in China? What are they? What about your family?

26. What do you not like the working environment in China? What about your family?

27. How is your social life with expatriates (for both coming from the same country or other countries)? How is your social life with local people?

28. How easy is it to develop personal relationship with expatriates or locals? Why? Which is easier?

29. Is there any community around for expatriates, e.g., religious groups, or clubs? Have you joined any of them? How do they influence your life here?

30. How often are you able to go home? Who pays it (e.g, company or yourself)? How often do you go traveling?

31. How well can you speak Chinese?
    → How much did you learn before you came here?
    → How much did you learn after you came here?
    → How do you learn it? Language course, daily encounter, or local friends?
    → Were you chosen to this assignment because your language ability?
    → Were you required to have certain proficiency before you came here?
    → Did/does your company provide language preparation for you to come here? How (e.g., sponsoring expenses on training; providing training courses, allow expatriates to go for language training during office hours)?
    → How important do you think it is for you be able to speak the local language?

32. After being here for a certain period of time, if you were given the choice to come again, what would be the factors/barriers make you not to come here? Or what would be the factors/incentives attract you to here?

33. How did your company prepare you to come/work in China?

34. What are your office hours? How many hours do you actually have to work at your office? And at home?

35. Please describe your relationships with colleagues from your home country, 3rd country and local Chinese?

36. How long will your current assignment last? How about the assignment durations of other expatriates in your company?

37. Why are you being sent here? What were the selection criteria?

38. How many subordinates do you supervise? How many of them are locals and how many of them are expatriates? Please describe your relationships with them?

39. Please describe a bit of your compensation package? How does the package make your life here different from home?

40. Please describe your assignment here? Do you consider this assignment as a hardship?

41. Do you and your family encounter any racial or nationality problem here?

42. Suppose you can make some changes in the work and nonwork environment, what would be the changes you think can attract you and other home colleagues to this assignment?

43. As an expatriate, what are the important factors to be successful in China?

Appendix D: Advertising Note

How is your life as an expatriate in China?

Working in a foreign country is very different from visiting there. Currently a survey is being conducted by an academic in Macau to study the lives of expatriates and locally hired foreigners working in China. Interested parties, who would like to participate in the survey/questionnaire, please contact Miss. Kim Kuok by email at fbaomk@umac.mo.

Appendix E: Questionnaire

English Version

Lives of Expatriates in China Questionnaire

Prepared by
Kim, Oi Mei Kuok
Faculty of Business Administration
University of Macau

Email Address: **fbaomk@umac.mo**

Postal Address: **Kim Kuok**
                        FBA
                        Macau P.O. Box 3001
                        Macau (Via Hong Kong)

Section I: Background / Demographics

Before starting the indicator, please fill in the details below. Some of these details may not apply to you but please complete as many of the questions as possible.

1. Gender (Please circle the appropriate box)   ❑₁   Male   ❑₂   Female

2. Date of Birth: (dd/mm/yy)   _____ / _____ / _____

3. Civil status: ❑₁   Single   ❑₂   Married
              ❑₃   Widow   ❑₄   Separated

4. Which country/place do you come from?   _____

5. Do you have any Chinese origin?   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No

6. How many children do you have?   a.   Aged 16 years or under   _____
                        b.   Aged over 16 years   _____

7. Education: ❑₁   No Qualification   ❑₂   High School
             ❑₃   Undergraduate Degree   ❑₄   Postgraduate Degree
             ❑₅   Others: _____

8. Do you have a religion?   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No
   If yes, do you practice it frequently?   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No
   If yes, do you practice it: ❑₁   alone   ❑₂   with family   ❑₃   with a group
   Are you currently part of a religion community? e.g., temple/church   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No

9. Nature of Organization: ❑₁   Education   ❑₂   Chemical/Pharmaceutical
                          ❑₃   Engineering   ❑₄   Production/Manufacturing
                          ❑₅   Services   ❑₆   Government (Embassies, etc.)
                          ❑₇   Entertainment   ❑₈   Electrical/Electronics/Computing
                          ❑₉   Others, please specify: _____

10. Your stationed location/city in China: _____

11. No. of *employees* in the PRC affiliate: _____ employees

12. No. of *expatriate workers* in the organization in the PRC: _____ expatriate workers

13. Job Classification: ❑₁   Top management   ❑₂   Senior Management/Professional
                  ❑₃   Middle Management/Technical   ❑₄   Junior management/supervisory
                  ❑₅   Engineer   ❑₆   Others, please specify _____

14. You are: ❑₁   A full expatriate sent to China by headquarters/company
            ❑₂   A locally hired foreign employee

15. How long have you   a. worked for *your organization* (to the nearest year)?   _____ years
                      b. been working *in China*?   _____ years _____ months

16. Had your company specified the *duration* of your China   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No
   assignment before they sent you here?
   If yes, how long is your assignment here?   _____ years

17. When are you planning to leave China?
   ❑₁   As soon as possible   ❑₂   Before end of assignment
   ❑₃   At the end of assignment   ❑₄   Sometime after end of assignment
   ❑₅   Never

18. Has any major event happened to you in the *last 3 months* which has had   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No
   a bad effect on you, e.g. death of close relative, redundancy of partner?

19. Have you had any major illness in the *last 3 months*?   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No

20. Are you subject to any ongoing negative pressures which started   ❑₁   Yes   ❑₂   No
   more than 3 months ago and are still having an impact?

1

21.	Do you smoke?		☐₁ Yes	☐₂ No

21. Do you smoke?   ☐₁ Yes   ☐₂ No
    If so, how many of each *per day*:   Cigarettes: _____   Cigars: _____

22. Do you drink?   ☐₁ Yes   ☐₂ No
    If so, how many units of alcohol do you drink in an *average week*? _____ units
    (NB: *a small bottle of beer/lager, a glass of wine, or a single measure of spirits are each one unit*)

23. How many days of sick leave have you taken in the **last three months**? _____ days

24. How many of these sick days did you take because you yourself were sick,
    as opposed to other reasons such as a family member being sick? _____ days

---

Please note the following when completing the rest of the questionnaire:
- Base your answers on how you have felt during **the last three months**.
- Please ensure you answer **every** question.
- Please **circle** the appropriate number on the scale for each question. For example ⑤. Please **do not** tick, underline or cross through your choice.
- Please answer the questions as they actually apply to you in your job and life. Do not answer theoretically. For example, in the "Sources of Pressure" section, if a question asks about the pressure from managing your staff and you do not have anyone working for you, you should answer ①, i.e. no pressure. **Do not** answer on the basis of how much pressure you would **expect** to feel if you had to manage staff.
- Be accurate and honest. If you make a mistake, cross it out and circle your new answer.

Section II: Motives for Accepting Assignment

People come to work in China for various reasons. Please check how well each statement describes the motives for you to accept working in China.

		Very Unlikely					Very Likely
1.	Dissatisfaction with conditions at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Previous experience of an overseas assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	A higher position in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Better compensation/Financial reasons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Enjoy more freedom to work here because of far away from headquarters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	China is a potential market and it grows very fast.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	China lacks of talent like me. I have more opportunities in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Earning experience in China adds values to my future career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Being in China at this moment has a sense of contribution to its growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Would like myself and my children to know more about the Chinese culture.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Believed environment in China would be better.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	A chance to gain international experience for myself and my family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Want to gain more experience in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section III: Training / Preparation before Moving to Assignment

1. Did you receive any training from your company for the China assignment?   ☐₁ Yes   ☐₂ No

    If yes, to what extent was the training you received from your company about your current assignment adequate?

Not Very Adequate					Very Adequate
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. How valuable was the training you received to your success in this foreign assignment?

Not Very Valuable					Very Valuable
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. How did you learn information about China before you came here? *(Circle as many boxes as applicable)*

4. Did it help you adjust in China? *(Please circle the appropriate answer)*

		Yes	No
☐₁	Company provided internal training or information.	Yes	No
☐₂	Company sponsored external training provided by external consulting firms.	Yes	No
☐₃	Through company provided "come and visit" trip to China.	Yes	No
☐₄	Gathered information from colleagues who had worked in or traveled to China.	Yes	No
☐₅	Gathered information from friends.	Yes	No

			Yes	No
$\square_6$	Searched and read books and magazines by myself.		Yes	No
$\square_7$	I studied/worked/lived here before.		Yes	No
$\square_8$	I studied/worked/lived in HK, Taiwan, or Macau before.		Yes	No
$\square_9$	I traveled to China before.		Yes	No
$\square_{10}$	I studied China or Chinese in college.		Yes	No
$\square_{11}$	Others, please specify: _____		Yes	No

5. Have you ever previously lived or worked in a country other than your own? $\square_1$ Yes $\square_2$ No
   If so, where?
   When? _____ And Duration? _____ years

6. Has your spouse/partner ever previously lived or worked in a country other than his/her own? $\square_1$ Yes $\square_2$ No $\square_3$ Not Applicable
   If yes, does it help his/her adjustment here? $\square_1$ Yes $\square_2$ No

7. What were your expectations about China before you came for this assignment?
   $\square_1$ No expectations at all $\square_2$ Expectations match with the reality
   $\square_3$ The real conditions were better than what I expected $\square_4$ Real conditions were worse than I expected

Section IV: Health Scale

1. In general, would you say your health is:

	Excellent	Very Good	Good	Fair	Poor
	1	2	3	4	5

2. *Compared to one year ago*, how would you rate your health in general *now*?

Much better now	Somewhat better now	About the same	Somewhat worse now	Much worse now
1	2	3	4	5

3. The following questions are about activities you might do during a typical day. Does your health now limit you in these activities? If so, how much?

		Yes, Limited a lot	Yes, Limited a little	No, not Limited at all
a.	**Vigorous activities**, such as running, lifting heavy objects, participating in strenuous sports	1	2	3
b.	**Moderate activities**, such as moving a table, pushing a vacuum cleaner, bowling, or playing golf	1	2	3
c.	Lifting or carrying groceries	1	2	3
d.	Climbing **several** flights of stairs	1	2	3
e.	Climbing **one** flight of stairs	1	2	3
f.	Bending, kneeling, or stooping	1	2	3
g.	Walking **more than a mile**	1	2	3
h.	Walking **several blocks**	1	2	3
i.	Walking **one block**	1	2	3
j.	Bathing or dressing yourself	1	2	3

4. During the *past 4 weeks*, have you had any of the following problems with your work or other regular daily activities as a result of your physical health?

		Yes	No
a.	Cut down on the **amount of time** you spent on work or other activities	1	2
b.	**Accomplished less** than you would like	1	2
c.	Were limited in the **kind** of work or other activities	1	2
d.	Had **difficulty** performing the work or other activities (for example, it took extra effort)	1	2

5. During the *past 4 weeks*, have you had any of the following problems with your work or other regular daily activities *as a result of any emotional problems* (such as feeling depressed or anxious)?

		Yes	No
a.	Cut down on the **amount of time** you spent on work or other activities	1	2
b.	**Accomplished less** than you would like	1	2
c.	Didn't do work or other activities as **carefully** as usual	1	2

6. During the past 4 weeks, to what extent has your physical health or emotional problems interfered with your normal social activities with family, friends, neighbors, or groups?

Not at all	Slightly	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	2	3	4	5

3

7. How much *bodily* pain have you had during the *past 4 weeks*?

None	Very mild	Mild	Moderate	Severe	Very severe
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. During the *past 4 weeks*, how much did pain interfere with your normal work (including both work outside the home and housework)?

Not at all	A little bit	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	2	3	4	5

9. These questions are about how you feel and how things have been with you during the past 4 weeks. For each question, please give the one answer that comes closest to the way you have been feeling.
   How much of the time during the *past 4 weeks*…

	All of the time	Most of the time	A good bit of the time	Some of the time	A little of the time	None of the time
a. Did you feel full of pep?	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. Have you been a very nervous person?	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. Have you felt so down in the dumps that nothing could cheer you up?	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. Have you felt calm and peaceful?	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. Did you have a lot of energy?	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. Have you felt downhearted and blue?	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. Did you feel worn out?	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. Have you been a happy person?	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. Did you feel tired?	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. During the **past 4 weeks**, how much of the time has your physical health or emotional problems interfered with your social activities (like visiting friends, relatives, etc.)?

All of the time	Most of the time	Some of the time	A little of the time	None of the time
1	2	3	4	5

11. How TRUE or FALSE is *each* of the following statements for you?

	Definitely true	Mostly true	Don't know	Mostly false	Definitely false
a. I seem to get sick a little easier than other people	1	2	3	4	5
b. I am as healthy as anybody I know	1	2	3	4	5
c. I expect my health to get worse	1	2	3	4	5
d. My health is excellent	1	2	3	4	5

Section V: Work and General Satisfaction

Work and General Satisfaction: This section concerns with how satisfied or dissatisfied you feel about your job and life in China. Please use the scale below to answer each question by circling the relevant number:

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very much dissatisfaction	Much dissatisfaction	Some dissatisfaction	Some satisfaction	Much satisfaction	Very much satisfaction

1.	Communication and the way information flows around your organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	The actual job itself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	The degree to which you feel "motivated" by your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	The style of supervision that your supervisors use.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	The way changes and innovations are implemented.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	The kind of work or tasks you are required to perform.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	The degree to which you feel that you can personally develop or grow in your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	The way in which conflicts are resolved in your organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	The degree to which your job taps the range of skills which you feel you possess.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	The psychological "feel" or climate that dominates your organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	The design or shape of your organization's structure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	The degree to which you feel extended in your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Living in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Your compensation package.	1	2	3	4	5	6

4

15.	The job challenge of your current assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Being and working in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	The job responsibilities you bear.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	The career impact of your current assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section VI: Experiences Within China

A: Living in China

1. To what extent have you adjusted to Chinese life and culture?

Not At All					Completely
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. What are your opinions about the local environment?

		Completely Disagree					Completely Agree
a.	The environment is crowded.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	The environment is polluted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	Catching a taxi to work in the morning is easy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	It is noisy here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	The weather in China is nice.	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	There are many counterfeited products.	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	The quality of Western restaurants is poor, e.g., foods are not cooked well and are expensive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	The quality of medical care is good.	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	Chinese foods are healthy and delicious.	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	There is a lack of accessibility of many products, e.g., daily products, and medicines.	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	The infrastructure/transportation system in China is poor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
l.	Doing shopping is enjoyable in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
m.	Local drivers never follow traffic rules and signs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
n.	Safety/security is in concern.	1	2	3	4	5	6
o.	My living accommodation is nice in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
p.	The general living conditions are poor in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6

B: Interaction with Local People

3. Please specify your Chinese language skill.

Speak little or no Chinese					Speak Fluent Chinese
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. How often do you speak Chinese with locals?

Not at all					Constantly
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. Are you currently taking Chinese language classes? ❑₁ Yes ❑₂ No

6. Did your company promise to pay/sponsor your language classes? ❑₁ Yes ❑₂ No

7. According to your experience, what are your opinions about local people?

		Completely Disagree					Completely Agree
a.	Local people are kind to foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	Local people are impolite.	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	Local people are non-materialistic.	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	Local people approach foreigners because they want to take advantage at them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	Local people do not cheat foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	Local people spit in street.	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	Local people trust foreigners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	Local people respect foreigners more than overseas (ethnic) Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	Local people have different leisure activities from mine.	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	Local people have resent overseas Chinese people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	Chinese people are extremely proud of themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6

5

250

l.	Conversation topics of local people are interesting.	1	2	3	4	5	6
m.	Local people have different pattern of life from mine.	1	2	3	4	5	6
n.	Local people talk quietly in public areas.	1	2	3	4	5	6
o.	Local people crash into you without apology in street.	1	2	3	4	5	6
p.	Interacting with Chinese in general is stressful.	1	2	3	4	5	6

C: Work-related issues

8. Please specify the frequency of your interaction with local employees?

No interaction				Constant interaction	
1	2	3	4	5	6

9. According to your experience, what are your opinions about local workers?

		Completely Disagree				Completely Agree	
a.	Local employees lack of needed skills.	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	Local employees are self-motivated to learn.	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	Local employees like to "talk behind" people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	Local employees are highly performed.	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	Local employees *do not like* to make decisions and take responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	Local employees are very concerned about face.	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	Local employees are reliable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	Local employees are very indirect.	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	Local employees are hard-working.	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	Local employees/managers are with good experiences.	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	Local employees lack of common sense.	1	2	3	4	5	6
l.	Local employees are short-term oriented.	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. How many hours are you *supposed to work* in a typical week? _____ hours

11. How many hours you *actually work* in a typical week? _____ hours

12. If you work extra hours, what is your reason?
- ❏₁ Through choice
- ❏₂ Expected to
- ❏₃ To get the job done
- ❏₄ Don't work extra hours

13. Headquarters usually responds to your request or message:
- ❏₁ Immediately
- ❏₂ In 24 hours
- ❏₃ In 48 hours
- ❏₄ In a week
- ❏₅ In 2 weeks
- ❏₆ In more than 2 weeks

14. Headquarters rewards me adequately for my efforts. ❏₁ Yes ❏₂ No

15. How many times in a year do you have business trips (inside and outside of China)? _____ times

D: Social Activities / Relaxation and Leisure

16. Would you say you have a good social life in China? ❏₁ Yes ❏₂ No

17. Who do you spend most of your free time with?
- ❏₁ Expatriates from my country
- ❏₂ Expatriates from other countries
- ❏₃ Expatriates who are ethnic/overseas Chinese
- ❏₄ Local Chinese
- ❏₅ I do not socialize with people
- ❏₆ I spend time with my family mostly

18. Your best friend(s) in China is (are):
- ❏₁ Expatriates from my country
- ❏₂ Expatriates from other countries
- ❏₃ Expatriates who are ethnic/overseas Chinese
- ❏₄ Local Chinese
- ❏₅ I have no good friend(s) here

19. How many home-leaves would you expect to take in a normal year?
- a. For business purpose: _____ times
- b. For visiting family: _____ times

20. How many rest and recreational trips/breaks would you expect to take in a normal year? _____ times

6

251

		1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	It is easy to find enjoyable leisure/recreational activities in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	There is a lack of outdoor activities in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	The leisure and outdoor activities available in China are high quality.	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. Do you find time to "relax and calm down"?
   - ❑₁ Always
   - ❑₂ Usually
   - ❑₃ When possible
   - ❑₄ Not usually

E: Effect on Spouse/partner

25. Is your spouse/partner stationed in China with you?
   - ❑₁ Yes, he/she is here
   - ❑₂ No, but he/she will come soon
   - ❑₃ No, he/she will not come here
   - ❑₄ I have no spouse/partner

26. If your spouse/partner is in China with you, how often do you spend time with him/her?
   - ❑₁ Less than when we were at home
   - ❑₂ Same as when we were at home
   - ❑₃ More than when we were at home

27. How has the relocation influenced your relationship with your spouse/partner?
   - ❑₁ I have no spouse/partner
   - ❑₂ The relocation has no effects on our relationship
   - ❑₃ Our relationship is getting worse after we moved to here
   - ❑₄ Our relationship is getting better and closer

Section VII: Sources of Pressure

Almost anything can be a source of pressure and people perceive things differently. The following items are all potential sources of pressure. Please rate them according to the amount of pressure you think they have placed on you during the **last 3 months**. Answer the questions as they actually apply to you in your job. If they do not apply to you do not make up the answers. For example, if a question asks about pressure from managing your staff and you do not manage any staff, you should answer ①, i.e. no pressure.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Very definitely is not a source	Definitely is not a source	Generally is not a source	Generally is a source	Definitely is a source	Very definitely is a source

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	Managing or supervising the work of other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Taking my work home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Underpromotion – working at a level below my level of ability.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Inadequate guidance and backup from superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Lack of consultation and communication.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Not being able to "switch off" at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Keeping up with new techniques, ideas, technology or innovations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Inadequate or poor quality of training/management development.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Attending meetings.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Lack of social support by people at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	My partner's attitude towards my job and career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Having to work very long hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Conflicting job tasks and demands in the role I play.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Discrimination and favouritism.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Feeling isolated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	A lack of encouragement from superiors.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Demands my work makes on my relationship with partner/children.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Being undervalued.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Having to take risks.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Inadequate feedback about my own performance.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Business travel.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Simply being seen as a "boss".	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Unclear promotion prospects.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Absence of emotional support from others outside work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Demands that work makes on my private/social life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Changes in the way you are asked to do your job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Simply being "visible" or "available".	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Lack of practical support from others outside work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Factors not under your direct control.	1	2	3	4	5	6

7

30.	Home life with a partner who is also pursuing a career.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Dealing with ambiguous or "delicate" situations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Having to adopt a negative role (such as sacking someone).	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	An absence of any potential career advancement.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Morale and organizational climate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	Making important decisions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	Implications of the mistakes you make.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	Opportunities for personal development.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	Absence of stability or dependability in home life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	Pursuing a career at the expense of home life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	Characteristics of the organization's structure and design.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	Time taken to obtain support from headquarters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	Participating in business-related/relationship building activities during non-office hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	Being available to make contact with headquarters after office hours.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	Lots of ambiguous rules and regulations.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	Rules and regulations are seldom published and are in Chinese.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	Working with Chinese co-workers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	Working with Chinese outside our company.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	Negotiation/Meeting with local business partners.	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	Possibility of getting a relevant/good job at home after my China assignment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	Headquarters lacks of understanding of local business environment.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	Developing *Quanxi* with business partners or government authorities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	Double standards to foreign and local firms.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	Being involved in roles/duties that are irrelevant to my position.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	Doing business with local customers/companies.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	Rules and regulations change so fast here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	Separation from family and friends at home.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Section VIII: Coping

Whilst there are variations in the ways individuals react to sources of pressure, generally speaking we all make some attempt at coping with these difficulties –consciously or subconsciously. This section lists several ways of coping. Please answer these questions by thinking about how you have dealt with issues or events that have been a source of pressure to you during the last three months.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Never used by me	Seldom used by me	On balance not used by me	On balance used by me	Extensively used by me	Very extensively used by me

1.	Resort to hobbies and pastimes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Try to deal with the situation objectively in an unemotional way.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Effective time management.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Talk to understanding *local friends.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Talk to understanding *expatriate friends.*	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Plan ahead.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Expand interests and activities outside work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Use selective attention (concentrating on specific problems).	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Set priorities and deal with problems accordingly.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Try to "stand aside" and think through the situation.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Seek as much social support from *local friends* as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Seek as much social support from *expatriate friends* as possible.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Don't let things get to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Keep calm under pressure.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Keep home and work separate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Find time to relax.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Enjoy life outside of work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Try to reduce my workload.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Share my concerns with other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Leisure traveling in China.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Leisure traveling to other Asian countries.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Hiring help (e.g. around the house).	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Simply go to sleep.	1	2	3	4	5	6

THANK YOU

8

253

駐華代表（人員）之生活體驗

問卷

郭愛媚

澳門大學

工商管理學院

電子郵箱**:**   **fbaomk@umac.mo**

地址**:**   郭愛媚 **(Kim Kuok)**

            澳門大學

            工商管理學院

            澳門郵箱 **3001**

            澳門

第一部分: 背景資料

以下的問題, 可能有一些不適用於您的情況. 但懇請回答那些適用於您情況的問題.

1.　性別 (請圈出適合的答案):　　　　　☐₁　男　　　　　　　☐₂　女

2.　出生日期 (年/月/日):　　　　　　　　_____ / _____ / _____

3.　婚姻狀況:　　　　　　　　　　　☐₁　未婚　　　　　　☐₂　已婚
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　☐₃　孤, 寡居 (喪偶)　　☐₄　離婚, 分居

4.　您來自那一個國家 / 地方?　　　　　_____

5.　您是否有中國人血統?　　　　　　☐₁　有　　　　　　　☐₂　沒有

6.　孩子數目:　　　　　　　　　　　a.　16 歲以下: _____ 名
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　b.　16 歲以上: _____ 名

7.　學歷:　　☐₁　小學　　　　☐₂　中學　　　　☐₃　大學
　　　　　　☐₄　研究所或以上　☐₅　其他, 請說明: _____

8.　是否有宗教信仰?　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　☐₁　有　　☐₂　沒有
　　如果有, 您是否時常敬拜或恭奉　　　　　　　　　☐₁　是　　☐₂　不是
　　如果是, 和誰一起敬拜或恭奉?　　☐₁　自己　　☐₂　家人　　☐₃　團體
　　您現在是否屬於任何宗教團體之成員? 例如: 廟宇或教堂　☐₁　是　☐₁　不是

9.　工作機構性質:　☐₁　教育　　　☐₂　化學/醫藥　　　☐₃　工程
　　　　　　　　　☐₄　製造業　　☐₅　服務業　　　　☐₆　政府 (例如: 大使館)
　　　　　　　　　☐₇　娛樂　　　☐₈　電機工程/電子/電腦　☐₉　其他, 請說明: _____

10.　您在中國何處為駐點:　　_____ 省　_____ 縣　_____ 市

11.　中國境內公司的總員工數目共:　_____ 人

12.　中國境內公司的**外籍員工**數目(包括來自台灣, 香港, 澳門或其他國家的員工)共:　_____ **名外籍員工**

13.　您在公司中屬哪一類管理人員?　☐₁　高層　　☐₂　專業人士　☐₃　中層
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　☐₄　基層　　☐₅　工程師　　☐₆　其他, 請說明: _____

14.　您是　　☐₁　被公司派到中國工作　　　☐₂　到中國後才找到現時的工作

15.　您在　　a.　**這公司**工作了多少年?　_____ 年
　　　　　　b.　**中國**工作了多少年?　　_____ 年

16.　在您被公司派到中國之前, 公司是否有口頭知會您在中國工作的年期?　☐₁　有　☐₂　沒有
　　如果有, 年期為多少?　　　　　_____ 年

17.　您預計在那時離開中國?
　　☐₁　愈快愈好　　　　　　　　　　　☐₂　在完成公司譴派的工作年期之前
　　☐₃　完成公司譴派的工作年期後馬上離開　☐₄　完成公司譴派的工作年期後一段時間才離開
　　☐₅　計劃不離開

18.　在過去三個月中, 您是否遇到了對您有負面影響的事件?　☐₁　有　☐₂　沒有

19.　在過去三個月中, 您是否患過任何嚴重疾病?　☐₁　有　☐₃　沒有

20.　在過去三個月或以前有否經歷負面的壓力, 而其影響仍然存在?　☐₁　有　☐₂　沒有

21.　您抽煙嗎?　　　　　　　　　　　☐₁　抽　　　☐₂　不抽
　　如果抽的話, 每天抽多少?　香煙: _____ 枝,　雪茄: _____ 枝

1

22. 您喝酒嗎?   ☐$_1$ 喝   ☐$_2$ 不喝
   如果喝酒的話, 平均每個星期多少單位   _____ 單位
   (一單位等於一小瓶啤酒, 一杯葡萄酒或一小杯烈酒)

23. 在過去三個月中, 您用了多少天病假?   _____ 天

24. 那些病假裏, 有幾天是因為您自己病了, 而不是因為家人生病而請假?   _____ 天

在回答問卷其他部份時, 希望您可以:
- 以你**過去三個月裏**的感受作為回答的基準
- 請回答所有問題
- 請圈出最能表達您狀況(程度)的數字. 例如 ⑤. 請不要在答案旁邊 ✓, 在<u>下面畫線</u>或畫掉答案
- 按照您工作及生活上的實際情況回答問題. 請不要假設回答. 例如, 在``壓力來源''部份, 如果問題是關於管理下屬的壓力, 而您沒有下屬, 您的答案應該是 ① 沒有壓力. 不要假設在您有管理下屬的壓力情況而作答
- 請給予最准確及誠實的答案. 如果填錯了一個答案, 請刪掉它, 再圈出新的答案
- 感謝各位對問卷的支持, 謝謝!

第二部份: 到中國工作的原因

每一個到中國工作的人都有不同的原因. 請於下列各個原因, 圈出最能反映您狀況的程度

	絕對不可能 之原因				絕對有可能 之原因	
1. 對自己的國家情況感到不滿意	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 曾經有在外地工作的經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 這裏工作的職位比較高	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 這裏的補助 / 福利條件較優厚	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 由於與總公司距離較遠, 工作上享有較大自由度	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 中國是有潛力的市場, 而她的發展很快	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 中國缺乏像我這樣的人才, 我可以有很多機會	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 在中國的工作經驗對我的前途有所幫助	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 這一個時間在中國工作, 我感到對中國的發展有很大貢獻	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 喜歡(希望)自己及孩子對中國文化有更多的了解	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 相信中國的環境比自己國家或之前所派駐工作地方的環境還要好	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 可給自己及家人一個獲得國際經驗的機會	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 希望吸取更多的中國經驗	1	2	3	4	5	6

第三部份: 到中國之前的準備及培訓

1. 您有否接受過公司提供到中國工作的培訓?   ☐$_1$ 有   ☐$_2$ 沒有
   如果有, 培訓對您現時的工作是否足夠?

非常不足夠					非常足夠
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. 所接受的培訓對您現在工作的成功有多大價值?

沒有價值					非常有價值
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. 您到這裏之前怎樣獲得中國的資料?   4. 它對您適應中國的環境有沒有幫助?
   (請圈選所有合適的答案)   (請圈選合適的答案)

		有 / 沒有
☐$_1$	公司內部所提供的培訓及資料	有 沒有
☐$_2$	公司贊助的外間培訓及顧問資料	有 沒有
☐$_3$	公司提供到這裏實地了解情況之機會	有 沒有
☐$_4$	從到過中國旅遊及工作的同事中打聽資料及情況	有 沒有
☐$_5$	從朋友得悉資料	有 沒有
☐$_6$	書本及報章雜誌	有 沒有
☐$_7$	曾在中國接受教育 / 工作 / 居住	有 沒有
☐$_8$	曾在香港, 台灣, 或澳門接受教育 / 工作 / 居住	有 沒有
☐$_9$	曾到中國旅遊	有 沒有
☐$_{10}$	在大學曾修讀中文或有關中國的課程	有 沒有
☐$_{11}$	其他, 請說明:_____	有 沒有

2

5. 在此地之前您有否在您出生之外的國家工作或居住？　　　　☐₁　有　　　☐₂　沒有
   如果有, 請問在哪裏？　＿＿＿＿＿＿＿＿
   何時？　　　　　　　　　　　19＿＿＿年　至　19＿＿＿年

6. 您的配偶 / 伴侶是否曾在原居地以外的國家居住或工作？ ☐₁ 有　　☐₂ 沒有　　☐₃ 沒有配偶/伴侶
   如果有, 這些經驗對他們適應中國的環境有沒有幫助？　☐₁ 有　　☐₂ 沒有

7. 到這裏工作之前, 您對中國有何期望？
   ☐₁　完全沒有期望　　　　　　　　　　☐₂　期望與現實相乎
   ☐₃　真實情況比想像中好　　　　　　　☐₄　真實情況比想像差

第四部份: 健康狀況

1. 一般來說, 您認為您目前的健康狀況是:

極好的	很好	好	普通	不好
1	2	3	4	5

2. 和一年前比較, 您認為您目前的健康狀況是？

比一年前好很多	比一年前好一些	和一年前差不多	比一年前差一些	比一年前差很多
1	2	3	4	5

3. 下面是一些您日常可能從事的活動, 請問您目前健康狀況會不會限制您從事這些活動? 如果會, 到底限制有多少? (每行請僅圈選一項答案)

活　　動	會,受到 很多限制	會,受到 一些限制	不會,完全 不受限制
a. **費力活動**, 例如跑步, 提重物, 參與劇烈運動	1	2	3
b. **中等程度活動**, 例如搬桌子, 拖地板, 打保齡球, 或打太極拳	1	2	3
c. 提起或攜帶食品雜貨	1	2	3
d. 爬數層樓梯	1	2	3
e. 爬一層樓梯	1	2	3
f. 彎腰, 跪下或蹲下	1	2	3
g. 走路**超過 1 公里**	1	2	3
h. 走過**數個街口**	1	2	3
i. 走過一個街口	1	2	3
j. 自己洗澡或穿衣	1	2	3

4. 在**過去一個月**內, 您是否曾因**為身體健康問題**, 而在工作上或其他日常活動方面有下列任何的問題? (每行請僅圈選一項答案)

	是	否
a. 工作或其它活動的**時間**減少	1	2
b. 完成的工作量比您想要**完成的較少**	1	2
c. 可以做的工作或其他活動的**種類**受到限制	1	2
d. 工作或其他活動**有困難** (例如, 感覺更吃力)	1	2

5. 在**過去一個月**內, 您是否曾因**為情緒問題** (例如, 感覺沮喪或焦慮), 而在工作上或其他日常活動方面有下列的問題? (每行請僅圈選一項答案)

	是	否
a. 工作或其他活動的**時間**減少	1	2
b. 完成的工作量比您想要完成的較少	1	2
c. 工作或其他活動不如以往小心	1	2

6. 在**過去一個月**內, 您的身體健康或情緒問題, 對您與家人或朋友, 鄰居, 社團間的平常活動的妨礙程度如何?

完全 沒有妨礙	有一點 妨礙	中度 妨礙	相當 多妨礙	妨礙到 極點
1	2	3	4	5

3

7. 在過去一個月內, 您身體疼痛程度有多嚴重?

完全 不痛	非常輕微 的痛	輕微 的痛	中度 的痛	嚴重 的痛	非常 嚴重的痛
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. 在過去一個月內, 身體疼痛對您的日常工作(包括上班及家務)妨礙程度如何?

完全 沒有妨礙	有一點 妨礙	中度 妨礙	相當 多妨礙	妨礙到 極點
1	2	3	4	5

9. 下列各項問題是關於過去一個多內您的感覺及您周遭生活的感受, 請針對每一問題選一最接近您感覺的答案. 在過去一個月中有多少時候……… (每行請僅圈選一項答案)

		一直 都是	大部分 時間	經常	有時	很少	從不
a.	您覺得充滿活力?	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	您是一個非常緊張的人?	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	您覺得非常沮喪, 沒有任何事情可以讓您高興起來?	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	您學得心情平靜?	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	您精力充沛?	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	您覺得悶悶不樂和憂鬱?	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	您覺得筋疲力竭?	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	您是一個快樂的人?	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	您覺得累?	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. 在過去一個月內, 您的身體健康或情緒問題有多少時候會妨礙您的社交活動(如拜訪親友等)?

一直都會	大部分時間會	有時候會	很少會	從不會
1	2	3	4	5

11. 下列各個陳述對您來說有多正確?(每行請僅圈選一項答案)

		完全 正確	大部分 正確	不 知道	大部分 不正確	完全 不正確
a.	我好像比別人較容易生病	1	2	3	4	5
b.	和任何一個我認識的人來比, 我和他們一樣健康	1	2	3	4	5
c.	我想我的健康會越來越壞	1	2	3	4	5
d.	我的健康狀況好得很	1	2	3	4	5

第五部份: 工作及整體滿意程度

這部份涉及在中國工作及生活的滿意或不滿意的程度, 請簡單圈出每一項的答案

		1 極為不滿	2 非常不滿	3 有些不滿	4 有些滿意	5 非常滿意	6 極為滿意
1.	您所在機構的內外溝通與信息流動的方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	對您的實際工作本身	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	工作對你的激勵程度	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	您的上級對你採取的管理風格	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	您所在機構實施變革與改革的方式	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	您需要執行的工作和任務的類型	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	在目前崗位中您個人發展的空間	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	公司解決內部衝突的方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	您感到您所擁有的技能被你的工作充分利用	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	對公司之工作氣氛	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	您所在公司的架構形式	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	在您的工作中您感到的發展機會	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	在中國生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	薪金及福利	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	您現時工作的挑戰性	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	在中國工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	工作上所承受的責任	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	您現時工作對您將來事業的影響性	1	2	3	4	5	6

4

第六部份: 在中國的經驗

A. 在中國生活

1. 您對中國的生活及文化的適應程度是

全完不適應					完全適應
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. 您對此地環境的意見如何?

	完全不同意					完全同意
a. 環境很擠擁	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. 環境被污染	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. 每天早上上班, 很容易便能僱到出租汽車 (的士)	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. 這裏的環境很嘈吵	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. 這裏的天氣很好	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. 這裏有很多假冒貨品	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. 這裏的西餐廳水準差. 例如食物烹調得不好及價格高	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. 醫療水準很好	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. 中國菜很健康及美味	1	2	3	4	5	6
j. 對很多貨品都無法接觸或購買. 例如: 日用品或藥物	1	2	3	4	5	6
k. 基本交通運輸 / 交通設施很不便利	1	2	3	4	5	6
l. 在這裏購物是一種享受	1	2	3	4	5	6
m. 本地駕駛司機絕不遵守交通規則及路標	1	2	3	4	5	6
n. 這裏安全及治安仍是問題	1	2	3	4	5	6
o. 我在中國的居住環境很好	1	2	3	4	5	6
p. 中國的整體生活條件很差	1	2	3	4	5	6

B. 與本地人交往

3. 您的中文語言能力

完完不懂或可講少量普通話				可講流利普通話	
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. 是否時常與本地人交談

完全不交談				經常交談	
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. 您現時有否上學習普通話的課程?　　❑1 有　　　❑2 沒有

6. 您的公司是否曾經承諾資助您進修普通話?　❑1 有　　　❑2 沒有

7. 就您自身經驗而言, 您對下列關於本地人的陳述意見如何?

	完全不同意					完全同意
a. 本地人對外國人很友善	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. 本地人沒有禮貌	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. 本地人不追求物質享樂	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. 本地人接近外國人是希望可獲取利益	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. 本地人不會欺騙外國人	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. 本地人隨處吐痰	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. 本地人很相信外國人	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. 本地人尊重外國人多於尊重華僑, 台灣人及港澳人	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. 本地人的優閑活動 (娛樂) 跟我的不一樣	1	2	3	4	5	6
j. 本地人對華僑, 台灣人及港澳人有反感	1	2	3	4	5	6
k. 中國人對自己感到非常自豪	1	2	3	4	5	6
l. 本地人的話題 (談話題目) 很有趣	1	2	3	4	5	6
m. 本地人的生活習慣跟我的不一樣	1	2	3	4	5	6
n. 本地人在公眾場合時說話聲音很小	1	2	3	4	5	6
o. 本地人在街上碰撞了別人不會說 ``對不起``	1	2	3	4	5	6
p. 與本地人交往有壓力	1	2	3	4	5	6

5

259

C. 與工作有關事項

8. 是否時常與本地員工接觸?

沒有接觸					時常接觸
1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**	**6**

9. 就您的經驗而言, 您對本地員工的感覺如何?

		完全 不同意					完全 同意
a.	本地員工缺乏需要的技能	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	本地員工能自我激勵去學習	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	本地員工喜歡在別人背後``說閑話``(東家長, 西家短)	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	本地員工的工作表現很好	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	本地員工**不喜歡**作決定和負責任	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	本地員工非注重``面子``	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	本地員工很可靠	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	本地員工非常不直接	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	本地員工很勤奮	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	本地員工／管理人員工作經驗豐富	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	本地員工缺乏常識	1	2	3	4	5	6
l.	本地員工比較短視(著重短期利盆)	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. 您每個星期**應該**工作多少個小時? _____ 小時

11. 您每個星期**實際**工作多少個小時? _____ 小時

12. 您超時工作的原因是:
  ☐₁ 有選擇性的   ☐₂ 公司期望我超時工作
  ☐₃ 完成工作   ☐₄ 我不超時工作

13. 總公司通常需要多少時間回應您的要求或信息
  ☐₁ 立即   ☐₂ 24 小時內   ☐₃ 48 小時內
  ☐₄ 一星期內   ☐₅ 兩星期內   ☐₆ 多於兩星期

14. 總公司適當地報酬您工作上的努力   ☐₁ 是   ☐₂ 否

15. 您每年需要多少次公幹(包括到中國境內或到其他國家)? 約 _____ 次

D. 社交／休間活動

16. 您會否覺得您在中國的社交活動(生活)很好?   ☐₁ 是   ☐₂ 否

17. 您的空閒時間和誰一起?
  ☐₁ 來自**我的國家或地方**而在這裡工作的人   ☐₂ 來自**其他國家或地區**而在這裡工作的人
  ☐₃ 香港, 澳門, 台灣人或華僑   ☐₄ 本地人
  ☐₅ 我不和人交往   ☐₆ 我多和家人一起

18. 您在中國最好的朋友是:
  ☐₁ 來自**我的國家或地方**而在這裡工作的人   ☐₂ 來自**其他國家或地區**而在這裡工作的人
  ☐₃ 香港, 澳門, 台灣人或華僑   ☐₄ 本地人
  ☐₅ 我在這裡沒有好朋友

19. 平均每年回家(來自的國家)多少次?   a. 因公幹回家: _____ 次
    b. 因探親回家: _____ 次

20. 您每年可享用多少次出外渡假? _____ 次

		完全 不同意					完全 同意
21.	在中國有很多康娛／消遣活動	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	在中國缺少戶外活動	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	這裡的康娛及戶外活動環境及實素很高	1	2	3	4	5	6

6

260

24. 您有時間放鬆和減壓一下嗎?
　　☐₁　時常　　　　　☐₂　經常　　　　　☐₃　如有可能時　　　　☐₄　不常

E. 對伴侶的影響
25. 您的伴侶是否都在中國?
　　☐₁　是　　　　　　　　　　　　　☐₂　不是, 但他 / 她很快便來這裡
　　☐₃　不是, 他 / 她不會來　　　　　☐₄　我沒有伴侶

26. 如果您的伴侶在中國, 您有多少時間和他 / 她一起?
　　☐₁　比來中國前少　　　　　　　　☐₂　和來中國前一樣
　　☐₃　比來中國前多

27. 來中國工作怎樣影響您與伴侶的關係?
　　☐₁　我沒有伴侶　　　　　　　　　☐₂　到這裡工作沒有影響我們的關係
　　☐₃　到這裡之後我們的關係變差了　☐₄　我們的關係變得更好

第七部份: 壓力來源

幾乎所有事情都能成為壓力的來源. 而每個人對事物的感受或處理方式亦會不同. 以下各項均是潛在的壓力來源. 請就你過去三個月的狀況, 根據每項對您產生壓力的大小, 按照其對您工作及生活的實際影響作答, 不要作假設回答. 例如, 如果問題關於管理下屬的壓力, 而您不需管理下屬, 您的答案應該是 ①, 沒有壓力. 謝謝支持!

	1 非常肯定不是 一種壓力來源	2 肯定不是 一種壓力來源	3 通常不是 一種壓力來源	4 通常是 一種壓力來源	5 肯定是 一種壓力來源	6 非常肯定是 一種壓力來源
1. 管理和監督其他人的工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 帶工作回家做	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 現時的工作位置, 無法完全發揮所長	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 上級沒有給予足夠的指導及支援	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 缺乏咨詢和溝通	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 在家中不能 ``解除`` 工作負擔	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 需要跟上新技能, 觀念, 技術或革新	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 沒有足夠的培訓 / 管理開發或是質量差	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 出席會議	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. 工作中缺乏同事的友好支持	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 伴侶對我的工作和事業的態度	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 工作時間很長	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. 工作上我所擔任角色和任務的衝突	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. 歧視和偏愛	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 感到被隔離	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. 缺乏來自上級的鼓勵	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. 工作對我與伴侶 / 孩子關係的影響	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. 對公司的貢獻, 不被承認 (或被貶低)	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. 環境使得, 不得不冒險	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. 我工作成績沒有受到適量的回應	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. 因公事而旅行	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. 單純地被認作 ``老板``	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. 不明朗的升職前景	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. 缺乏工作以外其他人情緒上的支持	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. 工作對我的私人 / 社交生活的要求	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. 被要求改變工作方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. 只被認為是 ``可見`` 或 ``可用`` 的人	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. 缺少來自工作以外的其他人之實際支持	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. 工作上不由您直接控制的因素	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. 與一個同樣追求事業的伴侶的家庭生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. 處理不明朗或 ``微妙`` 形勢	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. 不得不擔任一些負面的角色 (例如扮演 ″黑臉″ 去解顧他人)	1	2	3	4	5	6

7

33.	無任何事業發展的可能性	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	工作士氣和公司風氣	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	作出重大決策	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	您工作上所犯的錯誤對其他人或事的牽連 (影響)	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	個人發展機會	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	無隱定或可以依靠的家庭生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
39.	爲追求事業而放棄家庭生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
40.	公司架構之影響	1	2	3	4	5	6
41.	等待總公司支援需時	1	2	3	4	5	6
42.	在工餘時間參與一些工作上建立關係的活動	1	2	3	4	5	6
43.	在工餘時間與總公司聯絡	1	2	3	4	5	6
44.	這裡很多不清晰規條和條例	1	2	3	4	5	6
45.	這裡規條和條例很少公佈而且是中文的	1	2	3	4	5	6
46.	在公司裡需要與本地人一起工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
47.	對外方面要與本地人一起工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
48.	與本地生意伙伴接洽 / 見面 / 商議	1	2	3	4	5	6
49.	完成工作後回到原來的國家 (地方), 是否可找到合適工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
50.	總公司不熟悉中國的地方及營商環境	1	2	3	4	5	6
51.	與營商伙伴及政府部門拉關係	1	2	3	4	5	6
52.	外資公司與本地公司受到不同對侍	1	2	3	4	5	6
53.	需要參與及負責一些與我職位無關的工作	1	2	3	4	5	6
54.	與本地公司及客戶在工作上往來	1	2	3	4	5	6
55.	規條和條例很快更改	1	2	3	4	5	6
56.	與家人及朋友分離	1	2	3	4	5	6

第八部份: 怎樣應付壓力

雖然每個個體對壓力的反應各自不同, 但一般來說我們都有意識或下意識的作出努力來對待這些困難. 最後的部份列出若干個可能採取的策略. 請按照過去三個月您如何應付作爲壓力來源的事情來作答

	1 我從不 使用	2 我很少 使用	3 我通常 不用	4 我有時 使用	5 我時常 使用		6 我經常 使用

1.	用嗜好和消遣分散注意力	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	以理智及客觀方法處理問題	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	有效掌管時間	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	向能理解的本地朋友訴說	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	向能理解而又是來自外地的朋友訴說	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	事先計劃	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	擴展工作以外的興趣和活動	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	把注意力集中於特殊問題	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	把事情 / 問題的重要性排序, 再按其次序作先後的解決	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	保持客觀, 仔細思考形勢	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	尋找本地朋友在精神上及友誼上的支持	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	尋找與自己一樣都是來自外地的朋友在精神上及友誼上的支持	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	盡力避免麻煩	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	在壓力下保持冷靜	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	把家庭與工作分開	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	安排時間放鬆自己	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	享受工作以外的生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	努力減輕自己工作量	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	與朋友一起分擔煩惱	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	在中國作一些消閑的旅遊	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	在其他亞洲地區作一些消閑的旅遊	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	顧請助理, 例如: 家務助或司機	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	睡覺	1	2	3	4	5	6

--- 多 謝 ---

8

Japanese Version of the Questionnaire

中国に住む海外赴任者
の生活に関するアンケート

作成者

マカオ大学

経営学科

Kim, Oi Mei Kuok

Email アドレス   **fbaomk@umac.mo**

郵便住所：   **Kim Kuok**

          FBA

          Macau P.O.Box 3001

          Macau (Via Honk Kong)

まず最初に、以下の質問事項に回答してください。自分に直接関係のない質問事項があるかもしれませんが、なるべく多くに回答してください。

1. 性別（該当項目を円で囲んでください）　　□₁　男　　　　□₂　女

2. 生年月日：(日/月/年)　　　　　　　　　　　　　／　　／

3. 婚姻上の立場：　　　　　　　　□₁　独身　　　　　　□₂　既婚
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　□₃　死別　　　　　　□₄　離婚

4. 出身国　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　

5. 中国系ですか　　　　　　　　　□₁　はい　　　　　　□₂　いいえ

6. 子供は何人ですか　　　　　　a.　16歳以上　　　　　　　　　　人
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　b.　16歳以下　　　　　　　　　　人

7. 教育：　　　　　□₁　学位無し　　　　　　　□₂　高校
　　　　　　　　　□₃　大学学部　　　　　　　□₄　大学院
　　　　　　　　　□₅　その他：　　　　　　　　　　

8. 宗教を信仰していますか　　　　　　　　　　　　□₁　はい　　□₂　いいえ
　　はいの場合、積極的に宗教活動をおこないますか　□₁　はい　　□₂　いいえ
　　はいの場合、誰とおこないますか：　□₁　一人で　□₂　家族と　□₃　グループで
　　現在寺や教会などの宗教団体に属していますか　　□₁　はい　　□₂　いいえ

9. 勤務先の種類：　　　　□₁　教育　　　　　　　　　　□₂　化学・薬学
　　　　　　　　　　　　□₃　エンジニア　　　　　　　□₄　製造・生産
　　　　　　　　　　　　□₅　サービス　　　　　　　　□₆　政府（大使館等）
　　　　　　　　　　　　□₇　エンターテインメント　　□₈　電気・電子工学・コンピューター
　　　　　　　　　　　　□₉　その他：　　　　　　　　

10. 中国での赴任先地名・市名：　　　　　　　　　

11. 中国支社の従業員数：　　　　　　　　　　人

12. 中国内の組織内における海外からの赴任社員数：　　　　　　　人

13. 職務：　　　□₁　幹部　　　　　　　　　　　　□₂　シニアマネジメント・専門職
　　　　　　　□₃　ミドルマネジメント・技術職　□₄　ジュニアマネジメント・スーパーバイザー
　　　　　　　□₅　エンジニア　　　　　　　　　□₆　その他　　　　　　　　

14. あなたは：　□₁　本部・会社から中国へ派遣されている
　　　　　　　　□₂　地元で雇用された外国人社員である

15. あなたは今までどのくらい　a.　あなたの会社に勤務していますか　　　　　　年
　　　　　　　　　　　　　　　b.　中国に住んでいますか　　　　　　年　　　　月

16. あなたの会社は、あなたを中国に派遣する以前に派遣年数を特定しましたか　□₁　はい　□₂　いいえ
　　はいの場合、派遣年数は何年ですか　　　　　　　　　　　年

17. 中国をいつ去る予定ですか
　　□₁　できるだけ早く　　　　　　　　□₂　派遣任務が終わる前に
　　□₃　派遣任務が終了したとき　　　　□₄　派遣任務終了後のいつか
　　□₅　去らない

1

264

18.	今から3ヶ月前までの間に、親近者の死やパートナーの解雇など、あたなに悪い影響を及ぼした事件がおこりましたか	❏₁ はい	❏₂ いいえ
19.	今から3ヶ月前までになにか大病にかかりましたか	❏₁ はい	❏₂ いいえ
20.	今から3ヶ月以上前になにかあなたに悪いプレッシャーを与える事件がおこり、あなたはまだその影響を被っていますか？	❏₁ はい	❏₂ いいえ

21. 喫煙しますか   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ
      はいの場合、一日何本吸いますか   タバコ: _____   葉巻: _____

22. 飲酒しますか   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ
      はいの場合、1週間の平均飲量はどのくらいですか   _____
      (ビール小瓶、ワイン1グラス、蒸留酒1グラスを単位としてください)

23. 過去3ヶ月で何日病欠しましたか   _____ 日

24. 病欠日数のうち、家族の病気ではなく、自分自身の病気のためにとったのは何日ですか   _____ 日

残りの質問事項に回答する際に、以下の点に注意してください：
- 過去3ヶ月のあなたの気持ちに基づいて回答してください。
- 全ての質問事項に回答してください。
- 各質問事項のスケール上で、該当する数字を円で囲んでください。チェックをつけたり、<u>下線を引いた</u>り、線引きしないでください。
- あなたの仕事や人生に実際に当てはまる回答をしてください。理論上の回答はしないでください。例えば、「プレッシャーの原因」の部において、あなたの部下を管理する際のプレッシャーに関する質問に関して、あなたに部下がいない場合には、「プレッシャーがない」と回答してください。部下がいることを**想定した**あなたの気持ちを回答**しない**でください。
- 正確に正直に回答してください。間違ったら線引きして、新しい回答を円で囲んでください。

第2部 派遣任務を承諾した動機

人は様々な理由で中国での仕事を選びます。あなたが中国での派遣任務を承諾した動機をよく表す項目を選んでください。

		全然あてはまらない				とてもよくあてはまる	
1.	自国での状況に不満足だから	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	以前の海外赴任の経験から	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	中国でより高い職位につける	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	よりよい報酬・金銭的条件	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	本部から離れているゆえ、自由に仕事ができる	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	中国市場の可能性と急速な成長	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	中国で私のような人材が不足しているため、出世しやすい	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	将来のキャリアに、中国での経験が役立つ	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	現在中国にいることはその成長に貢献することだ	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	自分と子供とが中国文化をもっと学べるように	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	中国の環境が向上することを信じて	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	自身と家族とが国際的な経験を得るチャンスだから	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	中国でもっと経験をつみたいから	1	2	3	4	5	6

第3部 派遣任務前のトレーニング・準備

1. 中国の派遣任務前に会社からトレーニングを受けましたか   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ
     はいの場合、そのトレーニングは現在の任務にとってどのくらい十分なものでしたか

あまり十分でない				非常に十分だった	
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. この海外任務の成功にとってトレーニングはどの程度重要でしたか

あまり重要でない					とても重要だった
1	2	3	4	5	6

3. ここに来る前に中国についてどのようにして知りましたか
（該当項目全てを○で囲んでください）
    4. それは中国に慣れる上で役立ちましたか（該当項目を○で囲んでください）

❏₁	会社が社内でトレーニングをしてくれたり情報をあたえてくれた	はい	いいえ
❏₂	会社が、社外のコンサルタントによる社外トレーニングを与えてくれた	はい	いいえ
❏₃	会社が、中国を知るために短い旅行をさせてくれた	はい	いいえ
❏₄	中国へ仕事または旅行で行ったことがある同僚から情報を仕入れた	はい	いいえ
❏₅	友人から情報を収集した	はい	いいえ
❏₆	自身で本や雑誌で調べた	はい	いいえ
❏₇	以前中国で勉強したり仕事をしたことがある	はい	いいえ
❏₈	香港、台湾またはマカオで勉強・仕事または生活したことがある	はい	いいえ
❏₉	以前中国に旅行したことがある	はい	いいえ
❏₁₀	大学で中国・中国語を勉強した	はい	いいえ
❏₁₁	その他:	はい	いいえ

5. 自国以外の国で生活したり仕事をした経験がありますか   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ
はいの場合、どこですか _____
いつでしたか _____   _____ 年

6. あなたの配偶者・パートナーは自国以外の国で   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ   ❏₃ あてはまらない
生活したり仕事をした経験がありますか
はいの場合、その経験は中国に慣れるのに役立っていますか   ❏₁ はい   ❏₂ いいえ

7. この派遣任務に就く以前にあなたが中国に抱いていた期待は何ですか
   ❏₁ 何も期待していなかった   ❏₂ 期待は現実と合っていた
   ❏₃ 実際の状況はきた以上によかった   ❏₄ 実際の状況は期待以下だった

第4部　健康状態

1. 概してあなたの健康状態は:

非常によい	とてもよい	よい	まあまあ	悪い
1	2	3	4	5

2. 1年前と比べて、現在の健康状態はどうですか

今はとてもよい	ある程度よくなった	殆ど同じ	いくらか今のほうが悪い	今はもっと悪い
1	2	3	4	5

3. 以下の質問は、通常の一日におけるあなたの活動に関するものです。あなたの現在の健康状態は、これらの活動を制限させるものですか？その場合、どのくらい制限されますか

		非常に制限される	少しだけ制限される	全く制限されない
a.	ランニング、重いものを持ち上げる、激しいスポーツに参加するなどの、**激しい活動**	1	2	3
b.	テーブルを動かす、掃除機を押す、ボーリング、ゴルフなどの**適度な活動**	1	2	3
c.	買い物袋を持ち上げたり、運ぶ	1	2	3
d.	階段を数段上る	1	2	3
e.	階段を1段上る	1	2	3
f.	かがむ、ひざまずく、屈伸する	1	2	3
g.	**1マイル以上歩く**	1	2	3

3

h.	数ブロック歩く	1	2	3
i.	1ブロック歩く	1	2	3
j.	風呂にはいる、着替える	1	2	3

4. 過去4週間の間で、あなたの肉体的な健康状態のために、仕事や日常活動に問題 　　　　はい　　いいえ
   が生じましたか

		はい	いいえ
a.	仕事や他の活動に費やす時間量を減らした	1	2
b.	自分が望んでいたよりも少ししか達成できなかった	1	2
c.	仕事や他の活動の種類が限られていた	1	2
d.	仕事や他の活動をおこなうのが困難だった（通常以上の努力が必要だった）	1	2

5. 過去4週間の間で、感情的な問題（うつまたはいらいらなど）のために、仕事や 　　　　はい　　いいえ
   その他の日常的な活動の際に以下の支障がありましたか

		はい	いいえ
a.	仕事やその他の活動に費やす時間量を減らした	1	2
b.	自分が望んでいたよりも少ししか達成できなかった	1	2
c.	いつもよりもていねいに仕事や活動ができなかった	1	2

6. 過去4週間の間で、あなたの肉体的健康または感情的な問題は、どの程度まで家族、友人、近所またはその他のグループとの通常の社交活動を阻みましたか

まったく阻まなかった	わずかに阻んだ	ほどほどに阻んだ	結構阻んだ	非常に阻んだ
1	2	3	4	5

7. 過去4週間の間に、どのくらい肉体的な苦痛がありましたか

全くない	とても軽く	軽く	ほどほどに	ひどく	とてもひどく
1	2	3	4	5	6

8. 過去4週間の間で、痛みはあなたの通常の仕事（家周りや家事以外の仕事も含めて）をどの程度阻みましたか

まったく阻まない	少々	ほどほどに	かなり	非常に阻む
1	2	3	4	5

9. 以下の質問は、過去4週間のあなたの感情や状況に関するものです。各質問について、あなたが過去4週間に感じて来た気持ちに最も近い項目を選んでください。
   過去4週間の間でどのくらい・・・

		常に	大体いつも	かなりいつも	ときどき	ほとんどない	まったくない
a.	活力に満ちてた	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	とても神経質だった	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	あまりに打ちのめされてしまい何をしても気持ちが晴れなかった	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	落ち着いていて安らかだった	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	エネルギーに溢れていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	気落ちしてブルーだった	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	疲れきっていた	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	幸せいっぱいだった	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	疲れていた	1	2	3	4	5	6

10. 過去4週間で、あなたの肉体的健康状態や感情的な問題はどの程度あなたの社交活動（友人や親戚を訪ねたり等）を阻みましたか

常に	殆ど常に	ときどき	ほとんどない	まったくない
1	2	3	4	5

11. 以下の項目は、あなたに関してどのくらい真実または嘘でしょうか

		全く真実	大体真実	分からない	大体嘘	全く嘘
a.	他の人より病気になりやすいようだ	1	2	3	4	5
b.	私の知人皆と同じく健康である	1	2	3	4	5
c.	健康状態が悪化すると思う	1	2	3	4	5
d.	健康状態は非常によい	1	2	3	4	5

4

267

第5部 仕事その他一般に対する満足度

仕事その他一般に対する満足度－この部は、中国での仕事と生活にあなたがどの程度満足または不満足であるかに関するものです。下のスケール上で、各質問に関し該当する数字を選んでください。

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	非常に 不満足	とても 不満足	いくらか 不満足	いくらか 満足	とても 満足	非常に 満足

1.	あなたの組織内でのコミュニケーションおよび情報の伝わり方	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	実際の仕事そのもの	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	仕事があなたをやる気にさせる度合い	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	あなたの上司の指導スタイル	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	変化や改革の実行方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	あなたが実行せねばならない仕事や任務の種類	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	あなたの仕事によって個人的な成長や発展が遂げられる度合い	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	あなたの組織内で衝突が解決される方法	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	あなたの仕事によって、持っている能力が使われる度合い	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	あなたの組織を占める心理的な"雰囲気"または傾向	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	あなたの組織の構成または状態	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	あなたの仕事において、能力が伸びた度合い	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	中国での生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	報酬の条件	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	現在の任務におけるやりがい度	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	中国で生活し働いていること	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	あなたが担う仕事上の責任	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	現在の任務があなたのキャリアに及ぼす影響	1	2	3	4	5	6

第6部 中国での経験

A: 中国での生活

1. 中国での生活や文化にどの程度まで慣れましたか

全く慣れない					完全に慣れた
1	2	3	4	5	6

2. 中国の環境についてどう思いますか

		全く同意 しない					完全に 同意する
a.	人が多すぎる	1	2	3	4	5	6
b.	公害で汚染されている	1	2	3	4	5	6
c.	朝、通勤用にタクシーを簡単に捕まえられる	1	2	3	4	5	6
d.	騒音がひどい	1	2	3	4	5	6
e.	天候がよい	1	2	3	4	5	6
f.	偽商品が多い	1	2	3	4	5	6
g.	西洋料理のレストランの質が悪い、例えば料理 はよく火が通っておらず、値段が高い	1	2	3	4	5	6
h.	医療の質が高い	1	2	3	4	5	6
i.	中華料理は健康的でおいしい	1	2	3	4	5	6
j.	日用品や薬など、多くの商品を手に入れにくい	1	2	3	4	5	6
k.	中国のインフラ・交通システムは悪い	1	2	3	4	5	6
l.	中国でのショッピングは楽しい	1	2	3	4	5	6
m.	地元のドライバーは交通ルールやサインを全く無視する	1	2	3	4	5	6
n.	安全性・治安が心配だ	1	2	3	4	5	6
o.	中国での私の住居はよい	1	2	3	4	5	6
p.	全体的に中国の生活条件は悪い	1	2	3	4	5	6

5

B: 地元の人々との交流

3. あなたの中国語のレベルを教えてください

殆どまたは全く中国 をしゃべらない					中国語を流暢にし ゃべる
1	2	3	4	5	6

4. 地元の人とどのくらい頻繁に中国語で話しますか

全くない					常に
1	2	3	4	5	6

5. 現在中国語の授業を受けていますか　　　　　❏₁ はい　　❏₂ いいえ

6. あなたの会社は語学学校の授業料を払うまたは勉強をスポンサーしていますか　❏₁ はい　　❏₂ いいえ

7. あなたの経験に基づいて、地元の人々についてどう思われますか

	全くそう 思わない					全くそう 思う
a. 人々は外国人に優しい	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. 人々は無礼だ	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. 人々は物質主義でない	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. 人々は、だます目的で外国人に近づいてくる	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. 人々は外国人をだまさない	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. 人々は道につばを吐く	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. 人々は外国人を信頼する	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. 人々は在外中国人よりも外国人を尊敬する	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. 人々には、私と違う余暇活動がある	1	2	3	4	5	6
j. 人々は、在外中国人を妬んでいる	1	2	3	4	5	6
k. 中国人は非常に誇り高い	1	2	3	4	5	6
l. 人々の会話のトピックは興味深い	1	2	3	4	5	6
m. 人々の生活パターンは私と違う	1	2	3	4	5	6
n. 人々は、公共の場で静かに話す	1	2	3	4	5	6
o. 人々は、道でぶつかっても謝らない	1	2	3	4	5	6
p. 中国人との交流はストレスが多い	1	2	3	4	5	6

C: 仕事に関する問題

8. どのくらい頻繁に地元の従業員と交流しますか

全く交流しない				常に交流する	
1	2	3	4	5	6

9. あなたの経験に基づき、地元の従業員についてどう思いますか

	全くそう でない					全くそう である
a. 必要な技術力がない	1	2	3	4	5	6
b. 学ぶ自己意欲がある	1	2	3	4	5	6
c. 影で悪口をいうのが好きだ	1	2	3	4	5	6
d. 高レベルな仕事をする	1	2	3	4	5	6
e. 判断を決定し責任を担うのが嫌いである	1	2	3	4	5	6
f. 顔を非常に気にする	1	2	3	4	5	6
g. 信頼できる	1	2	3	4	5	6
h. 非常にまわりくどい	1	2	3	4	5	6
i. 努力家である	1	2	3	4	5	6
j. （従業員又はマネジャーは）多くの経験を有する	1	2	3	4	5	6
k. 常識がない	1	2	3	4	5	6
l. ものの見方が短期的である	1	2	3	4	5	6

6

10. 通常、1週間に何時間**働く**予定になっていますか　　　　＿＿＿＿＿＿　時間

11. 通常、1週間に何時間**実際に**働きますか　　　　＿＿＿＿＿＿　時間

12. 時間外労働する場合、その理由はなんですか
- ☐₁　自分の選択
- ☐₂　当然のこととして要求されている
- ☐₃　仕事を片付けるため
- ☐₄　時間外労働しない

13. 本部はあなたの要求や意見に通常対応する:
- ☐₁　すぐに
- ☐₂　24時間以内に
- ☐₃　48時間以内に
- ☐₄　1週間以内に
- ☐₅　2週間以内に
- ☐₆　2週間以上以内に

14. 本部は、私の努力対し十分に報酬を与える　　☐₁　はい　　　☐₂　いいえ

15. 1年に何回出張しますか（中国内外）　　　　＿＿＿＿＿＿　回

D: 社交活動/リラクゼーションおよび余暇活動

16. あなたは中国でよい社交生活を送っているといえますか　　☐₁　はい　　☐₂　いいえ

17. 自由時間を誰と最も多く過ごしますか
- ☐₁　自国からの海外赴任者
- ☐₂　他国からの海外赴任者
- ☐₃　中国系・外地中国人の海外赴任者
- ☐₄　地元の中国人
- ☐₅　社交しない
- ☐₆　主に自分の家族

18. 中国でのあなたの親友は:
- ☐₁　自国からの海外赴任者
- ☐₂　他国からの海外赴任者
- ☐₃　中国系または外地中国人の海外赴任者
- ☐₄　地元の中国人
- ☐₅　ここにはよい友人がいない

19. 通常1年に何回自国に帰る予定ですか
- a.　ビジネスの目的で:　＿＿＿＿＿　回
- b.　家族に合う目的で:　＿＿＿＿＿　回

20. 通常1年に何回休暇およびレクリエーション用の旅行・休暇を取る予定ですか　＿＿＿＿＿　回

	全くそう思わない					全くそう思う
21. 中国内で楽しい余暇・レクリエーション活動を簡単にみつけられる	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. 中国にはアウトドアアクティビティーが不足している	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. 中国のレジャーおよびアウトドアアクティビティーは質が高い	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. "リラックスして安らかになる"時間をつくりますか
- ☐₁　常に
- ☐₂　たいてい
- ☐₃　可能な限り
- ☐₄　あまり

E: 配偶者・パートナーへの影響

25. あなたの配偶者・パートナーは一緒に中国に駐屯していますか
- ☐₁　はい、今一緒にいます
- ☐₂　いいえ、でも時期にまいります
- ☐₃　いいえ、ここには来ません
- ☐₄　配偶者・パートナーがいません

26. 配偶者・パートナーがあなたとともに中国にいる場合、あなたはどのくらいの時間を彼・彼女と一緒に過ごしますか
- ☐₁　自国でいたときより少ない
- ☐₂　自国にいたときと同じ
- ☐₃　自国でいたときより多く

27. ロケーションの違いは、あなたの配偶者・パートナーとの関係にどのように影響しましたか
- ☐₁ 配偶者・パートナーがいない
- ☐₂ ロケーションの違いは私達の関係に全く影響がない
- ☐₃ ここに移動してから関係が悪くなった
- ☐₄ 関係はよりよく、親密になった

第7部　プレッシャーの原因

およそ全ての事柄がプレッシャーの原因なり得ます。また人によって物事の受け止め方が違います。以下の項目は全てプレッシャーの可能性がある事柄です。**過去3ヶ月の間に、**これらの事柄があなたにプレッシャーを与えた度合いを採点してください。あなたの仕事に実際あてはまるように回答してください。あてはまらない場合に、答えをつくらないでください。例えば、あなたの部下を管理する際のプレッシャーに関する質問に関して、あなたに部下がいない場合には、「プレッシャーがない」と回答してください。部下がいることを想定したあなたの気持ちを回答しないでください。

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	全く確実に 原因ではない	確実に原因 ではない	大体において 原因ではない	大体において 原因である	確実に原因 である	全く確実に原因 である

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1.	他者の仕事の管理または監督	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	仕事を家に持ち帰る	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	プロモーションされない—自分の能力レベル以下の仕事をしている	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	不十分な指導および上司からのサポート	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	相談およびコミュニケーションの不足	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	家で仕事を忘れることができない	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	新しい技術、アイデア、テクノロジーまたは発明に追いつくこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	トレーニングやマネジメントの発展が不十分または質が悪い	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	ミーティングに出席すること	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	職場の人間からのサポートが不足している	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	自分の仕事およびキャリアに対するパートナーの態度	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	長時間働かなければならないこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	私の役割における任務と要求との矛盾性	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	差別および累屓主義	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	孤独感	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	上司からの奨励がない	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	パートナーや子供との関係に仕事が強いる負担	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	過小評価されている	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	リスクを負わねばならないこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	自分の業績に関するフィードバックが不十分である	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	出張	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	単に"上司"としてしか見られないこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	不明確な昇格の可能性	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	仕事以外の仲間からの感情的な支えがない	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	私のプライベート・社交生活に対して仕事が強いる負担	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	仕事が依頼される方法が変わった	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	単に"存在している"又は"間に合っている"だけであること	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	仕事以外の仲間から実地に役立つ支えがない	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	自分の直接のコントロールが及ばない要因	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	キャリアを追求するパートナーとの家庭生活	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	野心的又は"デリケートな"状況の処理	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	ネガティブな役割（誰かをクビにするなど）を負わねばならぬこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	将来性のあるキャリア昇進が全くないこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	倫理的および組織的な風潮	1	2	3	4	5	6
35.	重要な判断をドすこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
36.	犯した間違いが及ぼす波紋	1	2	3	4	5	6
37.	個人的発展の機会	1	2	3	4	5	6
38.	家庭生活における安定性又は信頼性の欠如	1	2	3	4	5	6

8

271

39. 家庭生活を犠牲にしてキャリアを追求すること	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. 組織の構成および構造の特徴	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. 本部からのサポートが得られるまでにかかる時間	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. 勤務時間外に仕事上の関係を築くための活動に参加すること	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. 勤務時間後に本部との連絡をとるためにオフィスに残ること	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. 不明確な規則や法則が沢山存在すること	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. 中国語の規則や法則は殆ど存在しないし、出版されない	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. 中国人の同僚と仕事をすること	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. 自分の会社外で中国人と仕事をすること	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. 地元の取引先と交渉やミーティングをおこなうこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
49. 中国の赴任後、自国で赴任任務に関連がある又はよい仕事に就ける可能性	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. 地元のビジネス状況に対する理解が本部に欠けている	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. 取引先又は政府と *Quanxi* (関係)を発展させること	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. 外国企業と地元企業に対するダブルスタンダード	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. 自分の職位に関係のない役割または任務に関わること	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. 地元の顧客や企業と仕事をすること	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. ここでは法則や規則が非常に早く変わってしまうこと	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. 自国にいる家族や友人と離れていること	1	2	3	4	5	6

第8部： 対処策

プレッシャーへの反応のしかたは人それぞれです。が、大抵の場合、人は困難な状況に対処する何らかの努力ー意識的であれ無意識的であれーをします。この部では、いくつかの対処策がリストされています。以下の質問事項に回答する際に、今から過去3ヶ月の間で、あなたへのプレッシャーの原因となった問題や出来事に対して、あなたがどうやって対処したかを考慮してください。

1	2	3	4	5	6
このように絶対に対処しない	めったにこのように対処しない	全てを考慮するとこのように対処しない	全てを考慮するとこのように対処する	よくこのように対処する	非常によくこのように対処する

1. 趣味や娯楽に頼る	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. 感情的にならずに、客観的に状況に対処するよう努力する	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. 時間を有効的に管理する	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. 理解力ある地元の友達に相談する	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. 理解力のある海外赴任者の友達に相談する	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. 先の見通しを立てる	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. 仕事以外に興味やアクティビティーを広げる	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. 特定の問題に注意力を集中させる(無駄なことに注意しない)	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. 優先すべきことを決めてから、問題に取り組む	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. "傍観"するよう心がけ、状況を十分把握する	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. 出来る限りのサポートを地元の友人に求める	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. 出来る限りのサポートを海外赴任者の友人に求める	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. いらいらしないようにする	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. プレッシャーがあっても平静でいるよう心がける	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. 家庭と仕事を区別するようにする	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. リラックスする時間をみつける	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. 仕事以外の生活を楽しむ	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. 仕事量を減らすよう努力する	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. 自分の悩みを他の人々に打ち明け、共有する	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. 中国を遊びで旅行する	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. 他のアジア諸国を遊びで旅行する	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. 手伝いを雇う（家事等）	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. 単純に寝る	1	2	3	4	5	6

ご協力有難うございました

9

272

Appendix F: Interview Guideline for Second Phase of Interview

1. What motivate you accept the assignment in China?

2. How long have you served your company?
   → Number of years that you have been in China?

3. How do you find your experience as an expatriate in China?
   → Anything good? e.g. work vs. nonwork
   → Anything bad? e.g. work vs. nonwork

4. Any problems you encountered here (work or nonwork)? What are they? How do you solve them?

5. What contributions would your current experience bring to your career path? Life?

6. What do you do at your leisure time when you are here (e.g., Entertainment/activities after work)? How do you comment the availability and quality of the leisure and recreational activities in China?

7. How is your social life with expatriates (for both coming from the same country or other countries)? How is your social life with local people?

8. Please comment the general environment in China?

9. Please comment the work environment in China?

10. Please describe your relationships with colleagues from your home country, 3rd country and local Chinese?

11. Do you consider China assignment as a hardship? Why?

12. How well can you speak Chinese?
    → How do you learn it?
    → How much did you learn before you came here?
    → How much did you learn after you came here?
    → Did/does your company provide language preparation for you to come here?
    → How important do you think it is for you be able to speak the local language?

13. Do you come with your family? What were their reactions after they heard of this assignment?
    → How do they find the life here?
    → What kinds of problems do they encounter here? How do they solve it?

14. How does this mainland China assignment influence your relationship with your family? (Both family here and your family at home)

15. Do you and your family encounter any racial or nationality problem here?

16. Do you experience stress in China? If yes, what are the causes? How do you cope with it?
    → General Living Environment
    → Work Environment
    → Interacting with People

17. As an expatriate, what are the important factors to be successful in China?