THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

HOST ENVIRONMENT, COMMUNICATION, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH: A STUDY OF CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION COMPARING KOREAN EXPATRIATES IN THE UNITED STATES WITH AMERICAN EXPATRIATES IN SOUTH KOREA

A Dissertation

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

By

Yang-Soo Kim
Norman, Oklahoma
2003

Downloaded from SHAREOK. Persistent Handle URL: https://hdl.handle.net/11244/671

UMI Number: 3109066

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI®

UMI Microform 3109066

Copyright 2004 by ProQuest Information and Learning Company.

All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest Information and Learning Company
300 North Zeeb Road
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

©Copyright by Yang-Soo Kim 2003
All Rights Reserved

HOST ENVIRONMENT, COMMUNICATION, AND PSYCHOLOGICAL HEALTH:
A STUDY OF CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION COMPARING
KOREAN EXPATRIATES IN THE UNITED STATES WITH AMERICAN
EXPATRIATES IN SOUTH KOREA

A Dissertation APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

BY

Dr. Young Yun Kim

Dr. D. Lawrence Wieder

Dr. Todd Sandel

Dr. Amy Johnson

Dr. Kelly R. Damphousse

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank everyone who contributed to producing this dissertation. I can never express enough thanks to my advisor, Dr. Young Yun Kim, for her support and guidance. In my academic journey, she helped me grow academically as a fledgling chick getting ready for another step toward maturity in the scholarly world. Besides, she also showed me how to be a caring mentor and a scholar. I am also very grateful to the members of the dissertation committee, Dr. D. L. Wieder, Dr. Todd Sandel, Dr. Amy Johnson, and the outside member, Dr. Kelly Damphousse, for their invaluable academic advice and encouragement. I also gratefully acknowledge the valuable comments from Dr. Linda Seward.

For suggestions and corrections, I am grateful to my friend Jeremy Johnson who is always available to generously give his time when I need help. I also appreciate Pastor Tom Amos and Mrs. Beverly Amos for their love and support during my stay in Norman, Oklahoma.

Special thanks goes to my family members as well. To my father, Young Hee Kim, who did not have a chance to see his beloved son complete the Ph.D. program, and to my mother, Soon Chan Chung, this dissertation is dedicated. I would like to thank all my brothers and sisters. I especially thank my brother Kyung Soo Kim and my brother-in-law Yong Soo Hwang, who helped me get access to the research sites, and all the managers and employees who kindly participated in my study.

Above all, I am indebted to my wife Hye-Ryon Kwak, who has always been a faithful companion in every moment of my life. Without her untiring love, support, and encouragement, I would not have been able to complete my graduate study. I am also

grateful to my two kids, Hannah and Daniel, for their unending patience toward student daddy.

Thanks and glory be to God, for by the grace of God I am what I am, and his grace to me was not without effect.

"…Christ, in whom are hidden all the treasures of wisdom and knowledge" (Colossians 2:3).

Table of Contents

Page

Acknowledgement iv

Table of Contents.....vi

List of Tables.....ix

List of Figures.....xi

Abstract.....xii

I. Introduction 1

Purpose of the Study.....2

Rationale 6

II. Literature Review.....10

Cross-cultural Adaptation Approaches 10

Conceptual Framework of Sojourner Adjustment 12

Culture Shock and Sojourner Adjustment 14

Kim's Theory of Cross-cultural Adaptation 26

The Present Study 33

III. Research Methods 43

Participants 43

The Survey and Measurement 46

The Interviews 62

IV. Survey Results 70

Sample Profile 70

Descriptive Analysis 73

Comparisons between Company Employees and English Teachers for American Expatriates 102

Hypothesis Testing 109

V. Interview Results 133

A Profile of Interviewees 134

Interview Schedule 139

Results of Interviews with Americans 142

Results of Interviews with Koreans 154

Comparisons of Americans and Koreans 160

Comparisons to Statistical Results 163

VI. Discussion 167

Key Findings 168

The Theoretical and Practical Implications 173

Merits and Limitations of the Study 181

References 185

Appendices 198

Appendix 1 Cover Letters for English/Korean Surveys 199

Appendix 2 English Survey Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea 204

Appendix 3 English Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S. 214

Appendix 4 Korean Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S. 224

Appendix 5 English Interview Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea 234

Appendix 6 Korean Interview Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S. 244

List of Tables

Table Page

1. Demographic Profiles of American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates..... 72
2. Means and Standard Deviations of "Korean (English) language ability" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates..... 74
3. Means and Standard Deviations of "Host Culture Knowledge" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 77
4. Means and Standard Deviations of "Adaptation Motivation" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 79
5. Means and Standard Deviations of "Operational Competence" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 82
6. Average Percentages of Interpersonal Ties for American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 85
7. Means and Standard Deviations of "Mass Media Consumption" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates.....88
8. Means and Standard Deviations of "Satisfaction" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 92
9. Means and Standard Deviations of "Alienation" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 94
10. Means and Standard Deviations of "Perceived Host Receptivity" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 97
11. Means and Standard Deviations of "Perceived Host Conformity Pressure" Items by American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates.....100

12. Demographic Profiles of American Company Employees and American English Teachers 107

13. Comparison between Company Employees and English Teachers on Research Variables for American Expatriates 108

14. Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for Entire Data 111

15. Linear Regression of Psychological Health ("Satisfaction") by Independent Variables for Entire Data 113

16. Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for American Expatriates..... 116

17. Linear Regression of Psychological Health ("Satisfaction") by Independent Variables for American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 118

18. Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for Korean Expatriates..... 123

19. T-Test on Research Variables between American Expatriates and Korean Expatriates 127

List of Figures

Figure Page

1. Kim's Stress-Adaptation-Growth-Dynamic 29

2. Kim's Structural Model: factors influencing cross-cultural adaptation 30

Host Environment, Communication, and Psychological Health.

A Study of Cross-cultural Adaptation comparing Korean Expatriates in the United States with American Expatriates in South Korea

ABSTRACT

This study examined communication patterns and forms of cross-cultural adaptation experience in two groups of expatriates. Based on Kim's (2001) communication theory of cross-cultural adaptation, the study sought to understand: (1) the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of Korean expatriates in the U.S. vis-à-vis the American host environment; (2) the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of American workers in South Korea vis-à-vis the Korean host environment; (3) how these two expatriate groups differ in their perceptions of their respective host environments; and (4) how perception of the environment plays a role in adaptation.

To collect the data, a structured quantitative survey using questionnaires and personal interviews was undertaken with a sample of 211 expatriate workers: 105 American expatriates in South Korea and 106 Korean expatriates in the U.S., between February and August 2002. Each sample group was selected by means of convenience sampling, combined with a snowball sampling technique for the survey and a quota-sampling method for the in-depth personal interviews.

The results of the present study verify that Kim's theory can comprehensively explain forms of cross-cultural adaptation on the part of expatriate workers. The relevant hypotheses were generally supported by quantitative and qualitative findings.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a positive association between host communication competence and psychological health, and was supported by statistical data and interview

findings. Correlational analysis indicated that knowledge of the host culture (cognitive dimension), adaptation motivation (affective dimension), and operational competence (operational dimension) were significant factors that tended to facilitate the psychological health of expatriate workers. While these three dimensions of host communication competence were found to be positively and significantly related to psychological health, one cognitive dimension factor--host language competence--was an exception. The greater knowledge expatriates have of the host culture, the better is their measure of psychological health. In addition, the greater the motivation to adapt to the local culture and the better their behavioral skills in communicating with and relating to host nationals, the more likely expatriate workers are to have better psychological health. The interview findings also strongly suggested the predicted relationship between communication competence and psychological health. The challenges and difficulties faced by expatriate workers both in and outside work domains were associated with lack of knowledge of different cultural norms and lack of communication.

Hypothesis 2 predicted a positive association between host interpersonal communication and psychological health, and was supported by analysis of statistical data and interviews. Correlational analysis confirmed that all three levels of host interpersonal communication (i.e., casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends) were positively and significantly correlated to psychological health. This suggests that the more expatriate workers interact with host nationals in terms of casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends, the more likely they are to have greater psychological health. Interview data also indicated that expatriate workers had interpersonal ties with host nationals in and outside their work domain, and regardless of the degree of intimacy,

relationships with host nationals contributed to positive feelings about life in the host culture. This was also associated with positive perceptions of the host environment.

Hypothesis 3 predicted a positive association between host mass communication and psychological health. Statistical data supported this hypothesis. Correlational analysis of host mass media found that video had a significant effect on psychological health. Thus, the more expatriate workers use video, the greater their psychological health.

In addition to communication factors, the study examined the level of pressure to conform to the cultural norms of the host culture. Hypothesis 4 predicted a higher level of perceived host conformity pressure for Korean expatriates in the U.S. than for American expatriates in South Korea. Statistical analysis (T-test) and interview findings confirmed that Korean expatriates in the U.S. faced greater pressure from the American host environment to conform and to adopt "American ways" in the area of cultural norms, business norms, and host language than American expatriates faced in South Korea. These different degrees of host conformity pressure were manifested in the Korean expatriate workers' higher degree of host language competence, as compared with American expatriate workers.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that Korean expatriates in the U.S. were likely to experience lower perceived host receptivity than American expatriates in Korea. T-test analysis indicated that the level of perceived receptivity did not differ between the two groups. However, descriptive analysis and interview data suggested a difference in the level of receptivity, which supported the prediction. The descriptive analysis and interviews found greater receptivity reported by American expatriates. American

expatriates attributed the host culture's friendliness and openness to the depth of interpersonal relationships. Korean expatriates perceived the receptivity of American society as superficial. Friendliness toward strangers was derived from societal values/systems rather than from a host individual's desire for a personal relationship. An examination of perceptions of ethnic minority status showed that American expatriates in South Korea saw themselves as having high status, while Korean expatriates saw themselves as having low status. Perceived differences in host environment receptivity were associated with Americans' more frequent interactions with South Koreans than Koreans in the U.S experienced with Americans.

The results of the present study have theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, the study demonstrates the applicability of Kim's (2001) cross-cultural adaptation theory in an expatriation context in terms of culture-general and culture-specific patterns of adaptation. As regards the culture-general pattern, communication constitutes a central force behind adaptation, given that communication has significant reciprocal relationships with psychological health, with each facilitating the other regardless of sample and host culture. The present study also identified a culture-specific pattern in the way adaptation processes varied according to the influence of each host country's unique cultural milieu. For example, perceived host receptivity and host conformity pressure codefine specific adaptation patterns, such as the significance of host language competence and differences in the potential for interaction in the adaptation processes of the two expatriate groups. The results of this study also imply a practical role for intercultural training to facilitate the successful adjustment of expatriates. Intercultural training should be designed to promote communication competence, as

communicative activities are important for promoting expatriates' successful adjustment in different cultural contexts. In addition, different types of training program with different emphases should be developed according to those factors of the host cultural context that impact adaptation.

For Korean expatriates moving to the U.S. (Western context), training programs need to focus on language training, as language constitutes an important factor in their adaptation. For Americans moving to South Korea (non-Western context), language is less important. More important is the need to learn information about the host environment, in order to promote greater understanding of local people. A high quality training program could lead to successful adjustment and reduce retention failure.

Future studies in this field could prove yet more fruitful by expanding the range of nationalities of the expatriate groups living and working in a variety of cultural regions.

In addition, this study examined the adaptation experiences primarily of business people, with a small percentage of the participants being English teachers; future studies should investigate other sojourner groups in order to replicate the research and enhance its general applicability.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The business environment has become increasingly global. Many companies now dispatch employees, particularly managerial and professional personnel, on overseas assignments to implement global corporate strategies and to control and coordinate subsidiaries (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992). According to a Conference Board Survey Report (1992), half of 130 surveyed multinational companies had more than 50 high-level managers currently on international assignments; of these organizations, 25 percent had between 200 and 2,000 managers on international assignments. A survey of 177 multinational companies also indicated that the number of expatriate assignments had increased, and 63 percent of survey respondents believed that such growth would continue (Windham International, 1998).

With this trend towards globalization, the expatriate becomes a classic example of a "sojourner." The expatriate leaves his or her home country with the intent of an eventual return. The expatriate immerses himself/herself in a new cultural environment that may be unfamiliar and unpredictable in almost every way imaginable. Expatriate executives perform in an unfamiliar work context, cope with a different way of life, and experience profound personal transformation. "Culture shock," the stress and alienation experienced when confronted with a generally incomprehensible environment (Oberg, 1960), sets the expatriate job apart from other jobs and is frequently mentioned as the primary cause of an unsuccessful expatriate assignment.

While multinational organizations recognize the significance and value of

expatriates, expatriates have reported fears of identity loss and an inability to cope with new stressors. In fact, nearly 40 percent of American expatriates return early (Kealey, 1996). A number of factors may contribute to this phenomenon, which include trouble adjusting to different physical or cultural environments, family-related problems, personality or emotional maturity issues, job-related technical competence, and lack of motivation to work overseas. For both employees and their families, adjusting to life overseas can pose a significant hurdle (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Tung, 1988).

Adjustment literature (e.g., Black, 1988; Nicholson & Imaizumi, 1993; Shaffer & Harrison, 1998) clearly indicates that expatriates who do not adjust properly to their international assignment will not perform well, will psychologically withdraw, and will probably quit (return early). The more adjusted expatriates are, the more likely they will be to complete their foreign assignment (Stroh, Dennis, & Cramer, 1994; Kramer, Wayne, & Jaworski, 2001). Thus, well-adjusted expatriates will be more effective in, and committed to, their new job because they experience lower stress and better cultural integration (Aycan, 1997b). An expatriate's successful adjustment to a host cultural milieu is often the prime determinant of his/her job performance. Therefore, it is important to understand how expatriates adapt and what factors influence their adjustment to the host culture.

Purpose of the Study

The main purpose of this study was to explore and examine cross-cultural adaptation experiences on the part of expatriates. Combining a quantitative, structured survey with in-depth personal interviews, this study examined the cross-cultural

adaptation experiences of two groups of business people in two different host environments: Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. and American expatriate workers in South Korea. As a comparison study of two research settings, the study examined the adaptation process of expatriates as a culture-general phenomenon. That is, this study identified general or universal adaptation patterns by examining common expatriate adaptation experiences related to dynamic communications and the host sociocultural environment, regardless of culture. The study was also designed to examine some culture-specific experiences, such as the role played by a number of host environment factors. Examining culture-specific factors allows for a better understanding of how specific host environment characteristics (or macro-factors) influence adaptation experiences.

Specifically, this study sought to understand: (1) the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of Korean workers in the U.S. vis-à-vis the American host environment; (2) the cross-cultural adaptation experiences of American workers in South Korea vis-à-vis the Korean host environment; (3) how these two expatriate groups differ in their perceptions of their respective host environments; and (4) how perceptions of the host environment play a role in adaptation.

The U.S. and South Korea were selected as research sites because these two countries are characterized in a contrasting manner with respect to perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure. To understand these two host environment settings, the different cultures and different ethnic group strengths must be explored.

American society is heterogeneous. The Center for Immigration Studies (CIS) reported that some 28.4 million immigrants live in the United States and represent 10.4 percent of the total U.S. population (EFE World News Service, 2001). The American ideology of assimilation and America's individualistic cultural orientation have led to interethnic relationships that can be characterized as open and receptive toward foreigners. Assimilationism, as a way to indicate the melting pot metaphor, projects the societal view that ethnic minorities or immigrants should be molded into mainstream culture and society. Teamed with assimilation ideology, individualism does not tend to enhance in-group and out-group differences, with the result that less rigid boundaries pertain between in- and out-groups. Thus, generally, strangers are easily accepted and allowed to integrate into the dominant society. Immigrants and ethnic minorities are expected to assimilate themselves socially and culturally, following the "American way."

Koreans in the U.S. have relatively less ethnic prestige than Americans have in South Korea. South Korea has lower national power, relative to that of the United States, and the Korean language in the United States also has less prestige than English has in South Korea. Therefore, American society exerts greater explicit and implicit host conformity pressure on Koreans in the U.S. Koreans are expected to follow the "American way" and mainstream society in every respect. In addition, even though assimilation ideology and individualism dictate acceptance and receptivity toward strangers, regardless of ethnic categories, Koreans can be expected to feel less receptivity than that experienced by Americans in South Korea.

Since the South Korean economic crisis of 1997, the number of foreign

companies in South Korea has increased from 4,400 to 11,000 (cited in Yoon, 2001), resulting in a more globalized business environment. However, despite more globalization and diversity, South Korea remains an essentially homogenous society, founded on a single ethnic, racial, and cultural background. Korean culture and ideology are based on Confucianist collectivism, which values social order and hierarchy. In contrast to individualism, collectivism clearly distinguishes between in-groups and out-groups (Gudykunst et al., 1987) and emphasizes life-long commitment to in-group relationships. With this clear distinction pertaining between in- and out-group members, Confucian values of social order and hierarchy dictate that status determines each person's position and treatment.

Korean society extends different levels of receptivity toward foreigners, according to the foreigner's status (e.g., ethnic group prestige); this is manifested as a greater degree of favoritism and receptivity toward nationals from certain Western countries than is extended to nationals from other countries. Particular receptivity is shown towards the United States, which contrasts with the coldness, lower level of receptivity, and even discrimination shown towards underprivileged groups. At the same time, for Americans, ethnic group prestige and favoritism reduce conformity pressure on the part of the host society. Accordingly, Americans in South Korea are presumably less pressured to conform to Korean cultural norms and systems, and enjoy a higher level of receptivity than Koreans do in the U.S. Therefore, it is assumed that these two countries show different levels of receptivity and conformity pressure toward expatriate cultural strangers.

Rationale

Curiosity and personal experience overseas sparked this research. As a former expatriate in an international firm, and as an international student in the U.S., the author has dealt with unique intercultural challenges across different cultural boundaries. Furthermore, the author has long been interested in the challenges a host environment offers to someone who has crossed cultural boundaries. How can a sojourner, as a cultural stranger, manage the challenges and adapt to different cultural settings? What factors facilitate effective adjustment on the part of strangers? Curiosity about cross-cultural differences, as well as those similarities that are shared by all human beings, also prompted this research. Ultimately, how can notions of similarity and difference help in the process of becoming intercultural, which involves learning to treat other people as unique individuals, regardless of racial, ethnic, and cultural categories? This study's selection of expatriates and the examination of their individual adaptation experiences constitute an initial step toward addressing these questions.

This investigation into expatriate adjustment and host environments has theoretical and practical implications. Theoretically, this study will help researchers comprehensively examine and explain adaptation phenomena through rigorous theoretical reasoning. Cross-cultural adaptation is a multi-dimensional phenomenon. However, cross-cultural adaptation studies, thus far, have spanned a number of disciplines and have lacked focus; additionally, various conceptual methods, focal phenomena, and migrant groups (i.e., immigrants/ sojourners) have been used. Furthermore, host environment factors have been widely neglected or insufficiently examined in studies of cross-cultural

adaptation.

Although there has been an increase in such studies recently (e.g., Aycan, 1997a; Black & Gregersen, 1990; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Caligiuri, 2000; Copeland & Norell, 2002; Dunbar, 1994; Harrison et al., 1996; Kealey & Protheroe, 1996; Selmer, 2001), studies of foreign workers and businesspeople are still scarce, as compared to the relatively large number of studies on students and voluntary workers. Adequate attention has not been paid to theoretical advances, and most expatriate adjustment studies have not been based on rigorous theoretical frameworks. For example, even though conceptual models have been developed to show the processes and mechanisms of expatriate adjustment, and which highlight the roles of attribution, uncertainty reduction, and expectations (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Black, Mendenhall, & Oddou, 1991; Black, 1992), these models remain primarily cognitive and do not sufficiently address the broad-spectrum of adjustment factors and measures.

Empirical studies have identified specific factors that promote expatriate adjustment, including personality traits (e.g., Harrison et al., 1996), spousal or family adjustment (e.g., Black & Gregersen, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982), cultural novelty (e.g., Dunbar, 1994; Stroh, Dennis, & Cramer, 1994), organizational support (e.g., Black and Gregersen, 1991; Gomez-Meija & Balkin, 1987), and job characteristics (Aycan, 1997a; Guy & Patton, 1996). These studies, however, are descriptive and based on practical needs such as selection, training, and repatriation. Thus, due to a lack of rigorous theoretical reasoning, these studies provide a limited explanation of the adaptation process. Expatriate adjustment studies require systematic explanations, based on a fully

developed, formal theory. Like other adaptation studies, most expatriate adjustment studies have failed, in general, to examine the influence of specific host environment factors on the expatriate adaptation process and thus lack comprehensiveness.

This study is based on Kim's (2001) cross-cultural adaptation theory. Kim's (2001) theory offers a strong, comprehensive, integrative theoretical explanation of individual adaptation, while also incorporating host environment factors. This approach allows for close examination and enables comprehensive, rigorous theoretical explanations of sojourners' (particularly, expatriate workers') adaptation experiences. Furthermore, since different host environments dictate the individual adaptation experience, the present study helps provide a more systematic explanation of host environment effects by linking expatriate adjustment to broader macro-level contexts. These methods may help to explain the differences found between U.S. and South Korean host environments. As differences in host environment contexts result in different patterns of individual adjustment, this research may also provide a means of exploring adjustment differences at the micro level.

In addition to its theoretical significance, the present study also has practical significance. Research has indicated that the inability to adjust to a foreign cultural environment, rather than a lack of technical competence, is the major contributing factor to ineffective performance and often premature return (retention failure) on the part of expatriates. Furthermore, human resources literature shows that expatriate retention failure in overseas assignments incurs serious costs to both the company and the expatriate. Recent studies show that the early termination of just one expatriate costs

U.S. firms as much as $1 million (Shannonhouse, 1996). Along with the financial costs, non-financial costs include a damaged company reputation, lost business opportunities, and lost market or competitive shares (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Coperland & Griggs, 1985; Naumann, 1992). Withdrawal from international assignments can be costly for expatriates and their families as well, in terms of diminished self-esteem, impaired relationships, and interrupted careers (Tung, 1988). Retention failure can also have an adverse impact on qualified co-workers who accept an overseas assignment (Stroh, 1995). Furthermore, expatriates who cannot adjust but remain in their assignments and fail to perform adequately may be even more damaging to their organizations than those who return early (Harzing, 1995).

This study can benefit multinational organizations and human resource practitioners, in particular, by providing a better understanding of the necessity for, and the means of, employee adjustment. More specifically, this study has examined factors facilitating cross-cultural adjustment and human resource policies related to expatriates' career development, such as selection, training, and repatriation. Through the findings of this study, corporations should be able to enhance employee adjustment during international assignments, lower the premature return rate among expatriates, and ultimately reduce retention failure.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

Initially, this chapter briefly describes general cross-cultural adaptation approaches. Second, a framework for sojourner adjustment that emphasizes the expatriate adjustment process is presented. Third, culture shock and sojourner adjustment are discussed through adaptation theories and empirical research. Finally, Kim's (2001) theory, the fundamental theory behind this research, is discussed, followed by research hypotheses and questions.

Cross-Cultural Adaptation Approaches

Various disciplines have presented studies on cross-cultural adaptation, which have focused on a wide range of concepts, migrant groups, and phenomena. Broadly, cross-cultural adaptation studies can be divided into two approaches: those on the group-level and those on the individual-level (Y. Y. Kim, 2001). Group-level studies have been mainly conducted in anthropology and sociology in order to explain structural issues. Viewing the concept of acculturation as a group phenomenon, anthropological studies have generally emphasized structural issues of, for example, immigrant groups, instead of individual immigrant experiences. In a manner similar to group-level anthropological studies, sociological studies have paid little attention to patterns of adaptive change in individuals. Instead, sociological studies have attempted to explain the socioeconomic and political dynamics between and among immigrant/ethnic groups and dominant groups within societies (Kim, 1989, p. 275). The primary focal points of this kind of approach include ethnicity, majority-minority relationships, power inequality, social

stratification, and ideological positions on the part of the host environment (e.g., assimilation and pluralism).

In contrast to the group-level approach, individual-level studies have been conducted by researchers in communication, social psychology, cultural anthropology, and psychiatry. Generally, these studies have attempted to examine and explain individual differences in the degree of adjustment to a host cultural system. Individual-level studies have examined various migrant groups, including long term residents (e.g., immigrants and refugees) and temporary short-term sojourners (e.g., diplomats, international students, Peace Corps volunteers, and business people). Immigrants, as a typical example of long term residents, voluntarily relocate for long-term resettlement, and are generally pulled toward a new country by social, economic, and political forces (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001, p. 23); sojourners, however, go abroad voluntarily, spending a moderate length of time (six months to five years), with the intention of returning home, and with more specific and goal-oriented motives (Furnham, 1987).

Immigrant adaptation studies emphasize the subjective experiences of individuals and their social interaction patterns (Kim, 1989). Various terms such as acculturation, assimilation, adjustment, and integration have been used to explain adaptation. Sojourner adaptation studies have recognized the unique nature (e.g., length of stay and motives) of each experience, and sojourner adjustment has been viewed as the psychological adjustment of relatively short-term visitors to new cultures (Brein & David, 1971) and as an individually based process. The term "sojourner adjustment" differs from other terms, such as "cultural" or "cross-cultural adjustment," "cultural" or "ethnic assimilation," and

"cultural adaptation," in that these latter terms are "ambiguous or suggest a more permanent assimilation to the host culture" (Church, 1982, p. 540). Sojourner adaptation has been studied as a more practical concern, independently of studies concerned with the adaptation of long-term immigrants.

As the primary concern of the present study was to explore the individual adaptation experiences of two expatriate groups, the literature review primarily deals with sojourner adjustment that uses the individual-level approach. Relevant studies involving expatriate adjustment are particularly emphasized.

Conceptual Framework of Sojourner Adjustment

This section describes the definitions and conceptualizations of adjustment in expatriate adjustment literature. Though adjustment is a critical concept in acculturation literature, its definition and use are problematic (Church, 1982). "Adjustment" and "adaptation" have been used interchangeably to indicate a wide range of definitions that includes: a feeling of acceptance and satisfaction (Brislin, 1981), the acquisition of culturally acceptable skills and behaviors (Bochner, McLeod, & Lin, 1977), the nature and extent of interaction with host nationals (Sewell & Davidson, 1961), or a lack of mental health problems such as stress or depression (Berry & Kim, 1988). In the specific context of expatriation, adjustment has been seen as the degree of fit between expatriate workers and their new work and non-work environments.

The multi-dimensionality of the adjustment process has been discussed in both acculturation and expatriation literatures. Acculturation literature identifies three facets of adjustment: psychological adjustment, socio-cultural adjustment (Searle & Ward,

1990), and work adjustment (Aycan & Berry, 1996; Hawes & Kealey, 1981). Psychological adjustment is defined as maintaining mental and physical well-being. Psychological adjustment deals with subjective well-being or mood states such as depression, anxiety, and fatigue. In contrast, sociocultural adjustment indicates the process of becoming effective in the new society, of being able to cope with non-work problems, and maintaining successful interpersonal relationships with host society members. Sociocultural adjustment deals with the ability to "fit-in" or to negotiate interactive aspects of the host culture; it is measured by the amount of difficulty experienced in managing everyday situations in the host culture (Ward & Kennedy, 1996). Work adjustment is viewed as competent performance, successful accomplishment of work goals, and organizational commitment to the local unit.

Expatriation literature also identifies three distinct dimensions of adjustment: adjustment to work, adjustment to host national interactions, and adjustment to the general environment (Black & Stephens, 1989; Black et al., 1991). These three aspects of adjustment resemble those described above. Adjustment to work is mentioned in both expatriation and acculturation literature. The aspect of adjustment to host national interactions in expatriation literature mirrors that of socio-cultural adjustment in acculturation literature, just as adjustment to the general environment parallels psychological adjustment. The literature shows that psychological adjustment is the best predictor of task-effectiveness for sojourners (Searle and Ward, 1990); psychological adjustment (adjustment to the general environment) and sociocultural adjustment (interaction with host nationals) constituted the primary determinants of intent to stay,

whereas work adjustment did not influence the decision to stay (Gregersen & Black, 1990).

Culture Shock and Sojourner Adjustment

As the effects of culture shock and sojourner adjustment relate significantly to expatriate job performance and turnover, this section explores the nature of culture shock, theories of sojourner adaptation (such as adaptive change, culture learning theory, and acculturation theory), and expatriation literature on expatriate adjustment.

Culture Shock

Since Oberg (1960) first coined the term as a psychological (or physical) response to a cultural environment, culture shock has been most commonly viewed as a normal process of adaptation to cultural stress. Culture shock has been generally seen as an inherent psychological problem for sojourners interacting with a different and unfamiliar cultural environment as a result of geographic relocation.

Oberg specifically described culture shock as an "occupational disease of people who have been suddenly transplanted abroad" (p. 177). With this definition, he outlined six different aspects of culture shock: 1) strain from the effort required to make the necessary psychological adaptation; 2) a sense of loss and feelings of deprivation with regard to friends, status, profession, and possessions; 3) rejection by and/or rejection of members of the new culture; 4) confusion in role, role expectations, values, feelings, and self-identity; 5) expounded surprise, anxiety, and even disgust and indignation after becoming aware of culture differences; 6) feelings of impotence from inability to cope with the new environment.

Many scholars have further developed the culture shock concept. Guthrie (1966, 1975) used the term "culture fatigue" to describe sojourner symptoms such as irritability, impatience, depression, loss of appetite, poor sleep habits, and vague physical complaints. Smalley (1963) viewed "language shock" as one of the basic elements of culture shock, because many social cues lie in the language domain. Other scholars have used the term "role shock" (Byrnes, 1966; Higbee, 1969) to describe the role ambiguity and loss of personal status that are often experienced by professionals working overseas. Bock (1970) described culture shock as a disturbing feeling of disorientation and helplessness resulting from exposure to an alien society.

Culture shock is described largely as an emotional reaction that presupposes a need to understand and predict other people's behavior. It is like an illness, complete with symptoms (such as excessive washing of hands and irritability). These conceptualizations show that culture shock has been widely used to explain, generally, the difficulties experienced by cultural strangers in their sojourns across cultural boundaries.

Recently, culture shock and adaptation have been viewed as a normal part of human experience, i.e., as subcategories of "transition shock." Bennett (1998) commented that culture shock and adaptation are just like any other adult transition, such as going away to college for the first time, getting married, or moving from one part of the country to another. Various theoretical approaches explain the process of adapting to culture shock.

Adaptive Change

Stage Model. Even though culture shock is commonly associated with negative

psychological symptoms, if it is treated properly (that is, if the sojourner learns the language and makes friends), the sojourner can recover or adapt to the new cultural situation and feel at home (Oberg, 1960). Accordingly, scholars have presented descriptive accounts of the stages of cross-cultural transition and adaptation that follow the initial culture shock experience. Oberg (1960) outlined four phases of emotional reaction associated with cross-cultural sojourns: 1) the honeymoon stage, 2) the hostility stage, 3) the recovery stage, and 4) the final stage.

The honeymoon stage, with initial reactions of fascination, elation, and optimism, lasts from a few days to six months, depending on how soon real everyday coping and communication with the new culture must begin. The hostility stage occurs as the individual copes with daily living in the new culture. It is characterized by emotionally stereotyped attitudes toward the host society and increased association with fellow sojourners. A lack of understanding of appropriate and inappropriate behavior in the new cultural environment results in feelings of inadequacy, frustration, anxiety, and anger. The recovery stage is the stage of crisis resolution and culture learning and is characterized by an increased ability to "fit in" to the new culture through greater language knowledge and ability to get around, a superior attitude toward the host people, and an increased sense of humor. In the final stage, adjustment is about as complete as possible. Anxiety largely disappears, reflecting enjoyment of, and functional competence in, the new environment.

Similar to the above four-stage model, Adler (1975) presented a five-stage model that understands the sojourner's adaptation as a transitional experience, or "a movement

from a state of low self- and cultural awareness to a state of high self- and cultural awareness" (p. 15). Specifically, Adler described five phases of encompassing and progressive changes in identity and experiential learning: 1) contact phase, 2) disintegration phase, 3) reintegration phase, 4) autonomy stage, and 5) final independence stage.

The contact phase is characterized by excitement and euphoria. In this stage, the individual perceives the new environment ethnocentrically. He or she is more attuned to cultural similarities and perceptually deselects cultural differences. The disintegration phase is characterized by tension, confusion, alienation, depression, and withdrawal; during this phase cultural differences become increasingly noticeable, and interpersonal prediction is deflated. The reintegration phase is marked by a strong rejection of the second culture, defensive projection of personal difficulties, limitation of relationships to fellow nationals, and an existential choice to regress to earlier phases or to move closer to resolution and personal growth. In the autonomy stage, the individual feels increasing sensitivity, skill, and understanding of the host nationals and culture, as well as feelings of expertise. Finally, the independence stage is marked by a cherishing of cultural differences and relativism, and behavior that is expressive, creative, mutually trusting, and sensitive. Most importantly, independence stage behavior increases self- and cultural awareness, enabling the individual to undergo further life transitions and discover additional ways to explore human diversity.

While these two stage models share similarities, the self-actualizing nature of Adler's final transitional step suggests that the individual who has completed this step

should be better prepared for a third cross-cultural experience. Oberg's stage model, however, makes no explicit prediction of facilitated adjustment in future cross-cultural experiences (Church, 1982). In addition, even though most cultural strangers experience problems that are due to the absence or distortion of familiar environmental and social cues, Oberg (1960) was not specific about the nature or boundaries of these cues in his culture shock hypothesis. His propositions were thus criticized by Furnham and Bochner (1982), who felt Ober's stages were too broad and not amenable to empirical testing.

U-Curve/W-Curve Theories. In addition to the descriptive accounts of stage models, some scholars have likened adaptive changes to curves, as in the U-curve/W-curve theories. The main idea behind curve theories is that sojourners go through fairly predictable phases in adapting to a new cultural situation. As adjustment is a process over time; the U-shaped curve illustrates the relationship between duration and the adjustment phases. In his cross-sectional study of 200 Norwegians who had previously studied in the United States for 0-6 months, 6-18 months, or 18 months, Lysgaard (1955) described this curvilinear function and referred to it as the U-curve phenomenon. Sewell and Davidsen (1956) also reported a U-curve function related to academic and personal adjustment for Scandinavian students visiting the United States.

According to Lysgaard (1955), the three phases of adjustment include anticipation or excitement, culture shock, and adaptation. In the first phase of anticipation or excitement, a sojourner entering a new cultural context may initially be both excited by the new situation and somewhat apprehensive. This phase is followed by a period of culture shock, which is the second phase, or the bottom of the U-curve. The third phase

is adaptation. In this phase, sojourners learn the rules and customs of the new cultural context. For example, they may learn a new language and figure out how much of their behavior to change in response to the new context.

Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) extended the U-curve concept by adding "reentry shock," which they described as the W-curve. According to this model, when sojourners return home to their original cultural contexts, they seem to experience another U-curve: the anticipation of returning home, culture shock in finding that all is not exactly as expected, and the gradual adaptation that follows (Storti, 1997).

While the U-curve may offer a convenient heuristic tool for understanding cross-cultural adaptation, the U-curve pattern of adjustment has not always been supported by empirical research. Comprehensive studies (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Andersen, 1994) have found limited support for the U-curve hypothesis. For example, Church (1982) found evidence for the U-curve "weak, inconclusive and overgeneralized" (p. 542). In fact, the U-curve hypothesis seems to be largely atheoretical, deriving from a combination of post hoc explanations. Instead of "entry euphoria" sojourners may actually experience the severe adjustment problems at the initial stages of transition, when the number of life changes is highest and coping resources are likely to be at their lowest. A longitudinal study of Japanese students in New Zealand examined this issue (Ward et al., 1998). The study clearly showed that, in contrast to the popular U-curve of adjustment, adjustment problems were greatest at the entry point and decreased over time. While the U-curve theory seems to represent the experiences of many short-term sojourners, it may be too simplistic for other types of migrants (Berry, 1992).

Culture Learning

Aside from issues of culture shock models, there are concerns and differences with the connotation of the experience. The culture shock and adaptive change approaches view culture shock as problematic, undesirable, and something to be minimized. However, some scholars have suggested that culture shock can lead to profound learning, growth, and self-awareness. For example, Adler (1987) saw culture shock as not "a disease for which adaptation is the cure, but [rather]...the very heart of the cross-cultural learning experience, self-understanding, and change" (p. 29). Emphasizing the behavioral aspects of cultural contact, culture learning is the process whereby sojourners acquire culturally relevant social knowledge and the skills to survive and thrive in their new society (Ward et al., 2001).

Strongly influenced by Argyle's (1969) work on social skills and interpersonal behaviors, the culture learning approach is based on the assumption that cross-cultural problems occur because sojourners have difficulties managing everyday social encounters. Behavioral competence is seen as fundamentally dependent on mastering the intricacies of intercultural communication. Adaptation, therefore, comes in the form of learning the culture-specific skills required to negotiate the new cultural milieu (Bochner, 1972, 1986). Thus, the culture learning approach proposes programs that focus on culturally appropriate preparation, orientation, and social skill acquisition (Bochner, 1982; Furnham and Bochner, 1982; Klineberg, 1982). To this end, scholars have concentrated on the significance of culture-specific variables in the adaptation process. The key variables in this study include differences in intercultural communication styles,

which include verbal and nonverbal components, as well as differences in rules, conventions, and norms, and their influences on intercultural effectiveness. Recently, researchers have broadened this approach by building predictive models of sociocultural adaptation that emphasize factors such as culture-specific knowledge, intercultural training, language fluency, previous experience abroad, contact with host nationals, cultural distance, and cultural identity (Ward, 1996).

While the culture learning approach provides useful information for intercultural training, mere culture learning itself cannot guarantee psychological adaptation. As a multi-faceted phenomenon, the acquisition of behavioral skills does not necessarily represent a sufficient and necessary condition for successful adaptation.

Berry's Acculturation Model

In contrast to other approaches, Berry (1980, 1992) proposed a pluralistic-typological view (1980, 1992). Berry's theoretical acculturation model aims to describe several possible adaptation (acculturation) types, based on certain types of individuals, by describing the relationship between acculturative attitudes and acculturation styles. The model is based on identity orientations of cultural strangers toward their own ethnic group and toward the larger society. Answers (yes or no) to central questions are combined (for example, two main questions are "Are (ethnic) cultural identity and customs of value to be retained?" and "Are positive relations with the larger society of value, and to be sought?").

Model results present different subjective adaptation orientations by identifying four categories: assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization.

In the assimilation mode, the individual does not want to maintain an isolated cultural identity but, instead, wants to maintain relationships with other groups in the new culture. Separation occurs when individuals willingly choose to retain their original culture by avoiding interaction with other groups. Integration emerges when individuals have an interest in maintaining their original culture while maintaining daily interactions with other groups. Marginalization manifests itself when the individual or group expresses little interest in maintaining cultural ties with either the dominant culture or the immigrant culture. This framework sets the stage for an examination of the kinds of psychological adaptation made by individuals during the course of acculturation.

Berry's (1980, 1992) theory has two important strengths. It is parsimonious and heuristic. The model is parsimonious in that it attempts to explain complex adaptation phenomena by identifying a small number of variables, i.e., four different types of psychological identity orientations. Additionally, the theory offers a conceptual scheme for comparing varied acculturation attitude responses on the part of ethnic minorities. This approach is thought-provoking and could spark further research and theorizing within acculturation studies.

However, the model is also rather reductionistic; it tends to oversimplify variables by creating simple factors to explain multi-faceted acculturation phenomena. As a result, it can miss other important variables that can describe the adaptation process more fully. In addition, since it is a descriptive theory, it does not attempt to specify a set of factors to explain individual adaptation rates; instead, this model only focuses on discerning different adaptation types. Finally, the theory lacks the means to describe and explain

interactions between individuals and their environment (i.e., individual attitudes related to their immediate milieu) and any related emergent behavior. Inconsistencies may develop with respect to which options are pursued within a society, or within host society characteristics (e.g., whether the society is open or closed). As a result, it is difficult to understand how mutual influence can occur between individuals and a host environment and how these interactions evolve over time. Thus, this theoretical model would be more appropriate for immigrant adaptation studies than for studies of sojourners.

Factors Contributing to Sojourner Adjustment

In recent years, as the study of expatriate cultural adjustment has received increased scholarly attention, understanding the key factors that constitute expatriate adjustment has been an important concern. In reviewing the relevant empirical research, three categories have emerged as significant determinants (predictors) influencing the different dimensions of expatriate adjustment: individual, contextual, and job-related factors.

Individual factors include variables such as anticipatory behavior (Black & Gregerson, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982), demographic characteristics such as sex or age (Adler, 1987), motivation to go abroad, pre-departure knowledge of the host country, and prior international experience (Black, 1990). In one study of 169 adults working abroad in 12 different countries (Parker & McEvoy, 1993), personality characteristics and traits showed a stronger relationship to adjustment than did demographic characteristics and work experience. In addition, the amount of time spent with host-country nationals related positively to interaction and general living adjustment, but not to work

adjustment. Regarding personality traits, Harrison et al. (1996) examined two such variables: self-efficacy and self-monitoring. The results show that subjects with high general self-efficacy expressed significantly greater degrees of general, interaction, and work adjustment than did those with low general self-efficacy. Similarly, high self-monitors expressed greater degrees of general and interaction adjustment than did low self-monitors. No significant difference, however, was found between high and low self-monitors with respect to work adjustment. In another study, personal intentions were positively associated with both socio-cultural and psychological adjustment (Selmer, 1998). These findings support the consideration of personality variables in expatriate selection and training.

Other studies have focused on contextual factors and their relationship with general and interaction adjustment. Contextual factors include spouse or family adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982), as well as the "cultural toughness" or cultural novelty of the host country (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985). In expatriate adjustment literature, spouse/family adjustment, which refers to the psychological comfort experienced by the spouse and children, has long been discussed as a potentially important influence on expatriate adjustment (Bauer & Taylor, 2001; Copeland & Norell, 2002; Harvey, 1985). Spouse/family adjustment is one of the most frequently cited antecedent factors of expatriate adjustment (e.g., Black & Stephens, 1989; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Torbiorn, 1982; Tung, 1981). Arthur and Bennett (1995) found that expatriates rated their family situation as the most important contributor to successful international assignments. Caligiuri et al. (1998) tested a model for

examining the adjustment of expatriates on international assignments as an antecedent to expatriate adjustment to work in a host country. The study found that family characteristics (family support, family communication, and family adaptability) related to the expatriate's work adjustment in the host country. The families' cross-cultural adjustment mediated the effect of family characteristics on expatriate host-country work adjustment. In addition, Black and Stephens (1989) found that a spouse's favorable opinion about the overseas assignment related positively to the spouse's adjustment. In turn, spousal adjustment highly correlated to adjustment of the expatriate worker. Furthermore, the adjustment of both the spouse and the expatriate worker positively related to the expatriate's intention to stay in the overseas assignment.

In addition to family adjustment, the novelty of the culture (or cultural toughness) was examined as a predictor of expatriate adjustment. Dunbar (1994) compared 21 German expatriate managers in the United States with 21 American executives working in Japan. The findings indicated a clear difference between the two groups. While the two groups of respondents showed no difference with respect to international career satisfaction and company identification, German managers in the U.S. reported significantly greater cultural awareness, knowledge, and work satisfaction than did their American counterparts in Japan. Dunbar (1994) pointed to the differences that emerged when doing business in what might be deemed a "culturally easy" environment (i.e., United States) as compared to doing business in a more challenging culture such as Japan (p. 287). These findings are consistent with previous studies suggesting that some cultures are more difficult to adapt to than others (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Torbiorn,

1982).

Job-related factors also relate significantly to expatriate work adjustment. Increasing job role clarity and greater role discretion reduce the amount of uncertainty associated with the work situation, which in turn would facilitate adjustment at work (Black, 1988; Nicholson, 1984; Pinder & Schroeder, 1987). In addition, preliminary empirical evidence supports the assertion that role conflicts inhibit work adjustment (Black, 1988). Empirical studies suggest that role clarity, role discretion, and role conflict are significant predictors of work adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Stroh, Dennis, & Cramer, 1994).

Even though studies have made great progress in explaining the multifaceted adjustment phenomena of expatriates, many of these studies have lacked rigorous theoretical reasoning. For example, previous studies have failed to fully examine a crucial component of expatriate adjustment by incorporating host environmental factors.

Thus, even though each perspective and theory offers a useful description of specific aspects of cross-cultural adaptation phenomena, these perspectives do not provide a comprehensive and systematic explanation of adaptation. As cross-cultural adaptation is a multi-dimensional phenomenon, a comprehensive and integrative theoretical approach is needed (Aycan, 1997a). Therefore, the present study uses Kim's (2001) cross-cultural adaptation theory to explore the individual adaptation experiences of both American expatriates in South Korea and Korean expatriates in the U.S.

Kim's Theory of Cross-Cultural Adaptation

Kim's (2001) theory, taking a systems perspective, attempts to integrate a number

of previously separate and divergent approaches into a comprehensive conceptual frame that describes and explains cross-cultural adaptation phenomena for both short-term sojourners and long-term immigrants. The theory also conceptualizes the phenomena of cross-cultural adaptation more comprehensively than other theories to date by incorporating host environment dimensions into the model.

In Kim's theory, the term "stranger" is used inclusively to cover immigrants, refugees, and sojourners. Kim proposed that individuals or "strangers" are "open systems" i.e., they respond to their environment and react to drastic environmental changes with psychological stress, better known as culture shock. The term adaptation is used broadly, incorporating more specific terms such as assimilation, acculturation, integration, and adjustment (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 90). By conceptualizing adaptation as a continuous, evolutionary process of internal transformation, the theory views cross-cultural adaptation as a process of interactive dynamics between individuals and the host environment. Kim offers two different models: a process model and a structural model.

Kim's Process Model

The process model depicts the "stress-adaptation-growth" dynamic that leads to a gradual intercultural transformation of the individual. Based on the notion that humans are living entities who maintain equilibrium in response to environmental stimuli, the theory explains cross-cultural adaptation as a long-term process of systematic change in the individual's psyche, a gradual psychic transformation involving a "stress-adaptation-growth interplay." The stress-adaptation-growth dynamic does not progress in a smooth, linear direction, but rather in a cyclical and continual "draw-back-to-leap" pattern. While

stress can create suffering, frustration, and anxiety, it can also be the necessary impetus for new learning and growth (See Figure 1).

The theory explains that one of the long-term, cumulative outcomes of undergoing stress, adaptation, and growth experiences is intercultural transformation (Kim, 2001). Included in this transformation are three aspects: 1) an increased functional fitness or ability to carry out daily life smoothly in a particular environment; 2) psychological health related to the ability to communicate in the host environment; and 3) a gradual development from a monocultural to an increasingly intercultural identity.

Kim's Structural Model

In addition to the process model, Kim offers a multidimensional structural model designed to predict the different rates at which strangers undergo adaptive transformations, such as attaining a higher level of functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity. The structural model identifies key factors that may facilitate or impede the adaptation process in a culturally different environment.

Emphasizing the centrality of communication, the theory posits that the individual adapts to the host environment through various communication activities, ranging from intrapersonal (or personal) to social (interpersonal/mass communication), which are at the core of the dynamic relationship between the individual and a given environment; the theory also takes into account the relation of the new environment to the individual's own background. These individual communication activities influence and reflect the nature of the individual's relationship to a particular environment at a given time (See figure 2).

Kim (2001) described host communication competence as "the internal capacity

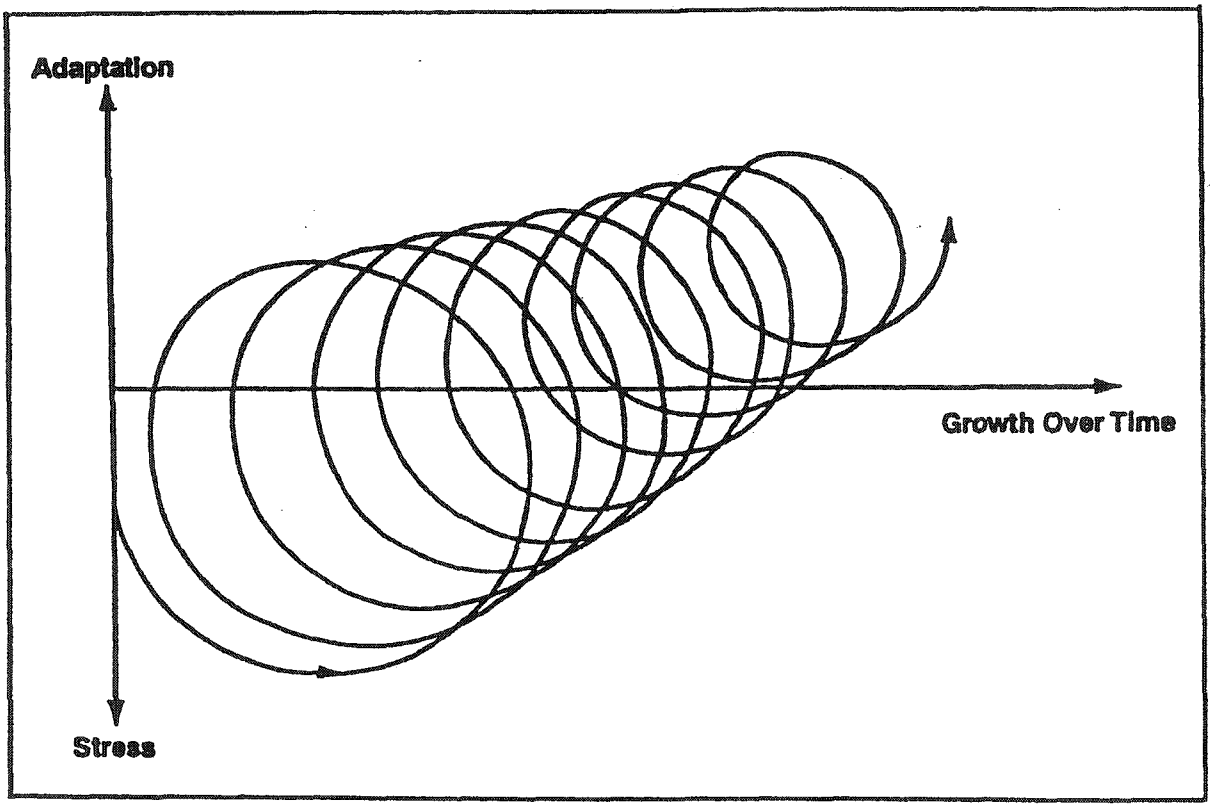
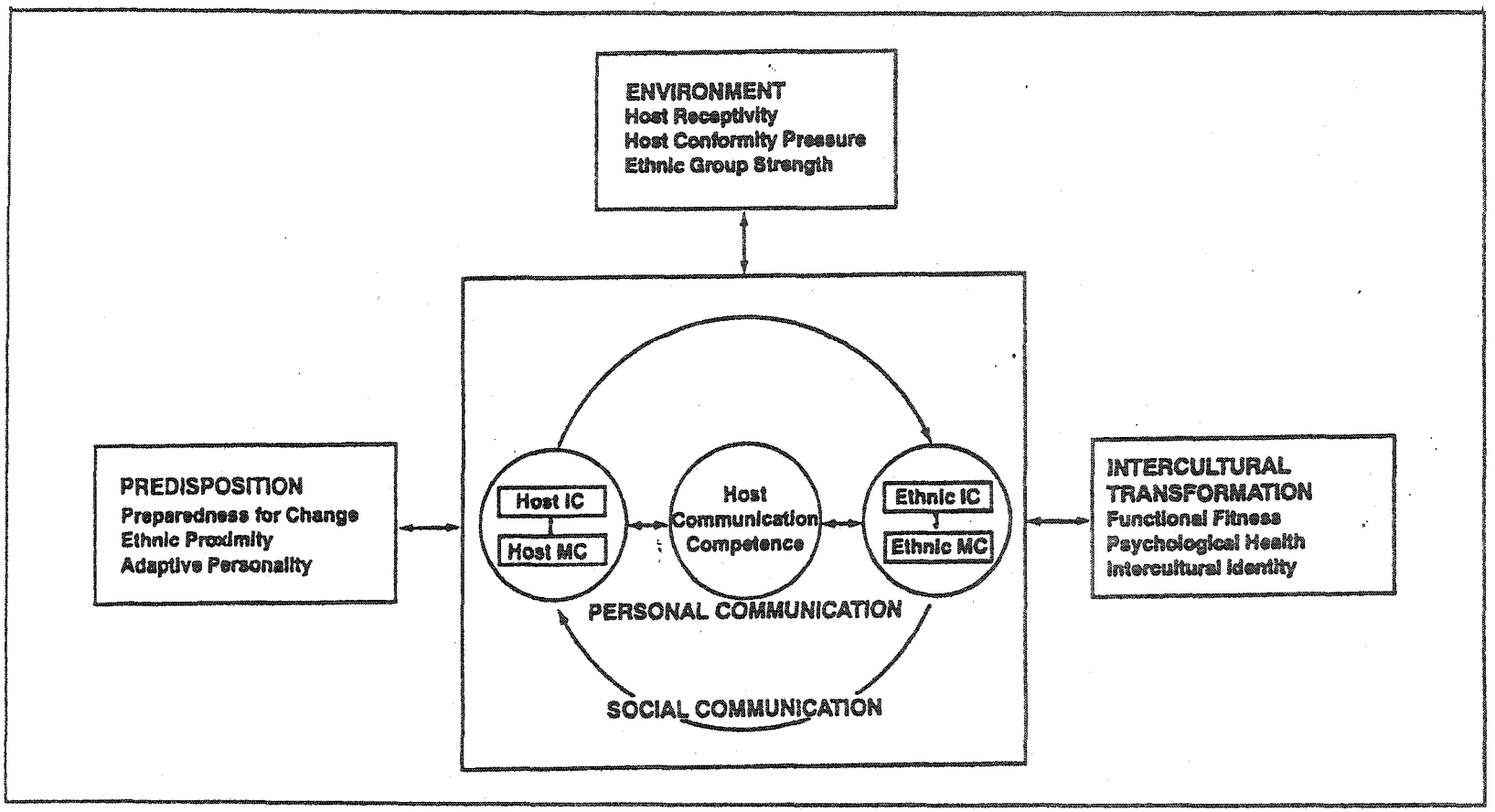


Figure 1. The stress-adaptation-growth dynamic
(Source: Kim, 2001, p. 59).



Note: IC = interpersonal communication; MC = mass communication.

Figure 2. Factors influencing cross-cultural adaptation: A structural model (Source: Kim, 2001. p. 87).

or a set of identifiable capabilities associated with (but not identical to) performance outcomes such as perceived effectiveness" (p. 98). The key elements of host communication competence can be grouped into three interrelated components: cognitive, affective, and operational. These dimensions of host communication competence are organically interdependent; the way a stranger communicates with native members of the host culture reflects the simultaneous interplay of his/her cognitive, affective, and behavioral capabilities.

In addition to host communication competence, the stranger's communication involves participation in the social processes of the host milieu. The stranger communicates in dual contexts, both with hosts and with coethnics. Host social communication is the degree of engagement in the host social communication system through interpersonal and mass communication. Ethnic social communication involves interpersonal and mass communication with coethnics in the host society.

Host interpersonal communication refers to the stranger's interpersonal contact with members of the host population. These activities involve various face-to-face interactions with the host population in an immediate social environment (Y. Y. Kim, 2001). These interpersonal communication activities not only enable expatriates to carry out their daily tasks, but also provide them with necessary emotional support and points of reference for checking and validating their own thoughts and actions (Adelman, 1988; Kim, 1986). Host mass communication consists of activities within the larger social environment through mediated channels of communication, such as radio and television programs, magazine and newspaper articles, movies, museum exhibits, theater

performances, audiotapes, videotapes, and posters. These mass communication activities are vital to cultural/language learning, particularly during the early phases of the adaptation process, when the expatriate has less direct access to members of the host population (Y. Y. Kim, 2001).

With respect to the host environment, Kim (2001) identified three environmental factors that influence a stranger's adaptation process. First, host receptivity refers to "the native's openness toward strangers and willingness to accommodate strangers with opportunities to participate in the local social communication processes" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 148). Second, host conformity pressure refers to "the degree to which host nationals exert conscious or unconscious pressure on strangers to change their original patterns of behavior and adopt those of the host culture" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 152). Third, ethnic group strength reflects "the relative status and power that membership in an ethnic group accords" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 155).

Kim's (2001) theory also recognizes the internal conditions or predispositions of strangers prior to their resettlement in the host society. Three constructs contribute to an individual's predisposition. First, preparedness for change is "a stranger's readiness for and understanding of the challenges of crossing cultures and of the particular host culture and its communication system" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 166). Second, ethnic proximity refers to "the degree of similarity (or difference) of the stranger's ethnicity-based characteristics relative to the corresponding characteristics predominant in the host environment" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 169). Third, adaptive personality refers to "the personality resources that would help facilitate the strangers' adaptation by enabling them

to endure challenges and to maximize new learning" (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, p. 84).

Kim posited that a stranger's intrapersonal and social communicative activities, along with his or her predisposition (preparedness for change, ethnic proximity, adaptive personality) and environmental factors (host receptivity, conformity pressure, and ethnic group strength) influence one another and that, together, these factors facilitate or impede the overall process of intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity) in the dominant environment.

The Present Study

Hypotheses

This study focused on eight of the theoretical constructs identified in Kim's structural model: (1) host communication competence; (2) ethnic interpersonal communication; (3) host interpersonal communication; (4) ethnic mass communication; (5) host mass communication; (6) psychological health; (7) host receptivity; and (8) host conformity pressure. These eight constructs were chosen because they constitute the primary variables needed to examine theoretical predictions of the relationships between communication activities and psychological health for expatriate workers, as well as their relation to host environmental factors.

The interrelationships between and among these constructs were articulated by Kim in the following five theorems (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, pp. 91-92).

Theorem 1: The greater the host communication competence, the greater the host interpersonal and mass communication.

Theorem 3: The greater the host communication competence, the greater the

intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity).

Theorem 5: The greater the host interpersonal and mass communication, the greater the intercultural transformation (functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity).

Theorem 7: The greater the host receptivity and host conformity pressure, the greater the host communication competence.

Theorem 8: The greater the host receptivity and host conformity pressure, the greater the host interpersonal and mass communication.

In the structural model, the above five theorems were presented in relation to predictive relationships among the constructs of host communication competence, social communication (interpersonal/mass), psychological health, host receptivity, and host conformity pressure. Certain relationships can have positive and negative impacts on others. For example, greater intercultural transformation will be facilitated by greater host communication competence and host interpersonal and mass communication. Likewise, greater host receptivity and host conformity pressure will enhance host communication competence and host interpersonal/mass communication. Given that the theory is a general theory explaining the degree and rate of the individual's adaptation experience, regardless of the specific culture, the present study attempted to test theoretical relationships among the theorem constructs. Accordingly, the present study hypothesized that:

H1: The host communication competence of expatriate workers is positively

associated with their psychological health.

H2: The host interpersonal communication of expatriate workers is positively associated with their psychological health.

H3: The host mass communication of expatriate workers is positively associated with their psychological health.

While the individual's host communication competence plays a key role in the process of his/her adjustment to the new environment, how receptive the host nationals are to strangers ("perceived host receptivity") and the degree to which host individuals expect strangers to follow their cultural norms and habits ("perceived host conformity pressure") are also important factors in the individual's adaptation. Given the cultural differences between the United States and South Korea, as well as the different relative ethnic group strength of each expatriate group (i.e., Americans and Koreans), it is to be expected that Koreans in the U.S. are likely to experience a higher level of conformity pressure and a lower level of host receptivity than Americans in South Korea.

The United States can be characterized as an ethnically and culturally diverse society. Historically, the country has been open to immigrants from around the world and has continuously experienced an influx of immigrants. According to a report from the Center for Immigration Studies (CIS), some 28.4 million immigrants are now living in the United States. This number represents 10.4 percent of the total U.S. population. In addition, 37.4 percent of foreign-born residents have gained U.S. citizenship, and immigrants make up 5.5 percent of the electorate (EFE World News Service, 2001). Furthermore, people of color make up 27 percent of the American population. This ratio

is projected to increase to 36 percent by 2020 and to exceed 47 percent by 2050 (Dovidio, 1993). American heterogeneity suggests that American society tends to be open to foreigners and allows foreigners to become an integral part of the host society. These less rigid boundaries toward foreigners can be explained in terms of the United States' founding ideologies of assimilationism and individualism.

The assimilationist ideology projects a societal vision in which immigrants and indigenous ethnic minorities are mainstreamed into the host culture and institutions, and become integrated into a common culture and social structure. President George W. Bush's address at a reception for ethnic community leaders celebrating May as Asian/Pacific American Heritage Month clearly echoed this societal sentiment. He said, "I'm so proud to be the president of a diverse nation with 13 million Americans of Asian or Pacific island heritage...whether you're here by birth, or whether you're in America by choice, you contribute to the vitality of our life. And for that we are grateful" (as cited in Thariath, 2002, p. 1). In fact, the first national poll conducted in 1995 among 732 legal United States immigrants indicated that most immigrants perceive American society as friendly and receptive. Ninety percent of respondents said that they feel welcome in the United States, and 61 percent said they have never felt discriminated against as immigrants (as cited in Y. Y. Kim, 2001).

Individualism is also enacted in interethnic relations. Individualism emphasizes pleasure, fun, and personal enjoyment rather than social norms or duty, as defined by others. More importantly, individualism is not likely to distinguish as strongly between in-group members and out-group members because individualistic cultures have many

specific in-groups, including family, religious groups, social clubs, and professional organizations (Triandis, 1983). In addition, individualists belong to many groups, but their membership tends to be superficial and, in many instances, transitory. Group allegiance and mobility among groups are purely voluntary and individualists may have many relationships, most of them lacking genuine intimacy. With these less rigid boundaries between in-group and out-group in the individualistic orientation, American society tends to easily accept or to mainstream foreign-born immigrants or strangers, regardless of their nationality, ethnicity, and race.

At the same time, the assimilationist ideal tends to exert high conformity pressure on ethic minorities and immigrants. While a recent ideological shift from the traditional melting-pot metaphor to a more pluralist perspective has mitigated some of the pressure on strangers (Kim, 1999), immigrants and strangers are still expected to assimilate socially and culturally in the United States if they want to be accepted as part of the dominant society.

This tendency is evident when the overall ethnic group strength of Koreans in the U.S. is examined. As an ethnic minority, Korean expatriates in the U.S. have a lower level of overall ethnic group strength than do their American counterparts in South Korea. This unequal status comes from the lower national status and power of South Korea, as compared to the U.S. Thus, Korean expatriates in the U.S. are treated fairly on the superficial level, as sojourners, but they do not receive any special treatment. Korean language and norms are clearly subdued under the dominant U.S. mainstream culture and language. Koreans must also speak the host language (English) to interact with American

co-workers or business partners and they must adopt American cultural or societal norms in dealing with everyday needs. If they did not do this, they would not properly fit into American society and probably not complete their international assignments. Therefore, presumably, Korean expatriates in the U.S. experience lower levels of host receptivity and higher levels of host conformity pressure than do their American counterparts in South Korea.

South Korea and the U.S. represent contrasting host environments. Korean society is more homogeneous than U.S. society in terms of race, ethnicity, and culture. Like other homogenous societies (e.g., Japan), Korean society tends to apply different levels of receptivity and conformity pressure to Westerners (typically Americans) and non-Westerners. This differential receptivity, based on ethnic group prestige, is clearly shown in immigration and naturalization procedures. For example, South Korea has tough employment regulations for Chinese in South Korea ("*Hwa Gyo*") and is more closed to international students from non-Western countries. Even though some ethnic Chinese families have lived in South Korea for almost 100 years, their members still have difficulty acquiring Korean citizenship. Today, only 23,000 Chinese live in South Korea, while the number of Chinese in other countries generally exceeds 100,000 (Gu, 2003).

Changes in the Korean economy have led to an influx of foreign laborers, including illegal workers (estimated as 127,000; Park, 1997). With this trend, discrimination against foreign workers in South Korea has emerged as a serious social issue. Furthermore, international students from places other than the elite Anglo-dominated countries (e.g., U.S., France, and Great Britain) have reported feeling low

levels of receptivity from Koreans, as compared to the higher receptivity extended to students from favored Western countries (Hwang, 2001).

The negative/closed view toward non-western foreigners can be explained by Korean collectivism, which is considered to be the main feature of Korea's social character (e.g., S. T. Kim, 1987; Gudykunst, Yoon, & Nishida, 1987; Hofstede, 1983). Collectivism tends to place great emphasis on (a) the views, needs, and goals of the in-group rather than of oneself, (b) social norms and duty, as defined by the in-group, rather than behavior designed to obtain pleasure, (c) beliefs shared with the in-group rather than beliefs that distinguish oneself from the in-group, (d) great readiness to cooperate with in-group members, and (e) intense emotional attachment to the in-group (Triandis, 1983). In contrast with individualists, who do not make a sharp distinction between in- and out-group, collectivists sharply distinguish between in-groups and out-groups (Gudykunst et al., 1987). Collectivists belong to relatively few in-groups but are fiercely loyal and committed to those they do belong to, often on a lifelong basis. Collectivists tend to have a limited number of relationships, but these will be close and intimate. Relationships are regarded as an end in themselves and are maintained, even at great cost. This in-group favoritism leads to the belief that it is worth the effort to treat other in-group members well, to maintain relationships and to avoid conflict; however, out-group members are not included in this obligation.

Historically, collectivism is governed by a deep-rooted Confucian ideology, which values social order and operates on the basis of distance from power. Confucianism has impacted all aspects of Korean social life, from interpersonal relationships to social

structure. Confucianism values hierarchy and social order; more specifically, behaviors of obedience, loyalty, and compliance with authority are highly valued.

The distinction between in-group and out-group is strong, yet status also determines the position and treatment that one obtains. Consistent with research findings on relationships between power distance and collectivism (Hofstede, 1980), hierarchical concerns are integral factors in traditional forms of Korean collectivism. Given this orientation, Korean society tends to classify and rank other countries and cultures, a practice that manifests as "worshipping the powerful." This is reflected in greater receptivity and hospitality toward Americans than is expressed to other foreign nationals, and a strong desire and interest to learn from the dominant Western culture (especially, American culture).

Clearly, Korean society is likely to be more welcoming and receptive to Westerners, particularly Americans. Even though anti-American sentiment is voiced in some sectors of Korean society, Americans are welcomed and favorably treated in colleges, English institutes, and businesses. Thus, in contrast to Koreans in the U.S., Americans in South Korea enjoy higher levels of overall ethnic group strength because of their prestigious ethnic status and national power. This high ethnic prestige helps increase local people's interest in and acceptance of individual strangers, thus "softening" the host conformity pressure (cited in Kim, 2001). Therefore, Americans in South Korea may feel a higher receptivity and, correspondingly, less pressure to conform to the "Korean way." For example, Koreans do not expect Americans to speak fluent Korean. Rather, English, as a prestigious ethnic language, is used in business and daily activities,

even when American expatriates reside in South Korea. Presumably, Koreans generally do not expect Americans to follow the local cultural norms. Instead, Koreans are more interested in understanding and learning about American culture.

Given the lack of prestige of Korean expatriates in the U.S., as well as cultural differences, it is to be expected that Koreans in the U.S. would experience a higher level of conformity pressure and a lower level of host receptivity than would Americans in South Korea. To better understand these host environment factors, the following hypotheses were proposed.

H4: The perceived host conformity pressure of Korean expatriates in the United States is likely to be higher than that of American expatriates in South Korea.

H5: The perceived host receptivity of Korean expatriates in the United States is likely to be lower than that of American expatriates in South Korea.

Research Questions

This study combined survey and interview methods. Interviews consisted of mostly open-ended questions dealing with the following seven topic areas: (a) background information; (b) host communication competence, related to communication differences and communication-related difficulties, both at and outside the workplace; (c) interpersonal communication with respect to daily intercultural interaction, both inside and outside the workplace; (d) mass communication such as daily use of host and ethnic mass media; (e) perceived host receptivity concerning frank impressions of the host society and people; (f) perceived host conformity pressure, including cultural similarities and differences; and (g) psychological health such as positive/unpleasant experiences and

overall feelings about present life. At the conclusion of the interview, debriefing questions were asked to allow the interviewee to make additional comments on his or her experience overseas and on the interview itself (see Appendix 5 for further details). Important issues addressed in the interview schedule were formulated as the following four research questions:

Along with the survey, important issues addressed in the interview schedule were formulated as the following four research questions:

RQ1: What kinds of contact and communication activities does each expatriate group have with local people?

RQ2: What common communication-related difficulties does each expatriate group experience when communicating with local people?

RQ3: How does each expatriate group perceive the receptivity of the host environment?

RQ4: How does each expatriate group perceive the conformity pressure of the host environment?

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODS

The present study employed a survey and in-depth personal interviews to acquire data from comparison groups (Americans/Koreans). The present chapter explains how the participants were selected and how the survey and interview were conducted.

Participants

The study was conducted in both South Korea and the United States from February 2002 to August 2002. The participants of this study were two different groups: American expatriate employees working in South Korea and Korean expatriate employees working in the U.S. The targeted number of participants was approximately 100 from each group for the survey and 20 from each group of 100 for the interview study.

American Participants

The American expatriate group participating in this study was made up of American company employees who were working in joint ventures, branch offices, and multinational corporations located in South Korea. In addition, American English instructors teaching at a company or a private institution were included in order to acquire enough participants to enhance generalization. Given that business people and English instructors share the commonality of being employees working overseas during their temporary stay, the incorporation of English instructors is justified. Furthermore, as Kim's (2001) theory is a general theory, the present study allows examination of the cross-cultural adaptation experience of these sojourner groups regardless of specific

differences in daily activities between business people and English instructors. At the same time, the study also examines the adaptation experiences specific to each group.

Although the probability sampling method is the ideal for a social science research study, it was not practical for this population because of difficulties of accessibility to the organizations and potential difficulties in obtaining cooperation from and completing interviews with all eligible respondents. Thus, this study employed a convenience sampling combined with a snowball sampling technique for the survey and quota sampling for the interview.

The American participants were selected from the member directory of the American Chamber of Commerce (AMCHAM). Even though the directory does not list all Americans working in South Korea, this is the most reliable and comprehensive list available on American expatriate workers in South Korea. At the time this study was conducted, the population of American expatriates working in South Korea was approximately 970 people working in 487 companies.[1] To expedite responses from the eligible respondents, the samples were drawn from co-chairs and members of 32 standing committees listed in the AMCHAM directory (AMCHAM has committees covering 32 different sectors to meet member companies' specific needs, e.g., taxation, aerospace, living in Korea, foreign investment, etc.). Samples were drawn from among English teachers based on availability because there is no comprehensive list of English teachers working in South Korea. After completion of the surveys, the respondents were asked to name potential participants for the survey.

[1]This information is based on an email interview with the membership coordinator from AMCHAM.

Although this is not a probability sampling, selecting the committee co-chairs and its members might increase the representativeness of the American samples because those committees represent all industries of multinational corporations in South Korea. Of the 200 survey questionnaires that were distributed, 105 were returned, resulting in approximately a 53% response rate. Out of 105 participants, 80 were employees in multinational corporations and 25 were English instructors.

Korean Participants

The Korean expatriate group for this study was comprised of Korean-born employees of U.S. subsidiaries, joint ventures, overseas branch offices, and multinational corporations located in the United States. This study's aim was to investigate individuals and their adjustment experiences when they were new to a different host culture; thus, Korean Americans who were born and raised in the U.S. were not considered in this study.

The samples for the survey study were drawn by using a convenience sampling method combined with snowball sampling techniques. The Korean employees were selected from the business directory of the Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry in the U.S. and the directory of KOTRA (Korean Trade-Investment Promotion Agency) because these are the most reliable and most updated, comprehensive lists of Korean expatriates in the U.S. At the time this study was conducted, there were 404 Korean companies in the U.S., and the total number of Korean expatriates working in the U.S. was 2,010 (KOTRA, 2003). The companies and employees were selected for the study based on accessibility and availability. When the survey was conducted and collected, the

respondents were asked to name potential participants for the study. The research settings for the survey were metropolitan city areas in the U.S. in which business organizations are largely centered, including cities in California, Washington, Texas, Florida, New Jersey, and Washington, D.C. Because the primary purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of expatriates' host environment on the adaptation process, these multiple research settings were expected to offer a relatively comprehensive picture of the host environment; also, this variety of settings helps to minimize the weakness of decreased representativeness of the sample caused by the use of nonprobability sampling. A total of 200 questionnaires were distributed and 106 Korean employees responded to the survey, resulting in a response rate of 53%.

The Survey and Measurements

Quantitative data were collected by using a standardized and self-administered questionnaire for both groups of expatriates. An exploratory questionnaire was tested in the summer of 1999 and presented in the present investigator's study (Y. S. Kim, 2001). Based on this exploratory study, some of the items in the questionnaire were modified. In addition, two variables were incorporated into this study – host environment factors (perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure) and mass communication as social communication. After these changes, the survey questionnaire for the present study was subjected to a pilot study.

Pilot Study

For the American participants, the pilot study was conducted in March, 2002 among Americans living in the Norman and Oklahoma City areas who had lived in South

Korea before and Americans (i.e., teachers and missionaries) who were living in South Korea at that time. The samples were drawn by using convenience sampling. For the American participants living in the Norman and Oklahoma City areas, the questionnaire was administered and collected in person, while for the Americans living in South Korea, the questionnaires were distributed and collected via mail or email. It took 15-20 minutes for respondents to complete the survey. A total of 60 questionnaires were distributed and 35 questionnaires were collected. When the questionnaires were collected, the participants were encouraged to give feedback about the questionnaire items (including noting any difficulties or ambiguities with the wording of questions or the format) in person and/or by mail. After the questionnaires were collected, the data was subjected to statistical analysis to test the reliability of the scales. Based on this analysis, the questionnaire items were refined and modified.

For the Korean participants, the pilot study for the quantitative survey was conducted during the months of December, 2001 and January, 2002. In the pilot study, this investigator attempted to see if the questionnaire was appropriate to obtain reliable and valid data from the research population and to assess how long it took to complete the questionnaire. The participants were Korean immigrants in the Norman and Oklahoma City areas, and samples were drawn based on availability. The investigator visited a Korean grocery market, a beauty salon, a Korean restaurant, a boot salon, and a Tae Kwon Do school to locate participants for the pilot questionnaire.

Upon the consent of the participants, after briefly explaining the purpose of the study, this investigator administered and collected the questionnaire from 36 Korean

participants. It took 15-20 minutes for the respondents to fill out the questionnaire. After completing the questionnaire, in the debriefing session, each respondent was asked if the questions were easily understood and if he/she had found any ambiguous words or words difficult to understand. This investigator recorded their comments and suggestions. In addition, the collected data was subjected to statistical analysis to evaluate the reliability of the scale. Based on the comments from the respondents, the questionnaire items were refined or modified.

The Questionnaire

The survey questionnaire was originally written in English. This English questionnaire was translated into Korean by a Korean-American bilingual interpreter. Then, following Brislin's (1980) suggestion, the Korean questionnaire was back-translated again by a Korean-American bilingual interpreter to ensure equivalence of meanings across the two language systems. The survey package consisted of the consent form and a cover letter (Korean/English) explaining the purpose of the study, confidentiality of the participants, merits of the study, and the questionnaire (Korean or English).

An English version of the questionnaire was given to the American participants. For the Korean participants, the respondents were allowed to choose between a Korean and an English version. All Korean participants chose the Korean version.

To arrange the survey with the Americans, the investigator made personal contact with a list of key persons in the selected organizations, explaining the purpose of the research and encouraging them to participate. Upon agreement, the investigator

administered the survey while visiting their office. In proctoring the survey questionnaire, after explaining the purpose of the survey as well as the instructions, this investigator asked each respondent to fill out the consent form. Then the investigator distributed the questionnaire. The questionnaire survey took 15 to 20 minutes to complete. The questionnaires were collected in person. The participants were then asked to provide the names of other potential respondents. Though time-consuming, considering the accessibility and limited numbers of available participants, this method enhanced the response rate as compared to the mail-in survey method.

In conducting the survey with the Koreans, the same procedures were followed as with the Americans. The survey was conducted when the investigator was visiting companies, annual parties, or social gatherings where most of the expatriates meet. In most cases, the questionnaire was administered and collected in person. In addition to personal collection, in some regions like Florida, New Jersey, and Washington D.C., a mail-in survey was conducted due to time and budget constraints. In this case, the questionnaires were collected by mailing the questionnaire with a return envelope.

Measurement Scales

The survey questionnaire consisted of twelve sections; the items in each section measure key variables of the present study. The major format was a 7-point Likert-type scale or simple fill-in-the-blank responses. The first section collected background information about the participants. The second section included items assessing respondents' host language ability (cognitive dimension), while the third section included their knowledge of the host culture (cognitive dimension). In the fourth section,

questions about respondents' adaptation motivation were asked (affective dimension); this was followed by self-assessed operational competence (operational dimension) in the fifth section. The next two sections covered social communication activities, i.e., interpersonal communication (host/ethnic) and mass communication (host/ethnic). Two scales evaluating psychological health (satisfaction and alienation) were included next. In the following two sections, host environment factors, such as perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure were presented, respectively. The final item in the questionnaire was an open-ended question asking for the respondent's comments and impression about the survey and its content. While the questions and formats were equivalent between the survey for Americans and the survey for Koreans, some words were changed in accordance with the context of each group (e.g., Americans and Koreans, the United States and South Korea, and English and Korean).

The reliability of the scale was determined using Cronbach's alpha coefficient (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The items in a scale that lowered the reliability were dropped from the scale to enhance scale reliability for both comparison groups.

Background Information. This section included questions on gender, age, length of stay, educational background, and family adjustment. Family adjustment (i.e., spouse and children) was measured by the respondents' subjective assessment of adjustment of their spouse and child(ren). Six items were included, using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = not at all; 7 = completely): 1) "How positive is your spouse's attitude about living in Korea (the U.S.)?"; 2) How happy is (are) your child (children) about living in Korea (the U.S.)?"; 3) "How well has your spouse adjusted to Korean (American) culture?"; 4) How

well has (have) your child (children) adjusted to Korean (American) culture?"; 5) "How much does your spouse want to stay longer in Korea (the U.S.)?"; 6) "How much does (do) your child (children) want to stay longer in Korea (the U.S.)?" (See Q. 5-1 through 5-6 in Section I of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). These six items were combined to create a composite score assessing the degree of family adjustment. Cronbach's reliability test produced .97 for the American expatriates and .86 for the Korean expatriates, indicating a high level of internal consistency.

Host Communication Competence. Consistent with Y. Y. Kim's (2001) theoretical conception, host communication competence for the comparison groups (Korean expatriates and American expatriates) was measured in three areas: cognitive, affective, and operational dimensions. To examine the cognitive dimension, respondents were asked to assess their host language ability and knowledge of host culture. The items on the host language ability scale assessed the respondents' self-evaluation of their host language competence in terms of adequacy regarding the accomplishment of skills such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing. The answers used a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = inadequate; 7 = very adequate). Most items were adapted from Maruyama's (1998) study; the wording of scale items was modified in consideration of the characteristics of the sample (i.e., business people).

The scale consisted of seven items: 1) Ability to speak spontaneously in the host language with host nationals; 2) Ability to converse on the phone in the host language; 3) Ability to ask questions and solve problems with host nationals at work; 4) Ability to understand national and domestic news on radio or TV in the host language; 5) Ability to

read/comprehend newspapers in the host language; 6) Ability to write a formal business report/letter in the host language; 7) Ability to write a letter to friends (host nationals) in the host language (See Q. 1-7 in Section II of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score indicates a higher level of host communication competence of the respondents in both groups. To improve reliability, item 3 was dropped and the remaining six items were combined to create a composite scale reflecting the adequacy of host language competence. The combination of these six items yielded a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .95 for the scale of the American group and .93 for the scale of the Korean group, indicating a high level of internal consistency.

In the second scale of the cognitive dimension of host communication competence, knowledge of host culture was measured by the degree of the respondents' knowledge of host cultural norms and communication rules. The scale consisted of five items, adapted from Gudykunst's (1991) measure of knowledge of another culture. Each item assessed the degree to which a statement is true on a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = none; 7 = completely) about the respondents' perceived knowledge of their host culture. The wording of the scales was slightly modified.

The five items were: 1) "I understand Korean (American) cultural norms; 2) "I understand Korean (American) cultural values"; 3) "I understand how Koreans (Americans) communicate nonverbally, such as through facial expressions and body language"; 4) "I understand how most Koreans (Americans) express themselves verbally"; and 5) "I understand Korean (American) ways of thinking" (See Q. 1-5 in Section III of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The reliability of these five items

was found to be very high in this investigator's exploratory study (Y. S. Kim, 2001), with Cronbach's alpha = .91. The higher score indicates the higher level of knowledge of the host culture in both groups. Elimination of any item did not improve the scale reliability. These five items were combined to create a composite score that reflects the degree of knowledge of host culture for both groups. Reliability analysis of the five-item scale yielded an alpha of .91 for the Americans and .95 for the Koreans, clearly indicating a high level of internal consistency.

In the affective dimension of host communication competence, the adaptation motivation scale assessed the respondents' adaptive motivation to the American or Korean society and culture. For this measure, a 7-point Likert-type scale was used (1 = not at all; 7 = very much). The first three items of this scale were drawn from Kim's (1976) measure of acculturation motivation, and the rest of the items were adapted from Maruyama's (1998) research and modified: 1) "How interested are you in understanding the ways Korean (American) people behave and think?"; 2) "How interested are you in making friends with Korean (American) people?"; 3) "How interested are you in knowing about the current political, economic, and social situations and issues of Korea (America)?"; 4) "How interested are you in learning the Korean language (English)?"; 5) "How interested are you in adapting to the Korean (American) culture/society?"; 6) "How interested are you in trying Korean (American) food?" (See Q. 1-6 in Section IV of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score indicates the higher level of adaptation motivation of respondents in both groups. Item 6 was dropped to improve the reliability of the scales for the comparison groups. The remaining 5 items were combined

to create a composite scale to assess the adaptation motivation for the comparison groups. Cronbach's alpha for the linear composite of the five items was .78 for the Americans and .86 for the Koreans, meeting the acceptable standard for internal consistency.

The operational dimension of host communication competence was assessed by a behavioral competence scale, by asking how well and effectively the respondents could communicate with and relate to host people (i.e., Americans or Koreans). For this measure, there were eight 7-point scale items (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree). Most of them were adapted from Tammam's (1993) measure, because the scale was proven highly reliable in his study. The items were slightly modified: 1) "I am able to avoid misunderstandings with Koreans (Americans)"; 2) "I am able to achieve what I hope to achieve in my interactions with Koreans (Americans)"; 3) "My communication usually flows smoothly when interacting with Koreans (Americans)"; 4) "I can get my point across easily when I communicate with Koreans (Americans)"; 5) "I am flexible enough to handle any unexpected situations when interacting with Koreans (Americans)"; 6) "I have difficulty establishing personal relationships with Koreans (Americans)"; 7) "I feel awkward and unnatural when I communicate with Koreans (Americans)"; 8) "I find interacting with Koreans (Americans) challenging" (See Q. 1-8 in Section V of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score indicates the higher level of operational competence. Dropping items 6, 7, & 8 improved the reliability of the scales for both comparison groups. The linear composite score of the remaining five items provided the score for the operational competence. Cronbach's alpha for the linear composite of the five items was .85 for the Americans and .94 for the Koreans, indicating

a high level of internal consistency.

Social communication consists of two facets of communication—interpersonal communication and mass communication. In the present study, interpersonal communication was assessed in terms of interpersonal ties with host nationals (Koreans or Americans) and mass communication was measured regarding the consumption of ethnic/host mass media (Korean and American) such as newspapers/magazines, radio, TV, movies, videos, and Internet web pages.

Interpersonal Communication. Interpersonal communication was measured in terms of the expatriates' interpersonal ties with members of the host society/ethnic community and the intensity of their informal/formal social relationships with host nationals as well as co-ethnics/other groups. The items were adapted from the measure of interpersonal communication in the study of interethnic communication (Kim et al., 2002) and modified. Interpersonal ties were assessed by types and levels. The types of relationships were categorized into (1) Americans; (2) Koreans; (3) others (other than Americans and Koreans). Each of the three types of relationships was measured in terms of the levels of intimacy: (1) casual acquaintances; (2) casual friends; (3) close friends. Casual acquaintances were defined as the ones that respondents knew well enough to greet and talk with when meeting them; casual friends were the ones who shared visits and with whom one engaged in social activities; and close friends were the ones with whom a person shared private and personal problems (See Q. 1-3 in Section VI of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3).

In the present study, instead of indicating a number of people in each domain, the

respondents were requested to indicate the percentages of people they had contact with in each of the types of relationships and the corresponding levels of intimacy. This helped to acquire more reliable and accurate responses about the respondents' interpersonal relationships. Combining the three levels of host interpersonal ties, the reliability of host interpersonal communication for the comparison groups was assessed. The Cronbach's alpha for the American expatriates yielded .90, indicating high internal consistency; however, Cronbach's alpha for the Korean expatriates yielded .69, indicating only a moderate but acceptable reliability (cf. Nunnally, 1978). As the purpose of the present study aims at investigating both comparison groups, it is not proper to make a composite scale for host interpersonal communication for the Korean groups. Thus, each level of the host interpersonal ties was treated as one single host interpersonal communication variable and analyzed accordingly (i.e., casual acquaintances, casual friends, close friends) for both groups.

Mass Communication. As one aspect of social communication, host and ethnic mass media consumption were assessed. The scale items were adapted from Kim's (1976) study and modified. This measurement scale, as originally used by Kim (1976), proved to be highly reliable. The response categories mostly used 6-point item scales (e.g., 1 = none; 6 = more than 90 minutes). Questionnaire items included: 1) "How much time do you usually spend reading American newspapers and magazines each day?" (1 = don't subscribe/don't read at all; 6 = more than 90 minutes); 2) "How much time do you usually spend reading Korean newspapers and magazines in Korean each day?" (1 = don't subscribe/don't read at all; 6 = more than 90 minutes); 3) "In a typical week, how much

time do you spend listening to American radio programs?" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week); 4) "In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to Korean radio programs in Korean?" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week); 5) "In a typical week, how often do you watch American videos?" (1 = none; 4 = more than 4 a week); 6) "In a typical week, how often do you watch Korean videos (Korean language)?" (1 = none; 4 = more than 4 a week); 7) "In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching American TV programs?" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week); 8) "In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching Korean TV programs? (Korean language)" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week); 9) "How often do you go to see American movies?" (1 = none; 6 = more than three times a month); 10) "How often do you go to see Korean movies (Korean language)?" (1 = none; 6 = more than three times a month); 11) "In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using English-language websites?" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week); 12) "In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using Korean-language websites?" (1 = none; 6 = more than 6 hours a week) (See Q. 1-12 in Section VII of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3).

For the Korean samples, the Korean movie item (#10) was eliminated because Korean movies are not usually available in the U.S. The scale reliability of host mass media consumption for both comparison groups produced low Cronbach's alpha: .52 for the Americans and .61 for the Koreans. Because of this low reliability, each host mass communication item was treated as a single item to measure host mass communication and was analyzed accordingly.

Psychological Health. Of the three different indicators of intercultural transformation (i.e., functional fitness, psychological health, and intercultural identity) (Kim, 2001), only psychological health was included in this study. Psychological health is a general psychological well-being in living in an environment. A healthy psychological state is a dynamic fit between parts of the internal system and external realities—that is, an attainment of internal coherence and meaningful relationship to the outside world (Y. Y. Kim, 2001, pp. 187-189). Psychological health was assessed in two ways, by measuring the degrees of reported "satisfaction" and "alienation." As multiple indicators, both satisfaction and alienation scales make the measurement more reliable and valid to assess psychological health.

Satisfaction was measured by seven items. The first four items were adapted from Gao and Gudykunst's (1990) measure of intercultural adaptation in their study of international students in the U.S. The last three items were adapted from Maruyama's (1998) research questionnaire. These seven items for assessing psychological health pertained to feelings of comfort and satisfaction in the host environment. A 7-point Likert-type scale was used (1 = not at all; 7 = completely): 1) "In general, how satisfied with your present life in Korea (the United States) are you?"; 2) "In general, how comfortable do you feel living in Korea (the United States)?"; 3) "How rewarding is your life in Korea (the United States)?"; 4) "How stressful has your life in Korea (the United States) been?"; 5) "How satisfied are you with the attitudes of Korean (American) people toward you?"; 6) "How satisfied are you with your relationships with Korean (American) people?"; 7) "How satisfied are you with your experiences in Korean (American)

culture?" (See Q. 1-7 in Section VIII of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score indicates a higher degree of life satisfaction of both expatriate groups. Item # 4 was dropped from the scale to improve reliability. The remaining six items were combined to create a composite scale to assess the degree of satisfaction. Combination of the six items yielded an alpha coefficient of .86 for the American expatriates and .88 for the Korean expatriates, indicating an acceptable level of internal consistency.

Alienation was assessed by eight items, using a 7-point Likert-type scale (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree). Items from the 10-item measure of alienation utilized by Y. Y. Kim (1986) in her study of Indochinese refugees were slightly modified: 1)"I feel awkward and out of place living in Korea (the United States)"; 2) "It is difficult for me to understand the Korean (American) way of life"; 3) "I feel lonely"; 4) "I feel that Korean (American) people do not like me"; 5) "I am frustrated trying to live in Korea (America)"; 6) "I dislike staying in Korea (America)"; 7) "I miss my home"; 8) "I want to go back to my country as soon as possible" (See Q. 1-8 in Section IX of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score implies a higher level of alienation. Items 7 and 8 were dropped to improve the reliability of the scale. The remaining six items were combined to create a composite scale to measure alienation. Cronbach's alpha yielded .74 for the American expatriates, or a moderate level of internal consistency, and .92 for the Korean expatriates, indicating a high level of internal consistency.

Perception of the Host Environment. Kim's (2001) theory offers three dimensions in regard to the host environment: perceived host receptivity, perceived host conformity

pressure, and ethnic group strength. Of these three dimensions, the present study focused on two dimensions, perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure. Ethnic group strength was not included in the analysis, because in these two research settings (i.e., South Korea and the United States), it is obvious that the two expatriate groups show different ethnic group strength in the host environment. Due to differences in national power and relative status differentials, American expatriates in South Korea maintain a high level of ethnic group strength, while the Korean expatriates in the United States maintain a relatively lower ethnic group strength.

The scale for receptivity and conformity pressure was not designed to measure the actual host environment but instead attempted to assess the participants' subjective perception of the level of receptivity ("perceived host receptivity") and of conformity pressure ("perceived conformity pressure"). The reason was that the subjective feeling of the participants toward their host environment is more important in that the impression they have toward the environment clearly dictates their specific communicative interaction and adaptation experiences.

Perceived host receptivity was measured by respondents' perceptions regarding the attitude of host nationals toward them. The perceived receptivity of a given host environment can be examined in the attitude of acceptance or denial of strangers expressed in interpersonal and mass communication processes (Y. Y. Kim, 2001). Most of the eight items were adapted from Maruyama's (1998) study. The items were rated with a 7-point scale (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree): 1) "Korean (American) people accept me into their society"; 2) "Korean (American) people discriminate against

me"; 3) "Korean (American) people have a positive attitude toward me"; 4) "Korean (American) people are curious about me but show no intent to become my friends"; 5) "Korean (American) people see me and my country favorably"; 6) "Korean (American) people are genuinely interested in associating with me"; 7) Korean (American) people are indifferent to me"; 8) "Korean (American) people are rude to me" (See Q. 1-8 in Section X of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). The higher score indicates a better perceived receptivity from the host environment. Elimination of any item in the scale did not improve the reliability. The eight items were combined to create a composite scale reflecting the degree of perceived host receptivity. Reliability analysis of the scale yielded an alpha of .77 for the American expatriates and .84 for the Korean expatriates, indicating acceptable levels of internal consistency.

In addition to perceived host receptivity, perceived host conformity pressure was measured by six scale items. Four items were adapted from the questionnaire utilized in the interethnic communication study (See Kim et. al, 2002) and modified. Two additional items were original. The wording was slightly modified for the context of expatriates. Items were rated by a 7-point scale (1 = totally disagree; 7 = totally agree): 1) "Koreans (Americans) think I should learn and use the Korean (English) language as soon as possible"; 2) "Koreans (Americans) expect me to eliminate my American (Korean) accent when speaking Korean (English)"; 3) "Koreans (Americans) expect me to conform to Korean (American) cultural norms"; 4) "Koreans (Americans) think I should adopt their lifestyle"; 5) "Koreans (Americans) think I do not have to follow Korean (American) cultural norms"; 6) "Koreans (Americans) are receptive to different cultural habits" (See

Q. 1-6 in Section XI of the Questionnaires in Appendix 2 & 3). Items 1, 5, and 6 were dropped to improve the reliability of the scale. The remaining three items were combined to create a composite scale to assess the degree of perceived host conformity pressure. Combination of the three items yielded an alpha coefficient of .71 for the American expatriates, indicating the moderate level of internal consistency, and an alpha coefficient of .78 for the Korean expatriates, meeting the acceptable standard for internal consistency.

Predisposition. Predisposition – including preparedness, ethnic proximity, and adaptive personality (Kim, 2001) – was not included in the present study, because this study focuses mainly on communication competence and host environment. Another concern was the length of the survey questionnaire necessary for effective investigation. Thus, this factor is reserved for future study.

The Interviews

The questionnaire survey was followed by in-depth personal interviews of both Korean and American participants. Twenty interviewees each were selected from among the Korean and American respondents who had completed the questionnaire survey.

Pilot Study

Prior to conducting the personal interviews, interview questionnaires for the comparison groups were tested using a survey pilot study. For the Americans, three people among those who had completed the survey questionnaires were selected at random and interviewed. An American interviewer, a graduate student, was recruited for the pilot study interviews to see whether the use of an American interviewer was effective

in obtaining frank opinions about Korean society and people. After a whole-day training session, the American interviewer conducted the interviews at the interviewees' office or residence. During each interview, this investigator observed how the interview was going. All interviews were audiotaped with the written consent of the interviewee. It took 30-40 minutes to complete an interview. At the end of each interview, the interviewer asked the interviewee for comments on the interview questions and the interview. The interview questions were clarified and follow-up questions were added based on these comments and suggestions.

As for the Koreans, five people were selected based on availability from those who had completed the pilot survey. They were interviewed to determine if the interview questions were clear and worded well enough to obtain in-depth, qualitative data (i.e., personal opinions) from the interviewees. All interviews were audiotaped with the written consent of the interviewee. It took 30-40 minutes to complete an interview. The interviews were held at the respondents' place of work or residence. At the end of the interview, in the debriefing, the investigator asked whether the questions were clear and comprehensible. Based on their feedback, some interview questions were re-worded and follow-up questions were added.

Interviews and Interview Methods

Interviews of Americans. Using a quota-sampling technique, 20 American interviewees were selected from among those who had completed the survey questionnaire, based on the respondents' age and length of stay. Among the 20 interviewees, 18 were expatriate employees and two were English teachers. Fifteen out

of 20 interviewees were male (75%) and 5 were female (25%). The average age of the interviewees was 35.7 years old (*SD* = 11.9 years old; range: 21-61 years old) and the average length of stay in Korea was 3.9 years (*SD* = 3.2 years; range: 7 months-14 years). Regarding educational level, 14 out of 20 interviewees had a bachelor's degree (70%), five had a master's degree (25%) and one had a doctoral degree (5%). Only five interviewees (25%) had lived in a foreign country before and only eight interviewees (40%) had had intercultural training before this international assignment (See more details in Chapter 5).

The contact information for each interviewee was obtained from the consent form, which requested the respondents' telephone numbers and email addresses. An identical serial number was coded on both the questionnaire and the consent form in order to facilitate identification of the respondents for this purpose. To conduct the interviews with the Americans, an American interviewer was recruited, and the investigator and the recruited interviewer had a full day of intensive training. The rationale for using an American interviewer to interview Americans was to obtain candid opinions about the interviewees' individual adaptation experiences as well as frank impressions toward Korean people and Korean society as a host environment. In conducting the first three sessions of the interviews, the investigator observed how the interview was going. Then, the remaining interviews were conducted by the American interviewer without the investigator being present. The American interviewer was a 24-year-old male student studying international relations at the university in South Korea.

Fifteen of the interviews were conducted person-to-person, and the other five

were a focus group interview because of time constraints and interviewees' personal preferences. The interviews with the Americans mostly took place outside of work, such as at restaurants, coffee shops, residences, or offices, during lunchtime or after work. The interviews took approximately 40 minutes each. The interviews were conducted in English based on the English-version interview questionnaire. The interviews began with the exchange of personal information (i.e., age, gender, length of stay, education, etc.) after each interviewee had signed the consent form. All interviews were tape-recorded with the written consent of the interviewees.

Interviews of Koreans. Twenty Korean respondents were selected from among those who had completed the survey questionnaire, based on the respondents' age and length of stay. The average age of the Korean interviewees was 39.7 years old (SD = 5.2 years; Range: 32–50 years) while the average length of stay was 3.5 years (SD = 2.1 years; Range: 5 months-10 years). Fifteen interviewees had a bachelor's degree (75%) and five had a master's degree (25%). Nine interviewees (45%) had lived in another foreign country and six had had prior intercultural training (30%) (See more details in Chapter 5).

All 20 one-on-one personal interviews were conducted by the investigator in Korean based on the Korean version of the interview questionnaire. Because of the shared ethnic origin and this investigator's former experience as an expatriate, it was appropriate for the investigator to conduct the interviews; furthermore, it helped to draw more frank and candid opinions and impressions of the American people and society from the respondents. All the interviews with the Koreans took place in the conference room

or reception hall at their place of work, during working hours, and took approximately 40 minutes each. The interviews began with the exchange of personal information (i.e., age, gender, length of stay, education, etc.) after each interviewee had signed the consent form. All interviews were audiotaped and transcribed in their entirety, with the written consent of the interviewees.

Interview Questions. For both Americans and Koreans, the interview questionnaire consisted of seven sections covering the following topics: 1) background information; 2) host communication competence; 3) interpersonal communication; 4) mass communication; 5) perceived host receptivity; 6) perceived host conformity pressure; 7) psychological health (Please refer to Appendix 4 & 5 for both groups).

The interview questionnaire began with a section on background information, such as age, length of stay, education, job title, job responsibility, previous experience living in foreign countries, and previous intercultural training experience. In the second section, the two interview questions covered the interviewee's host communication competence, including communication experiences with Korean people (American people) and any communication-related difficulties. The questions included: 1) "It is likely you have opportunities to interact with Korean people (American people) both in and outside of your work? Do you find any differences between communicating with Koreans and communicating with Americans?"; 2) "Have you ever experienced difficulties in communicating with Korean (American) people in or outside of the work environment?"

In the third section, three questions were about the participant's interpersonal

communication. The items included: 1) "Of all your daily conversations (at work or outside work), approximately what percentage of them do you have with Korean (American) people?; 2) "In what capacities and for what reasons, both in and out of work, do you interact with Korean (American) people?"; 3) "What kinds of socializing do you do with Korean (American) people?" In the fourth section, two questions dealt with respondents' ethnic and host mass media consumption, including: 1) "In your daily life, what kind of American mass media do you use?" and 2) "In your daily life, what kind of Korean mass media do you use?" The fifth section covered the perceived receptivity of the host people (Korean or American): 1) "What was one of your first impressions about Korea (America) and Korean people (American people) upon arrival in this country?"; 2) "What do you think about the attitude of Korean people (American people) toward foreigners in general?; 3) "What do you think about the attitude of Korean (American) people toward Americans (Koreans) like you in particular?; 4) "Have you ever had experiences during which you felt you were treated differently from Koreans (Americans) because you are a foreigner?"

The sixth section consisted of questions about perceived host conformity pressure. Interviewees were asked to talk about how they thought host nationals expected them to conform to the host cultural norms. The items included: 1) "What aspects of the Korean (American) culture (or customs) do you find different from yours?"; 2) "What aspects of the Korean (American) culture (or customs) do you find similar to yours?"; 3) "An old proverb says, 'When in Rome, do as Romans do.' Do you think Koreans (Americans) believe that you should do as Koreans (Americans) do when in Korea (the U.S.)?"; 4)

"Do you try to follow Korean (American) customs/cultural habits? How much difficulty have you had in following Korean (American) customs or cultural habits?; 5) "How do Korean people (American people) treat you when you do not follow Korean (American) cultural norms or habits?"

In the seventh section, the questions covered psychological health. The interviewees were asked to talk about their feelings about and experiences in their life in the host country. Items included: 1) "What are some of the positive experiences you have had while living in Korea (the U.S.) so far?"; 2) "What are some of the unpleasant experiences you have had while living in Korea (the U.S.) so far?"; 3) "If you have another chance to work overseas in the future, would you like to come back to Korea (the U.S.)?"; 4) "Overall, how are you feeling about your present life in Korea (the U.S.) as regards your life experiences interacting with Koreans (Americans) in and outside work?" The final section concluded the interview by asking about the interviewee's overall life experiences as well as comments once again about the interview questions (See Appendix 4 & 5 for more details of the interview schedule).

The questions regarding host communication competence were adapted from Kim and Paulk (1994) and modified. The remaining questions were original. All questions were followed by follow-up questions based on the respondents' answers. The follow-up questions were designed to solicit more detailed information based on the interviewees' responses. The questions encouraged the interviewee to elaborate on their answers. Examples of these prompts include: "If yes, can you tell us what they are" or "If no difference, what do you mean by no difference?", "If yes, why do you think so? Please

tell me your experience", "If no, please relate an experience that supports this conclusion." The interview questions were originally written in English. Interview questions for the Koreans were translated into Korean and the Korean version was back-translated into English by a bilingual Korean to have an equivalence between the English and Korean versions of the interview questionnaire.

CHAPTER IV

SURVEY RESULTS

This chapter reports the results of the quantitative survey study in four sections: 1) sample profile; 2) descriptive analysis; 3) comparisons between company employees and English teachers for American expatriates; 4) hypotheses testing. On the quantitative data collected from the questionnaire, a descriptive analysis has been performed to ascertain the profile of both Korean and American expatriates. A bivariate correlation analysis tests the hypothesized theoretical relationships between and among three independent variables (host communication competence, host interpersonal and host mass communication) and the dependent variable, psychological health. Then, a multiple regression analysis is performed to identify the predictors of psychological health. In order to find out the perceived differences between the two host environments of South Korea and the United States in terms of perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure, an independent sample t-test is employed. Since all hypotheses are directional in predicting the nature of the relationship between variables, a one-tailed test is used with the conventional .05 level of significance.

Sample Profile

This section presents the demographic characteristics of the 105 American expatriates and the 106 Korean expatriates who participated in this study. As table 1 indicates, the typical respondent for both groups would be represented by a middle-aged male with a college degree.

Table 1 reports the demographic profiles of the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates. Eighty-one percent of the American participants ($n = 85$) and 95.3%

of the Korean participants (n = 101) are male, while 19 % of the Americans (n = 20) and 4.7% (n = 5) of the Koreans are female. According to t-test between the two comparison groups, the Korean expatriate group has more male workers than the American counterparts even though the expatriates of both groups are predominantly male (t = 3.28; df = 209, p < .01). This indicates that Korean companies participating in the study are likely to predominantly assign male expatriate managers to international assignments.

The average age of the two comparison groups is not significantly different. Among the Americans, the average age of the respondents is 38.49 years with a standard deviation of 11.57 years (range: 21-43 years). Among the Koreans, the average age of the respondents is 38.33 years with a standard deviation of 5.35 years (range: 24-53). The average length of residence of these American expatriates in South Korea is 3.27 years with a standard deviation of 3.31 years (range: 1 month-15 years), while the average length of stay of these Korean expatriates in the U.S. is 3.17 years with a standard deviation of 2.29 years (range: 1 month-13.4 years). All respondents of both groups have earned at least one college degree. Seventy out of 105 Americans have bachelor's degrees (66.7%), 26 have master's degrees (24.8%), and nine have doctoral degrees (8.6%); while 75 out of 106 Koreans have bachelor's degrees (70.8%), 29 have master's degrees (27.4%), and two have doctoral degrees (1.9%). Of the Americans, 42.9% (n = 45) are married and have family in South Korea, and 57.1% of the Americans (n = 60) are not married. In contrast, 89.6% of the Koreans are married (n = 95) and 10.4% of the Koreans are not married (n = 11). According to the t-test between the two groups—the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates on marital status—the Korean expatriates are more likely to be married on international assignment (t = 8.23; df

= 209; $p < .001$).

Table 1

Demographic Profiles of
American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	American Expatriates				Korean Expatriates				*t-test*
	n	%	*M*	*SD*	*n*	%	*M*	*SD*	*p*
Gender			1.19	.40			1.05	.21	$p < .01$
Male	85	81.0			101	95.3			
Female	20	19.0			5	4.7			
Age (in years)			38.49[a]	11.57			38.33[b]	5.35	*ns*
Length of Stay (in years)			3.27[c]	3.31			3.17[d]	2.29	*ns*
Education			2.42	.65			2.31	.50	*ns*
High School									
Bachelor's	70	66.7			75	70.8			
Master's	26	24.8			29	27.4			
Doctorate	9	8.6			2	1.9			
Marital Status			1.57	.50			1.10	.31	$p < .001$
1) Married and having family in Korea (the U.S.)	45	42.9			95	89.6			
2) Not Married	60	57.1			11	10.4			

Notes.
a. Range: 21-43 years
b. Range: 24-53 years
c. Range: 1 month – 15 years
d. Range: 1 month –13.4 years

Descriptive Analysis

This section reports the descriptions of the following research variables based on means and standard deviations: host communication competence, interpersonal communication, mass communication, perceived host receptivity, perceived host conformity pressure, psychological health, and alienation. This section is to describe and compare general characteristics of the adaptation experience of two groups (Americans and Koreans) in terms of research variables.

Host Communication Competence

Host communication competence includes "host language competence (cognitive dimension)," "knowledge of the host culture" (cognitive dimension), "adaptation motivation" (affective dimension), and "operational competence" (behavioral or operational dimension) for comparison groups.

Host Language Competence. The host language competence scale is comprised of seven items assessing multiple spectrums of host language ability for both the Americans and the Koreans (i.e., Korean language ability of American expatriates and English ability of Korean expatriates). Table 2 presents the means and the standard deviations. Overall, the Americans have relatively lower host language ability than the Koreans in all aspects of host language ability. Generally, the mean score of host language competence of the Americans shows less than "3." Among the items, the lowest mean score is found in the area of writing a formal business letter/report (M = 1.27, SD = 0.79). The Koreans show a relatively higher degree of English language competence with mean scores of above"4." Among the items of the scale, the Koreans show relatively higher mean scores in the areas of speaking (M = 5.02, SD = 1.06),

reading comprehension ($M = 5.02$, $SD = 1.03$), and formal/business report writing ($M =$ 5.02, SD =1.13) in spite of small differences. Although it is a slight difference, the lowest mean score for the Korean group is found in listening comprehension – in the area of understanding (listening to) American news and radio ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.12$).

The differences in the level of host language competence between the Americans and the Koreans are obvious and statistically significant in all areas of host language competence: ability to speak (M [Americans] = 2.18, $SD = 1.65$; M [Koreans] = 5.02, SD =1.06, $p < .001$), ability to converse on phone (M [Americans] = 1.94, $SD = 1.58$; M [Koreans] = 4.90, SD =1.10, $p < .001$), ability to ask questions and solve problems at work (M [Americans] = 2.59, $SD = 1.90$; M [Koreans] = 4.99, SD =1.09, $p < .001$), ability to understand news on radio or TV (M [Americans] = 1.73, $SD = 1.12$; M [Koreans] = 4.43, SD =1.12, $p < .001$), ability to read newspapers (M [Americans] = 1.49, $SD = 1.02$; M [Koreans] = 5.02, SD =1.03, $p < .001$), ability to write a formal letter (M [Americans] = 1.27, $SD = 0.79$; M [Koreans] = 5.02, SD =1.13, $p < .001$), ability to write a personal letter (M [Americans] = 1.62, $SD = 1.45$; M [Koreans] = 4.95, SD =1.13, $p <$ .001). These findings suggest that the Americans have a lower level of host language competence and the host language is not an important factor for them to carry out their international assignment and life overseas.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of "Korean Language (English) Ability" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1)Ability to speak spontaneously in Korean (English) with Koreans (Americans)	2.18	1.65	5.02	1.06	$p < .001$
2) Ability to converse on the phone in Korean (English)	1.94	1.58	4.90	1.10	$p < .001$
3) Ability to ask questions and solve problems with Koreans (Americans) at work[a]	2.59	1.90	4.99	1.09	$p < .001$
4) Ability to understand national and domestic news on Korean radio or TV (American radio or TV)	1.73	1.12	4.43	1.12	$p < .001$
5) Ability to read/comprehend Korean (American) newspapers in Korean (English)	1.49	1.02	5.02	1.03	$p < .001$
6) Ability to write a formal business report/letter in Korean (English)	1.27	0.79	5.02	1.13	$p < .001$
7) Ability to write a letter to Korean (American) friends in Korean (English)	1.62	1.45	4.95	1.13	$p < .001$

Notes. The scale is 7-point (1 = "very inadequate," 7 = "very adequate").
[a] Item dropped from the scale to improve reliability
Words in parentheses indicate the questions for the Korean expatriates.

Knowledge of Host Culture. The knowledge of host culture scale is comprised of five Likert-type items to assess the degree of the respondents' knowledge of their respective host cultures (i.e., South Korea/the United States). Table 3 presents the means and the standard deviations for each item. Generally, the mean score of each item between the two comparison groups shows no great differences in the level of knowledge of the host culture. Among the scale items, the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates show slightly higher than "4" in the level of knowledge of verbal and nonverbal communication skills and understanding of cultural norms and values. Although it was a slight difference, among the scale items for the Americans, the lowest score is found in item 5 ("I understand the Korean way of thinking") ($M = 4.16$, SD =1.43). For the Koreans, item 4 ("I understand how most Americans express themselves verbally") is found to have the lowest mean score ($M = 4.34$, SD =1.30).

Only in item 5 ("I understand Korean (American) ways of thinking") is there a mean score difference which is statistically significant (M [Americans] = 4.16, SD = 1.43; M [Koreans] = 4.75, SD =1.22, $p < .05$), suggesting that the Korean expatriates have slightly higher perceived knowledge about the way of thinking of host nationals. Thus, both comparison groups tend to have proper amounts of prior cultural knowledge on their international assignment.

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations of "Host Culture Knowledge" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) I understand Korean (American) cultural norms.	4.74	1.11	4.60	1.08	*ns*
2) I understand Korean (American) cultural values.	4.69	1.17	4.61	1.19	*ns*
3) I understand how Koreans (Americans) communicate nonverbally, such as through facial expressions and body language.	4.59	1.30	4.48	1.25	*ns*
4) I understand how most Koreans (Americans) express themselves verbally	4.27	1.55	4.34	1.30	*ns*
5) I understand Korean (American) ways of thinking.	4.16	1.43	4.75	1.22	$p < .05$

Notes. The scale is 7-point (1 = "not at all," 7 = "completely").
Words in parentheses indicate the questions for the Korean expatriates.

Adaptation Motivation. The adaptation motivation scale is comprised of six items about adaptive motivation or interest in the host environment (South Korea/the United States) for the comparison groups. Table 4 reports the means and the standard deviations. In general, while both groups show high levels of adaptation motivation, the Americans indicates higher interest in adapting to the Korean culture than the Koreans do to the American culture. More specifically, the Americans have a greater interest than Koreans in "understanding the ways Korean people think" (item #1) (M [Americans] = 5.82, SD = 1.20; M [Koreans] = 5.24, SD = 1.09, $p < .001$), "making friends with Korean people" (item #2) (M [Americans] = 5.91, SD = 1.25; M [Koreans] = 5.04, SD = 1.08, $p < .001$), "learning political, economic, and social situations and issues of Korea" (item #3) (M [Americans] = 5.69, SD =1.30; M [Koreans] = 5.07, SD = 1.10, $p < .001$), and "trying Korean food" (item #6) (M [Americans] = 6.08, SD = 1.19; M [Koreans] = 4.59, SD = 1.31, $p < .001$).

However, the Americans indicate a relatively lower mean score in "learning Korean language" (item #4) (M = 4.83, SD = 1.79) than the Koreans in "learning English" (M = 5.5, SD = 1.00, $p < .05$). It is obvious that the Americans are less motivated to learn the host language than the Koreans. This lower mean score on the host language item might be related to the lower score of the American's host language competence.

Table 4

Means and Standard Deviations of "Adaptation Motivation" Items by American Expatriates (N = 105) and Korean Expatriates (N = 106)

Items	Americans		Koreans		t-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) How interested are you in understanding the ways Korean (American) people behave and think?	5.82	1.20	5.24	1.09	$p < .001$
2) How interested are you in making friends with Korean (American) people?	5.91	1.25	5.04	1.08	$p < .001$
3) How interested are you in learning about the current political, economic, and social situations and issues of Korea (America)?	5.69	1.30	5.07	1.10	$p < .001$
4) How interested are you in learning the Korean language (English)?	4.83	1.79	5.50	1.00	$p < .05$
5) How interested are you in adapting to Korean (American) culture/society?	5.18	1.43	5.18	1.07	*ns*
6) How interested are you in trying Korean (American) food?[a]	6.08	1.19	4.59	1.31	$p < .001$

Notes. The scale is 7-point (1 = "not at all," 7 = "very much").
[a]Item dropped from the scale to improve reliability
Words in the parentheses indicate the questions for the Korean expatriates.

Operational Competence. The self-assessed operational competence scale was comprised of eight items to measure subjective operational competence. Table 5 reports the means and the standard deviations. Items #6, #7, and #8 are recoded so that a higher score indicates a higher level of operational competence of the respondents in both groups. Generally, both comparison groups show a mean score above "4," except on item #8 for the Americans.

Overall, both groups mostly show a high mean score above "4" on all counted questions. The Koreans show a little higher mean score than the Americans in the area of communication and interacting with Americans. In items #1, #3, #4, and #8, the Koreans show higher mean scores than the Americans do. The Koreans show a slightly higher mean score in item #1 ("I am able to avoid misunderstandings with Koreans (Americans)) (M [Koreans] = 4.91, SD = 1.11; M [Americans] = 4.52, SD = 1.30, $p <$ .05), item #3 ("My communication usually flows smoothly when interacting with Koreans (Americans) (M [Koreans] = 4.53, SD = 1.23; M [Americans] = 4.06, SD = 1.40, $p < .05$) and in item #4 ("I can get my point across easily when I communicate with Koreans (Americans)") (M [Koreans] = 4.68, SD = 1.26; M [Americans] = 4.12, SD = 1.36, $p < .05$). In item #8 ("I find interacting with Koreans (Americans) challenging"), the Koreans show a large mean score difference (M [Koreans] = 5.01, SD = 1.28; M [Americans] = 3.60, SD = 1.76, $p < .001$). Thus, the results indicate that the Koreans are less likely to feel challenged when interacting with Americans than the Americans are when interacting with Koreans.

While Americans show lower mean scores in several items, in item #7 ("I feel awkward and unnatural when I communicate with Koreans"), the Americans show a

higher mean score than do the Koreans (M [Americans] = 5.27, SD = 1.45; M [Koreans] = 4.50, SD = 1.33, $p < .001$), which means that the Americans feel less awkward and unnatural than the Koreans when communicating with local people. In item #2, #5, and #6, there is no significant mean difference between the two groups.

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations of "Operational Competence" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) I am able to avoid misunderstandings with Koreans (Americans).	4.52	1.30	4.91	1.11	$p < .05$
2) I am able to achieve what I hope to achieve in my interactions with Koreans (Americans).	4.75	1.18	4.86	1.04	*ns*
3) My communication usually flows smoothly when interacting with Koreans (Americans).	4.06	1.40	4.53	1.23	$p < .05$
4) I can get my point across easily when I communicate with Koreans (Americans).	4.12	1.36	4.68	1.26	$p < .05$
5) I am flexible enough to handle any unexpected situations when interacting with Koreans.	4.78	1.42	4.50	1.22	*ns*
6) I have difficulty establishing personal relationships with Koreans (Americans).* [a]	4.80	1.73	4.64	1.31	*ns*
7) I feel awkward and unnatural when I communicate with Koreans (Americans).* [a]	5.27	1.45	4.50	1.33	$p < .001$
8) I find interacting with Koreans (Americans) challenging.* [a]	3.60	1.76	5.01	1.28	$p < .001$

Notes. The scale is 7 point (1 = "totally disagree," 7 = "totally agree")
Words in parentheses indicate the words for the Korean expatriates.
*The items were reversed.
[a] Items were dropped to improve reliability.

Interpersonal Communication

Table 6 presents the average percentages of each of the relationship types at the different levels of intimacy for both comparison groups. With regard to each group's interpersonal communication, it is noted that the American expatriates have more interpersonal ties with host nationals (Koreans) in their casual acquaintances and casual friends (M [casual acquaintances] = 51.87, SD = 27.97; M [casual friends] = 42.88, SD = 29.64); however, they have more interpersonal ties with co-ethnics (Americans) at the close friend level (M = 41.15, SD = 33.28) than they did with host nationals (Koreans) (M = 33.15, SD = 31.87). The higher percentage of interpersonal ties with host nationals (Koreans) in casual acquaintances and casual friends might imply greater interaction potential based on greater host receptivity toward Americans in Korean society. It could also be related to the higher adaptation motivation of Americans in South Korea.

In contrast, the Korean expatriates' relationship patterns are relatively more ethnic-oriented. Table 6 reports that the Korean expatriates are likely to have more interpersonal ties with co-ethnics (Koreans) at all three levels of intimacy (M [casual acquaintances] = 53.61, SD = 23.34; M [casual friends] = 75.09, SD = 21.58; M [close friends] = 83.30, SD = 25.08) than they are with host nationals (Americans) (M [casual acquaintances] = 37.05, SD = 24.40; M [casual friends] = 17.94, SD = 17.39; M [close friends] = 9.07, SD = 13.50).

In comparison, in the level of casual acquaintances, Koreans have more interpersonal ties with Americans (M [casual acquaintances] = 37.05, SD = 24.40) than the American expatriates have with other Americans in South Korea (M [casual acquaintances] = 25.53, SD = 19.40) which is statistically significant ($p < .001$). In

addition, both groups show no significant difference in their interpersonal ties with Koreans (Americans: *M* [casual acquaintances] = 51.87, *SD* = 27.97; Koreans: *M* [casual acquaintances] = 53.61, *SD* = 23.34, $p > .05$).

In the level of casual friends and close friends, both groups predominantly maintain the relationships with their own co-ethnics. For example, Americans have more interpersonal ties with other Americans (*M* [casual friends] = 31.29, *SD* = 24.50; *M* [close friends] = 41.15, *SD* = 33.28) than Koreans have with other Americans (*M* [casual friends] = 17.94, *SD* = 17.39; *M* [close friends] = 9.07, *SD* = 13.50), $p < .001$); while Koreans have more interpersonal ties with other Koreans (*M* [casual friends] = 75.09, *SD* = 21.58; *M* [close friends] = 83.30, *SD* = 25.08) than Americans have with other Koreans (*M* [casual friends] = 42.88, *SD* = 29.64; *M* [close friends] = 33.15, *SD* = 31.87, $p < .001$).

Table 6

Average Percentages of Interpersonal Ties for
American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Relationship Types	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) Casual Acquaintances					
American	25.53	19.40	37.05	24.40	$p < .001$
Korean	51.87	27.97	53.61	23.34	*ns*
Others	22.63	21.02	9.42	10.99	$p < .001$
2) Casual Friends					
American	31.29	24.50	17.94	17.39	$p < .001$
Korean	42.88	29.64	75.09	21.58	$p < .001$
Others	25.82	24.65	6.00	10.12	$p < .001$
3) Close Friends					
American	41.15	33.28	9.07	13.50	$p < .001$
Korean	33.15	31.87	83.30	25.08	$p < .001$
Others	25.69	30.63	3.80	10.36	$p < .001$

Mass Communication. To assess the mass communication consumption, the amount (or frequency) of exposure to ethnic/host mass media (presented in the host language) for each group was measured. As presented in Table 7, the types of mass media included are newspapers/magazines (American/Korean), radio (American/Korean), videos (American/Korean), television (American/Korean), movies (American/Korean), and Internet web pages (English-language/Korean-language). For the American expatriates, items of the Korean mass media (i.e., Korean newspapers/magazines, radio, TV, etc.) are utilized to assess the host mass media consumption, while items of the American mass media (i.e., American newspapers/magazines, radio, TV, etc.) are utilized to assess the host mass media consumption for the Korean expatriates.

As shown in Table 8, in general, the Americans are less likely to consume Korean mass media in South Korea than the Koreans with American mass media in the U.S.

Among American mass media, Koreans are more likely to use American newspapers and magazines (M [Americans] = 2.51, SD = 1.21; M [Koreans] = 2.90, SD = 1.12, $p < .05$), American radio (M [Americans] = 1.99, SD = 1.42; M [Koreans] = 3.37, SD = 1.24, $p < .001$), and American TV (M [Americans] = 3.09, SD = 1.64; M [Koreans] = 4.45, SD = 1.35, $p < .01$) even though the mean difference of American newspapers/magazines is minimal.

Americans only tend to use media more than Koreans such as American videos (M [Americans] = 2.09, SD = 0.86; M [Koreans] = 1.80, SD = 0.68, $p < .01$) and English-language Internet websites (M [Americans] = 4.87, SD = 1.46; M [Koreans] = 3.84, SD = 1.43, $p < .001$). Among Korean mass media, Koreans also predominantly use more Korean media than the American counterparts, such as Korean newspapers/magazines (M

[Americans] = 1.90, SD = 1.12; M [Koreans] = 3.01, SD = 1.13, $p < .001$), Korean radios (M [Americans] = 1.52, SD = 0.77; M [Koreans] = 1.91, SD = 1.22, $p < .01$), Korean videos (M [Americans] = 1.27, SD = 0.54; M [Koreans] = 2.07, SD = 0.95, $p < .001$), and Korean language Internet websites (M [Americans] = 1.60, SD = 1.10; M [Koreans] = 3.95, SD = 1.44, $p < .001$).

Thus, as shown in the mass media consumption of the Koreans, Koreans in the U.S. are more likely to use host (American) mass media than Americans in South Korea do with host (Korean) mass media. While the Koreans are more likely to associate with co-ethnics in terms of their interpersonal communication, they use more host mass media than the American counterparts do. Presumably, the frequent use of American mass media by Koreans is due to the better host language competence (i.e., English) of the Koreans than that of the Americans (i.e., Korean language). For example, most Korean expatriates can and need to speak English for daily activities or business. Furthermore, this media might be instrumental in improving their English. Thus, American mass media might be an important information source for the life of the Korean expatriates. Also, this American mass media might be familiar to the Koreans even before their international assignments. Regarding the most used mass media for each group, it is also noted that American T.V. is the most used mass media for the Korean group (M = 4.45, SD = 1.35); for American groups, English-language Internet websites are the most used mass media (M = 4.87, SD = 1.46).

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations of "Mass Media Consumption" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) How much time do you usually spend reading American newspapers and magazines each day?	2.51	1.21	2.90	1.12	$P < .05$
2) How much time do you usually spend reading Korean newspapers and magazines in Korean each day?	1.90	1.12	3.01	1.13	$p < .001$
3) In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to American radio programs?	1.99	1.42	3.37	1.24	$p < .001$
4) In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to Korean radio programs in Korean?	1.52	0.77	1.91	1.22	$p < .01$
5) In a typical week, how often do you watch American videos?	2.09	0.86	1.80	0.68	$p < .01$
6) In a typical week, how often do you watch Korean videos (Korean language)?	1.27	0.54	2.07	0.95	$p < .001$
7) In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching American TV programs?	3.09	1.64	4.45	1.35	$p < .01$
8) In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching Korean TV programs (Korean language)?	2.42	1.34	2.26	1.39	*ns*

Continued...

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
9) How often do you go to see American movies?	2.79	1.47	2.69	1.20	*ns*
10) How often do you go to see Korean movies (Korean language)?*	1.45	0.09	-	-	
11) In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using English-language websites?	4.87	1.46	3.84	1.43	$p < .001$
12) In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using Korean-language websites?	1.60	1.10	3.95	1.44	$p < .001$

Notes. 1) The scale for item 1 & 2 is a 6-point scale (1 = "don't subscribe/don't read at all; 3 = "15-30 minutes"; 6 = "more than 90 minutes").
2) The scale for item 3, 4, 7, 8, 11, &12 is a 6-point scale (1 = "none"; 3 = "3-4 hours a week"; 6 = "more than 6 hours a week").
3) The scale for item 9, 10 is a 6-point scale (1 = "none"; 3 = "once every two months"; 6 = "more than three times a month").
4) The scale for item 5 & 6 is a 4-point scale (1 = "none"; 4 = "more than 4 a week").
* The item was not included in the scale for the Korean expatriates because it is not applicable to the Koreans in the U.S.

Psychological Health

To measure psychological health, the present study examines two facets of psychological health: "satisfaction" and "alienation."

Satisfaction. The satisfaction scale consists of seven-point Likert-type items assessing the degree to which the respondents experience feelings of well-being and satisfaction while living in the host culture. Table 8 reports the means and standard deviations. Item #4 ("How stressful has your life in Korea (America) been?") is recoded so that a higher score indicates a higher level of satisfaction.

The American expatriate respondents report high levels of satisfaction (more than "5") in their present life (item #1) ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 1.13$), comfortableness of life (item #2) ($M = 5.39$, $SD = 1.17$), sense of reward (item #3) ($M = 5.19$, $SD = 1.27$), and intercultural experience in the host culture (item #7) ($M = 5.11$, $SD = 1.17$); levels of satisfaction drops below "5" when asked about the attitudes of Korean people toward them (item #5) ($M = 4.76$, $SD = 1.44$) and their perception of interpersonal relationships with Korean people (item #6) ($M = 4.85$, $SD = 1.28$).

For the Korean expatriates, the respondents show levels of satisfaction in present life (item #1) ($M = 4.90$, $SD = 1.07$), comfortableness of life (item #2) ($M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.11$), sense of reward (item #3) ($M = 5.16$, $SD = 1.00$), satisfaction with the attitudes of Americans (item #5) ($M = 4.57$, $SD = 0.98$), satisfaction with the relationship with American people (item #6) ($M = 4.44$, $SD = 1.07$), and intercultural experiences (item #7) ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 0.99$).

In comparison, while items #1, #3, #4, and #5 show no significant difference between the two groups, the American expatriates indicate a higher level of satisfaction

than the Korean expatriates in item #2 ("In general, how comfortable do you feel living in Korea (the United States?"))(M [Americans] = 5.39, SD = 1.17; M [Koreans] = 5.00, SD = 1.11, $p < .05$), item #6 ("How satisfied are you with your relationships with Korean (American) people?") (M [Americans] = 4.85, SD = 1.28; M [Koreans] = 4.44, SD = 1.07, $p < .05$), item #7 ("How satisfied are you with your experience in Korean (American) culture?")(M [Americans] = 5.11, SD = 1.17; M [Koreans] = 4.73, SD = 0.99, $p < .05$). Thus, American expatriates in South Korea tend to be more comfortable in their living and satisfied with the attitude of host nationals and with their intercultural experiences.

Table 8

Means and Standard Deviations of "Satisfaction" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) In general, how satisfied with your present life in Korea (the United States) are you?	5.10	1.13	4.90	1.07	*ns*
2) In general, how comfortable do you feel living in Korea (the United States)?	5.39	1.17	5.00	1.11	$p < .05$
3) How rewarding is your life in Korea (the United States)?	5.19	1.27	5.16	1.00	*ns*
4) How stressful has your life in Korea (the United States) been? * [a]	3.51	1.67	3.77	1.24	*ns*
5) How satisfied are you with the attitudes of Korean (American) people toward you?	4.76	1.44	4.57	0.98	*ns*
6) How satisfied are you with your relationships with Korean (American) people ?	4.85	1.28	4.44	1.07	$p < .05$
7) How satisfied are you with your experiences in Korean (American) culture?	5.11	1.17	4.73	0.99	$p < .05$

Notes. Scale is 7-point (1 = "not at all," 7 = "completely")
*Item was reversed.
[a] Item dropped to improve reliability.
Words in parentheses are the questions for the Korean expatriates.

Alienation. The alienation scale is comprised of a set of seven Likert-type items which assess the degree of psychological alienation. The higher score in the scale indicates the higher level of alienation. As shown in Table 9, most items report relatively low mean scores, indicating weak feelings of alienation. Among the items, item #7 ("I miss my home.") reports the highest mean for both comparison groups (M [Americans] = 3.37, SD = 1.80; M [Koreans] = 3.79, SD =1.49). This represents the various connotations on the question from respondents. The fact that respondents miss their home does not necessarily indicate the feeling of alienation or maladaptation, because any expatriates could have this genuine feeling. This result is similar to that of Maruyama's (1998), although the mean score is a little lower than in his study (M = 4.33, SD =1.96).

In comparison, the Koreans show relatively higher mean scores than Americans in Item #6 ("I dislike staying in Korea (the United States)") (M [Americans] = 1.80, SD = 1.08; M [Koreans] = 2.69, SD =1.26, $p < .001$) and item #8 ("I want to go back to my own country as soon as possible") (M [Americans] = 1.91, SD = 1.25; M [Koreans] = 3.33, SD = 0.45, $p < .001$). This suggests that Koreans in the U.S. are more likely to feel alienated as compared to the Americans, even though overall level of alienation tends to be low for both groups.

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations of "Alienation" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) I feel awkward and out of place living in Korea (the United States)	2.60	1.36	2.75	1.23	*ns*
2) It is difficult for me to understand the Korean (American) way of life.	2.79	1.32	2.66	1.23	*ns*
3) I feel lonely.	2.75	1.71	3.00	1.34	*ns*
4) I feel that Korean (American) people do not like me.	2.54	1.55	2.81	1.20	*ns*
5) I am frustrated trying to live in Korea (the United States).	2.64	1.50	2.53	1.20	*ns*
6) I dislike staying in Korea (the United States).	1.80	1.08	2.69	1.26	$p < .001$
7) I miss my home.[a]	3.37	1.80	3.79	1.49	*ns*
8) I want to go back to my own country as soon as possible.[a]	1.91	1.25	3.33	0.45	$p < .001$

Notes. The scale is 7 point (1 = "totally disagree," 7 = "totally agree").
Words in parentheses are the questions for the Korean expatriates.
[a] Item dropped from the scale to improve reliability.

Perceptions of Host Environment

Perceived Host Receptivity. The host receptivity scale is comprised of eight items which assess the degree of the respondents' perceived receptivity by the host culture. Table 10 reports the means and standard deviations. The following four items are reversed: item #2 ("Korean (American) people discriminate against me"), item #4 ("Korean (American) people are curious about me but show no intent to become my friends"), item #7 ("Korean (American) people are indifferent to me"), and item #8 (Korean (American) people are rude to me"). Thus, a higher score indicates more perceived receptivity by the host environment toward the respondents.

Among the items on the scale, significant differences between the comparison groups are found in item #1, #5, and #6. In item #1 ("Korean (American) people accept me into their society"), a *t*-test shows that the mean score differences between the comparison groups are statistically significant (M [Americans] = 3.92, SD = 1.42; M [Koreans] = 4.34, SD = 1.16, $p < .05$). This suggests that Koreans perceive that Americans are accepting them into the host society. This could mean that the American society, an open society based on assimilation ideology is receptive and accepting of foreigners as an integral part of the mainstream society. As for the American expatriates, the lower mean score implies that while Americans feel welcomed and are treated well in the Korean society, it is hard for them to be immersed and blend into the societal systems of the culturally unique and homogenous Korean society.

As shown in item #5 ("Korean (American) people see me and my country favorably"), the American expatriates show a higher mean score than the Korean counterparts (M [Americans] = 4.46, SD = 1.37; M [Koreans] = 4.05, SD = 1.00, $p < .05$).

The American respondents feel that Koreans perceive them in a more positive light and Korean society has a positive image toward Americans. In addition, as seen in item #6 ("Korean (American) people are genuinely interested in associating with me"), the American expatriates sense more interest in interaction on the part of Korean people than the Koreans sense from Americans (M [Americans] = 4.58, SD = 1.22; M [Koreans] = 3.94, SD = 1.15, $p < .001$). Thus, it seems that Americans in South Korea have more interaction potential to build up interpersonal ties with Koreans while staying in South Korea than the Korean expatriates in the U.S. Therefore, while the perceived environments by the comparison groups are receptive and open to the Americans and the Koreans, the degree of receptivity to develop meaningful relationships with host nationals varies.

Other items showed no significant differences between the comparison groups. Particularly, item #3 ("Korean (American) people have a positive attitude toward me") and item #7 ("Korean (American) people are indifferent to me") show very little difference in mean scores between the comparison groups, both of which are not statistically significant: item #3 (M [Americans] = 4.70, SD = 1.15; M [Koreans] = 4.71, SD = 1.00. $p > .05$) and item #7 (M [Americans] = 4.50, SD = 1.34; M [Koreans] = 4.58, SD =1.13, $p > .05$).

Table 10

Means and Standard Deviations of "Perceived Host Receptivity" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) Korean (American) people accept me into their society.	3.92	1.42	4.34	1.16	$p < .05$
2) Korean (American) people discriminate against me.*	4.32	1.65	4.63	1.20	*ns*
3) Korean (American) people have a positive attitude toward me.	4.70	1.15	4.71	1.00	*ns*
4) Korean (American) people are curious about me but show no intent to become my friends.*	3.90	1.52	4.14	1.23	*ns*
5) Korean (American) people see me and my country favorably.	4.46	1.37	4.05	1.00	$p < .05$
6) Korean (American) people are genuinely interested in associating with me.	4.58	1.22	3.94	1.15	$p < .001$
7) Korean (American) people are indifferent to me.*	4.50	1.34	4.58	1.13	*ns*
8) Korean (American) people are rude to me.*	4.92	1.54	5.22	1.18	*ns*

Notes. The scale is 7 point (1 = "totally disagree," 7 = "totally agree").
*Items were reversed.
Words in parentheses are the questions for the Korean expatriates.

Perceived Host Conformity Pressure. As another factor for host environment, the host conformity pressure scale consists of a set of 7–point Likert-type items, which assess the degree of respondents' perceived conformity pressure by the host society. Table 11 reports the means and standard deviations. Item #5 ("Koreans (Americans) think I do not have to follow Korean (American) cultural norms") and #6 ("Koreans (Americans) are receptive to different cultural habits") are reversed so that a higher score indicates a higher level of conformity pressure.

In general, the Koreans are likely to feel more conformity pressure than the Americans. As seen in item #1 and #2, the Koreans might be under high pressure to acquire a proper language proficiency (i.e., in English). In item #1 ("Koreans (Americans) think I should learn and use Korean (English) as soon as possible"), the Americans show a lower mean score than the Koreans (M [Americans] = 4.09, SD = 1.72; M [Koreans] = 4.57, SD = 1.53), which is statistically significant ($p < .05$). Especially, in item #2 ("Koreans (Americans) expect me to eliminate (American/Korean) accent when speaking Korean (English)"), the Americans show a relatively lower mean score (M = 2.96, SD = 1.80) than the Koreans (M = 3.99, SD = 1.34), which is statistically significant ($p < .001$).

In addition, in item #4 ("Koreans (Americans) think I should adopt their life style"), there is a larger difference between the means of the two comparison groups (M [Americans] = 3.77, SD = 1.61; M [Koreans] = 4.57, SD = 1.28), which is also statistically significant ($p < .001$).

Item #6 shows a different pattern between the comparison groups in contrast to other items. In item #6 ("Koreans (Americans) are receptive to different cultural

habits"), the Americans show a higher mean score than the Koreans (M [Americans] = 4.35, SD = 1.47; M [Koreans] = 3.85, SD = 1.19, $p < .05$), suggesting that the Americans perceive the Korean society as less receptive in terms of different cultural habits than Koreans perceive the American society. This clearly indicates that the monocultural, homogenous Korean society is not likely to be receptive to multiculturalism. In contrast, Koreans feel less pressure to carry out different cultural habits in the United States. This might be explained that the heterogeneous, multicultural American society is open to other different cultural habits. Item #3 ("Koreans (Americans) expect me to conform to Korean (American) cultural norms") and #5 ("Koreans (Americans) think I do not have to follow Korean (American) cultural norms") show very little difference in the mean score with no significant difference between the two groups: item #3 (M [Americans] = 4.41, SD = 1.41; M [Koreans] = 4.49, SD = 1.26, $p > .05$); item #5 (M [Americans] = 4.42, SD = 1.45; M [Koreans] = 4.61, SD = 1.05, $p > .05$).

Overall, in spite of this difference in item #6, descriptive analysis indicates that Koreans are more likely to feel pressure to conform to the American ways in the U.S. than the Americans in South Korea.

Table 11

Means and Standard Deviations of "Perceived Host Conformity Pressure" Items by American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

Items	Americans		Koreans		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
1) Koreans (Americans) think I should learn and use Korean (English) as soon as possible.	4.09	1.72	4.57	1.53	$p < .05$
2) Koreans (Americans) expect me to eliminate (American/Korean) accent when speaking Korean (English).	2.96	1.80	3.99	1.34	$p < .001$
3) Koreans (Americans) expect me to conform to Korean (American) cultural norms.	4.41	1.41	4.49	1.26	*ns*
4) Koreans (Americans) think I should adopt their life style.	3.77	1.61	4.57	1.28	$p < .001$
5) Koreans (Americans) think I do not have to follow Korean (American) cultural norms.*	4.42	1.45	4.61	1.05	*ns*
6) Koreans (Americans) are receptive to different cultural habits.*	4.35	1.47	3.85	1.19	$p < .05$

Notes. The scale is 7-point (1 = "totally disagree," 7 = "totally agree")
* Items were reversed.
Words in parentheses are scale items for the Korean expatriates.

Summary of Descriptive Findings

This section describes the univariate descriptive statistics of the research variables, including host communication competence (cognitive, affective, and operational dimensions), interpersonal/mass communication, perceived host receptivity, perceived host conformity pressure, psychological health and alienation between two comparison groups (American expatriates and Korean expatriates).

In host communication competence, the observed significant differences in the means on the research variables suggest that American expatriates have a relatively lower host language competence than the Korean expatriates while both groups show no significant difference on the knowledge of the host culture. In addition, American expatriates show higher adaptation motivation than Korean expatriates except for the item on learning a foreign language. In operational competence, while both groups show relatively high mean scores above "4," Korean expatriates show higher means on interactions and communicating with Americans, which is significant.

In interpersonal communication, in the level of casual acquaintances, American expatriates in South Korea tend to have higher interpersonal ties with Koreans as Korean expatriates in the U.S. do with other Koreans as well. Meanwhile, both groups have personal ties with co-ethnics in the level of casual friends and close friends. In mass communication, it is obvious that the Korean expatriates tend to use more host (American) mass media than American expatriates in South Korea do with host (Korean) mass media, which can be inferred from the limited host language competence of American expatriates.

Regarding psychological health, in the area of satisfaction, the American expatriates indicate more comfortable feeling in the living and satisfaction with the relationship with Koreans and with their intercultural experience in South Korea, which reflects the great receptivity and positive attitude toward Americans in the Korean society. While both groups feel less alienated in general, the Korean expatriates feel relatively more alienated than the American expatriates.

Regarding the perceived host receptivity, while both groups perceive the environment as friendly and receptive, the interaction potential varies. American expatriates in South Korea have more interaction potential to build up interpersonal ties with Koreans while staying in South Korea than the Korean expatriates in the U.S. In host conformity pressure, clearly, the Korean expatriates show the higher perceived conformity pressure than the American expatriates in learning the host language and conforming to the cultural norms.

Comparisons between Company Employees and English Teachers for American Expatriates

As indicated in the methods section, the present study incorporated 25 English teachers in South Korea as participants in the group of American expatriates. Even though it is assumed that these groups are sojourner groups with similar nature and Kim's (2001) theory, as a generic theory, enables the researcher to investigate culture-general phenomena in their adaptation experience, it is still necessary to explore whether there are any differences in the nature of these two groups—company employees and English instructors. Table 12 reports the demographic profiles of each group. For the comparison groups, all the subjects are predominately male. Specifically, 88.75% of company employees ($n = 71$) and 69% of English teachers ($n = 17$) are male. T-test

shows that the difference between the two groups is statistically significant (M [company employees] = 1.11, SD = .32; M [teachers] = 1.31, SD = 0.47; $p < .05$), suggesting that English teachers are more likely to be males than company employees even though the mean difference is minimal. The average age for each group is over thirty. The average age for company employees is 41.60 years (SD = 1.32 years; Range: 21-60 years) and 33.81 years (SD = 1.80 years; Range: 22-64 years) for English teachers, and the mean difference for both groups is found to be statistically significant, which means company employees tend to be older than English teachers. The average length of stay is 4.01 years (SD = 0.47 years; Range: 3 month –15 years) for company employees and 2.15 years (SD =3.91 years; Range: 1 month-9.42 years) for English teachers, which is significantly different ($p < .01$), indicating that company employees tend to stay longer than English teachers. This is understandable in that most English teachers in South Korea have one-year renewable contracts of employment. Regarding educational background, for company employees, 44 respondents hold a bachelor's degrees (55.o %), 27 hold a master's degree (33.75 %), and 9 hold a doctorate degree (11.25 %). For English teachers, 21 respondents hold a bachelor's degree (84.0 %), 3 hold a master's degree (12.0 %) and 1 holds a doctorate degree (4.0 %). The mean difference between the two groups is statistically significant (M [company employees] = 2.56, SD = .69; M [teachers] = 2.21, SD = 0.52; $p < .01$), suggesting that company employees are likely to be more highly educated than English teachers. Forty-eight of the company employees are married and have family in the U.S. (60.0 %), while 32 are unmarried (40.0 %). Twenty-one of the English teachers are unmarried (84.0 %) and four are married (16.0 %). The mean difference between both groups is statistically significant (M [company

employees] = 1.40, SD = .49; M [teachers] = 1.83, SD = 0.38; $p < .001$), indicating that English teachers tend to be unmarried as compared to company employees.

Along with background variables, comparison between two groups on research variables is presented in Table 13. Not many significant differences are found in the research variables. The mean difference is not found to be significant in host language competence (M [company employees] = 1.61, SD = 1.21; M [teachers] = 1.25, SD = .43; $p > .05$), knowledge of the host culture (M [company employees] = 4.65, SD = 1.16; M [teachers] = 4.26, SD = 1.03; $p > .05$), or adaptation motivation (M [company employees] = 5.4, SD = .95; M [teachers] = 5.63, SD = 1.10; $p > .05$). Only operational competence shows a statistical significance between the two groups (M [company employees] = 4.68, SD = 1.02; M [teachers] = 4.11, SD = 1.03; $p < .05$). This could mean that the company employees as business people tend to be more competent in relating to and interacting with host people (Koreans) in and outside of work. This might be due to the fact that business people have had training from an organization and continually build up their behavioral competence by carrying out business transactions.

Among the three levels of host interpersonal communication, casual acquaintances and casual friends have a statistically significant difference between the two groups (casual acquaintances: M [company employees] = 47.30, SD = 27.32; M [teachers] = 58.71, SD = 27.86; $p < .05$; casual friends: M [company employees] = 37.03, SD = 28.26; M [teachers] = 51.64; SD = 29.82; $p < .05$). Thus, the English teachers in South Korea are likely to have more host interpersonal ties in the level of casual acquaintances and casual friends than the company employees are. This might be explained that the teachers are likely to have more interactions with Koreans (i.e.,

students, employer, friends) in- and out-of classroom than company employees have. However, the two groups do not indicate any significant difference in the number of close friends (M [company employees] = 29.24, SD = 30.99; M [teachers] = 39.02, SD = 32.62; $p > .05$).

The difference in satisfaction level is not found to be statistically significant between the two groups (M [company employees] = 4.99, SD = .89; M [teachers] = 5.19, SD = 1.06; $p > .05$). Regarding alienation, the teachers show more feeling of alienation (M [company employees] = 2.38, SD = .96; M [teachers] = 2.75, SD = .90; $p = .05$). Presumably, the English teachers, who are predominantly unmarried, might not have full organizational support, while the company employees do, and this might lead to more feelings of alienation despite the short period of sojourn.

The perceptions of the host environment do not significantly differ between the two groups. The perceived levels of host receptivity and conformity pressure show no statistically significant difference between the two groups (host receptivity: M [company employees] = 4.37, SD = .89; M [teachers] = 4.47, SD = .85; $p > .05$; conformity pressure: M [company employees] = 3.64, SD = 1.16; M [teachers] = 3.80, SD = 1.27; $p > .05$).

Overall, along with the differences in demographic variables, a few differences are found between company employees and English teachers. It reveals that company employees show greater operational competence. Related to host interpersonal ties, English teachers tend to have more host interpersonal ties than company employees. Regarding host receptivity, there is no difference between the two groups. Regarding host conformity pressure, given that English teachers are employed by institutes in South

Korea, unlike expatriate company employees, their status differentials are expected to lead them to perceive more conformity pressure on them. However, the difference between the two groups is not found to be significant. Even though a *t*-test was conducted to compare the two groups, given that the two groups have an unequal sample size (company employees: $n = 80$; English teacher: $n = 25$), caution should be used in interpreting the results of the analysis. It would be interesting to examine the unique cultural adaptation experience of English teachers in the future, because English teachers in South Korea have become one of the most typical sojourner groups with globalization extending even into the area of education.

Table 12

Demographic Profiles of
American Company Employees ($N = 80$) and English Teachers ($N = 25$)

Socio-Demographic Characteristics	Company Employees				English Teachers				*t-test*
	n	%	*M*	*SD*	*n*	%	*M*	*SD*	*P*
Gender			1.11	.32			1.31	0.47	$p < .05$
Male	71	88.75			17	69.0			
Female	9	11.25			8	31.0			
Age (in years)			41.60[a]	1.32			33.81[b]	1.80	$p < .01$
Length of Stay (in years)			4.01[c]	.47			2.15[d]	3.91	$p < .01$
Education			2.56				2.21	.52	$p < .01$
High School	-	-		.69	-	-			
Bachelor's	44	55.0			21	84.0			
Master's	27	33.75			3	12.0			
Doctorate	9	11.25			1	4.0			
Marital Status			1.40				1.83	.38	*p<.001*
1) Married and having family in Korea (the U.S.)	48	60.0		.49	4	16.0			
2) Not Married	32	40.0			21	84.0			

Notes.
a. Range: 21-60 years
b. Range: 22-64 years
c. Range: 3 month – 15 years
d. Range: 1 month – 9.42 years

Table 13. Comparison Between Company Employees ($N = 80$) and English Teachers on Research Variables ($N = 25$)

Items	Company Employees		English Teachers		*t*-test
	Mean	*SD*	Mean	*SD*	*P*
Host Communication Competence					
Host Language Competence	1.61	1.21	1.25	.43	*Ns*
Knowledge of the Host Culture	4.65	1.16	4.26	1.03	*Ns*
Adaptation Motivation	5.40	.95	5.63	1.10	*Ns*
Operational Competence	4.68	1.02	4.11	1.03	$p < .01$
Host Interpersonal Communication					
Casual Acquaintances	47.30	27.32	58.71	27.86	$p < .05$
Casual Friends	37.03	28.26	51.64	29.82	$p < .05$
Close Friends	29.24	30.99	39.02	32.62	*ns*
Host Mass Communication					
Newspapers/Magazines	2.16	1.19	1.52	.92	$p < .05$
Radio	1.50	.70	1.57	.89	*ns*
Video	1.19	.47	1.39	.63	*ns*
TV	2.39	1.31	2.48	1.42	*ns*
Internet	1.74	1.29	1.40	.70	*ns*
Psychological Health					
Satisfaction	4.99	.89	5.19	1.06	*ns*
Alienation	2.38	.96	2.75	.90	$p = .05$
Host Environment					
Host Receptivity	4.37	.89	4.47	.85	*ns*
Host Conformity Pressure	3.64	1.16	3.80	1.27	*ns*

Hypothesis Testing

This section reports results of hypothesis testing based on statistical analysis for the data combining two samples (American expatriates/Korean expatriates). The two data sets (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates) were combined to test the culture general aspect of cross-cultural adaptation. In addition, the hypotheses are tested in each sample separately. Five hypotheses are proposed for the present study, as below:

Hypothesis 1: The host communication competence of expatriate workers is positively associated with their psychological health.

Hypothesis 2: The host interpersonal communication of expatriate workers is positively associated with their psychological health.

Hypothesis 3: The host mass communication of expatriate workers is positively associated with their psychological health.

Hypothesis 4: The perceived host conformity pressure of Korean expatriates in the United States is likely to be higher than that of American expatriates in South Korea.

Hypothesis 5: The perceived host receptivity of Korean expatriates in the United States is likely to be lower than that of American expatriates in South Korea.

Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis predicts a positive association between the host communication competence of expatriate workers and their psychological health. To examine the association, "satisfaction" as one factor of psychological health is used in correlational analysis. The result of correlational analysis among research variables is

presented in Table 14. As illustrated in Table 14, consistent with theoretical prediction, three dimensions of host communication competence are found to be significantly related to psychological health ("satisfaction") while host language competence, one factor of the cognitive dimension, is not. That is, adaptation motivation (affective dimension) and operational competence (operational dimension) are found to be positively correlated to psychological health ($r = .39, p < .01$; $r = .43, p < .01$). Among the two facets of the cognitive dimension, knowledge of the host culture is positively related to psychological health ($r = .28, p < .01$), while host language competence is not significantly related to psychological health ($r = -.04, p > .05$).

According to multiple regression analysis presented in Table 15, with all other predictor variables under control, both adaptation motivation and operational competence are found to be significant predictors on psychological health (adaptation motivation: Beta = .209, $p < .01$; operational competence: Beta = .412, $p < .001$). Knowledge of the host culture is found to be not a significant predictor on psychological health (Beta = .003, $p > .05$). Host language competence is actually found to be a negatively significant predictor on psychological health (Beta = -.224, $p < .05$).

This suggests that the cognitive knowledge of the host culture, adaptation motivation, and operational competence of expatriate workers are significant predictors explaining the variance of psychological health. Thus, the more understanding of the communication system and norms of the host culture expatriate workers have, the more likely they are to have good psychological health. The greater motivation to adapt to the local culture expatriate workers have, the more likely they are to have psychological health. Better behavioral skills in communicating with and relating to host nationals also

Table 14 Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for Entire Data ($N = 211$)
(combining both American Expatriates ($N = 105$) and Korean Expatriates ($N = 106$)

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Communication Competence															
Lang. Comp. (Language Competence)	1.00	.31**	.02	.38**	-.14*	-.30**	-.31**	.47**	.61**	.34**	.55**	.56**	.68**	-.04	-.02
Culture Know. (Cultural Knowledge)		1.00	.33**	.64**	.02	.08	.07	.24**	.10	.08	.04	.26**	.10	.28**	-.28**
Adapt. Motiv. (Adaptation Motivation)			1.00	.37**	.28**	.30**	.31**	.17**	.09	.11	.01	.19**	.01	.39**	-.26**
Opert. Comp. (Operational Competence)				1.00	.12*	.08	.05	.32**	.21**	.06	.10	.29**	.19**	.43**	-.43**
Host Interpersonal Communication															
Casual Acq. (Casual Acquaintance)					1.00	.71**	.56**	-.10	-.14*	.08	-.07	-.01	-.06	.19**	-.14*
Casual Fri. (Casual Friends)						1.00	.81**	-.14*	-24**	.01	-26**	-.10	-.22**	.16*	-.03
Close Fri. (Close Friends)							1.00	-.11	-.26**	-.00	-21**	-.16**	-.19**	.14*	-.04

Table (Cont'd)

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Mass Communication															
Newspaper								1.00	.45**	.14*	.35**	.38**	.43**	.08	-.21**
Radio									1.00	.42**	.55**	.51**	.57**	.06	-.05
Video										1.00	.41**	.51**	.30**	.12*	.01
TV											1.00	.34**	.56**	-.04	.01
Movie												1.00	.45**	.09	-.17**
Internet													1.00	-.10	.03
Pychological Health															
Satis. (Satisfaction)														1.00	-.61**
Alien. (Alienation)															1.00

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

Table 15 Linear Regression of Psychological Health ("Satisfaction") by Independent Variables for Entire Data (N = 211) (combining American Expatriates (N =105) and Korean Expatriates (N =106))

Item	B		Beta	p*
Host Communication Competence				
Host Language Competence	-.102	(.048)	-.224	.033
The Knowledge of Host Culture	.002	(.066)	.003	.975
Adaptation Motivation	.197	(.067)	.209	.004
Operational Competence	.350	(.072)	.412	.000
Host Interpersonal Communication				
Casual Acquaintance	.004	(.003)	.113	.201
Casual Friends	-.003	(.004)	-.100	.419
Close Friends	.000	(.003)	.009	.935
Host Mass Communication				
Newspapers	.015	(.053)	.021	.776
Radio	.074	(.057)	.113	.195

Table (Cont'd)

	B		Beta	*p**
Video	.193	(.101)	.144	.057
TV	-.014	(.044)	-.026	.754
Movie	-.024	(.061)	-.033	.692
Internet	-.067	(.047)	-.128	154
R		.55		
R^2		.31		

Note. The standard error is shown in parenthesis following "B" (unstandardized coefficients).

tend to facilitate psychological health for expatriate workers during their sojourn. However, host language is not an important factor facilitating the expatriate workers' psychological health. Furthermore, as the negative predictor on psychological health indicates, inadequate knowledge of language competence could rather cause miscommunication and hinder greater psychological health.

The data are highly supportive of the hypothesized relationship between the research variables. Therefore, the first hypothesis is moderately supported.

In addition to the analysis of the predicted relationships between the research variables for the sample data collectively, each comparison group (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates) represents unique relationships between research variables separately. For the American expatriates, as correlation analysis in Table 16 indicates, among the three dimensions of host communication competence, adaptation motivation (affective dimension) and operational competence (operational dimension) are found to be positively correlated to psychological health ($r = .37, p < .01$; $r = .35, p < .01$). Multiple regression analysis in Table 17 shows that with all other predictor variables under control, both the adaptation motivation (affective dimension) and operational competence (operational dimension) of host communication competence are found to be significant predictors on psychological health (adaptation motivation: Beta = .287, $p < .01$; operational competence: Beta = .365, $p < .01$). Host language competence and knowledge of the host culture, however, are not significantly related to psychological health ($r = -.04, p > .05$; $r = .07, p > .05$). As noted in regression analysis in Table 17, knowledge of the host culture is found to no significant predictor on psychological health (Beta = -.086, $p > .05$). Furthermore, host language competence is found to be a

Table 16 Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for American Expatriates (N=105)

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Communication Competence															
Lang. Comp. (Language Competence)	1.00	.48**	.24**	.38**	.20*	.23**	.19*	.27**	.05	.13	.07	.56**	.53**	-.04	-.05
Culture Know. (Culture Knowledge)		1.00	.17*	.47**	-.09	.00	.02	.28**	.02	.08	.13	.33**	.24**	.07	-.15
Adapt. Motiv. (Adaptation Motivation)			1.00	.32**	.42**	.36**	.38**	.17*	.27**	.29**	.18*	.26**	.23**	.37**	-.17*
Opert. Comp. (Operational Competence)				1.00	.14	.06	.06	.42**	.18*	.03	.10	.30**	.27**	.35**	-.41**
Host Interpersonal Communication															
Casual Acq. (Casual Acquaintance)					1.00	.82**	.66**	.03	.21*	.26**	.07	.22*	.29**	.14	.08
Casual Fri. (Casual Friends)						1.00	.80**	.07	.19*	.25**	.05	.21*	.19*	.07	.15
Close Fri. (Close Friends)							1.00	.15	.11	.24**	.18*	.17*	.22*	.06	.04

Table (Cont'd)
American Expatriates

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News Paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Mass Communication															
Newspaper								1.00	.08	.03	.14	.28**	.17*	.14	-.27**
Radio									1.00	.19*	.20*	.22*	.16	.16	-.02
Video										1.00	.35**	.52**	.07	.28**	-.06
TV											1.00	.12	.15	.06	.00
Movie												1.00	.29**	.17*	-.19*
Internet													1.00	.07	.12
Pychological Health															
Satis. (Satisfaction)														1.00	-.62**
Alien. (Alienation)															1.00

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

Table 17. Linear Regression of Satisfaction by Independent Variables for American Expatriates (N = 105) and Korean Expatriates (N =106)

Items	American Expatriates				Korean Expatriates			
	B		Beta	p*	B		Beta	p*
Host Communication Competence								
Host Language Competence	-.294	(.127)	-.306	.023	.124	(.117)	.140	.293
The Knowledge of Host Culture	-.074	(.097)	-.086	.448	.093	(.113)	.126	.414
Adaptation Motivation	.267	(.099)	.287	.009	.046	(.098)	.047	.645
Operational Competence	.328	(.102)	.365	.002	.241	(.125)	.308	.057
Host Interpersonal Communication								
Casual Acquaintance	-.001	(.006)	-.028	.869	.003	(.003)	.090	.348
Casual Friends	-.001	(.006)	-.020	.921	-.004	(.006)	-.095	.430
Close Friends	-.001	(.005)	-.037	.813	.004	(.007)	.065	.570

Table (Cont'd)

Items	American Expatriates				Korean Expatriates			
	B		Beta	p*	B		Beta	p*
Host Mass Communication								
Newspapers	.032	(.085)	.038	.709	.020	(.069)	.027	.777
Radio	-.049	(.123)	-.038	.693	.116	(.063)	.176	.067
Video	.475	(.206)	.273	.024	.061	(.112)	.051	.589
TV	-.065	(.070)	-.092	.358	.051	(.057)	.084	.381
Movie	.028	(.136)	.026	.839	.034	(.068)	.048	.621
Internet	.071	(.094)	.082	.456	-.104	(.052)	-.183	.048
R			.57				.65	
R^2			.32				.42	

Note. The standard error is shown in parenthesis following "B" (unstandardized coefficients).

significant predictor on psychological health in the negative direction (Beta = - .306, $p <$ .05). Thus, to the American expatriates, the motivation to adapt to the local culture and competent behavioral skills in communicating with and relating to host nationals are important factors facilitating life satisfaction in South Korea. Knowledge of the host culture, however, is not an important predictor of American expatriates' life satisfaction. Host language competence is even found to be a negative predictor of their life satisfaction in their process of cross-cultural adaptation.

For the Korean expatriates, all three dimensions of host communication competence are found to be positively correlated to psychological health. According to Table 18, host language competence and knowledge of the host culture as a cognitive dimension are positively associated with psychological health ($r = .49, p < .01$; $r = .55, p < .01$). Adaptation motivation (affective dimension) also shows a positive association with psychological health ($r = .38, p < .01$) and operational competence (operational dimension) is found to be positively related to psychological health ($r = .58, p < .01$).

This means that the higher degree of host language ability (i.e., English) and knowledge of the host culture the Korean expatriates have, the more likely they are to have a greater psychological health. The adaptation motivation and operational competence of Korean expatriates also tend to facilitate their psychological health.

Hypothesis 2

The second hypothesis predicts a positive relationship between the host interpersonal communication and psychological health of expatriate workers. As each of the three types of host interpersonal communication is treated as one variable (casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends), correlations between the levels of host

interpersonal communication and psychological health are computed respectively. The results of correlation analysis in Table 14 show that there is statistical support for the prediction that all three levels of host interpersonal communication would be found to be significantly and positively correlated to psychological health (casual acquaintance: $r = .19, p < .01$; casual friends: $r = .16, p < .05$; close friends: $r = .14, p < .05$). The size of the coefficients among these variables, however, is small.

The results suggest that the more expatriate workers interact with host nationals in terms of casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends, the more likely they are to have good psychological health. Thus, all three levels of the host interpersonal ties of expatriate workers (i.e., casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends) tend to facilitate their psychological health in the process of cross-cultural adaptation. This finding corresponds to contact theory (Hanvey, 1979), which suggests that interpersonal contact between individuals from different cultures can result in understanding and adjustment because interaction with local people teaches the expatriate how to behave. Thus, expatriates who frequently interact with host nationals will be less surprised and frustrated by cultural differences, as compared to expatriates who are isolated from the host culture through living in expatriate enclaves (Bell & Harrison, 1996). As the statistical data is fully supportive of the predicted relationships, the second hypothesis is fully supported.

Each comparison group shows a different pattern separately in terms of predicted relationships among the research variables. For the American expatriates, correlation analysis in Table 16 reveals that none of casual acquaintances, casual friends, and close friends is found to be significantly related to psychological health. Thus, although the

descriptive statistics show a relatively higher mean score (average percentages of daily contact) of interpersonal communication (*M* [casual Korean acquaintance] = 51.87, *SD* = 27.97; *M* [casual Korean friends] = 42.87, *SD* = 29.64; *M* [close Korean friends] = 33.15, *SD* = 31.87), the host interpersonal communication (i.e., interpersonal ties with Koreans) is not significantly associated with psychological health (*r* [casual acquaintances] = .14, $p > .05$; *r* [casual friends] = .07, $p > .05$; *r* [close friends] = .06, $p > .05$). Regression analysis in Table 18 shows that none of casual acquaintance, casual friends, and close friends is found to be a significant predictor on psychological health (Beta = -.028, $p > .05$; Beta = -.020, $p > .05$; Beta = -.037, $p > .05$). Thus, host interpersonal communication is not a significant predictor to explain the psychological health of the American expatriates.

For the Korean expatriates, correlation analysis in Table 18 shows that only casual acquaintances shows a small positive correlation to psychological health ($r = .17$, $p < .05$), while casual friends and close friends do not ($r = .16$, $p > .05$; $r = .14$, $p > .05$). Thus, the Korean expatriates' host interpersonal ties with Americans at the level of casual acquaintances tend to facilitate psychological health in the process of adaptation while casual friends and close friends are not likely to facilitate psychological health. Even though there is a positive association between casual relationships with American acquaintances and psychological health, it should be interpreted with caution because of the small size of the correlation coefficient ($r = .17$). Regression analysis in Table 17 indicates that none of the individual predictors serves as a statistically significant predictive factor: casual acquaintance (Beta = .090, $p > .05$); casual friends (Beta = -.095, $p > .05$); and close friends (Beta = .065, $p > .05$).

Table 18 Simple Correlation Matrix of Research Variables for Korean Expatriates (N=106)

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News Paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Communication Competence															
Lang. Comp. (Language Competence)	1.00	.70**	.37**	.75**	.22*	.22*	.21**	.22*	.10	-.11	.03	.07	.10	.49**	-.41**
Culture Know. (Culture Knowledge)		1.00	.53**	.82**	.17*	.28**	.27**	.22*	.17*	.06	-.06	.27**	.03	.55**	-.41**
Adapt. Motiv. (Adaptation Motivation)			1.00	.48**	.02	.08	.04	.34**	.28**	.11	.08	.37**	.09	.38**	-.34**
Opert. Comp. (Operational Competence)				1.00	.17*	.31**	.26**	.18*	.17*	.01	-.04	.25**	.05	.58**	-.48**
Host Interpersonal Communication															
Casual Acq. (Casual Acquaintance)					1.00	.45**	.20*	-.01	-.04	.17*	.17*	.10	.07	.17*	-.30**
Casual Fri. (Casual Friends)						1.00	.65**	.04	.03	.23*	-.04	.13	.05	.16	-.15
Close Fri. (Close Friends)							1.00	-.05	-.01	.21*	-.15	-.05	.06	.14	-.03

Table (Cont'd)
American Expatriates

	Host Communication Competence				Host Interpersonal Communication			Host Mass Communication						Psychological Health	
	Lang. Comp.	Culture Know.	Adapt. Motiv.	Opert. Comp.	Casual Acq.	Casual Fri.	Close Fri.	News paper	Radio	Video	TV	Movie	Internet	Satis.	Alien.
Host Mass Communication															
Newspaper								1.00	.37**	-.06	.14	.18*	.29**	.20*	-.30**
Radio									1.00	.24**	.29**	.31**	.26**	.30**	-.26**
Video										1.00	.14	.32**	.04	.12	-.02
TV											1.00	-.00	.37**	.07	-.13
Movie												1.00	.12	.23**	-.31**
Internet													1.00	-.04	-.19**
Pychological Health														1.00	-.60**
Satis. (Satisfaction)															1.00
Alien. (Alienation)															

Note: *. Correlation is significant at the .05 level (1-tailed). **. Correlation is significant at the .01 level (1-tailed).

Hypothesis 3

The third hypothesis posits that the host mass communication of expatriate workers is positively related to their psychological health. Like host interpersonal communication, regarding the host mass communication, correlations are computed by treating each type of mass media as one single variable. As reported in Table 14, among mass media, video is found to be significantly and positively correlated to psychological health (Video: $r = .12, p < .05$). This indicates that video is a type of mass media which tends to promote psychological health for expatriates. Thus, the more expatriate workers consume video, the greater psychological health they are likely to have. Given that not all mass media tend to facilitate psychological health, the third hypothesis is partially supported.

The relationship between mass communication and psychological health in each sample is also tested. For the American expatriates, correlation analysis in Table 16 reveals that among host mass media (i.e., Korean mass media), only Korean videos and Korean movies are found to be significantly related to psychological health ($r = .28, p < .01$; $r = .17, p < .05$) while the others are not. In addition, regression analysis in Table 17 shows that Korean videos are found to be a significant predictor on psychological health (Beta = .273, $p < .05$). This suggests that the use of Korean videos and movies tends to facilitate the satisfaction of the American expatriates in South Korea. For the Korean expatriates, correlation analysis in Table 18 shows that among host mass media (i.e., American mass media), American newspapers/magazines, radio, and movies are found to be positively related to psychological health ($r = .20, p < .05$; $r = .30, p < .01$; $r = .23, p <$

.01). This means that consumption of American newspapers/magazines, radio, and movies is likely to enhance the life satisfaction of Korean expatriates in the U.S.

The preceding three hypotheses concern the culture-general aspect of the cross-cultural adaptation experience of expatriate workers by examining the relationship between independent variables including host communication competence and social communication (i.e., host interpersonal communication and host mass communication) and a dependent variable, psychological health. Hypotheses four and five examine culture-specific experiences of two expatriate groups by examining two different host environmental factors, perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure.

Hypothesis 4

The present study hypothesizes that Korean expatriates in the U.S. are likely to feel more conformity pressure than their American counterparts in South Korea. Table 19 presents the *t*-test for research variables between the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates. As predicted, the result of *t*-test analysis reveals that the Korean expatriates represent a higher mean score of conformity pressure than that of the American counterparts, suggesting this difference is statistically significant (M [Americans] = 3.70, SD = 1.20; M [Koreans] = 4.35, SD = 1.08; t = - 4.09, $p < .001$). The finding clearly suggests that Korean expatriates tend to feel more implicit or explicit pressure to follow and adopt American cultural norms during their sojourn in the U.S. than do the American counterparts in South Korea. As a feature of the host environment indicates, presumably, in contrast to Korean expatriates in the U.S., the American expatriates tend to maintain higher status as a dominant ethnic group, which stems from stronger national power and ethnic group prestige. Because of this prestige, the

Table 19 T-Test on Research Variables between American Expatriates (N = 105) and Korean Expatriates (N =106)

Variables	American Expatriates		Korean Expatriates		T-test	
	M	SD	M	SD	df	t
Host Communication Competence						
Host Language Competence	1.47	.99	4.89	.94	209	-25.80***
The Knowledge of Host Culture	4.49	1.12	4.56	1.11	209	-.44
Adaptation Motivation	5.49	1.01	5.21	.86	209	2.15*
Operational Competence	4.45	1.06	4.70	1.05	209	-1.74
Host Interpersonal Communication						
Casual Acquaintance	51.87	27.97	37.05	24.40	208	4.09***
Casual Friends	42.88	29.64	17.94	17.39	208	7.44***
Close Friends	33.15	31.87	9.07	13.50	208	7.13***
Host Mass Communication						
Newspapers	1.90	1.13	2.91	1.13	208	-6.442***
Radio	1.53	.78	3.38	1.25	208	-12.88***
Video	1.27	.55	1.80	.68	208	-6.192***

Table (Cont'd)

Variables	American Expatriates M	American Expatriates SD	Korean Expatriates M	Korean Expatriates SD	T-test df	T-test t
TV	2.42	1.35	4.45	1.35	208	-10.885***
Movie	1.45	.93	2.70	1.20	208	-8.37***
Internet	1.61	1.10	3.85	1.43	208	-12.71***
Psychological Health						
Satisfaction	5.07	.96	4.80	.82	208	2.15*
Alienation	2.52	.95	2.75	1.05	208	-1.61
Host Environment						
Host Receptivity	4.41	.87	4.45	.77	209	-.35
Host Conformity Pressure	3.70	1.20	4.35	1.08	208	-4.09***

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

American expatriates are not likely to be pressured to conform to the all the cultural norms in South Korea. Therefore, the hypothesis is fully supported.

Hypothesis 5

The fifth hypothesis posits that the level of perceived receptivity of Korean expatriates in the U.S. is likely to be lower than that of American expatriates in South Korea. According to *t*-test analysis on the composite scores of host receptivity in Table 19, there is very little difference between the perceived receptivity of South Korea and the United States (M [Americans: perceived host receptivity of South Korea] = 4.41, SD = .87; M [Koreans: perceived host receptivity of the United States] = 4.45, SD = .77; t = -.35, $p > .05$), which is not statistically significant. This statistical result might be explained in that as business people the social relationships of both groups are more likely to be characterized by equal status and common goals (Lesser & Peter, 1957). Thus, as expatriates, each group might be well treated by local people and this makes them perceive the host environment as receptive with no significant difference.

Even though there is no statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of level of host receptivity, the descriptive analysis and interview data lend credence to the prediction of the hypothesis. The interview findings also support the idea that Koreans in the U.S. are likely to experience lower receptivity than American expatriates in South Korea. Korean expatriates perceive the receptivity of American society as a superficial friendliness and feel that this openness toward strangers derives from societal values rather than from a host individual's desire for a personal intercultural interaction experience. In addition, as an ethnic minority group, Koreans in the U.S. tend to experience lower receptivity than do Americans in South Korea (The interview

findings are explained in chapter 5 in more detail). Descriptive analysis also reveals a higher mean score for the Americans in the items related to the attitude of local people (i.e., Koreans). For example, as shown in Table 10, in item #5 ("Korean (American) people see me and my country favorably"), the American expatriates show a higher mean score than the Korean counterparts (M [Americans] = 4.46, SD = 1.37; M [Koreans] = 4.05, SD = 1.00, $p < .05$). In addition, as seen in item #6 ("Korean (American) people are genuinely interested in associating with me"), the American expatriates sense more interest in interaction on the part of Korean people than the Koreans sense from Americans (M [Americans] = 4.58, SD = 1.22; M [Koreans] = 3.94, SD = 1.15, $p < .001$).

Even though there is inconsistent finding between quantitative and qualitative analysis, given clear indication of much more favorable receptivity reported by the American interviewees than Korean interviewees, the interview data give more reliable information on the perceived receptivity of both groups. Thus, with the methodological triangulation, it can be concluded that the Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. are likely to sense relatively lower receptivity than American expatriates in South Korea. Therefore, the hypothesis five is fully supported.

Summary of Findings

Five hypotheses are proposed to test theoretically predicted relationships between the research variables. The first three hypotheses are to examine culture-general patterns of the cross-cultural adaptation of expatriate workers. The last two hypotheses are to test culture-specific patterns in the different host environment. The hypothesized relationships among the research variables have been tested based on collective data

combining the two samples (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates) as well as on each sample separately.

Hypothesis one, predicting a positive association between host communication competence and psychological health, is partially supported. The analysis of the data suggests that among the three dimensions of host communication competence, knowledge of the host culture (cognitive dimension), adaptation motivation (affective dimension), and operational competence (operational dimension) are significant factors to enhance the psychological health of expatriate workers. Only host language competence, one facet of the cognitive dimension, is not significantly related to psychological health. Hypothesis two, predicting a positive relationship between host interpersonal communication and psychological health, is fully supported. Analysis of data confirms that all three levels of host interpersonal communication (casual acquaintances, casual friends, close friends) tend to facilitate the psychological health of expatriate workers. Hypothesis three, predicting a positive association between host mass communication and psychological health, is partially supported. Statistical analysis shows that among mass media, the use of video is positively and significantly related to psychological health. Thus, the consumption of video tends to enhance the psychological health of expatriate workers. As hypothesis four predicted, the perceived host conformity pressure is found to be different between the two expatriate groups (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates). Statistical analysis shows that the Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. tend to feel higher perceived conformity pressure than the American expatriate workers in South Korea, which means Korean expatriate groups as an ethnic minority group sense more implicit or explicit pressure to follow and adopt cultural norms, habits,

and language in every aspect of their life in the U.S., unlike their American counterparts in South Korea. Hypothesis five posits that Korean expatriates in the U.S. are likely to feel lower host receptivity than American expatriates in South Korea. Statistical analysis reveals that the level of perceived host receptivity shows no difference between two groups, which is not statistically significant. However, with the methodological triangulation, the interview data clearly provide the clear indication of much more favorable receptivity reported by the American interviewees as well as descriptive findings. Thus, it might be concluded that the Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. are likely to sense relatively lower receptivity than American expatriates in South Korea. Accordingly, hypothesis 5 is supported.

CHAPTER V

INTERVIEW RESULTS

In addition to the structured quantitative survey, an in-depth personal interview was conducted for each comparison group (Koreans/Americans). This section describes the interview findings under the sections of a profile of interviewees, results of the interviews with Americans, results of the interviews with Koreans, comparisons of Americans and Koreans, and comparisons to statistical results.

Of the qualitative data obtained from the interviews with both comparison groups, the interview data was analyzed based on a portion of the qualitative verbal responses which are relevant to the interviewee's personal adaptation experiences in the host environment. The interviewees' comments and testimonials in response to the interview questions (described in detail in the interview schedule section), serve as the basis for addressing the four research questions posed in the chapter 2: 1) to investigate the kinds of contact and communication activities that each expatriate group has with local people, 2) to identify the communication-related difficulties that each expatriate group experiences in relation to local people, 3) to examine the perceived receptivity of the host environment and 4) to examine the perceived conformity pressure of the host environment.

In analyzing qualitative interview data, all questions and responses to open-ended questions were transcribed in their entirety. The Korean interviews were transcribed by the investigator in Korean, while the American interview data were transcribed by American transcribers. After transcription, the verbatim data have been grouped into common categories based on emerging themes of communication difficulties,

interpersonal contact and communication, and perceptions of the host environment. In this process, for the interviews with Americans, the investigator and an American coder cross-checked the categories of themes and verified the interpretation of the results by comparing them to each other; while the investigator and another Korean coder did the same for the verbatim data in Korean. With this process, the data was finally organized into the categories under the above four themes. To present the findings, the findings of these categories from the interview with Koreans was translated back into English by the investigator and verified by a Korean bilingual.

A Profile of Interviewees

For the interviews with Americans, twenty Americans were interviewed. Among the 20 interviewees, 18 are company employees while two are English teachers. Regarding the interview, 15 interviews including 13 company employees and two English teachers were conducted as one-on-one interviews and one focus group interview with five company employees was conducted. For the interviews with Koreans, 20 one-on-one interviews with company employees were conducted.

Regarding the demographic characteristics of each interviewee group, while 15 out of 20 American interviewees are male (75%) and five are female (25%), all twenty Korean interviewees are male. The average age of the American interviewees is 35.7 years old (SD = 11.9 years; range: 21-61 years old); the average age of the Koreans is 39.7 years old (SD = 5.2 years; Range: 32-50 years). The average length of stay in South Korea for the Americans is 3.9 years (SD = 3.2 years; Range: 7 months-14 years) and the average length of stay in the U.S. for the Koreans is 3.5 years (SD = 2.1 years; Range: 5 months-10 years).

Regarding the educational level of the Americans, 14 out of 20 interviewees have a bachelor's degree (70%), five have a master's degree (25%) and one has a doctoral degree (5%). Among the Koreans, 15 interviewees have a bachelor's degree (75%) and five have a master's degree (25%). Out of the 20 American interviewees, only five (25%) had lived in a foreign country before going to South Korea and eight American interviewees (40%) had had intercultural training before being assigned to the international assignment. Among the Koreans, nine interviewees (45%) had lived in a foreign country before coming to the U.S. and six (30%) had had prior intercultural training.

In addition to the general profile of all interviewees from both groups, a brief description of five interviewees from each group is presented.

American interviewees

Interviewee #1. He is a white male in his mid-fifties, holding a master's degree. His total length of stay in South Korea is 7 years. He came to South Korea and stayed for two years prior to this assignment and has been in South Korea for 5 years at the time of the interview. His current job title is President and CEO of a language consulting company. His job entails defining marketing strategy, developing products like language training methods and software, managing the customer support process and teaching a foreign language (i.e., English). He had lived in Italy for three years before he went to South Korea and has traveled in 22 different countries to do consulting work. He did not take any intercultural training program before going to South Korea. He was very supportive and open-minded about the interview and knows a lot about Korean culture. He has a variety of interpersonal ties with Koreans through church activities. He speaks a

little Korean, but not fluently. In his own cultural journey, he believes that he should change because he is a guest to the Korean culture.

Interviewee #2. He is a white male in his mid-forties. He had been in South Korea for almost ten years at the time of the interview. He has his bachelor's degree and is President and Executive Director of a consulting company. His job involves consulting about manpower in the organization including recruiting, networking, and marketing. He had never lived in a foreign country before going to South Korea and never had any intercultural training prior to his international assignment. He knows a little Korean vocabulary and has many Korean friends and a variety of personal networks in and out of his work. Through his intercultural experience for his 10 year stay, he is very insightful and knowledgeable about Korean culture and customs. He even writes about the Korean culture in a Korean newspaper (English version).

Interviewee #3. She is a white female in her early fifties. She has a bachelor's degree and has been in South Korea for almost four years. She is a merchandise and administration manager in a big distribution company, so she is in charge of inventory control, importation, vendor agreement, and new store planning. She had been in China for three years prior to this international assignment in South Korea. Regarding the training/orientation, she has received language training in Spanish. As she works with mostly Korean staff members, she has full interaction with Koreans at her work.

Interviewee #4. She is a white female in her early fifties. She has a bachelor's degree and is an executive director of an organization supporting overseas chamber activities. She is responsible for managing day-to-day operation of the organization, that includes supervising a Korean staff and foreign employees for briefings, production, and

marketing of all the publications of the company. She has been in South Korea for 14 years and had lived in Germany prior to going to South Korea. She did not have any intercultural training before her international assignment. She does not speak any Korean. She has most socializing activities with Koreans, including employees, friends, government officials, etc., in and out of work and she attributes her most positive experience to the deep friendship with local people.

Interviewee #5. He is a white male in his early thirties. He has a bachelor's degree. He had been in South Korea for seven months at the time of the interview and is an English instructor. He speaks a little Korean – enough to converse with local people. He is single and has a Korean roommate. He had not lived in a foreign country and had not received any intercultural training before he went to South Korea. As an English teacher, he is very exposed to the local environment by interacting with Korean students and his supervisor in and out of work. He has a very positive perception of Korean people and culture. However, he comments that he is annoyed by the attitude of local people who only treat him as a tool to practice English.

Korean Interviewees

Interviewee #1. He is a male in his mid-forties. He has been in the U.S. for more than three years. He has bachelor's degree and is a general manger of a Korean shipping company and in charge of general administration. He lived in the Netherlands for two years before his career in the U.S. He has not taken any intercultural training before. He comments that his interaction with local people is limited to coworkers at the shipyard. In addition, the fact that his American coworkers are all employees under his supervision might affect their relationships and their interaction. He says that as short-term

sojourners, expatriates have an experience merely on the surface, unlike long-term immigrants.

Interviewee #2. He is a male and forty years old. He earned his master's degree in the U.S. and has been in the U.S. for four years. He is the general manager of a shipping company and is in charge of coordination of shipping between the Seoul headquarters and overseas customers. He had never been in a foreign country and never received any intercultural training before he came to the U.S. He mentions that one of the most interesting thing in his intercultural experiences is the strong and clear boundaries between private and public affairs in business.

Interviewee #3. He is a male in his late forties. He had been in the U.S. for three years during his first international assignment prior to this one but he had been in the U.S. for nine months at the time of the interview. He has a bachelor's degree and is a general manager of a Korean bank, where he handles loans and letters of credit. He had never lived in other foreign countries before he came to the U.S. and had not received any intercultural training prior to his international assignment. He has a positive perception of American society. He comments that to be mainstreamed into the American society, migrants need to master the host language and culture. He gives insightful comments on the interview questions as well.

Interviewee #4. He is a male and forty years old. He has a bachelor's degree and is a manager of a Korean company. His job includes procurement within the aerospace industry. He had been in the U.S. for almost three years at the time of the interview. He had never been in foreign countries and had not received any intercultural training prior to his international assignment. Due to his work assignment, he mostly interacts with

American coworkers daily. He points out that one of the most positive things in his life in the U.S is the well-developed public education systems.

Interviewee #5. He is a male in his early forties. He is a general manager of a Korean electronics company, in charge of the business and technology division. He had been in the U.S. more than three years at the time of the interview. Before the current job assignment, he took a company-sponsored overseas language program and on-the-job training in the U.S. for three months. Although he had a bad experience in the interaction with local people in that overseas program, he has a really positive experience in his current overseas life. Like other Korean interviewees, his interaction with local people is largely limited to coworkers at work and business relationships.

Interview Schedule

To provide in-depth, qualitative insight into the findings from the structured survey, the interview schedule consists of mostly open-ended questions dealing with seven topic areas: (a) background information, including gender, age, length of stay, educational background, current job description (i.e., job title and responsibility in the company), prior intercultural experience, and training, (b) host communication competence, dealing with communication difference, communication-related difficulties when interacting with local people both at work and outside the workplace, and coping strategies to deal with these difficulties, (c) interpersonal communication, dealing with daily intercultural interaction both at work and outside the workplace, (d) mass communication, based on the daily use of host and ethnic media, (e) perceived host receptivity, concerning frank impressions of the host society and people, perceptions about both general attitudes of host nationals toward foreigners and specific attitudes

toward the respondents themselves, and discrimination from local people, (f) perceived host conformity pressure, dealing with cultural similarities and differences, conformity pressure from the host environment, and difficulties with the host cultural habits and customs, and (g) psychological health, asking about the positive/unpleasant experiences while living in the host environment, overall feelings about the present life, and desire to return to a country if given such a chance. At the conclusion of each interview, debriefing questions are asked to allow the interviewee to make additional comments on his or her life experience overseas and to express his or her own opinions and feelings about the interview questions or the interview itself.

Following the first section about background information, in the second section regarding the host communication competence, questions include: 1) "It is likely you have opportunities to interact with Korean people (American people) both in and outside of your work? Do you find any differences between communicating with Koreans (Americans) and communicating with Americans (Koreans)?" with follow-up questions: "If yes, can you tell us what they are? If no difference, what do you mean by no difference?"; 2) "Have you ever experienced difficulties in communicating with Korean people (American people) in or outside of the work environment?" with follow-up questions: if yes, what kinds of communication difficulties? Please relate a specific incident that illustrates your challenges in communicating with Koreans (Americans). In and out of work? Which seems more problematic? Did you try anything to deal with these difficulties? How did it work? If no, tell me what your typical experience in communicating with Koreans (Americans) is like."

In the third section regarding interpersonal communication, three questions are asked: 1) "Of all your daily conversations (at work or outside work), approximately what percentage of them do you have with Korean (American) people?; 2) "In what capacities and for what reasons, both in and out of work, do you interact with Korean (American) people?"; 3) "What kinds of socializing do you do with Korean (American) people?"

In the fourth section regarding mass communication, the two questions are: 1) "In your daily life, what kind of American mass media do you use?"; 2) "In your daily life, what kind of Korean mass media do you use?" Each question is followed by follow-up questions including what program (or content) in (this medium) do you like/use most? What is (are) the major reason(s) for you to use this medium?"

In the fifth section, covering the perceived receptivity of the host people (Korean or American), questions include: 1) "What was one of your first impressions about Korea (America) and Korean people (American people) upon arrival in this country? Where did you get this image? Is it changed now? If so, how? Would you be willing to tell me your current frank impression?"; 2) "What do you think about the attitude of Korean people (American people) toward foreigners in general?; 3) "What do you think about the attitude of Korean (American) people toward Americans (Koreans) like you in particular?; 4) "Have you ever had experiences during which you felt you were treated differently from Koreans (Americans) because you are a foreigner?"

In the sixth section, dealing with perceived host conformity pressure, the items include: 1) "What aspects of the Korean (American) culture (or customs) do you find different from yours?"; 2) "What aspects of the Korean (American) culture (or customs) do you find similar to yours?"; 3) "An old proverb says, 'When in Rome, do as Romans

do.' Do you think Koreans (Americans) believe that you should do as Koreans (Americans) do when in Korea (America)?" with follow-up questions including "If yes, why do you think so? Please tell me your experience. If no, please relate an experience that supports this conclusion."; 4) "Do you try to follow Korean customs/cultural habits? How much difficulty have you had in following Korean customs or cultural habits?; 5) "How do Korean people treat you when you do not follow Korean cultural norms or habits? Please tell me your specific experience."

In the seventh section, dealing with psychological health, these questions are asked: 1) "What are some of the positive experiences you have had while living in Korea (the U.S.) so far?"; 2) "What are some of the unpleasant experiences you have had while living in Korea (the U.S.) so far?"; 3) "If you have another chance to work overseas in the future, would you like to come back to Korea (the U.S.)?" with follow-up questions: "If yes, tell me why." "If no, tell me why not."; 4) "Overall, how do you feel about your present life in Korea (the U.S.) as regards your life experiences interacting with Koreans (Americans) in and outside work?" The final section asks for the interviewee's overall life experiences as well as comments once again about the interview questions (See Appendix 4 & 5 for the interview schedule for both groups).

Results of Interviews with Americans

Communication-related Difficulties

In response to the questions about communication differences and difficulties, most American interviewees comment that most challenges come from different verbal behavior and work style rather than lack of host language competence (i.e., Korean). One American interviewee responds that unclear and ambiguous verbal expression and

feedback might be the most frustrating experience in his communicating with Koreans. He describes:

> "Now I have to say I still once in a while get surprised where I thought something was really understood because there's the other factor which the typical pride of a Korean businessman will not let him say 'I didn't understand what you just said, can you repeat that please.' The typical business man will just sit there, nodding head....pretend to understand and when it's all said and done say 'well, do we have an agreement? Yes.' Not exactly. It's not exactly, there's no agreement."

Another interviewee explains in this way:

> "Sometimes when you may ask a Korean a question, a simple question or a conversation or something and they may say yes. And their yes means something different than it would to Americans. To Americans you would assume that the yes in the conversation means yes I understand, yes, I agree, and yes I will do as you suggested. But with Koreans their yes means perhaps sometimes only yes I hear you."

Clearly, this ambiguous or sometimes indirect communication style of Koreans could be connected to their face-saving strategy and the different verbal norms can cause confusion and misunderstandings for the American counterpart in and outside of work.

Along the same lines, two American English teachers comment that indirect communication styles are a source of differences and challenges in their communicating with Koreans. One female English instructor explains the challenges as the difference between high context and low context communication styles. She says that Koreans never make their expectations clear, even if something is a necessity. But, right before it's time to go, they really apply pressure to do it as a necessity. So, misunderstandings occur. One male English instructor expresses his frustration in dealing with this indirect communication style by saying "You have to read between the lines more, either more or there's different lines you have to read between. They are difficult."

In addition to the lack of the clarity in Korean verbal behavior, one American interviewee points out that hierarchy is a source of difficulty in communicating with people of different status in the organization. To many Americans, it is challenging to show greater restraint when addressing someone of higher status.

> "Yeah, there are some differences. I think you have to be more careful of who you're speaking to in Korean because if there's somebody that is like, has a higher position or something, you have to be very careful what you say. And in the U.S., I sometimes feel like you can be a little more frank about if something is wrong. Or something. But yeah, it's difficult to tell someone they're wrong if they're a superior."

Obviously, addressing a person properly according to different positions in Korean business firms is one of the very important social rules in Korean society, which emphasizes hierarchy. The violation of this norm could inhibit furthering relationship and effective communication.

Along with verbal behavior, Americans identify differences in their work styles as challenging. An American interviewee comments that the work style (or business style) of Koreans can be characterized as relationship-oriented. Thus, in South Korea, it is important to establish a personal relationship before one delves into a discussion of business matters. He states:

> "In the United States, I would be very comfortable in sitting down with somebody, we call it 'chit-chat' for two or three minutes, and then we can get to the heart of the matter...It's much more difficult here because we have to establish a relationship here first..., for the first two or three meetings to really be insubstantial in terms of business; we're feeling each other out, learning how to relate to each other, that sort of thing...One is the Korean culture tends to emphasize the relationship and to say 'we'll push the details off until we have to solve them.' The Western culture tends to look at the details upfront and try to say "If A, then B, if C then D, if E then F." And my Korean friends look at me really weird and says "Hey, wait a minute, we're friends aren't we?" Well, figure that one out and we'll do what's right and that can cause problems if either one of us is insistent on doing things our way."

It is clear that in Korean business culture, to establish a relationship in the initial stage is an important step in doing business. As a result, there are unclear or blurred boundaries between public and private affairs, and formal business and friendship could be intermingled into a single business domain. This could be viewed by American expatriates as very ineffective and incomprehensible, since they tend to emphasize directness and a clear distinction between public and private affairs

Contact and Communication Activities

When examining the host interpersonal ties, the Americans report having a variety of interactions with Koreans in- and out-of-work contexts. Social activities that Americans have with the Koreans include a wide range of activities from dinner, golf, movies, trips, parties to church. Most of the American interviewees express that all the interpersonal relationships with Koreans are very meaningful in their life in South Korea. Most of the Americans indicate that the meaningful friendships and hospitality of local people are the most positive and pleasant experiences contributing to their life satisfaction overseas. The Americans stipulate that even though it is not easy to get to know Koreans in the initial stage, after becoming friends, the relationships are very meaningful. With this positive experience, most of the American interviewees imply that they would be interested in coming back to work in South Korea in the future.

Several comments are presented below:

> "Some of the Korean friends I've made are, I think, among the truest of the friends I have. There again, the sense of how you get to friend is different but once you're there, the sense of bonding and the strength of the relationship is stronger. It's almost the same as a brother in the United States."

> "The positive is almost all about the people. Um, they let you know they're just supportive; they'll do things for you. Once you know them they're so awesome, they can be the warmest people in the world I think... Korean people are great...I would want to go someplace else. But I'll always have a warm place in my heart for Koreans. Not so much for KOREA but for KOREANS."
>
> "Every day is a positive experience. I had back surgery here. And my family was in the United States. I had so many Korean people come to the hospital, volunteer to come to stay with me at my house, or come to my house every day. Even total strangers, when you're walking on a street, if you look lost, if you're looking at a map, Koreans will stop and help you."
>
> "I think people are generally nicer, more complimentary. It's appreciative. I've had incredibly deep friendships. I think deeper because they're expected to go deep as opposed to...I think Americans have casual shallow relationships. Friendships here MEAN SOMETHING."

The Americans have a variety of personal contacts and relationships with local people both in and outside the work context. The Americans are satisfied with the personal relationships with local people at the deep friendship level. The deep friendship and hospitality of local people clearly relates to the fact that Americans are welcomed and perceived positively in South Korea, and Korean society provides Americans with full interaction potential. This is explored more in the following section with regard to perceived host receptivity.

Perceived Host Receptivity

To explore perceived host receptivity, the primary questions are focused on the attitudes of host nationals (i.e., Koreans) toward foreigners in general and specific attitudes toward the interviewee as an American. Speaking of the general attitudes toward foreigners, most American respondents point out the "double standard" shown depending upon the status of foreigners. Many interviewees express their feelings about

the double standard in the Korean people's attitudes. One interviewee mentions his personal experience:

> "It really depends on status...My wife is African-American and most African-Americans in this country [South Korea], if they're not with the military or day laborers, domestic workers – that sort of thing, and so the immediate assumption on the part of somebody when they see my wife who has long braids so she's clearly not in the military, is "you're second or third rate." I see. And so there's sort of a brush off or an indifference. But then they find out that she's the President of the American Women's Club and all of a sudden the light goes on and there's a complete change in attitudes. And that is just true across the board."

Another interviewee explains how Koreans show this differentiation:

> "....They [Koreans] do judge some people from other countries and different skin colors differently. Definitely I think they do that. But I think also what the foreigners don't realize is that the Koreans are probably just as bad on each other as they are on foreigners...I think they rank foreigners the same way. They don't just lump them into one. They look at some foreigners as being high level, higher class, a more stronger country versus one that is weaker and I think they position themselves and their company and their people somewhere in that social status. If they consider Americans being the biggest and largest country in the world, right? And they put us on a high pedestal and then they look at people from some other countries [with an economically] lower standard than them, they put them down.... So I think that is how they look at it. So they don't look at foreigners the same."

One interviewee also comments on his perception of the attitude of Koreans toward foreigners:

> "Foreigners in general? It depends on which day. Each day is a little different... but the dominant group thinks that the rest is kind of, they kind of classify everyone in one group and sometimes I feel like it's a little racist and stuff. And so. Especially my friend from Columbia? He, because he's not white, it's really difficult for him sometimes. Yeah...I think there's definitely some discrimination. Not much and it's not violent or anything like that. It's just mostly like feeling, you can feel it or something a little different."

It is obvious that from the Americans' perspectives Korean society/Korean people do not perceive foreigners as the same and extend the differential level of receptivity and treatment depending on the relative status, such as social position, national power, and

ethnic group prestige. With this double standard, the American interviewees have an impression that white Americans are treated more favorably than other foreigners.

In their own personal examples with regard to the specific attitude toward the interviewees themselves as Americans, the majority of the American interviewees report extreme favoritism and hospitality toward Americans. For most Americans, they feel they are welcomed and treated very well by Koreans. It is reported that there is even a positive stereotype toward Americans—i.e. Caucasian, English-speaking persons are desirable.

Not only are Americans favorably treated but also in being American there is prestige and the privilege to receive special treatment. The interviewees even feel that Koreans treat them much better than Koreans treat other Koreans. One interviewee describes his impression:

> "Me as an American? Um, I feel like it's usually positive. The interaction. But I also feel like I'm an American I get treated a little bit more specially... positively and not equally....I think mainly because...in social linguistics we learned about like prestige and because there's an attitude that there's English speakers that are American and are white are viewed more positively by Koreans overall....one of the most frequent ones they want is to learn English from you. Mostly English."

Several other interviewees provide their own impressions about being American and the favoritism shown Americans in South Korea:

> "My first impression was one of astonishing warmth. I just think about just every day, getting on the elevator for example, people will, in my apartment complex, people will almost always defer, say 'you go first.' There are a few exceptions. So it's hard to pinpoint it because it's mostly in attitude or a smile where I'll see somebody will smile at me but I notice that they won't smile at the next person [Koreans]. So that's how I differentiate that there's this attitudinal difference."

Another interviewee describes the extreme hospitality toward Americans:

> "The people are very warm. I think they have generally been very interested and very hospitable to Americans. More than Americans are hospitable them [Koreans] when they come to America."

One other interviewee also mentions the sense of feeling welcomed:

> "So I have felt very welcome in that aspect that just because I am American, you know, I sort of represent something because I am from America. But that is maybe less with the younger people."

One English instructor even comments that among English-speaking Westerners, Americans are more welcomed with a sense of familiarity:

> "It's just a familiarity, that's what I want to say! A sense of familiarity, 'Oh you're American, okay' and there's just a little bit more sense of familiarity than with South Africans or other English speaking nationalities."

Clearly, from the perspectives of the Americans, Korean people and society perceive Americans very favorably and treat them really well due to their positive stereotypes of Caucasians Americans.

In the midst of this "White syndrome," however, some Americans are concerned about recent anti-American sentiment echoed in South Korea. As the data for this study were collected in the Summer of 2002 when the World Cup was played in South Korea and there were incidents with U.S. Army soldiers, many Americans felt this sense of anti-Americanism. One respondent states his concerns:

> "...That [Anti-Americanism] happens a lot of time...Oh just with the recent problems with the U.S. and South Korea's relationship such as, well, even small things as Kim Dong Sung and the Ono incident in Winter Olympic games or American policy towards North Korea, those things would be the biggest problems because of those, I feel that Koreans are very willing to point those out to me."

Some American respondents comment that combined with favoritism toward Americans, this paradox can be explained as the love-hate relationship between South Korea and the

U.S. Interestingly enough, many Americans report that there is a clear difference between Anti-Americanism at the social level and favorable treatment of Americans at the personal level. One respondent states: "Koreans said that I hate your country but you are cool; you are my friend." Another interviewee mentions her experience:

> "On a personal level I think they are very accepting. I think there's some things that they've read in the newspaper, and that there's an animosity towards the Americans...It seems like there's interplay that there's been resentment toward Americans because of sports, particularly during the World Olympics. Which is surprising to me, I don't know how you can combine the two...It's like yeah, it's like whether it was one group of people's fault that they're including all Americans as being a problem."

Clearly, this anti-American sentiment parallels the favoritism toward Americans. It is interesting to see this dichotomy between political ideology and individual perceptions toward Americans in Korean society. In spite of this dichotomy, it is still clear that Americans are favored by many Koreans in Korean society, and it is observed that American popular culture (including movies, food, and study of English) is still popular and favored among the younger generation.

As shown in the section of contact and communication activities, Americans enjoy a variety of interaction with local people which is characterized as favoritism and hospitality. Obviously the special receptivity toward Americans provides greater interaction potential which gives an impetus to maintain meaningful relationships.

In contrast to this positive perception of the receptivity of local people, most Americans are keenly aware that the business environment is tough, and those are the factors contributing to an unpleasant life experience. With regard to the business environment, two respondents describe their impression as below:

"While employees [Korean coworkers] at my company are very open, communicative, friendly and cooperative, government policy towards multi-nationals is non-transparent and hostile. If I was therefore asked about the business climate or foreign investment opportunities, my responses would be overwhelmingly negative."

"Well, the last one from a business point of view, is the constantly changing regulations. Actually that's not really true. It' s the constantly changing interpretations of the regulations. Because the people you go to, if they don't know, rather than ask or look it up, they make it up. And so it's very difficult to figure out what to do...because I know how to do business in the United States, I can pick up the phone and you know, there's central information places where I can call and find out what do I do, how do I do this. You can't do that here. There's nobody to call. There's nowhere to go.... Even something like, officially has a function, the Ombudsman in Seoul...I've been totally frustrated with both the Ombudsman and the Seoul Metropolitan Office. Not that people weren't trying to be helpful because they definitely were. But they couldn't give the answer I wanted or that I needed...It has to do with the lack of meshing of the governmental approach in Korea versus the United States....And that's a constant irritant to me as a business man. But from a personal point of view, I'm pretty happy."

Overall, the perceived host receptivity in South Korea has two aspects: the perceived attitude of local people and the perception of the business environment. In the perceived attitude of local people, there is a differential receptivity based on the foreigners' overall status in general. With this double standard toward foreigners, there exists extreme favoritism and hospitality toward Americans in spite of some anti-American sentiment echoed in the Korean society. Regarding the business environment, most Americans perceive it as tough and hostile toward foreigners, including Americans.

Perceived Host Conformity Pressure

In response to the questions about perceived conformity pressure, the majority of American respondents state that Koreans rarely expect Americans as foreigners to follow Korean ways. In describing their experiences, several American interviewees say they never feel pressure implying that they have to do exactly the same as Koreans do.

One interviewee mentions:

> "In general, I think they tend to be more polite to foreigners than they might be to each other. Their expectations for a foreigner might be a little bit different than what their expectations might be for another Korean person."

Another interviewee mentions:

> "I've just experienced so many times when I haven't known what to do, I haven't known how to bow, how to pour the drink, who should go first, and yet I feel no sense of disapproval because as a Westerner I don't know the culture. So in that sense I don't really sense that there is an expectation on the part of the typical Korean that I behave like a Korean. When I do things like, you know, bow or try to show some knowledge of the culture, there's a genuine appreciation for it... Here, even an imperfect bow—one that's too deep or too shallow or I don't have my arm in exactly the right place or whatever—that doesn't matter because my heart's obviously right and Koreans being so concerned with the heart, they look at that and they'd say "Oh, he's trying." And I get a real plus from that."

Particularly in the area of host language (i.e., Korean), very little pressure is put on foreigners to reach an expected level of competence. One interviewee mentions that:

> "In America, we expect too much concerning a foreigners' language ability. Koreans are not expecting a non-Korean to speak some Korean even though they would be impressed with you. Whatever you say might be horrible Korean and they would complement you—that's wonderful...Koreans are very, very nice."

Another interviewee explains that the level of conformity pressure varies between the cultural norms and kinds of laws:

> "They don't necessarily require us to do things that are created custom-wise. They don't really think it is required of us. For instance they don't necessarily require or think that we should like Han Boks [Korean traditional costume] and stuff like on Lunar New Years or Chu Suk [Korean Thanksgiving Day]. It is not really required of us. Because we are not really truly Koreans. That is their custom. They will and they do it. If we do and I do, it makes them feel good but they don't require it. However if you ask about traffic rules or legal rules or things that are set up that all Korean people should do and they think that when we try to get away from doing it because we are foreigners, Americans, yeah they have a problem with that and I agree that is not right. We should obey the laws of the land. Whatever they are we should do that. So I think there is

distinction in that question of what legally we should do and what is more of a personal cultural custom."

In fact, coupling the high favoritism shown to Americans and power differentials between the two countries, Americans in South Korea enjoy high ethnic group prestige and their language benefits as well (i.e., English). Thus, as Kim (2001) cited, the high prestige helps to ease or soften the expected level of conformity toward certain prestigious groups.

In relation to this lower level of conformity pressure, some respondents provide valuable insights. They comment that even though Americans are highly welcomed and well treated by Koreans, Americans are still viewed as foreigners and not an integrated part of the Korean society, based on a clear distinction between Koreans and Americans, as foreigners. Thus, with this distinct differentiation, it makes it unnecessary for Americans as foreigners to conform to the cultural norms and systems of Korean society.

Several respondents provide these impressions:

> "For me, I don't think they do all that much actually, because I think they look at me as a foreigner and that I am different and so, they don't really include me in all the rules of a society. It is kind of like I am an exception. Because I just look so much different from anyone else [laughing]. So, they look at me and they don't expect me to act as the same way ...They don't really push hard for me to act that way...But I don't know...still, still I think they appreciate, they appreciate it a lot, when you do kind of just go by the rules of the society. And they appreciate it a lot."

> "I think most of the time they are willing to accept the fact that even though I speak Korean and I try to act as a Korean they know that I'm not Korean. I'm still American."

> "...So, yeah, I am always aware that I am a foreigner. There's no way that I have a sense that I've blended into the society and people...And there's no way that I can accomplish that in Korean society. Even if I could speak with a flawless Korean accent, unless I'm just talking on the telephone, I'd still stand out."

> "I think sometimes that the Koreans are...kind of weird. Say like in Korea we say that there are no minorities because the Koreans are the majorities. So they separate it more like Koreans or foreigners. So there are some people that like to separate the two and like just think that you know. We are the Koreans of our country, you are foreigners, you are visitors here."
>
> "I, I am allowed to participate in any avenue I want, I can do anything I want, but, I am never allowed to totally forget that I'm not native-born either and I have that same mind frame: I never forget that I am not Korean, as welcoming and wonderful as it is, there's always that realization you are not quite Korean. And sometimes it's very flattering treatment and sometimes it's very annoying, frightening treatment."

Clearly, it isn't necessary for Americans to follow the "Korean way" to be mainstreamed into the Korean society as long as they remain as foreigners. Based on collectivism rooted from Confucian ideology, which clearly separates in- and out-group, it is obvious that Korean society still sees Americans as foreigners and not as part of the Korean society, regardless of the extreme favoritism and friendliness toward Americans. Therefore, many Americans feel that they are not able to ever blend into Korean society and become a part of it.

Results of Interviews with Koreans

Communication-Related Difficulties

Most of the Korean interviewees express concern about host language competency (i.e., English proficiency) and different work styles as the primary challenges in interacting with Americans. Particularly, it is mentioned that the language competency issue does not stem from their communication with coworkers to discuss work-related topics at work. Rather, the difficulty comes up when they are involved in social talk with native speakers outside the work context, such as at a party, social gathering, or private

meeting. From the perspective of the Korean interviewees, their lack of language competency hinders them from forming in-depth personal relationships with Americans. One Korean interviewee comments:

> "...It [The problem] is English. While most expatriates are selected from among people who have a good command of English, it does not necessarily mean their English is perfect. In communicating at work or in dealing with daily needs, there is no problem at all. However, at a party or social gathering, it [our English] is not good enough to express ourselves fully and become actively involved in social talk to develop personal relationships further."

One Korean interviewee describes this difficulty as psychologically complex:

> "I believe this is the linguistic complexity all Korean expatriates have to face. While I can properly understand and handle the business affairs at work, I won't be able to fully understand the jokes. Also, even though I can understand T.V. news or dramas, sometimes it is really hard to understand the comedy shows. I believe this is the language problem all Korean expatriates have....I feel that it is very hard to overcome this barrier to speaking perfect English because I was not born and raised here in the U.S."

Along with the actual language competency issue, the Koreans point out work style differences. Mostly, the Korean interviewees point out the clear boundaries between private and public affairs which is clear in business negotiation. To Korean expatriates who see personal relationship as one of the important factors in business negotiation and decision, it is very different. As one Korean interviewee describes:

> "The clearest difference I find is in business negotiation. Americans are very logical and set clear boundaries between public and private affairs. No matter how good a business relationship you have, they emphasize the fact and performance. So, they ask us [Koreans] to show our capability whether we can do this or that. There is a clear-cut division between personal relationships and official business."

Other Korean interviewees comment that this work style orientation is very clear when it comes to overtime at work and other activities after work. One interviewee explains:

> "In Korean corporate culture, an employee takes it for granted to work overtime when it is necessary. But it was impressive to see Americans directly tell the boss that they cannot work overtime because of a personal schedule."

Another states, "They have a strong sense of privacy after work. So, after five, it is not a good idea to ask for people to go to dinner even if I am a boss." This different work value provides a kind of shock to typical Koreans who are accustomed to a corporate system which values hierarchy and has less rigid boundaries between in- and out-of work contexts.

Another difficulty related to work style is the different attitude toward an unclear job situation. One Korean interviewee expresses his difficulty in dealing with American coworkers this way:

> "While Koreans are likely to cope with unexpected situations once they receive job orders, the Americans always request clear and complete information such as instructions or job descriptions. For example, they ask, 'give me a clear job description. The clear scope of work or boundary of my authority is not given to deal with things under these circumstances.'"

Contact and Communication Activities

With regard to interpersonal contact and communication with local people, the Korean respondents report that they predominantly have limited interaction with host nationals, generally coworkers at work, and that most of their interpersonal relationships largely rely on association with co-ethnics (Koreans). In socializing activities, most Koreans respond that there are almost none. If they have any, they are only related to work, such as playing golf with business partners or meeting people at a company party. One Korean interviewee comments about his association with coworkers: "At work, there is interaction with American coworkers, but outside work, we usually associate with

Korean coworkers. So, I feel like...I rarely immerse into American society." Thus, it is obvious that the Korean expatriates have limited interpersonal ties with host nationals during their sojourn even though they have a positive feeling about their interaction with local people at the superficial level.

Perceived Host Receptivity

Most Korean interviewees have a positive perception of their host environment. They believe that American society as a host environment is receptive and open to foreigners. While most interviewees express their positive feelings toward American society, this receptivity stems from the whole societal system or value, not from deep interpersonal contact.

Two respondents comment about their positive experience:

> "Well, there is kindness and friendliness towards me. However, it is not a personal thing. Rather, it is a whole social system. For example, they really treat me well when I am a customer. To me it is very positive. I enjoy it."

> "I believe that Americans/American society are very friendly.... They are very different in the aspect of harmonizing and mingling with different ethnic groups. Of course, there are some exceptions, but I feel that way."

Speaking of the openness of the American society, some respondents indicate the equal opportunities afforded to foreigners (or minorities):

> "...equal opportunity...as compared to [South] Korea, it is not relatively important or under the influence of connections in family, school ...Even foreigners can enjoy a successful life as long as they are capable....The rules, customs, and laws were made for people from different backgrounds to easily follow. It is convenient for them to live without trouble as long as they follow the norms and rules."

> "As a minority--setting aside that it might be hard to live up to the life of the top 10-20% dominant group in this society--it depends on how hard you work. First, if you learn the language and build up trust, you will not be ignored in

American society. If you work hard, this country will be more open and receptive to giving you a chance to live a better quality of life."

This is related to the business environment and government system as well.

One Korean interviewee makes a positive comment on the business environment:

"In the American business environment, everything is logical and transparent. Business management is very clean and transparent because they reach the conclusion based on discussion and follow exactly the rules and laws. It is very impressive."

Another interviewee makes similar comments about the government system:

"Government employees are very kind and cooperative. In addition, the law is made for everyone and applied fairly to everybody. I believe this is the strong force that moves this multiethnic society."

Along with the openness and friendliness of the host environment, some respondents comment that receptivity in- and out-of-work contexts can vary:

"In my interaction with people in business, they are very generous. I could not find any unfriendliness or prejudice. However, in different arenas of life other than business, I feel some different attitudes..."

Another interviewee expresses the difference in this way:

"People with whom I am in contact related to business, it is not serious, because they know my background and status as a manager. However, in other daily contexts, probably, I feel that some people look down on me."

Thus, to some respondents, the receptivity varies depending on the setting (work or social).

Overall, most of the Korean expatriates express positive feelings about the receptivity of the host society (i.e., the American society). They describe the environment as friendly and open to foreigners. It is interesting to see that this positive perception comes from the macro environment (i.e., the whole societal system) including business or governmental systems, but not from meaningful relationships or specific

positive attitudes toward Korean expatriates.

Perceived Host Conformity Pressure

The responses from Koreans clearly imply that there is some conformity pressure, regardless of its extent. Even if there is no specific pressure on a special issue, Koreans respond that it is natural to go the "American Way." They believe it should be that way while living in the U.S. to maintain convenient life, to carry out the expatriate assignment (i.e., business) and to function properly in the mainstream society.

One respondent provides his insight:

> "When in America, it is basic to follow American norms and behave according to the American way. If we adapt ourselves, we enjoy our lives more here. American society is the society where rules and laws are observed. In American culture and customs, there are many positive things. There is no reason to reject them."

In addition, another respondent indicates that with his minority status he feels he has to follow the American norms in order to carry out his international assignment:

> "Well, it is not like a must. Rather, the rules and customs are out there. If we don't follow them, we cannot work....because there are no special advantages for foreigners. Even if they did not force us to follow [the customs], we cannot help but follow them....As a minority group of people, we are not in a position to demand "Let's do it my way." It is nonsense."

Two more respondents point out that it is necessary to follow norms to properly function in the multicultural American society:

> "I believe [Americans want Koreans to follow the American way], because this country is a multiethnic society. If everybody raises their own voice, it would turn out to be a total mess. Generally, most ethnic groups came to the U.S. and they followed the principles in the U.S. ...in order to make an impact on this big country."

> "Of course, I am sure they [Americans] are asking for that way. If you are living here, at least you should follow it. For example, even though the degree

> [degree of pressure to conform] might be different depending on your status, such as immigrants, legal residents, or non-immigrants, you should follow the American way once you decide to live here."

Describing his own experience, one expatriate mentions that among the norms to follow, business norms constitute the most important area to follow:

> "Americans expect us [Koreans] to follow, but not like food or way of thinking. But in business, they want us to follow their way. Even though the Korean style is more hierarchical, the American style keeps on throwing out the question "why?" and emphasizes logic. They want "American style." Regarding business practice, it looks like they hardly understand the Korean style. In addition, it seems that they are very proud of their style and system."

Clearly, whether or not American society strongly coerces foreigners to conform to the cultural rules and norms, it is obvious that Korean expatriates as an ethnic minority under power differentials in the U.S. feel implicit pressure to follow the American way in every aspect to function as part of the mainstream society.

Comparisons of Americans and Koreans

In response to a set of interview questions, both comparison groups express their unique and individual experiences in their interaction with the different host environments in the process of cultural adaptation. Thus, this section discusses the interview findings by comparing the American expatriates and the Korean expatriates.

With regard to communication-related difficulties, both groups point out differences and difficulties which are attributable to different verbal behavior and work styles. To the Americans, the lack of clarity of verbal behavior and work styles based on different cultural orientations comes up as the one of the most prominent sources of challenges in their communication experiences. However, the Americans do not mention their lack of host language competence as a source of communication difficulty.

In contrast, the Koreans indicate the host language (i.e. English proficiency) as one of the primary sources of difficulties in their communicating with Americans. While the Korean expatriates speak English well enough to carry out their assignments at work, the Koreans still feel that their language competence is not good enough to develop very meaningful relationships with American coworkers or other Americans outside the work setting.

This different attitude toward host language could be attributable to the host conformity pressure factor. Given that the American expatriates in South Korea are not required to speak Korean but speak English when communicating with Korean people in and outside of work, it seems obvious that it is not the main source of communication difficulties.

With regard to the contact and communication activities, while Americans show a variety of interpersonal networks with local people, the Koreans report maintaining very limited networks with Americans, i.e., co-workers. It is clear that the Koreans seem to have superficial relationships with host nationals during their short-term stay in the U.S. and prefer the relationships with Korean coworkers at work and co-ethnics in Korean ethnic communities in the U.S. This might be related to their complaint that their English competence isn't enough to build up meaningful social relationships beyond a superficial level. On the contrary, Americans show more broadened relationships with local people during their stay in South Korea. As mentioned regarding the attitudes toward Americans/foreigners (i.e., host receptivity), this could be related to the friendliness and hospitality toward Americans in Korean society. Thus, Korean people are willing to associate with Americans and seek them out in order to practice speaking English. As

most American interviewees mention, being Americans in South Korea means having special privileges over other foreigners in South Korea.

Regarding the perceived host receptivity, both comparison groups generally view the host environment in a very positive light and feel welcome in that environment. However, both groups report qualitative differences of perceived receptivity between South Korea and the U.S. as host environments. First, while American interviewees mention that host nationals show a differential receptivity toward foreigners based on status (e.g., nationality, ethnic group prestige), Korean expatriates report the consistent, general friendliness of the environment toward any foreigners. Second, each group focuses on a different source, for their positive perception toward the host environment. The receptivity perceived by American expatriates comes from their deep personal friendships with and the hospitality of Korean people. In contrast, while the Korean expatriates report that the host environment is friendly and open, this impression is based on the societal systems and values that America has in general toward outsiders.

The perceived conformity pressure shows a clear difference between the two groups. The Americans do not feel any pressure to conform to cultural norms and habits, because Korean people rarely expect Americans to follow the "Korean way." This is reflected mostly in the expected level of host language competence. Few of the Americans report that they are competent in the Korean language, yet this lack of language competence does not cause any serious problems in their life in South Korea. Rather, Koreans tend to try to speak English more than Korean when they speak to Americans. In contrast, it is obvious that Koreans feel relatively higher conformity pressure to follow and adopt "American ways." Particularly, as seen in the

communication-related difficulties, most Koreans report the stressful experience of needing better English proficiency when communicating with Americans in and outside of work settings.

Comparisons to Statistical Results

In comparing the interview results with the statistical analysis, in general, the interview findings support the statistical results on the relationships between the research variables. With regard to the positive relationship between host communication competence and psychological health, overall interview data confirm that lack of knowledge of different cultural norms and lack of competence without familiarizing culture-bound communication styles can be attributable to challenge and difficulty of the life of expatriate workers in and out of work during their sojourn in a different host environment. Particularly, in the expatriation context, different communication styles are represented in terms of different work styles at work. The expatriates' communication skills enhance their knowledge and competence, which in turn promote positive life experiences in their life in and out of work.

In terms of host interpersonal ties, statistical data analysis reveals a positive and significant association between host interpersonal communication and psychological health. Interview findings clearly indicate that expatriate workers have interpersonal ties with host nationals in and out of work regardless of the degree of its intimacy. These relationships with host nationals contribute to comfortable and positive feelings about their life, which also plays a key role in forming the positive perception of the host environment.

The same hypothesized relationship is also compared to the interview findings among interviewees of each comparison group (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates). Statistical analysis confirms a positive association between host communication competence and psychological health, while host language competence is not positively and significantly related. The interview data of the American expatriates support the findings in that most of the American interviewees report that they are not competent in the host language (i.e., Korean) and that this lack of actual language competence produces no difficulties in communicating with local people, in enhancing interpersonal relationships with local people, and in carrying out their daily activities or international assignment. For the Korean respondents, however, contrary to the statistical data, the interview findings report that actual language competence is a significant factor in their life because competent language skills are the primary factor in overcoming communication difficulties, enhancing interpersonal ties with host nationals and thereby leading to a positive life experience. Korean expatriates report the acute sense of need for better language competence to enhance interpersonal relationships with local people and to contribute to a less stressful life.

With regard to host interpersonal ties, statistical analysis confirms the positive association between the host interpersonal ties and psychological health of expatriate workers. For the American expatriates, this is supported by the interview findings. Interview findings confirm that the majority of the American interviewees enjoy a greater variety of interpersonal ties with local people such as meaningful friendship in and outside of work and most American interviewees point to these relationships as one of the most positive life experiences. The Korean interviewees report limited interaction with

local people and only on the surface level (i.e., co-workers, impersonal contact in daily life). Even though this is not a deep level of interpersonal ties, it is also clear that Korean expatriates view these relationships as positive and friendly and this interaction with host nationals in and out of work as important to the positive life experience of Korean expatriate workers. Thus far, the interview findings have been discussed in relation to hypothesized relationships among the research variables based on the data combining both comparison groups. The specific perceived host environment also needs to be discussed for each group individually.

With regard to perceived host conformity pressure, both statistical analysis and the interviews confirm that Korean expatriates report greater conformity pressure from the American host environment in the area of cultural norms, business norms, and especially host language. While the majority of American expatriates feel that Korean people in South Korea do not expect Americans to follow the "Korean Way," the Korean expatriates feel that it is necessary to follow the American way to function properly while living in the U.S., although the degree of perceived conformity pressure varies.

With regard to perceived host receptivity, even though statistical results show no significant difference in the level of perceived host receptivity between the two comparison groups, the interview findings show clear qualitative differences in this same area. While the American expatriates attribute the friendliness and openness of the environment to hospitality and nice treatment from local people toward themselves based on deep interpersonal relationships, the Korean expatriates mention the friendliness of the societal environment/system toward foreigners in general or impersonal relationships. In other words, the Koreans describe the host environment as open and friendly not because

they are well treated in deep personal relationship with local people, but because the societal system is receptive and integrates them into the society. It is clear that combined with their national prestige and status, the American expatriates sense the higher level of receptivity in South Korea than the Korean expatriates do in the U.S.

CHAPTER VI

DISCUSSION

This study, which is based on Y. Y. Kim's (2001) cross-cultural adaptation theory, examined communication patterns and forms of cross-cultural adaptation in two groups (American expatriates and Korean expatriates) vis-à-vis their different host environments (South Korea and the United States). The relationships among key theoretical constructs were examined with respect to sample data for 105 American expatriates in South Korea and 106 Korean expatriates in the U.S., both as separate groups and with the two groups combined, by means of a series of tests based on data from a questionnaire survey and interviews. Five hypotheses were presented in Chapter II, which dealt with theoretical links between three dimensions of host communication competence--host interpersonal communication, host mass communication, and psychological health--and their links with different host environments (perceived host receptivity and perceived host conformity pressure). Additionally, in order to provide more qualitative insights into host environmental factors vis-à-vis individual adaptation experiences within the two groups, the present study addressed four research questions. These questions, which were also presented in Chapter II, cover: 1) forms of contact and communication activities, 2) communication-related difficulties, 3) perceived receptivity, and 4) perceived host conformity pressure.

This study confirmed both the culture-general pattern, such as how the communication of expatriate worker sojourners can facilitate the process of adaptation, and the culture-specific pattern, such as how adaptation processes can vary according to the influence of each unique host country's cultural milieu.

This chapter begins with an overall summary of the key research findings of both the survey and the interview. The theoretical/practical implications are discussed and finally the merits and some of the limitations of this study are presented.

Key Findings

The two data sets (i.e., American expatriates and Korean expatriates) were combined to test the predicted theoretical relationships in culture-general hypotheses (Hypothesis 1, 2, and 3). The results of the statistical analyses and interviews generally support the theoretical linkage among the research variables. In terms of host communication competence and its relationship to psychological health, host communication competence played an important role in facilitating the psychological health of the expatriate workers, as proposed in the first hypothesis. Among the three dimensions of host communication competence, knowledge of the host culture (cognitive dimension), adaptation motivation (affective dimension), and operational competence (operational dimension) were likely to facilitate the psychological health of the expatriate workers. However, host language competence, a cognitive dimension factor, was not found to facilitate the psychological health of expatriate workers. Given that the host language competence was measured by respondents' subjective assessment on their language capability, this unsupported finding could be revisited in the future study.

Thus, the more that expatriate workers know about the host country's cultural norms, the better it is for their psychological health. In addition, expatriate workers who are highly motivated and have greater behavioral competence in relating to and communicating with local people tend to facilitate their psychological health.

The two groups represent different relationship patterns. For the American expatriates, adaptation motivation (affective dimension) and operational competence

(operational dimension) tended to facilitate their psychological health, but host language competence or knowledge of the host culture (cognitive dimension) did not.

For Korean expatriates, all three dimensions of host communication competence--knowledge of the host culture, adaptation motivation, and operational competence--were likely to enhance their psychological health. This finding is consistent with previous empirical research findings, which have indicated a positive link between fluency in English and the psychological adjustment of sojourners (e.g., Kagan & Cohen, 1990; Surdam & Collins, 1984; Zimmermann, 1995).

Consistent with the relationship that was theorized in hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive association between host interpersonal communication and psychological health, weak but significant correlations provided empirical evidence that all three levels of host interpersonal ties (i.e., casual acquaintance, casual friends, and close friends) are important factors in facilitating the psychological health of expatriate workers. Thus, the more expatriate workers have frequent interaction with host nationals, the better their psychological health is likely to be.

Different patterns emerged in the two groups. For the American expatriates, none of the three levels of host interpersonal communication tended to facilitate their psychological health. However, these results contrasted with other statistical analyses and with the interview data. Descriptive analysis and the t-test showed that the frequency and level of intimacy of host interpersonal ties were much higher for the American expatriates than for the Korean expatriates. Interview findings also suggested that the Americans considered meaningful interpersonal relationships with host nationals to be part of their positive experience during their sojourn in South Korea. For the Korean expatriates, while meaningful relationships were weak, host interpersonal ties at the

casual acquaintance level were likely to facilitate their psychological health. This suggests that the Korean expatriates, as short-term sojourners, have relationships with host nationals (Americans) at only a superficial level, and their personal networks are largely limited to coworkers or coethnic groups in an ethnic (immigrant) community. The limited personal networking of Korean expatriates with host nationals might be related to the unique characteristics of business people's situation among sojourner groups and to institutional support from the Korean ethnic community. First, a unique characteristic of business people's situation in general is that the business organization may provide an "enclave" that insulates the sojourner from conflict between home and host culture reference groups; in this enclave, experience is more highly structured and scheduled, with less dependence on the sojourner's own resources (Lesser & Peter, 1957). Thus, Korean expatriates may be satisfied and relatively well adjusted without seeking serious host national ties. Second, most branch offices and multinational organizations are located in big metropolitan areas, where ethnic communities are well established. The Korean community in the U.S. provides an ethnic enclave, where expatriate workers can interact with their ethnic group and access ethnic mass media. Thus, Korean expatriates might have more meaningful relationships with home nationals, including co-ethnic coworkers, than with host nationals, and these relationships may help them to feel more comfortable and to experience greater satisfaction with life in the U.S.

In terms of host mass media, Hypothesis 3 posited that use of host mass communication is positively related to the psychological health of expatriate workers. Statistical analysis showed that among the host mass media, the use of video was positively related to psychological health. Thus, the expatriate workers who watched video were more likely to benefit their psychological health.

Consumption of host mass media played an important role in facilitating psychological health in both groups (i.e., the American and Korean expatriates). The American expatriates who watched Korean videos and movies tended to enhance their psychological health. The Korean expatriates, who accessed relatively more American newspapers/magazines, American radio, and American movies, also tended to facilitate their psychological health.

Concerning Hypothesis 4 regarding differences in the conformity pressure perceived by the two groups, quantitative and qualitative data confirmed that the level of host conformity pressure perceived by the Korean expatriates in the U.S. was higher than that of the American expatriates in South Korea. The statistical data showed that the Korean expatriates had a higher level of host language competence than their American counterparts. In addition, most of the Korean interviewees mentioned that they felt pressure to, or took it for granted that they should, follow the "American way" in their daily activities and assignments, whereas their American counterparts felt no such expectation from local people.

The different levels of conformity pressure were clearly manifested in the difference in the levels of host language competence of the American and Korean expatriates, and its relevant significance in the process of adaptation. Interview findings suggested that the American expatriates' lack of host language competence rarely contributed to communication-related difficulties or affected their satisfaction with life. The combination of ethnic group strength and lower conformity pressure that is extended toward Americans in South Korea means that it is not necessary for American expatriates to master Korean to function in daily life. Clearly, a lack of competence in the host language does not hinder Americans' positive experience in South Korea, as Korean

people rarely expect Americans to speak excellent Korean or to closely follow Korean cultural norms.

The Korean expatriates, on the other hand, reported that host language proficiency was an important factor, and considered the language barrier a factor that inhibited the furtherance of meaningful relationships with host nationals, beyond a superficial level, outside the work context.

Concerning Hypothesis 5, which predicted a difference in the level of perceived receptivity between the two groups, statistical data showed no difference in the level of perceived receptivity on the part of the Korean expatriates in the U.S. and the American expatriates in South Korea. However, descriptive analysis and interview findings indicated differences in the nature of this receptivity. While the American expatriates attributed their perception of receptivity to genuine interpersonal interaction with host nationals, the Korean expatriates described the openness of the host environment in terms of the superficial friendliness of the societal system, not in terms of a genuine intercultural experience.

Most of the American interviewees reported the great favoritism and openness of Korean society toward Americans. This receptivity was reflected in the frequent interaction of the Americans with local people. The friendly perception of and attitude toward Americans within Korean society might offer more potential for interaction and facilitate the Americans' motivation with respect to interacting and developing meaningful relationships with host nationals during their sojourn. This interview finding is consistent with a recent survey study concerning the image of South Korea among sojourners in South Korea (sojourners included diplomats, business people, faculty, consultants, etc.) (cited in Donga, 2003). The findings revealed that the most positive life

experience noted by sojourners living in South Korea involved the "kindness" and "affection" of the Korean people. Thus, it seems clear that sojourners in South Korea consider their most positive life experience to be associated with friendly treatment from, and meaningful relationships with, individual Koreans. In contrast, the Korean expatriates in the U.S. reported superficial friendliness and openness that derived from the societal system rather than from direct intercultural experiences or a specific attitude on the part of Americans toward Koreans. Furthermore, even though American society extends its friendliness toward foreigners, Koreans, with their lower ethnic group strength as compared to Americans, tend to perceive lower receptivity, which offers, in turn, limited interaction potential. This leads to ethnic-oriented communication.

Thus, while statistical data showed no difference in levels of perceived receptivity, there was definitely a qualitative difference with respect to the receptivity of the two environments. With the methodological triangulation, interview data were found to be a good indicator regarding the different level of receptivity between two groups. Therefore, Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. are likely to have a lower perception of host receptivity than their American counterparts in South Korea, as hypothesized in Hypothesis 5.

The Theoretical and Practical Implications

Theoretical Implications

One of the important theoretical implications of this study is that it was conducted according to a fully developed, integrative theory. Even though the field of cross-cultural adaptation abounds in research, and offers useful descriptions of specific aspects of cross-cultural adaptation phenomena, the field has lacked coherence and cross-fertilization because of the different concepts, focal phenomena, types of migrant groups studied (i.e.,

sojourners and immigrants), and interests that have informed the research (Kim, 2001). Most of the studies also lack comprehensiveness because they have failed to investigate host environmental factors fully. Given that cross-cultural adaptation is a multi-faceted phenomenon, the emergence of an integrative theory has long been desired in this field of study.

Expatriate adjustment literature, in particular, has attempted to identify antecedent variables to explain which factors facilitate cultural adjustment. Even though empirical findings in these studies reveal that several variables are closely related to different dimensions of cultural adjustment, and the studies conclude that these variables are significant predictor variables that contribute to the adjustment of expatriates, most of these studies have been atheoretical and not based on a specific theoretical perspective (Aycan, 1997a). Thus, such studies cannot provide a clear theoretical explanation regarding the relationships between antecedent variables and cultural adaptation. In addition, expatriate adjustment literature has rarely incorporated host environmental factors into the research, and has consequently failed to investigate the effect of the host environment on the process of expatriate adjustment. Expatriate adjustment research should provide a theoretical account of cultural adaptation, and this theoretical account should be based on an integrative and comprehensive theoretical framework.

Thus, given this context, the present study was grounded on Kim's (2001) cross-cultural adaptation theory. The theory incorporates individual communication activities as micro-level factors, and host environment factors (host receptivity and host conformity pressure) as macro-level factors. Emphasizing the central role of communication, the theory posits that cross-cultural adaptation occurs through communication between cultural strangers, vis-à-vis different host cultural milieu. Thus, the present study aimed

at exploring the individual adaptation experiences of American expatriates in South Korea and Korean expatriates in the United States, based on an integrative and comprehensive theoretical framework.

In addition, as the theory predicts, the present study clearly provides evidence for theoretical linkage, in that communication plays a primary role in the cross-cultural adaptation process of expatriate workers regardless of sample and host country. The quantitative survey findings show that three dimensions of host communication competence--the knowledge of host culture (cognitive dimension), adaptation motivation (affective dimension), and operational competence (operational dimension)--have statistically significant reciprocal relationships with psychological health. Thus, expatriates who are knowledgeable about the host culture and highly motivated to adapt tend to have greater psychological health. In addition, expatriates who have a greater competency with respect to behavioral skills in relating to and communicating with the local people are likely to have greater psychological health. Furthermore, frequent interaction with host nationals and consumption of host mass media also tend to facilitate psychological health.

This positive finding for the relationship between communication and psychological health indicates a culture-general aspect of the adaptation process for two reasons. First, the participants of the present study were business people. The findings clearly indicate that communication is an important factor in the adaptation process, influencing, interactively, psychological health in an expatriation context (sojourner). Thus, regardless of the type of migrant group (immigrants or sojourners), communication assumes a central role in the adaptation process. Second, the findings validate the centrality of communication to the process of adaptation in a non-Western context.

Cross-cultural adaptation has been investigated extensively in the U.S., a country that has received a large and continuous influx of immigrants and sojourners. Significant research into the phenomenon has also been undertaken in countries like Australia, Canada, England, Germany, Israel, and Sweden (cited in Y. Y. Kim, 2001). However, despite the attention that has been paid to this topic, most adaptation research to date has centered largely on investigating adaptation phenomena in a Western context.

While Kim's theory posits a culture-general approach to cross-cultural adaptation, there has been little research with respect to the applicability of the theory in a non-Western context (e.g., in homogenous countries like South Korea, Japan, China, etc.).

In an attempt to examine the applicability of the theory in a non-Western context, the present study investigated two expatriate groups (Americans and Koreans) in two different cultural settings (South Korea and the United States, respectively). The findings show that communication is clearly a central factor in adaptation, both for American expatriates adapting to a non-Western host environment and for Korean expatriates adapting to a Western host environment.

This evidence suggests that Kim's theory, as a generic theory, is applicable to expatriates as a sojourner group, regardless of the type of migrant group (i.e., immigrants or sojourners) and regardless of different cultural milieus (i.e., South Korea or the United States), indicating the possibility of a general structure with respect to the cross-cultural adaptation process. Even though further extensive empirical studies are needed before this general structure can be described, the findings of the present study are consistent with other studies of immigrants (Y.Y. Kim, 1976), refugees (Y. Y. Kim, 1980), and international students (Zimmerman, 1995) in the U.S.

In addition to suggesting the possibility of a general structure of adaptation, this study indicates culture-specific patterns of adaptation for the two expatriate groups vis-à-vis the different host environments. A reciprocal relationship between cross-cultural adaptation and the host environment was clearly played out in the specific adaptation patterns of each expatriate group, in terms of facilitating or hindering communication.

Under the influence of the different environment, a specific adaptation pattern with respect to the Korean expatriates is manifested through host language competence and host interpersonal communication. First, host language competence is context-bound. The present study shows that because of the lower conformity pressure in South Korea and the ethnic group prestige (particularly ethnic language prestige—English) that comes from national power, the American expatriates tended not to develop host language competence, as compared to the Koreans in the U.S. Furthermore, host language competence was not a sufficient and necessary condition for facilitating the American expatriates' psychological health. Meanwhile, under relatively higher conformity pressure, the Korean expatriates tended to show a greater degree of host language competence than their American counterparts, and this played a significant part in facilitating their psychological health. This is consistent with Kim's (2001) theorem 10, which posits that the greater the ethnic group strength, the lesser the host communication competence. Second, different levels of host receptivity in the host environments affect the frequency of interpersonal communication with host nationals. For Americans, the higher receptivity and favoritism extended toward Americans and the lack of an ethnic community (institutional support) in Korean society tend to provide greater potential for interaction, facilitating host interpersonal ties and general communication with local people. For Koreans, well-established ethnic communities in

the U.S. and insufficient language competence can limit or discourage interaction with host nationals (i.e., interaction may be limited to coworkers) and active involvement in intercultural experiences.

The results of the present study, with its focus on communication, provide a useful foundation for examining the theory's applicability in terms of its generality for cross-cultural adaptation. Host receptivity and host conformity pressure, coupled with ethnic group strength, are clearly factors in the specific patterns of cross-cultural adaptation observed, because they can facilitate or hinder the communication of expatriate groups in a particular host cultural milieu. As specific host environments influence specific adaptation patterns, cross-cultural adaptation theory and research both need to take host-related environmental factors into account in order to understand the phenomena comprehensively.

Practical Implications

In addition to the above theoretical considerations, this study has important practical implications. The findings can be applied to intercultural training programs undertaken by human resource management personnel in multinational corporations to help expatriates become more effective in their host culture by promoting communication competence. The analysis points to the importance of knowledge of the host culture, acculturation motivation, and operational competence, if expatriates are to adjust successfully. The expatriates' knowledge and understanding of their host culture and its communications, and their willingness and motivation to learn about their new cultural system, to change their old habits, and to develop a positive attitude toward their host society, will help them to meet intercultural challenges that arise in the process of their adjustment. In addition, competence in the behavioral skills required for relating to and

interacting with local people in accordance with the host country's cultural patterns tends to make expatriate life less stressful and more gratifying.

With respect to training, the enhancement of cognitive knowledge of the host culture, adaptation motivation, and operational competence should be considered some of the primary objectives of intercultural training programs. In addition, frequent interaction with host nationals and use of host mass media are important areas to emphasize, as all of these communicative activities seem to constitute the generic capacities needed for promoting expatriates' successful adjustment, regardless of different cultural contexts. Specifically, when selecting staff for expatriate posts, motivation should be considered. Taking this factor into account would help companies to identify which individuals have the greatest potential for international assignments, as well as the individuals who are most likely to be at risk.

In addition, as different patterns of adaptation emerge according to different levels of host receptivity, host conformity pressure, and the ethnic group status of the expatriates, different types of training program with different emphases should be proposed for expatriate groups, depending on their host cultural context. The analysis showed that the Korean expatriates had a greater degree of host language competence than their American counterparts, and that language competence, as well as cognitive knowledge of the host culture, tended to enhance successful adjustment. The Korean group, however, had less frequent or limited interaction with host nationals, as compared to their American counterparts.

Given that for Koreans' host language competence constitutes an important factor in successful adjustment and enhancement of active involvement in host interpersonal communication beyond a work context, the training program for Korean groups should

focus on knowledge and understanding of the host culture and communication systems, particularly with respect to language, cultural practices, and the communication practices of the host society. In addition, the attitude of the local people (Americans) toward minority groups, cultural norms, and the rules as to how host nationals engage in relationships need to be incorporated. Gaining this cognitive host communication competence and learning appropriate normative behavior, and how to strategically use this normative behavior to build relationships with host nationals, will help equip Korean expatriates to face and manage future challenges and promote their interpersonal ties with local people.

For Americans moving to South Korea, host language is not a significant prerequisite for successful adjustment, as day-to-day business is conducted in English. Given the language prestige of English, Korean society exerts less pressure on Americans to use Korean in their activities, both in and outside work. Rather than emphasizing the cognitive level in training, i.e., language training and simple intercultural communication classes, the training program/orientation should be designed to provide accurate information about the host society (as a unique homogeneous society, in the case of Korea) in order to promote cultural sensitivity. Such cultural information would include Korean attitudes to foreigners, the different levels of receptivity according to the national status of foreigners (i.e., double standard), and clear in- and out-group distinctions that exist in spite of an extreme favoritism with respect to specific national cultures. This cultural understanding could help American expatriates to understand Korean culture, avoid ethnocentrism, and facilitate their proper functioning both inside and outside work during their sojourn.

Although intercultural training and preparation for expatriate assignments are essential for successful adjustment, international business firms often neglect both (Black & Mendenhall, 1990; Brewster, 1995). International firms could improve retention by offering comprehensively designed, extensive training programs to their employees. Instead of the typical, short-term orientation that emphasizes the "Dos and Don'ts" while in a foreign country, the training program should be designed to provide comprehensive, high-quality instruction that mediates accurate information about the host society and culture. Successful adjustment to foreign environments will lead to the retention of qualified expatriate employees and to more successful overseas business.

Merits and Limitations of the Study

Merits of the Study

Several merits of this study need to be discussed. First, methodologically, the present study combines etic and emic perspectives; it employed a survey and in-depth personal interviews to acquire data from the comparison groups (Americans and Koreans). This synthesis of methodology allowed a deeper, more comprehensive understanding of the adaptation process and produced theoretically relevant and analytical conclusions. These two approaches complement each other; the theoretically driven observations arising from the structured and standardized survey (outsider's view) can be strengthened by the in-depth personal interviews that yield information on the practical aspects of participatory experience in the field (insider's view). Furthermore, this combination allows researchers to arrive at a clear understanding of the participants' reality, i.e., the personal and authentic experience of living in a different host cultural milieu.

Second, by incorporating the host environment as a factor, the study examined the influence of host environment on the individual experiences of expatriates. Furthermore, by comparing the adaptation experience of two expatriate groups in different host environments (i.e., South Korea and the U.S.), the study clearly examined the effects of host environment in relation to communication with host nationals, psychological health, and perceptions of the host environment.

Third, unlike other studies that have made use of typical student samples in the university classroom, the participants selected for this study were expatriates involved in business organizations (or professional English instructors working in South Korea). This constitutes a more accurate representation of the expatriate population by which to examine sojourner adaptation in real-life settings.

Fourth, as indicated in the discussion of the practical implications, this study has great practical utility, in that the results provide a clear picture of the adaptation process with respect to each individual and point to which factors most importantly affect cultural adaptation. Given that many international firms are striving to manage their employees in international assignments by reducing retention failure, this information will help multinational organizations to select, prepare, and manage personnel for overseas assignments.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations of this study also need to be mentioned to suggest improvements for future study. First, because of limited numbers and the difficulty of accessing research participants and organizations, a non-probability sampling method was used. Thus, research findings should be interpreted, and generalized, with caution, even though the arrangement of the sampling process might minimize the weakness of

the nonprobability sampling (e.g., drawing the Korean samples from multiple sites and the American samples from core committee members representing different industries). Thus, meaningful generalization of the present research findings requires studies that employ a probability sampling method with a larger sample size.

Second, replicating this study for different nationalities in different contexts would enable researchers to elaborate the generalizability of Kim's theory and to further understand sojourner adjustment. As noted above, future studies could be extended to other nationalities working in different countries (e.g., American employees in Indonesia, Swedish employees in Japan, etc.). A study comparing the experiences of American expatriates and Japanese expatriates (Steining & Hammer, 1992) presented valuable insights into different expatriate experiences; they found that the American expatriates were more likely to report being satisfied with their foreign experience than were the Japanese expatriates.

Third, the study examined the adaptation experiences primarily of business people, with a small percentage of the participants being English teachers; future studies should investigate other sojourner groups, such as diplomats, Peace Corps volunteers, international students, and missionaries in order to replicate the research and enhance its generalizability.

Fourth, this study included 25 English teachers among the American expatriates. Although no critical differences were found between the participants from the two American sojourner groups in South Korea (i.e., the company employees and English teachers), future expatriate studies will need to examine a homogenous group of participants in order to make clean-cut comparisons between American expatriates and Korean expatriates.

Fifth, the present study did not include a predisposition variable. It would have been more complete and comprehensive with regard to explaining the process of cross-cultural adaptation if it had incorporated a predisposition variable in the theoretical model. It has been shown that adaptation is closed linked to personality traits such as open-mindedness, self-confidence, and curiosity (Kets de Vries & Mead, 1991).

Sixth, regarding measurement reliability, some measurement scales need to be improved because of less than satisfactory reliability; measurement scales of interpersonal communication, mass communication, and conformity pressure need improvement.

Seventh, the present study was based on cross-sectional data. Given that cross-cultural adaptation occurs over time, it would be interesting to study the process of adjustment over an extended period, even though longitudinal study of expatriate adjustment is not easy.

The globalization of business and the proliferation of intergovernmental and non-governmental contacts involving expatriates make the need for cross-cultural competency more important than ever before (Gertsen, 1990; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Nauman, 1992). The present study examined relationships among research variables such as host communication competence, host interpersonal communication, host mass communication, and psychological health. In addition, it clarified the role of the host environment in the individual adaptation processes of Korean and American expatriate workers. The findings provide a basis for underlying theoretical reasoning, in that communication is central for facilitating psychological health in the adaptation process, and communication competence and the host environment co-define different patterns of the adaptation process.

References

Adelman, M. (1988). Cross-cultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 12,* 183-204.

Adler, P. (1975). The transnational experience: an alternative view of culture shock. *Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 15,* 13-23.

Adler, N. (1986). *International dimensions of organizational behavior*. Boston: Kent publishing.

Adler, N. (1987). Pacific basin manager: a gaijin, not woman. *Human Resource Management, 26,* 169-192.

Anderson, L. (1994). A new look at an old construct: cross-cultural adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18,* 293-328.

Argyle, M. (1969). *Social interaction*. London: Methuen.

Arthur, W., & Bennett, W. (1995). The international assignee: the relative importance of factors perceived to contribute to success. *Personnel Psychology, 48,* 99-114.

Aycan, Z. (1997a). Acculturation of expatriate managers: a process model of adjustment and performance. In D. M. Saunders (Series Ed.) & Z. Aycan (Vol. Ed.), *New approaches to employee management: Vol. 4. Expatriate management: Theory and research* (pp. 1-40). Greenwich, CT: Jai Press, Inc.

Aycan, Z. (1997b). Expatriate adjustment as a multifaceted phenomenon: individual and organizational level predictors. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 8,* 434-456.

Aycan, Z., & Berry, J. (1996). Impact of employment-related experiences on immigrants, psychological well-being and adaptation to Canada. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, 28, 240-251.

Bauer, T., & Taylor, S. (2001). When managing expatriate adjustment, don't forget the

spouse. *The Academy of Management Executive,* 135-137.

Bell, M., & Harrison, D. (1996). Using intra-national diversity for international assignments: a model of biculutral competence and expatriate adjustment. *Human Resource Management Review, 6,* 47-74.

Bennett, J. (1998). Transition shock: putting culture shock in perspective. In M. J. Bennett (Ed.). *Basic concepts in intercultural communication: selected readings* (pp. 215-224).

Berry, J. (1980). Acculturation as varieties of adaptation. In A. M. Padilla (Ed.), Acculturation: *Theory, models and some new findings* (pp. 9-25). Washington, DC: Westview.

Berry, J. (1992). Psychology of acculturation: understanding individuals moving between two cultures. In R. W. Brislin (Ed.), *Applied cross cultural psychology* (pp. 232-253). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Berry, J., & Kim, U. (1988). Acculturation and mental health. In P. Dasen, J. Berry, and N. Strtorious (Eds.), *Health and Cross-cultural Psychology: towards application* (pp. 207-238). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Black, J. (1988). Work role transitions: a study of American expatriate managers in Japan. *Journal of International Business Studies, 19,* 274-191.

Black, J. (1990). Factors related to the adjustment of Japanese expatriate managers in America. *Research in Personnel and Human Resource Management,* 109-125,

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

Black, J. (1992). Coming home: the relationship of expatriate expectations with repatriation adjustment and job performance. *Human Relations, 45,* 177-192.

Black, J., & Gregersen, H. (1990). Expectations, satisfaction, and intention to leave of

American expatriate managers in Japan. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14,* 485-506.

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

Black, J., & Gregersen, H., & Mendenhall, M. (1992). *Global assignments: successfully expatriating and repatriating international mangers.* San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Black, J., & Mendenhall, M. (1990). Cross-cultural training effectiveness: a review and a theoretical framework for future research. *Academy of Management Review, 15,* 113-136.

Black, J., & Mendenhall, M. (1991). The U-curve adjustment hypothesis revisited: A review and theoretical framework. *Journal of International Business Studies, 22,* 225-247.

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

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

Bochner, S. (1972). Problems in culture learning. In S. Bochner & P. Wicks (Eds.), *Overseas students in Australia* (pp. 65-81). Sydney: University of New South Wales Press.

Bochner, S. (1982). *Cultures in contact: studies in cross-cultural interaction.* New York: Pergamon.

Bochner, S. (1986). Coping with unfamiliar cultures: adjustment or culture learning? *Australian Journal of Psychology, 38,* 347-358.

Bochner, S., McLeod, B., & Lin, A. (1977). Friendship patterns of overseas students: a functional model. *International Journal of Psychology, 12,* 277-297.

Bock, P. (Ed.). (1970). *Culture shock: a reader in modern anthropology.* New York: Knopf.

Brein, H., & David, K. (1971). Intercultural communication and the adjustment of the sojourner. *Psychological Bulletin, 76,* 215-230.

Brewster, C. (1995). Effective expatriate training. In J. Selmer (Ed.). *Expatriate management: new ideas of international business* (pp. 57-71). Westport, CT: Quorum Books.

Brislin, R. (1980). Translation and content analysis of oral and written materials. In H. Triandis & J. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of cross-cultural psychology, Vol.2* (pp. 185-216). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Brislin, R. (1981). *Cross-cultural encounter: face-to-face interaction.* New York: Pergamon.

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

Caligiuri, P. (2000). The big five personality characteristics as predictors of expatriate's desire to terminate the assignment and supervisor-rated performance. *Personnel Psychology, 53,* 67-81.

Caligiuri, P., Hyland, M., Joshi, A., & Bross, A. (1998). Testing a theoretical model for examining the relationship between family adjustment and expatriates' work adjustment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 83,* 598-614.

Carmines, E., & Zeller, R. (1979). *Reliability and validity assessment.* Newbury Park , CA: Sage.

Church, A. (1982). Sojourner adjustment. *Psychological Bulletin, 91,* 540-572.

Coperland, L., & Griggs, L. (1985). *Going International.* New York: Random House.

Copeland, A., & Norell, S. (2002). Spousal adjustment on international assignments: the role of social support. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 26,* 255-272.

Donga Il Bo (2003) Han-Kuk-In-Eun-Chin-Jeol-Ha-Na-Pe-She-Jeok [Koreans are friendly but closed] Donga Il Bo. *Retrieved May 26, 2003 from the World Wide Web: http//www.donga.com*

Dovidio, J. (1993). The subtlety of racism. *Training and Development, 47,* 51-57.

Dunbar, E. (1994). The German executive in the U.S. work and social environment: exploring role demands. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18,* 277-291.

EFE World News Service (2001, May 17). *More than 28 Million immigrants living in the United States.* p. 1.

Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1982). Social difficulty in a foreign culture: an empirical analysis of culture shock. In S. Bochner (Ed.), *Cultures in contact: studies in cross-cultural interaction* (pp. 161-198). Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Furnham, A. (1987). The adjustment of sojourners. In Y.Y. Kim and W. B. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Cultural adaptation: current approaches.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1986). *Culture shock: psychological reactions to unfamiliar environments.* London: Methuen and Co.

Gao, G., & Gudykunst, W. B. (1990). Uncertainty, anxiety, and adaptation. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14,* 301-317.

Gertsen, M. (1990). Intercultural competence and expatriates. *International Journal of HumanResearch Management,* 341-361.

Gomez-Meija, L., & Balkin, E. D. (1987). The determinants of managerial satisfaction

with the expatriation and repatriation process. *Journal of Management Development, 6,* 7-17.

Gregersen H., & Black, J. S. (1990). A multifaceted approach to expatriate retention in international assignments. *Group and Organization Studies, 15,* 461-485.

Gu, J. (2003, March). Han Kuk Hwa Gyo: Eo-Jae-Wa O-Neul [Korean Chinese: Yesterday and Today] Donga Il Bo, p. 1. *Retrieved March 2, 2003 from the World Wide Web: http//www.donga.com/fbin/news.*

Gudykunst, W. B. (1991). *Bridging differences, effective intergroup communication.* Newbury park, CA: Sage.

Gudykunst, W., Yoon, Y., & Nishida, T. (1987). The influence of individualism-collectivism on Perceptions of communication in ingroup-outgroup relationships. *Communication Monographs, 54,* 295-306.

Gullahorn, J., & Gullahorn, J. (1963). And extension of the U-curve hypothesis. *Journal of Social Issues, 19,* 33-47.

Guthrie, G. (1966). Cultural preparation for the Philippines. In R. B. Textor (ed.), *Cultural frontiers of the peace corps.* Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press.

Guthrie, G. (1975). A behavioral analysis of culture learning. In R. W. Brislin, S. Bochner, and W. J. Lonner (Eds.), *Cross-cultural perspectives on learning.* New York: Wiley.

Guy, B., & Patton, W. (1996). Managing the effects of culture shock and sojourner adjustment on the expatriate industrial sales force. *Industrial Marketing Management, 25,* 385-393.

Hanvey, R. (1979). Cross-cultural awareness. In E. C. Smith & L.F. Luce (Eds.), *Toward internationalism.* Rowley, MA: Newbury House.

Harrison, J., Chadwick, M., & Scales, M. (1996). The relationship between cross-cultural

adjustment and the personality variables of self-efficacy and self-monitoring. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 20,* 167-188.

Harvey, M. (1985). The executive family: an overlooked variable in international assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business,* 84-92.

Harzing, A. (1995). Strategic planning in multinational corporations. In A. W. Harzing, & J. V. Ruysseveldt (Eds.), *International human resource management : an integrative approach* (pp. 25-51). London: Sage.

Hawes, F., & Kealey, D. (1981). An empirical study of Canadian technical assistants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 5,* 239-258.

Higbee, H. (1969). Role shock—a new concept. *International Educational and Cultural Exchange, 4,* 71-81.

Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Hofstede, G. (1983). Dimensions of national cultures in fifty countries and three regions. In J. Deregowski, S. Dzuirawiec, & R. Annis (Eds.), *Explications in cross-cultural psychology.* Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets and Zeitlinger.

Hwang, I. (2001, June). Je-Sam-Se-Gye-Yoo-Hak-Saeng-Dul: Cha-Byeol-E-Tang-Korea. [Students From the Third Country: Korea, the Land of Discrimination]. Weekly Dong-A, pp. 1-4. *Retrieved June 21, 2001 from the World Wide Web: http//www.donga.com/doc/magazine/weekly_donga/news289*

Kagan, H., & Cohen, J. (1990). Cultural adjustment of international students. *Psychological Science, 1,* 133-137.

Kealey, D. (1996). The challenge of international personnel selection. In D. Landis & B. S. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (2nd eds.) (pp. 383-399). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Kealey, D., & Protheroe, D. (1996). The effectiveness of cross-cultural training for

expatriate: an assessment of the literature on the issue. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 22,* 141-165.

Kets de Vries, M., & Mead, C. Identifying management talent for a pan-European environment. In S. Makridakas (Ed.), *Single Market Europe* (pp. 215-235). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.

Kim, S. T. (1987). Korean's social character. *Inmun-nonjip, 32,* 119-133. Korea University.

Kim, Y. S. (2001). Host communication competence and psychological health: exploring cross-cultural adaptation of Koran expatriate workers in the U.S. *The Journal of Intergroup Relations, 2,* 33-47.

Kim, Y. Y. (1976). *Communication patterns of foreign immigrants in the process of acculturation: a survey among the Korean population in Chicago.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, Evanston, IL.

Kim, Y. Y. (1980). *Psychological, social, and cultural adjustment of Indochinese refugees in the States of Illinois, Vol. 4.* Chicago: Travelers Aid Society of Metropolitan Chicago.

Kim, Y. Y. (1986). Understanding the social context of intergroup communication: a personal network approach. In W. B. Gudykunst (ed.), *Intergroup Communication: A Reader (4th ed.)* (pp. 86-95). London: Edward Arnold

Kim, Y. Y. (1988). *Communication and cross-cultural adaptation: an integrative theory.* Clevedon, Philadelphia: Multilingual Matters Ltd.

Kim, Y. Y. (1989). Intercultural adaptation, In M. Asante & W. Gudykunst (Eds.), *Handbook of international and intercultural communication* (pp. 275-294). Newbury Park: Sage.

Kim, Y. Y. (1991). Intercultural communication competence: a Systems-theoretic view.

In S. Ting-Toomey and F. Korzenny (Eds.), *Cross-cultural interpersonal communication* (pp. 259-275). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Kim, Y. Y. (1992). Facilitating immigrant adaptation: the role of communication. In W. B. Gudykunst and Y. Y. Kim (Eds.), *Readings on communicating with strangers* (pp. 345-357). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Kim, Y. Y. (1995). Cross-cultural adaptation: an integrative theory. In R. Wiseman (Ed.), *Intercultural communication theory* (pp. 170-193). Thousand Oaks: Sage.

Kim, Y. Y. (1997). Adapting to a new culture. In L. Samovar & R. Porter(Eds.), *Intercultural communication: A reader* (8th ed.) (pp. 404-416). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.

Kim, Y. Y. (1999). Unum and Pluribus: ideological underpinnings of interethnic communication in the United States. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 34,* 591-611.

Kim, Y. Y. (2001). *Becoming Intercultural: An integrative theory of communication and cross-cultural adaptation.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications, Inc.

Kim, Y. Y., Kim, Y. S., Duty, D., & Yoshitake, M (2002). *Patterns of interethnic communication among university students: A survey.* Paper presented at the annual meeting of the National Communication Association, New Orleans, LA.

Kim, Y., & Paulk, S. (1994). Intercultural challenges and personal adjustments: a qualitative analysis of the experiences of American and Japanese co-workers. In R. L. Wiseman & R. Shuter (Eds.), *Communicating in multinational organizations* (pp. 117-140). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Klineberg, O. (1982). Contact between ethnic groups: a historical perspective of some aspects of theory and research. In S. Bochner (Ed.), *Cultures in contact: studies in cross-cultural interaction.* Oxford: Pergamon.

KOTRA (Korean Trade-Investment Promotion Agency) (2003, March). Business Directory of Korean Companies Overseas. Korea. *Retrieved from Database (Microsoft Excel File).*

Kramer, M., Wayne, S., & Jaworski, R. (2001). Sources of support and expatriate performance: the mediating role of expatriate adjustment. *Personal Psychology, 54,* 71-101.

Lesser, S., & Peter, H. (1957). Training foreign nationals in the United States. In R. Likert & S. P. Hayes, Jr. (Eds.), *Some applications of behavioral research.* Paris: Unesco.

Lysgaard, S. (1955). Adjustment in a foreign society: Norwegian fullbright grantees visiting the United States. *International Social Science Bulletin, 7,* 45-51.

Maruyama, M. (1998). *Cross-cultural adaptation and host environment: a study of international students in Japan.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman. OK.

Mendenhall, M., & Oddou, G. (1985). The dimensions of expatriate acculturation: a review. *Academy of Management Review, 10,* 39-48.

Naumann, E. (1992). A conceptual model of expatriate turnover. *Journal of International Business Studies, 23,* 499-531.

Nicholson, N. (1984). A theory of work role transitions. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 29,* 172-191.

Nicholson, N., & Imaizumi, A. (1993). The adjustment of Japanese expatriates to living and working in Britain. *Britain Journal of Management, 4,* 119-134.

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

Oberg, K. (1960). Cultural Shock: Adjustment at new cultural environments. *Practical Anthropology, 7,* 177-182.

Park, K. (1997). Cross-cultural communication and national images. *Human Communication, 1,* 51-65.

Parker, B., & McEvoy, G. (1993). Initial examination of a model of intercultural adjustment. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 17,* 355-379.

Pinder, C., & Schroeder, K. (1987). Time to proficiency following transfers. *Academy of Management Journal, 30,* 336-353.

Searle, W., & Ward, C. (1990). The prediction of psychological and socio-cultural adjustment during cross-cultural transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 14,* 449-464.

Selmer, J. (1998). Expatriation: corporate policy, personal intentions and international adjustment. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 9,* 996-1007.

Selmer, J. (2001). Expatriate selection: back to basics? *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 12,* 1219-1233.

Sewell, W., & Davidsen, O. (1956). The adjustment of Scandinavian students. *Journal of Social Issues, 12,* 9-19.

Sewell, W., & Davidson, O. (1961). *Scandinavian students on an American campus.* Minneapolis: University of Minneapolis Press.

Shaffer, M., & Harrison, D. (1998). Expatriates' psychological withdrawal from international assignments: work, nonwork, and family influences. *Personnel Psychology, 51,* 87-119.

Shannonhouse, R. (1996, November 8). Overseas-assignment failures. *USA Today/International edition,* pp. 8A.

Smalley, W. (1963). Culture shock, language shock, and the shock of self-discovery. *Practical Anthropology, 10,* 49-56.

Steining, B., & Hammer, M. (1992). Cultural baggage and the adaptation of expatriate American and Japanese managers. *Management International Review, 32,* 77-89.

Storti, C. (1997). *The art of coming home.* Yarmouth, ME: Intercultural Press.

Stroh, L. (1995). Predicting turnover among repatriates: can organizations affect retention rates? *International Journal of Human Resource Management, 6,* 443-457.

Stroh, L., Dennis, L., & Cramer, T. (1994). Predictors of expatriate adjustment. *The International Journal of Organizational Analysis, 2,* 176-192.

Surdam, J., & Collins, J. (1984). Adaptation of international students: a cause for concern. *Journal of College Student Personnel, 25,* 240-244.

Tammam, E. (1993). *The influence of ambiguity tolerance, open-mindedness, and empathy on sojourners' psychological adaptation and perceived intercultural communication effectiveness.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Oklahoma, Norman. OK.

Thariath, A. (2002). You contribute to vitality of US. Bush tells Asian, Pacific immigrants. *India Abroad, 35,* p. 3c.

The Conference Board (1992). *Recruiting and selecting international managers* (Report no.998). New York: The Conference Board.

Torbiorn, I. (1982). *Living abroad: Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting.* New York: Wiley.

Triandis, H. (1983). Essentials of studying culture. In D. Landis & R. Brislin (Eds.), *Handbook of intercultural training* (Vol.1). Elmsford, NY: Pergamon.

Tung, R. (1981). Selecting and training for overseas assignments. *Columbia Journal of World Business, 16,* 67-78.

Tung, R. (1988). *The new expatriates.* Cambridge: Balinger.

Ward, C. (1996). Acculturation. In D. Landis & R. Bhagat (Eds.), *Handbook of*

intercultural training (2nd ed.) (pp. 124-147). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The Psychology of Culture Shock.* PA: Routledge.

Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1996). Crossing cultures: the relationship between psychological and socio-cultural dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. In J. Pandey, D. Sinah, & D. P. S. Bhawuk (Eds.). *Asian contributions to cross-cultural psychology* (pp. 289-306). New Delhi: Sage.

Ward, C., Okura, Y., Kennedy, A., & Kojima, T. (1998). The U-curve on trial: a longitudinal study of psychological and sociocultural adjustment during cross-cultural transition. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 22,* 277-291.

Windham International and National Foreign Trade Council, Inc. (1998, June). *Global relocation trends: 1998 survey report.* New York: Windham International.

Yoon, S. (2001, December). Woi-Kuk-In-Gi-Up [Foreign Companies]. Donga Ilbo. *Retrieved from the World Wide Web: www. donga.com./fbin.*

Zimmerman, S. (1995). Perceptions of intercultural communicating competence and international student adaptation to an American campus. *Communication Education, 44,*

321-335.

Appendices

Appendix 1 Cover Letters for English/Korean Surveys

Appendix 2 English Survey Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea

Appendix 3 English Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

Appendix 4 Korean Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

Appendix 5 English Interview Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea

Appendix 6 Korean Interview Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

Appendix 1 Cover Letters for English/Korean Surveys

The University of Oklahoma

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

To: _____

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Communication at the University of Oklahoma. Currently, I am conducting a survey among American expatriate workers in Korea to collect data for my dissertation.

The content of the enclosed questionnaire primarily deals with your communication patterns, use of mass media, and your perceived image of Korean society. The main purpose of the study is to investigate various communication patterns, how expatriate workers adapt themselves, and what factors influence their cross-cultural adaptation in the host culture.

This study cannot be accomplished without your active cooperation. I ask for your participation in filling out the questionnaire.

As all items in the questionnaire will be anonymous, your personal identity will not be revealed by any means. In addition, your answers will be handled statistically through a computer as soon as collected. It will take only about 10-15 minutes for you to complete the questionnaire.

I sincerely hope you will find time to answer this survey. While answering the questions, you will be able to explore aspects of your own present life. In addition, through your participation, the results of this study will facilitate better cultural adaptation, enhanced job performance, and successful life experiences for expatriate workers overseas.

Please accept my genuine appreciation in advance for your help. If you have any questions regarding this research, you are welcome to contact me at the addresses provided.

Sincerely yours,

Yang-Soo Kim
2730 S. Chautauqua #115
Norman, OK 73072
E-mail: Yang-Soo.Kim-1@ou.edu
Yangkim92@hotmail.com

Enclosure: Questionnaire

610 Elm Avenue, Room 101, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-2081 PHONE: (405) 325-3111 FAX: 325-7625

The University of Oklahoma

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

To: _____

I am a Ph.D. candidate in the Department of Communication at the University of Oklahoma. Currently, I am conducting a survey among Korean expatriate workers in the U.S. to collect data for my dissertation.

The content of the enclosed questionnaire primarily deals with your communication patterns, use of mass media, and your perceived image of American society. The main purpose of the study is to investigate various communication patterns, how expatriate workers adapt themselves, and what factors influence their cross-cultural adaptation in the host culture.

This study cannot be accomplished without your active cooperation. I ask for your participation in filling out the questionnaire. For your further information, I am enclosing a recommendation letter from my academic advisor, Dr. Young Kim, who supervises this project.

As all items in the questionnaire will be anonymous, your personal identity will not be revealed by any means. In addition, your answers will be handled statistically through a computer as soon as collected. It will take only about 10-15 minutes for you to complete the questionnaire.

I sincerely hope you will find time to answer this survey. While answering the questions, you will be able to explore aspects of your own present life. In addition, through your participation, the results of this study will facilitate better cultural adaptation, enhanced job performance, and successful life experiences for expatriate workers overseas.

Please accept my genuine appreciation in advance for your help. If you have any questions regarding this research, you are welcome to contact me at the addresses provided.

Sincerely yours,

Yang-Soo Kim
2730 S. Chautauqua #115
Norman, OK 73072
E-mail: Yang-Soo.Kim-1@ou.edu

Enclosure: Questionnaire

610 Elm Avenue, Room 101, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-2081 PHONE: (405) 325-3111 FAX: 325-7625

The University of Oklahoma

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

_____귀하

안녕하십니까? 저는 University of Oklahoma 에서 Communication 분야에 박사과정을 밟고 있는 학생입니다. 이번에 논문자료로 사용하기위해 한인주재원 여러분을 대상으로 설문조사를 하는 중입니다.

설문지 내용은 귀하의 미국인과의 communication, 미국사회에대한 의견 및 매스미디아의 사용등을 다루고 있습니다. 금번 연구과제는 주재원들의 미국문화적응과정에서 일어나는 communication 문제점 및 그에대한 해결책을 찾고자 하는바 동 연구가 귀하의 적극적인 협조가 있어야만 비로소 이루어질수 있사오니 부디 귀한 시간을 나누어 주시기 바랍니다.

모든 설문지 내용은 익명으로써 귀하의 성함과 신분이 전혀 밝혀지지 않습니다. 또한 Computer에 의해 즉시 숫자로 처리되므로 개인적인 사실이 나타날 우려가 절대 없습니다.

설문지를 작성하시는데는 10-15분정도 소요될것입니다. 이 설문지를 통하여 귀하께서는 자신의 미국생활모습을 살펴볼수 있을뿐만 아니라, 현재 또는 미래의 해외근무시 보다 나은 문화적응, 업무수행 및 성공적인 주재원 생활을 위한 연구에 귀중한 공헌을 하시게 되리라 믿습니다. 귀하의 성의와 협조에 진심으로 감사드립니다.

2002 년 월 일

김 양 수 드림

610 Elm Avenue, Room 101, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-2081 PHONE: (405) 325-3111 FAX: 325-7625

The University of Oklahoma

DEPARTMENT OF COMMUNICATION

December 20, 2001

To Whom It May Concern:

Mr. Yang-Soo Kim is a graduate student in the Department of Communication at the University of Oklahoma. He is requesting your cooperation by participating in his dissertation research study. As his academic advisor, I hope that you will kindly render your cooperation.

In this study, Mr. Kim seeks to understand how expatriate employees of multinational organization in Korea and the U.S. are adapting to the local environment and how American expatriates and Korean expatriates interact with different host environment by comparing two groups. With this aim, this study addresses a number of issues concerning the expatriates' experiences in relation to host society and culture.

This study is very important because it serves as his doctoral dissertation. Furthermore, the study may offer those expatriate participants an opportunity to reflect on, and gain insights into, their own cross-cultural experiences in Korea.

All of the data collected in this study will be strictly confidential. Once collected, the data will be analyzed on a group basis without identifying any individual. If you have any concern regarding this study, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

Young Yun Kim, Ph. D.
Professor

610 Elm Avenue, Room 101, Norman, Oklahoma 73019-2081 PHONE: (405) 325-3111 FAX: 325-7625

Appendix 2 English Survey Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea

A Survey for American Expatriate Workers' Cross-cultural Adaptation in Korea

Date:_____ #_____

I. Please circle the appropriate answer or record your answer in the blank space provided. [05]

1. Gender: _____ Male _____ Female (Please check one) [06]

2. Age: _____ years [07-08]

3. How long have you been in Korea? _____ year(s) and _____month(s) [9-10] [11-12]

4. What is the highest educational degree you have completed? [13]

1. High School
2. Bachelor's
3. Master's
4. Doctorate
5. Other (Specify:_____)

The following questions are about your spouse/family members. [14]

5. Are you married having your spouse/family with you? [15]

_____Yes **(PLEASE ANSWER QUESTIONS FROM 5-1 TO 5-6. IF YOU HAVE NO CHILDREN, PLEASE ANSWER ONLY QUESTIONS ON SPOUSE)**

_____No **(PLEASE GO TO SECTION II IN THE NEXT PAGE)**

	Not at all Fairly Completely	
5-1. How positive is your spouse's attitude about living in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[16]
5-2. How happy is (are) your child (children) about living in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[17]
5-3. How well has your spouse adjusted to Korean culture?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[18]
5-4. How well has (have) your child (children) adjusted to Korean culture?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[19]
5-5. How much does your spouse want to stay longer in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[20]
5-6. How much does (do) your child (children) want to stay longer in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[21]

II. **How adequate is your <u>Korean language ability</u> to carry out the following activities? Please circle the number that most clearly indicates the degree of your <u>Korean language ability</u>. [0]**

	Very Inadequate						Very Adequate	
1. Ability to speak spontaneously in Korean with Koreans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[01]
2. Ability to converse on the phone in Korean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[02]
3. Ability to ask questions and solve problems with Koreans at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[03]
4. Ability to understand national and domestic news on Korean radio or TV (when presented in Korean).	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[04]
5. Ability to read/comprehend Korean newspapers in Korean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[05]
6. Ability to write a formal business report/letter in Korean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[06]
7. Ability to write a letter to Korean friends in Korean.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[07]

III. **Please circle the appropriate number that indicates the degree of your <u>knowledge of Korean culture</u>.** [08]

	Not at all			Fairly			Completely	
1. I understand Korean cultural norms.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[09]
2. I understand Korean cultural values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[10]
3. I understand how Koreans communicate nonverbally, such as through facial expressions and body language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[11]
4. I understand how most Koreans express themselves verbally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[12]
5. I understand Korean ways of thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[13]

IV. Please circle the number that describes you most accurately. [14]

	Not at all Fairly Very much	
1. How interested are you in understanding the ways Korean people behave and think?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[15]
2. How interested are you in making friends with Korean people?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[16]
3. How interested are you in learning about the current political, economic, and social situations and issues of Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[17]
4. How interested are you in learning the Korean language?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[18]
5. How interested are you in adapting to Korean culture/society?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[19]
6. How interested are you in trying Korean food?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[20]

V. The following questions concern your communication with Korean people. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of these statements. [21]

	Totally disagree Neutral Totally agree	
1. I am able to avoid misunderstandings with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[22]
2. I am able to achieve what I hope to achieve in my interactions with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[23]
3. My communication usually flows smoothly when interacting with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[24]
4. I can get my point across easily when I communicate with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[25]
5. I am flexible enough to handle any unexpected situations when interacting with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[26]
6. I have difficulty establishing personal relationships with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[27]
7. I feel awkward and unnatural when I communicate with Koreans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[28]

8. I find interacting with Koreans challenging. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 [29]

VI. The following sets of items ask you to consider your formal and informal relationships with people in Korea (including your job and daily life). Please enter a percentage that seems appropriate. The total should be 100%. [30]

Casual Acquaintances

1. Please think about casual acquaintances with whom you come into face-to-face contact on a daily basis. (Casual acquaintances are those whom you know well enough to greet and talk with when you see them.)

   1a. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are American people? _____% [31-33]

   1b. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are Korean people? _____% [34-36]

   1c. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are people other than Americans and Koreans ? _____% [37-39]

   Total 100 %

Casual Friends

2. Please think about those people whom you consider to be your casual friends. (Casual friends are those whom you visit and with whom you share activities; more than "mere acquaintances" but less than "close friends.")

   2a. What percentage of your casual friends are American people? _____% [40-42]

   2b. What percentage of your casual friends are Korean people? _____% [43-45]

   2c. What percentage of your casual friends are people other than Americans and Koreans? _____% [46-48]

   Total 100 %

Close Friends

3. Please think about those whom you consider to be close friends. (Close friends are those with whom you share your private and personal problems.)

   3a. What percentage of your close friends are American people? _____% [49-51]

   3b. What percentage of your close friends are Korean people? _____% [52-54]

   3c. What percentage of your close friends are people other than Americans and Koreans? _____% [55-57]

   Total 100 %

VII. The following questions deal with your usage of mass media. Please check one. [58]

1. How much time do you usually spend reading American newspapers and magazines each day? [59]

   1. _____don't subscribe/don't read at all
   2. _____less than 10 minutes
   3. _____15-30 minutes
   4. _____35-60 minutes
   5. _____65-90 minutes
   6. _____more than 90 minutes

2. How much time do you usually spend reading Korean newspapers and magazines in Korean each day? [60]

   1. _____don't subscribe/don't read at all
   2. _____less than 10 minutes
   3. _____15-30 minutes
   4. _____35-60 minutes
   5. _____65-90 minutes
   6. _____more than 90 minutes

3. In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to American radio programs? [61]

   1. _____none
   2. _____less than 1 hour a week
   3. _____1-2 hours a week
   4. _____3-4 hours a week
   5. _____5-6 hours a week
   6. _____more than 6 hours a week

4. In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to Korean radio programs in Korean? [62]

   1. _____none
   2. _____less than 1 hour a week
   3. _____1-2 hours a week
   4. _____3-4 hours a week
   5. _____5-6 hours a week
   6. _____more than 6 hours a week

5. In a typical week, how often do you watch American videos? [63]

   1. _____none
   2. _____1 per week
   3. _____2-3 a week
   4. _____more than 4 a week

6. In a typical week, how often do you watch Korean videos (Korean language)? [64]

1. _____none
2. _____1 per week
3. _____2-3 a week
4. _____more than 4 a week

7. In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching American TV programs? [65]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

8. In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching Korean TV (Korean language) programs? [66]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

9. How often do you go to see American movies? [67]

1. _____none
2. _____once every three months
3. _____once every two months
4. _____once every month
5. _____twice a month
6. _____more than three times a month

10. How often do you go to see Korean movies (Korean language)? [68]

1. _____none
2. _____once every three months
3. _____once every two months
4. _____once every month
5. _____twice a month
6. _____more than three times a month

11. In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using the English-language websites? [69]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

12. In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using the Korean-language websites? [70]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

VIII. The following questions are concerned with your feelings about living in Korea. Please circle the number that most closely corresponds to your feelings. [0]

	Not at all Fairly Completely	
1. In general, how satisfied with your present life in Korea are you?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[01]
2. In general, how comfortable do you feel living in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[02]
3. How rewarding is your life in Korea?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[03]
4. How stressful has your life in Korea been?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[04]
5. How satisfied are you with the attitudes of Korean people toward you?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[05]
6. How satisfied are you with your relationships with Korean people?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[06]
7. How satisfied are you with your experiences in Korean culture?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[07]

IX. **The following statements are about life experiences you might have had in Korea. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of these statements.** [08]

	Totally disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. I feel awkward and out of place living in Korea.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[09]
2. It is difficult for me to understand the Korean way of life.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[10]
3. I feel lonely.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[11]
4. I feel that Korean people do not like me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[12]
5. I am frustrated trying to live in Korea.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[13]
6. I dislike staying in Korea.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[14]
7. I miss my home.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[15]
8. I want to go back to my own country as soon as possible.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[16]

X. **The following items are concerned with <u>attitudes of Korean people</u> toward you. Please circle the appropriate number that corresponds to yourself.** [17]

	Totally Disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. Korean people accept me into their society.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[18]
2. Korean people discriminate against me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[19]
3. Korean people have a positive attitude toward me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[20]
4. Korean people are curious about me but show no intent to become my friends.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[21]
5. Korean people see me and my country favorably.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[22]
6. Korean people are genuinely interested in associating with me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[23]
7. Korean people are indifferent to me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[24]
8. Korean people are rude to me.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[25]

XI. Please circle the appropriate number that represents your opinion. [26]

	Totally disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. Koreans think I should learn and use Korean as soon as possible.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[27]
2. Koreans expect me to eliminate my (American) accent when speaking Korean.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[28]
3. Koreans expect me to conform to Korean cultural norms.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[29]
4. Koreans think I should adopt their lifestyle.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[30]
5. Koreans think I do not have to follow Korean cultural norms.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[31]
6. Koreans are receptive to different cultural habits.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[32]

XII. Please write any comments about this survey.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Appendix 3 English Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

A Survey for Korean Expatriate Workers' Cross-cultural Adaptation in the U.S.

Date:_____ #_____

I. Please circle the appropriate answer or record your answer in the blank space provided. [05]

1. Gender: _____ Male _____ Female (Please check one) [06]

2. Age: _____ years [07-08]

3. How long have you been in the United States? ____ year(s) and _____month(s) [9-10] [11-12]

4. What is the highest educational degree you have completed? [13]

1. High School
2. Bachelor's
3. Master's
4. Doctorate
5. Other (Specify:_____)

The following questions are about your spouse/family members. [14]

5. Are you married having your spouse/family with you? [15]

_____Yes **(PLEASE ANSWER QUESTIONS FROM 5-1 TO 5-6. IF YOU HAVE NO CHILDREN, PLEASE ANSWER ONLY QUESTIONS ON SPOUSE)**

_____No **(PLEASE GO TO SECTION II IN THE NEXT PAGE)**

	Not at all Fairly Completely	
5-1. How positive is your spouse's attitude about living in the United States?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[16]
5-2. How happy is (are) your child (children) about living in the United States?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[17]
5-3. How well has your spouse adjusted to American culture?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[18]
5-4. How well has (have) your child (children) adjusted to American culture?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[19]
5-5. How much does your spouse want to stay longer in the United States?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[20]
5-6. How much does (do) your child (children) want to stay longer in the United States?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[21]

II. **How adequate is your <u>English ability</u> to carry out the following activities? Please circle the number that most clearly indicates the degree of your <u>English ability</u>. [0]**

	Very Inadequate						Very Adequate	
1. Ability to speak spontaneously in English with Americans.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[01]
2. Ability to converse on the phone in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[02]
3. Ability to ask questions and solve problems with Americans at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[03]
4. Ability to understand national and domestic news on American radio or TV.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[04]
5. Ability to read/comprehend American newspapers.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[05]
6. Ability to write a formal business report/letter in English.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[06]
7. Ability to write a letter to American friends in English	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[07]

III. **Please circle the appropriate number that indicates the degree of your <u>knowledge of American culture</u>.** [08]

	Not at all			Fairly			Completely	
1. I understand American cultural norms.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[09]
2. I understand American cultural values.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[10]
3. I understand how Americans communicate nonverbally, such as through facial expressions and body language.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[11]
4. I understand how most Americans express themselves verbally.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[12]
5. I understand American ways of thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[13]

IV. Please circle the number that describes you most accurately. [14]

	Not at all Fairly Very much	
1. How interested are you in understanding the ways American people behave and think?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[15]
2. How interested are you in making friends with American people?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[16]
3. How interested are you in learning about the current political, economic, and social situations and issues of America?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[17]
4. How interested are you in learning English?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[18]
5. How interested are you in adapting to American culture/society?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[19]
6. How interested are you in trying American food?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[20]

V. The following questions concern your communication with American people. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of these statements. [21]

	Totally disagree Neutral Totally agree	
1. I am able to avoid misunderstandings with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[22]
2. I am able to achieve what I hope to achieve in my interactions with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[23]
3. My communication usually flows smoothly when interacting with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[24]
4. I can get my point across easily when I communicate with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[25]
5. I am flexible enough to handle any unexpected situations when interacting with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[26]
6. I have difficulty establishing personal relationships with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[27]
7. I feel awkward and unnatural when I communicate with Americans.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[28]

8. I find interacting with Americans challenging. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 [29]

VI. **The following sets of items ask you to consider your formal and informal relationships with people in the United States (including your job and daily life). Please enter a percentage that seems appropriate. The total should be 100%.** [30]

Casual Acquaintances

1. Please think about casual acquaintances with whom you come into face-to-face contact on a daily basis. (Casual acquaintances are those whom you know well enough to greet and talk with when you see them.)

   1a. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are American people? _____% [31-33]

   1b. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are Korean people? _____% [34-36]

   1c. What percentage of your casual acquaintances are people other than Americans and Koreans ? _____% [37-39]

   Total 100 %

Casual Friends

2. Please think about those people whom you consider to be your casual friends. (Casual friends are those whom you visit and with whom you share activities; more than "mere acquaintances" but less than "close friends.")

   2a. What percentage of your casual friends are American people? _____% [40-42]

   2b. What percentage of your casual friends are Korean people? _____% [43-45]

   2c. What percentage of your casual friends are people other than Americans and Koreans? _____% [46-48]

   Total 100 %

Close Friends

3. Please think about those whom you consider to be close friends. (Close friends are those with whom you share your private and personal problems.)

   3a. What percentage of your close friends are American people? _____% [49-51]

   3b. What percentage of your close friends are Korean people? _____% [52-54]

   3c. What percentage of your close friends are people other than Americans and Koreans? _____% [55-57]

   Total 100 %

VII. The following questions deal with your usage of mass media. Please check one. [58]

1. How much time do you usually spend reading American newspapers and magazines each day? [59]

   1. _____don't subscribe/don't read at all
   2. _____less than 10 minutes
   3. _____15-30 minutes
   4. _____35-60 minutes
   5. _____65-90 minutes
   6. _____more than 90 minutes

2. How much time do you usually spend reading Korean newspapers and magazines in Korean each day? [60]

   1. _____don't subscribe/don't read at all
   2. _____less than 10 minutes
   3. _____15-30 minutes
   4. _____35-60 minutes
   5. _____65-90 minutes
   6. _____more than 90 minutes

3. In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to American radio programs? [61]

   1. _____none
   2. _____less than 1 hour a week
   3. _____1-2 hours a week
   4. _____3-4 hours a week
   5. _____5-6 hours a week
   6. _____more than 6 hours a week

4. In a typical week, how much time do you spend listening to Korean radio programs in Korean? [62]

   1. _____none
   2. _____less than 1 hour a week
   3. _____1-2 hours a week
   4. _____3-4 hours a week
   5. _____5-6 hours a week
   6. _____more than 6 hours a week

5. In a typical week, how often do you watch American videos? [63]

   1. _____none
   2. _____1 per week
   3. _____2-3 a week
   4. _____more than 4 a week

6. In a typical week, how often do you watch Korean videos (Korean language)? [64]

1. _____none
2. _____1 per week
3. _____2-3 a week
4. _____more than 4 a week

7. In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching American TV programs? [65]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

8. In a typical week, how much time do you spend watching Korean TV (Korean language) programs? [66]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

9. How often do you go to see American movies? [67]

1. _____none
2. _____once every three months
3. _____once every two months
4. _____once every month
5. _____twice a month
6. _____more than three times a month

10. In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using the English-language websites? [68]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

11. In a typical week, how much time do you usually spend using the Korean-language websites? [69]

1. _____none
2. _____less than 1 hour a week
3. _____1-2 hours a week
4. _____3-4 hours a week
5. _____5-6 hours a week
6. _____more than 6 hours a week

VIII. The following questions are concerned with your feelings about living in the United States. Please circle the number that most closely corresponds to your feelings. [0]

	Not at all			Fairly			Completely	
1. In general, how satisfied with your present life in the United States are you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[01]
2. In general, how comfortable do you feel living in the United States?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[02]
3. How rewarding is your life in the United States?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[03]
4. How stressful has your life in the United States been?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[04]
5. How satisfied are you with the attitudes of American people toward you?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[05]
6. How satisfied are you with your relationships with American people?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[06]
7. How satisfied are you with your experiences in American culture?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[07]

IX. The following statements are about life experiences you might have had in the United States. Please indicate the degree to which you agree with each of these statements. [08]

	Totally disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. I feel awkward and out of place living in the United States.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[09]
2. It is difficult for me to understand the American way of life.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[10]
3. I feel lonely.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[11]
4. I feel that American people do not like me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[12]
5. I am frustrated trying to live in the United States.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[13]
6. I dislike staying in the United States.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[14]
7. I miss my home.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[15]
8. I want to go back to my own country as soon as possible.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[16]

X. The following items are concerned with <u>attitudes of American people</u> toward you. Please circle the appropriate number that corresponds to yourself. [17]

	Totally Disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. American people accept me into their society.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[18]
2. American people discriminate against me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[19]
3. American people have a positive attitude toward me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[20]
4. American people are curious about me but show no intent to become my friends.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[21]
5. American people see me and my country favorably.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[22]
6. American people are genuinely interested in associating with me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[23]
7. American people are indifferent to me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[24]
8. American people are rude to me.	1	2 3 4 5 6	7	[25]

XI. Please circle the appropriate number that represents your opinion. [26]

	Totally disagree	Neutral	Totally agree	
1. Americans think I should learn and use English as soon as possible.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[27]
2. Americans expect me to eliminate my (Korean) accent when speaking English.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[28]
3. Americans expect me to conform to American cultural norms.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[29]
4. Americans think I should adopt their lifestyle.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[30]
5. Americans think I do not have to follow American cultural norms.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[31]
6. Americans are receptive to different cultural habits.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[32]

XII. Please write any comments about this survey.

Thank you very much for your cooperation.

Appendix 4 Korean Survey Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

한국상사주재원들의 미국에서의 문화적응에 대한 설문조사

날짜: _____ #_____

I. 적당한 답에 동그라미를 치거나, 빈칸에 답을 적어주십시오. [05]

1. 성 별: _____남 _____여 [06]

2. 귀하의 연령은?: 만 _____세 [07-08]

3. 미국에 오신 지는 얼마나 되셨습니까? _____ 년 _____ 개월 [09-10] [11-12]

4. 귀하의 교육정도는? [13]

   1. 고등학교
   2. 대학교
   3. 대학원 (석사)
   4. 대학원 (박사)
   5. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)

다음 질문들은 귀하의 배우자와 가족들에 관한 질문입니다. [14]

5. 결혼을 하시고 배우자와 가족 모두 미국에 같이 계신 지요? [15]

_____그렇다 (질문 5-1 에서 5-6 까지 답해 주십시오. 자녀가 없는 분은 배우자와 관련된 질문에만 답해주십시요.)

_____그렇지 않다 (다음 page의 Section II.로 넘어가 주십시오.)

	전혀 보통 매우	
5-1. 귀하의 배우자께서는 미국생활에 대해 얼마나 긍정적으로 생각하시는지요?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[16]
5-2. 귀하의 자녀(들)은 미국생활이 어느 정도 행복하다고 생각하십니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[17]
5-3. 귀하의 배우자는 미국생활에 얼마나 적응을 잘하고 계신 지요?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[18]
5-4. 귀하의 자녀 (들)은 미국생활에 얼마나 적응을 잘하고 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[19]
5-5. 귀하의 배우자는 미국에서 오래 살기를 얼마나 원하고 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[20]
5-6. 귀하의 자녀(들)은 미국에서 오래 살기를 얼마나 원하고 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7	[21]

II. 다음 각항에 대해 귀하는 영어를 어느 정도 하시는지요? 해당번호에 0표해주십시오. [0]

	형편없다						대단히 잘한다	
1. 미국인과 일상회화를할때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[1]
2. 미국인과 전화 통화할 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[2]
3. 회사업무와관련하여 미국인에게 질문하거나미국인과 문제를 해결할 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[3]
4. 미국 라디오나 텔레비전의 뉴스를 듣고 이해할 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[4]
5. 영자신문을 읽고 이해할 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[5]
6. 회사업무상 영어로 보고서나 편지(상업통신문) 를 쓸 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[6]
7. 미국인 친구에게 영어로 편지 (개인적인)를 쓸 때	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[7]

III. 다음은 미국문화에 대한 질문입니다. 알맞은 번호에 0 표해 주십시오. [8]

	전혀 아님			보통임			대단히	
1. 나는 미국인들의 규범(規範)을 이해한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[9]
2. 나는 미국인들의 가치관(價値觀)을 이해한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[10]
3. 나는 미국인들의 제스처나 얼굴표정등을 사용해서 비언어적(非言語的)으로 의사 소통하는 방식 (non-verbal communication rule)을 잘 알고 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[11]
4. 나는 대다수 미국인들이 말로서 의사 소통하는 방법(verbal communication rule) 들을 안다. (예: "언제 한번 놀러 오세요." 라는 인사는 진짜 오기를 기대하는 것이 아닌 인사치레임. 진짜초대하기를 원하면 정확한 약속을 한다.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[12]
5. 나는 미국인들의 사고방식(思考方式)을 이해한다. (예: 개인주의적 사고, 프라이버시존중등)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[13]

IV. 다음의 질문에 대해 귀하에게 가장 적절하게 해당되는 번호에0표 해주십시오. [14]

	전혀 아님	보통임	매우많이	
1. 미국인의 행동양식과 사고방식을 배우고 이해하는데 어느 정도 관심이 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[15]
2. 미국인 친구를 사귀는 것에 대해 어느 정도 관심이 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[16]
3. 현재 미국의 정치, 경제, 문화 등의 움직임에 관해 어느 정도 관심이 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[17]
4. 영어 배우는데 얼마나 관심이 있습니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[18]
5. 미국사회와 문화에 얼마나 적응하려고 노력하십니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[19]
6. 미국음식을 어느 정도 즐기십니까?	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[20]

V. 다음은 귀하와 미국인들과의 의사소통에 관한 질문입니다. 각 문항에 얼마나 동의하시는지 알맞은 번호에 0표해 주십시오. [21]

	전혀 그렇지 않다	어느 쪽도 아니다	아주 그렇다	
1. 나는 미국인과 오해가 일어나지 않도록 할 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[22]
2. 나는 대체로 미국인과의 접촉에서 내가 바라는 바를 성취한다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[23]
3. 나는 미국인과 이야기할 때 대화가 막힘 없이 부드럽게 의사소통할수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[24]
4. 나는 미국인과 대화할 때 나의 말하고자 하는 요점을 쉽사리 이해 (납득) 시킬 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[25]
5. 나는 미국인과 접촉시에기치 않던 상황이 일어나도 유연하게 대처할 수 있다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[26]
6. 나는 미국인들과 사귄다는 것이 어렵기만 하다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[27]
7. 나는 미국인과 대화할 때 어색하고 부자연스럽다.	1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7			[28]

8. 나는 미국인과 접촉하는 것이 어렵다. 1-----2-----3-----4-----5-----6-----7 [29]

VI. 다음은 미국에서 귀하가 아는 분들 에 관한 질문입니다 (직장 혹은 일상생활). 각 문항에 응답해 주시기 바랍니다. [30]

알고지내시는 분

1. 매일 마주치는 사람들로 귀하가 알고지내시는분(만나면 최소한 인사정도하시는 분)들을 생각해 주십시오.

1a. 이분들중 미국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [31-33]

1b. 이분들중 한국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [34-36]

1c. 이분들중 기타 다른나라사람(미국인과 한국인을 제외한) 은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [37-39]

합계 100 %

어느 정도 가까운 친구

2. 상기 문항 1에서 언급한 사람들중 어느 정도 가까운 친구를 생각해 주십시오(이는 서로 방문도 하고 같이 무엇인가 함께 하기도하는 분들로 알고지내는 사이보다는 가깝고 친한 친구보다는 조금못한관계를 말합니다.)

2a. 이분들중 미국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [40-42]

2b. 이분들중 한국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [43-45]

2c. 이분들중 기타 다른나라사람 (미국인과 한국인을 제외한) 은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [46-48]

합계 100 %

친한 친구

3. 문항 2에서 언급한 사람들중 귀하의 사적(私的)이고 개인적인 문제나 고민 등을 서로 상의하는 친한 친구들을 생각해 주십시오.

3a. 이분들중 미국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [49-51]

3b. 이분들중 한국인은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [52-54]

3c. 이분들중 기타 다른나라사람 (미국인과 한국인을 제외한) 은 몇 퍼센트(%)정도나 됩니까? _____% [55-57]

합계 100 %

VII. 다음은 귀하의 매스미디어 (mass media)이용에 관한 질문입니다. 다음 각 질문에 답해 주십시오. [58]

1. 보통 하루 평균 미국 신문이나 잡지를 보는데 소비하는 시간은 어느 정도입니까? [59]

1. _____미국신문/잡지를 구독하지 않음.
2. _____10분 이하
3. _____15분-30분
4. _____35분-60분
5. _____65분-90분
6. _____90분 이상

2. 보통 하루 평균 한국 신문이나 잡지를 보는데 소비하는 시간은 어느 정도입니까? [60]

1. _____한국신문/잡지를 구독하지 않음.
2. _____10분 이하
3. _____15분-30분
4. _____35분-60분
5. _____65분-90분
6. _____90분 이상

3. 보통 일주일 평균 미국 라디오 프로그램을 듣는 시간은 얼마나 됩니까? [61]

1. _____전혀 안 듣는다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

4. 보통 일주일 평균 한국 라디오 프로그램을 (계신 지역에 라디오방송이 있을 경우) 듣는 시간은 얼마나 됩니까? [62]

1. _____전혀 안 듣는다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

5. 보통 일주일 평균 미국 비디오를 얼마나 자주 보십니까? [63]

1. _____전혀 안 본다
2. _____주당 1 편
3. _____주당 2-3 편
4. _____주당 4 편 이상

6. 보통 일주일 평균 한국 비디오를 얼마나 자주 보십니까? [64]

1. _____전혀 안 본다
2. _____주당 1 편
3. _____주당 2-3 편
4. _____주당 4 편 이상

7. 보통 일주일 평균 미국 텔레비전 프로그램을 보는 시간은 얼마나 됩니까? [65]

1. _____전혀 보지 않는다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

8. 보통 일주일 평균 한국 텔레비전 프로그램을 보는 시간은 [66]
(계신 지역에 TV방송이 있을 경우) 얼마나 됩니까?

1. _____전혀 보지 않는다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

9. 영화관에 미국영화를 보러 가는 횟수는 어느 정도나 됩니까? [67]

1. _____전혀 보지 않는다
2. _____석달에 한번정도 혹은 그 이하
3. _____두달에 한번정도
4. _____한 달에 한번정도
5. _____한 달에 두번정도
6. _____한 달에 세번정도 혹은 그 이상

10. 보통 일주일 평균 영어 웹사이트를 얼마나 자주 검색하십니까? [68]

1. _____전혀 안한다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

11. 보통 일주일 평균 한국어 웹사이트를 얼마나 자주 검색하십니까? [69]

1. _____전혀 안한다
2. _____주당 1시간 미만
3. _____주당 1-2시간
4. _____주당 3-4시간
5. _____주당 5-6 시간
6. _____주당 6시간 이상

VIII. 다음은 미국생활에 대한 귀하의 인상 및 느낌에 관한 질문입니다. 가장 가깝다고 생각되는 번호에 0표 해주십시오. **[0]**

	전혀 아님		보통임			대단히	
1. 미국에서의 생활에 현재 얼마나 만족하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [1]
2. 미국에 살기가 어느 정도 편안하다고 생각하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [2]
3. 미국생활을 통해서 얻는 것이 많다고 생각하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [3]
4. 미국생활에서 어느 정도 스트레스를 받으십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [4]
5. 귀하에 대한 미국인들의 태도에 어느 정도 만족하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [5]
6. 미국인들과의 인간관계에 대해 어느 정도 만족하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [6]
7. 미국문화를 접촉하고 경험하시면서 어느 정도 만족하십니까?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7 [7]

IX. 다음사항들은 귀하가 어쩌면 미국에서 경험했을 수도 있습니다. 각항에 어느 정도 찬성하시는지 0표해주십시오. [8]

	전혀 그렇지 않다			어느 쪽도 아니다			아주 그렇다	
1. 나는 미국에서 사는 게 거북하고 어울리지 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[9]
2. 나는 미국식 생활방식을 좀처럼 이해할 수가 없다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[10]
3. 나는 외롭다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[11]
4. 미국인들은 나를 별로 좋아하는 것 같지 않다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[12]
5. 나는 미국생활에 좌절감을 느낀다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[13]
6. 나는 미국에서 지내는 것이 즐겁지 않다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[14]
7. 나는 고향이 그립다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[15]
8. 나는 가능한 빨리 내 나라에 돌아가고 싶다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[16]

X. 다음 항목은 미국인들이 귀하를 대하는 태도에 관한 것들입니다. 귀하에게 가장 적절하다고 생각되는 번호에 0표해 주십시오. [17]

	전혀 그렇지 않다			어느 쪽도 아니다			아주 그렇다	
1. 미국인들은 나를 그들의 사회 속에 받아준다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[18]
2. 미국인들은 나를 차별대우한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[19]
3. 미국인들은 나를 호의적으로 대한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[20]
4. 미국인들은 나에게 호기심은 있으나 친구가 되기를 원하지는 않는다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[21]
5. 미국인들은 나와 내나라를 아주 호의적으로 본다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[22]
6. 미국인들은 정말로 나와 교제하는 것에 관심이 있다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[23]
7. 미국인들은 나에 대해 무관심하고 냉담하다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[24]
8. 미국인들은 나에게 무례하게 행동한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[25]

XI. 다음 항목은 미국인들의 다른 문화에 대한 태도에 관한 질문입니다. 적절하다고 생각되는 번호에 0표 해주십시오. [26]

	전혀 그렇지 않다			아니다			아주 그렇다	
1. 미국인들은 내가 하루 빨리 영어를 배워서 사용해야한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[27]
2. 미국인들은 내가 영어를 할 때 한국식 억양을 하루빨리 고쳐야 한다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[28]
3. 미국인들은 내가 미국의 문화규범을 그대로 따르기를 기대한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[29]
4. 미국인들은 내가 미국인들의 생활 방식에 적응해야된다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[30]
5. 미국인들은 내가 구태여 미국의 문화규범대로 따를 필요는 없다고 생각한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[31]
6. 미국인들은 다른 나라의 문화적인 관습을 잘 포용한다.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	[32]

XII. 이 설문지 조사에 대해 어떤 의견이라도 있으시면 아래에 써주시기 바랍니다.

협조에 진심으로 감사드립니다. 열심히 연구하여 귀하의 성의에 보답하겠습니다.

Appendix 5 English Interview Questionnaire for American Expatriates in South Korea

Interview Questionnaire for American Expatriates in Korea.

Date: _____ # _____

I. Personal Data

1. Nationality: _____

2. Gender: ____Male ____Female

3. Age: _____ years

4. How long have you been in Korea? _____ year(s) and ____ months

5. What is your educational background?

   1. High School
   2. Bachelor's
   3. Master's
   4. Doctorate
   5. Other (Specify:_____)

6. What is your current job title in the company?

7. What type of responsibilities does your job entail?

8. Have you ever lived in a foreign country before you came to Korea?

Yes No

*If yes, list the name of each country and length of the stay.

Country (1)_____ (How long?___years and ____months)

Country (2)_____ (How long?___years and ____months)

Country (3)_____ (How long?___years and ____months)

Country (4) _____ (How long?___years and ____months)

9. Did you attend any training or orientation program before coming to Korea?

Yes No

*If yes, what was the main purpose of the training/orientation program?

1. Intercultural training
2. Language training
3. Both intercultural and language training
4. Other (Please specify) _____

How long was the program? _____ days (or _____ hours)

II. Host Communication Competence

1. It is likely you have opportunities to interact with Korean people both in and outside of your work. Do you find any differences between communicating with Koreans and communicating with Americans?

   *If yes, can you tell us what they are?

   *If no difference, ask: "What do you mean by 'no difference'?"

2. Have you ever experienced difficulties in communicating with Korean people in or outside of the work environment ?

   *If yes, what kinds of communication difficulties? Please relate a specific incident that illustrates those difficulties or challenges in communicating with Koreans. In and out of work? Which seems more problematic?

   Did you try anything to deal with these difficulties? How did it work?

   *If no, tell me what your typical experience in communicating with Koreans is like?

III. Interpersonal Communication

1. Of all your daily conversations (at work or outside work), approximately what percentage of them do you have with Korean people?

0-09%	10-19%	20-29%	30-39%	40-49%	50-59%	60-69%	70-79%	80%+
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

2. In what capacities and for what reasons, both in and out of work, do you interact with Korean people?

3. What kinds of socializing do you do with Korean people?

IV. Mass Communication

1. In your daily life, what kind of American mass media do you use?

   What program (or content) in (this medium) do you like/use most?

   What is (are) the major reason(s) for you to use this medium?

2. In your daily life, what kind of Korean mass media do you use?

   What program (or content) in this medium do you like/use most?

   What is (are) the major reason(s) for you to use this medium?

V. Host Receptivity of Korean People

1. What was one of your first impressions about Korea and Korean people upon arrival in this country? Where did you get this image? Is it changed now? If so, how? Would you be willing to tell me your current frank impressions?

2. What do you think about the attitude of Korean people toward foreigners in general?

3. What do you think about the attitude of Korean people toward Americans like you in particular?

4. Have you ever had experiences during which you felt you were treated differently from Koreans because you are a foreigner? Would you share with me your specific experiences?

VI. Host Conformity Pressure

1. What aspects of the Korean culture (or customs) do you find different from yours?

2. What aspects of the Korean culture (or customs) do you find similar to yours?

3. An old proverb says, "When in Rome, do as Romans do." Do you think Koreans believe that you should do as Koreans do when in Korea?

   *If yes, why do you think so? Please tell me your experience.

   *If no, please relate an experience that supports this conclusion.

5. Do you try to follow Korean customs/cultural habits? How much difficulty have you had in following Korean customs or cultural habits?

6. How do Korean people treat you when you do not follow Korean cultural norms or habits? Please tell me your specific experience.

VII. Psychological Health

1. What are some of the positive experiences you have had while living in Korea so far?

2. What are some of the unpleasant experiences you have had while living in Korea so far?

3. If you have another chance to work overseas in the future, would you like to come back to Korea?

   *If yes, tell me why?

   *If no, tell me why not?

4. Overall, how are you feeling about your present life in Korea as regards your life experiences interacting with Koreans in and outside work?

VIII. Ending

1. Is there anything that you would like to add concerning your life experience in Korea?

2. Please comment on this interview. What do you think about the interview questions?

Thank you very much for your cooperation

Appendix 6. Korean Interview Questionnaire for Korean Expatriates in the U.S.

미국내 한국주재원 인터뷰 설문지

일자:_____ #:_____

I. 개인신상에 관한 질문

1. 국적: _____

2. 성 별: ___남 ___여

3. 연령: 만 _____ 세

4. 미국에 오신 지는 얼마나 되셨습니까? _____ 년 _____ 개월

5. 귀하의 교육정도는?

   1. 고등학교
   2. 대학교
   3. 대학원 (석사)
   4. 대학원 (박사)
   5. 기타 (구체적으로: _____)

6. 귀하의 직위는? _____

7. 담당업무는무엇입니까? _____

8. 미국에 오시기전 다른 나라에 사셨거나 근무하신 적이 있으신 지요?

   1. _____ 있다 2. _____ 없다

   *있을 경우에는 나라이름과 체류기간을 적어주십시오

   나라이름?(1)_____ 기간?_____ 년 _____ 개월
   나라이름?(2)_____ 기간?_____ 년 _____ 개월
   나라이름?(3)_____ 기간?_____ 년 _____ 개월
   나라이름?(4)_____ 기간?_____ 년 _____ 개월

9. 미국에 오시기전 오리엔테이션이나 교육을 받으신 것이 있습니까?

   예 아니오

만약 있다면, 어떤 것이었습니까?

1. intercultural training
2. 언어 교육
3. 언어 교육 및 intercultural training
4. 기타 ( )

교육기간은 얼마 였습니까? _____ 일(또는 _____시간)

II. Host Communication Competence

1. 일상 생활 및 직장업무와 관련해서 미국인들과 접촉할 기회가 있으시리라 생각됩니다. 미국인들과 접촉하고 대화할 때 한국인들과 접촉할때와는 다른점이 있다고 생각하십니까?

   만약 그렇다면 다른점들은 무엇인지 말씀해 주십시요.

   만약 다른 점이 없다면 그 의미는 무엇인지 설명해 주십시오.

2. 직장과 일상생활을 포함하여 미국인들을 만나고 상대할 때 겪는 어려움은 없으십니까?

   (여기서 어려움이란 interaction 및 communication 할 때 일어나는 문제점을 의미합니다.)

   1) 있다면 어떤 것입니까? 구체적인 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.
      회사업무상 만날때 였습니까? 아니면 업무와 관련 없는 일상생활에서 만날 때였습니까? 어떨 때가 더 어려움이 많습니까?

      이러한 문제점이나 어려움을 해결하기 위해서 어떻게 노력하셨습니까? 결과는?

   2) 특별한 어려움이 없다면, 이제까지 미국인과 만나고 접촉해오시면서 느끼신 일반적인 경험에 대해서 말씀해 주십시오.

III. Interpersonal Communication

1. 하루 일상대화중 미국인과 하는 대화는 몇 퍼센트 정도나 됩니까?

_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____

0-09% 10-19% 20-29% 30-39% 40-49% 50-59% 60-69% 70-79% 80%+

2. 업무나 일상생활에서 미국인과 접촉 및 대화하실 때 어떤 지위나 신분 (자격)으로 하시는지요? 또한 무슨목적으로 만나십니까? (예: 업무상 거래처, 학부모 와 선생, 고객과 서비스 매니저등)

3. 미국인들과는 어떤 종류의 친목(사교)활동으로 만나십니까?

IV. Mass Communication

1. 일상생활에서 가장 많이 이용하시는 미국 mass media 는 어떤것입니까?

어떤 program (혹은 내용)을 주로 보거나 이용하시는 지요?

동 미디어를 이용하시는 가장큰 이유는 무엇입니까?

2. 일상생활중 가장 많이 이용하시는 한국 mass media 는 어떤 것입니까?

어떤 program (혹은 내용)을 주로 보거나 이용하시는 지요?

동 미디어를 이용하시는 가장큰 이유는 무엇입니까?

V. 미국인들의 외국인에 대한 태도

1. 귀하가 미국에 처음 오셨을 때 첫인상(이미지)은 어떠했습니까? 그 첫 인상은 어디에서 얻었다고 생각하십니까? 지금까지살아오시면서 그 인상 및 이미지가 바뀌셨는지요? 그렇다면 현재 미국에 대한 귀하의 솔직한 느낌과 인상을 말씀해 주십시오.

2. 귀하가 생각하시기에 미국인들이 외국인을 대하는 태도는 대체적으로 어떻다고 생각하십니까?

3. 특별히 귀하자신에 대해서는 미국인들이 어떻게 대한다고 생각하십니까?

4. 귀하가 생각하시기에 귀하가 외국인 (한국인) 이라는 이유만으로 미국인과 다르게 대우받은 적이 있으십니까? 특별한 경험이 있으시면 말씀해 주십시오.

VI. 미국인/미국사회의 다른 문화및생활양식에 대한 태도

1. 미국문화나 관습중 어떤것들이 한국의 문화/관습과 다르다고 생각하십니까?

2. 또한 어떤점이 한국과 비슷하다고 생각하십니까?

3. 속담에 로마에 가서는 로마식대로 행동하라고 합니다. 마찬가지로 미국인들도 한국인들이 미국식대로 따르고 행동하기를 기대한다고 생각하십니까?

   만약 그렇다면, 그렇게 생각하시게된 특별한 이유가 있으신지요? 귀하의 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.

   그렇지 않다면 왜 그렇게 생각하시는지 중요한 사례나 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.

4. 미국문화나 관습대로 따르려고 노력하십니까? 이렇게 미국문화나 관습대로 따르고 행동하는데 얼마나 어려움이 있으신지요?

5. 만약 귀하가 미국인들의 문화나 삶의 방식대로 따르지않거나 행동하지 않을 때 미국인들은 귀하를 어떻게 대하는지요?

   귀하의 구체적인 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.

VII. 미국에서의 삶에 대한 평가

1. 지금까지 미국에서 사시면서 겪으셨던일중 긍정적인 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.

2. 지금까지 미국에서 사시면서 겪으셨던일중 불쾌했던 경험을 말씀해 주십시오.

3. 향후 해외에서 근무 하실 기회가 있으시면 미국에 다시오시겠습니까? 아니면 다시오시기를 원치 않으십니까?

   원하신다면 그 이유는 무엇입니까?

   원치 않으신다면 그 이유는 무엇입니까?

4. 종합적으로 미국생활에 대해 어떻게 생각하고 느끼시는지 솔직히 말씀해주십시오. 여기서 생활이란 회사 업무와 일상사를 통털어서 미국인들과 만나고 접촉하시면서 겪었던 경험들을 의미합니다.

VIII. 마무리

1. 미국에서의 경험에 대해 더 하고 싶으신 말씀이 있으시면 말씀해 주십시오.

2. 인터뷰에 대해서 하실 말씀이 있으신 지요? 인터뷰 질문에 대해서는 어떻게 생각하십니까?

협조에 진심으로 감사드립니다.