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Instituto Universitário de Lisboa

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What factors affect expatriate adjustment? Study of differences between self-initiated and assigned expatriates in Poland

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Dissertation submitted as partial requirement for the conferral of
Master in Human Resources Management

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September 2016

Acknowledgements

Firstly, I would like to express my gratitude to my supervisor Prof. Henrique Duarte for his support during my master research, his motivation, patience and extensive knowledge. His guidelines helped me in the whole research process, from choosing the topic of my research, through collecting data, up to writing the dissertation.

Besides my supervisor, I would like to thank Prof. Graca Trindade who aided me in clearing doubts regarding statistical aspects of my research and data analysis. She committed her time, giving me a lot of attention during her busy schedule and was always available for me.

I also take this opportunity to thank ISCTE for the chance to study at this university, availability of facilities, supporting tools and knowledge transfer during the past two years. As a foreign student I could not have felt more welcome by the university, all professors and colleagues.

Last but not least, I would like to thank Marta Polanska - my flatmate, university colleague and dear friend, for all the support during the past two years of our studies. She was always willing to advise me, which made my time at the university much easier and highly enjoyable.

Contents:

List of abbreviations:

AE(s) - assigned expatriate(s)

SIE(s) – self-initiated expatriates

CQ – cultural Intelligence

CCT – cross-cultural training

HCN – host country nationals

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ABSTRACT

Finding and relocating workforce globally has been a huge part of Human Resources procedures in the 21st century. Expatriation possesses many advantages for both individual and hiring company however, many disadvantages are caused by interrupted expatriates' careers. One of the causes of expatriates' failure is difficulty of adjustment, in particular psychological, work environment, social and general living adjustment dimensions. A purpose of this comparative study was to look at the differences between self-initiated and assigned expatriation, antecedents and factors that may affect adjustment both positively and negatively. A total sample of 165 expatriates currently living and working in Poland was surveyed for this study. From the number of respondents 61 were assigned and 98 self-initiated expatriates, coming from various countries, in various age groups and with different amount of experiences. Results showed that, although the mere factor of affiliation to self-initiated or assigned expatriate did not have any effect on adjustment, various other factors, such as cultural distance, language proficiency, acculturation strategy or social support had significant impacts on adjustment.

Keywords: *expatriation, expatriate adjustment, self-initiated expatriate, assigned expatriate, Poland*

Encontrar e mobilizar tem sido uma das atividade dos Recursos Humanos no século XXI. A expatriação possui muitas vantagens quer para os indivíduos quer para as empresas contratantes, no entanto, algumas desvantagens associam-se à interrupção das carreiras profissionais. Uma das causas do insucesso dos expatriados é a dificuldade de ajustamento nas dimensões psicológicas, do trabalho, sociais e gerais à sociedade em que se encontram. A finalidade deste estudo comparativo é de analisar as diferenças entre expatriados auto-iniciados e aqueles que a expatriação foi atribuída pelas suas empresas contratantes, entre o antecedentes e as varíaveis que podem afetar positivamente e negativamente as várias dimensões do ajustamento. A amostra é composta por 165 expatriados atualmente a viver na Polónia, destes 61 resultam de uma expatriação atribuída e 98 auto-iniciada. São provenintes de vários países, de diversas faixas etárias, sexo e com diferentes experiências. Os resultados evidenciaram não existirem diferenças significativas entre a expatriação atribuida e a auto-iniciada, mas que a distância cultural, a proficiência linguística, a estratégia de aculturação e as formas de apoio social influenciavam o ajustamento independente do tipo de expatriação.

Palavras-chave: *expatriação, ajustamento de expatriados, expatriadoauto-iniciado, expatriação atribuída,Polónia*

Introduction

Recruiting talented workforce is main concern for global human resources (Carr, Inkson, Thorn, 2005). Due to globalisation, instead of locally, recruiters search for suitable talents globally, which can often be a challenging task. While it may be easy to find people with right characteristics and experience to perform a job, these hard skills may not always go in pair with employees' ability to adjust. On one hand, researchers argue that globalisation marginalises existence of cultural differences, which makes it easier for a person to function in any place around the world (Simpson, 2014). More people are being educated in the west, English is becoming an international business language, structures and processes in international companies are being standardised, all of which minimise cultural influences in workplaces (Sussman, 2011). On the other hand, researcher remind that habits and rituals are influenced by countries themselves and that cultural differences are still largely visible, even though companies have the same name and corporate culture across the globe (Zajac, 2012). With as many as 1.5 million of self-initiated expatriates (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development – OECD, 2004) and 25% increase in global assignments in the last decade (Brookfield Global Relocation Services, 2012) it is highly valuable to study expatriation phenomenon.

Nowadays, companies are more likely to employ people with international experience and in many cases it may be one of the necessary criterions for career advancement (Zajac, 2012). However, there are significant economic and social costs caused by difficulties in adjustment (Daily, Certo and Dalton, 2000).Expatriate's inability to perform tasks in the host location may be costly for companies because of employees' poor performance (Harris and Brewster, 1999), possible loss of staff (McGinley, 2008) and financial losses connected to repatriation and recruitment of new employee (Tung, 1998). For expatriates, lower self-confidence and decreased prestige among colleagues (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985) as well as interrupted careers (Tung, 1998) are the most significant costs. Thus, it is very important that the expatriates adjust well, as the degree of their adjustment influences their satisfaction, hence reducing turnover and possibilities of pre-mature finishing of the assignment (Selmer, 2006).

Over the years, expatriation and its adjustment process have been widely studied by various academics (Tung, 1987; Inkson, Arthur, Pringleand Barry, 1997; Suutari and

Brewster, 2000; Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yunand Lepak, 2005). Many studies have been dedicated to better understanding of the process of expatriation (Black, Mendenhall and Odou, 1991; Sussman, 2011;Haslberger, Brewster and Hipler, 2013), its antecedents and outcomes (Aycan, 1997; Florkowski and Fogel, 1999;Hechanova, Beehr, and Christiansen, 2003; Palthe 2004) and various models of expatriate adjustment have been created (Black et al, 1991; Kaupinen, 1994; Anderson 1994; Kim, 2001; Benett and Benett, 2004). Various studies looked at the adjustment of expatriates in different cultural settings, from various nations, backgrounds, expatriating for various reasons. However, only in the recent years, the distinction between self-initiated and assigned expatriates has been made (Andresen et al., 2014). This differentiation helps to distinguish between expatriates who make their own decision to live and work abroad, mainly focused on pursuing their individual goals (Vance, 2005) from expatriates who are send by their employers to undertake foreign assignment, mainly pursuing collective organisational goals (Mo and Yong, 2015). While both types of expatriation have been receiving a lot of attention in literature, there are only few studies that empirically contrast self-initiated and assigned expatriates (Peltokorpi, 2008, Mo and Yong, 2015; Andresen, Biemann and Pattie, 2015).The existing ones suggest that self-initiated expatriates have higher degree of adjustment in terms of non-work factors, namely interaction with host country nationals, in comparison to assigned expatriates and this is mainly due to antecedents of the two types of expatriation such as motivation and self- reliance (Mo and Yong, 2015). There are various motivators driving self-initiated and assigned expatriates, suggesting that differences may be identified between their willingness to adjust to a host country (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009). As self-initiated expatriates chose their destination themselves, it would suggest that they are highly interested in the country they are moving to and their knowledge about customs, behaviours and living there may be advanced, in comparison to assigned expatriates who seldom get a proper training about the country they are being sent to (Peltorkopi and Froese, 2009).Other differences between expatriate types have been found in work adjustment. As assigned expatriates do not change company of employment, it is suggested that they perform similar tasks, follow the same work culture and receive more work support from their home country than self-initiated expatriates who quite often look for job after arrival to their destination (Peltokorpi, 2008). Therefore, it is expected that the adjustment of assigned expatriates in terms of work environment will be better. One of other factors found to impact expatriate adjustment is cultural distance. Researchers, basing on theory of cultural toughness (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985) and social identity theory (Tajfel, 1972), suggest that similarity of norms, values and beliefs between host and home country is

more likely to impact the attractiveness of a destination (Wagner and Westaby, 2009), making it easier for expatriate to adjust (Liu and Lee, 2008 cited in Ramalu and Rose, 2011). Local language knowledge, as well as cultural intelligence, have also been found contributing to adjustment, especially in terms of social interactions and coping with general living in the host country. Culturally intelligent people have been found to be more likely to engage in contact with others, having more opportunities to practice their language skills and getting more information and social support (Farh, Bartol, Shapiro and Shin, 2010. Their openness to other cultures may suggest that they are more likely to familiarise themselves with some of the host country characteristics adapting acculturation strategy which will aid their adjustment in all aspects (Sam and Berry, 2006). Furthermore, emphasis on quality of social contact as an important factor on adjustment process have been placed (McGinley, 2008) as well as quantity of social ties the expatriate is able to built (Farh et al. 2010), which result in improved adjustment and increased level of satisfaction from the conditions provided in host country. (Farh et al, 2010).

Various studies in relation to expatriate adjustment have been performed in Asia: China (Selmer: 1998, 2000, 2006), Japan (Peltokorpi 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009), Vietnam (Zhou and Qin, 2009), South Korea (Froese, 2012), as well as in Scandinavian countries: Finland (Suutari and Brewster, 2000), Norway and Sweden (Selmer and Lauring, 2015), however this is one of the pioneering studies to measure adjustment in Eastern European country. Poland, the country that is usually perceived as a supplier of workforce, rather than considered an expatriate destination, in the recent years have been becoming more attractive for foreign investments hence foreign workforce. Nevertheless, Poland, as rather homogeneous country in terms of culture, religion and ethnicity (CIA, 2015) may pose challenges for foreign nationals, who might experience problems with adjustment. Highly individualistic approach of Polish people, for whom own goals are much more important than goals of groups, may collide with visions of expatriates from collectivist nations.

The goal of this paper is to examine differences in adjustment and its antecedents for self-initiated and assigned expatriates. The aim is to determine which, if any, group of expatriates is likely to adapt to a greater degree in Poland and what factors may influence differences between both groups as well as whether the nature of decision to expatriate has an impact on processes of adjustment. The study discusses four dimensions of adjustment: psychological, work environment, social and general living adjustment, as well as multiple

factors: cultural distance, role of language, cultural intelligence, networking in host communities and their interdependencies. Present study may contribute to the literature in the following ways. Firstly, the literature review provides summary of multiple theoretical and empirical studies dedicated to expatriation, highlighting differences between types of expatriates. Secondly, distinction to self-initiated and assigned expatriates is made, to measure whether any differences are present in the context of Poland. Lastly, it is one of the first studies focusing on Eastern European country and first measuring expatriate adjustment in Poland.

The study is divided into sections. In the first section, review of the existing literature in the field of expatriation, adjustment, antecedents and other factors predicted to have impact on expatriate adjustment is presented, incorporating explanation of study hypotheses. In the second section, an introduction to the study, its methodology, measures and description of the sample is presented. Third section shows summary of results, providing validations of study hypotheses. Fourth section discusses study findings applying the results to theories and comparing them with other studies. The final section concludes the study presenting practical implications and study limitations.

1. <u>Literature review</u>

The chapter of literature review is dedicated to summarising definitions, gathering previous research and studies around the topic of expatriates' adjustment. The division into sub-sections aims at clear presentation of study's issues and commences with general introduction to the terms of expatriate, expatriation and adjustment being then narrowed down to the study sub-topics.

1.1. <u>Expatriate and expatriation</u>

To begin the study on expatriation, the term itself should be explained in more details. An expatriate (often referred to as 'expat' in abbreviated form) is a person moving temporarily to another geographical area, crossing borders to a different country, changing his place of residence and place of work execution (Andersen, Bergdolt, Margenfeldand Dickamnn, 2014).The word 'expatriate' comes from Latin language and it is built by two parts: 'ex' – 'out of' and 'patri(a)' – native land (Dictionary.com, 2016). Therefore, expatriation is a

voluntary movement of people deciding to leave their native land to perform work in another country. In HRM, term expatriation is often used in the context of professionals sent abroad by the companies, as opposed to locally hired staff. In an organisational context the word expatriate is referred to an employee sent to manage operations of the mother organisation in a different country (Noe and Barber, 1993).

The phenomenon of expatriation dates back to the 19th century, when Americans started coming to Europe, especially to Munich and Paris, in order to study art. However, the real evolution of international mobility started about twenty years after the end of Second World War, when the consequences of war diminished. In 1970s people from United States had begun movement to places like Japan and South Africa to undertake work. In 1990s demand for mobility increased, especially in Asia. Countries such as Vietnam, Taiwan, Singapore and Thailand were looking to develop their economies and therefore many expatriates from Europe and United States were sent to aid the advancement. Up to 1990s expatriates were provided huge benefits for relocating and their assignments usually lasted from two to five years. During the 20th century expatriation was dominated by professionals sent by their employers to foreign subsidiaries or headquarters. Towards the end of the 20th century globalisation created market for skilled professionals all around the world (Collings, Scullion and Morley, 2007).Therefore, employers who were not able to find a suitable people on the local market could easily turn to global recruitment. Globalisation changed the conditions of expatriates, who were not being offered as much money as before. This happened mainly due to technology boost (Internet allowed faster global communication), ease in commuting (better roads systems, airplane travel cost reduced) and increased supply of people willing to undertake international experience. Rising demand for work mobility caused emergence of other types of expatriates such as: short-term assignees that expatriate for up to twelve months; commuters, who work in the host country but live in their home country; temporary workers that are hired for specific short projects and global virtual teams (Collings et al, 2007).Nowadays, the trend of mobility is boosting and it is predicted that by 2020 this form of employment will increase by 50% (PWC, 2010). In 21st century expatriation happens all across the world, in all nationalities, religions and professions. Some examples of expatriates that are publicly known may include: Kevin Spacey- American actor living in the UK, Mila Kunis – an USSR born actress living and working in the USA, Gwyneth Paltrlow – a British actress who moved to USA, Penélope Cruz –Spanish actress living in the US or Arnold Schwarzeneger – an Austrian born actor and politician living in the USA.

1.2.<u>Assigned versus self-initiated expatriates</u>

Academics use various terms for expatriate classification, depending on the area and focus of their study, however the general classification to assigned and self-initiated expatriates has been incorporated into this study. Common terms used for assigned expatriates are: 'expatriate assignment' (Inkson et al. 1997), 'organisational expatriate' (Edstrom and Galbraith, 1977), 'international itinerants' (Banai and Harry 2004), which refers only to expatriated managers, excluding other professions. Siljanen and Lamsa (2009) classify assigned expatriates tofurther four types: 'balanced experts, 'idealisers', 'drifters' and 'global careerists'. For self-initiated expatriates other terms used include: 'sejourner' (Ward and Kennedy, 1999), 'non-corporate-sponsored expatriate' (Bozionelos, 2009), 'self-directed expatriate' (Richardson and Mallone, 2005), 'self-selected expatriate' (Richardson and McKenna, 2002) and 'overseas experience' (Inkson et al. 1997). The latter one has been criticized by Suutari and Brewster (2000) as being applicable only to United States case, where most of expatriates have to actually cross the sea to reach their host country destination. Therefore, 'self-initiated foreign work experience' was proposed as an alternative term to be used in European context. This has been further divided into categories of: 'young opportunists', 'job seekers', 'officials', 'localised professionals', 'international professionals' and 'dual career couples'. Another division of self-assigned expatriates is presented by Andresen et al. 2014 and includes: intra-SIE, where new employer decides whether to hire a person and inter- SIE, where the legal decision of employment is made by the same organisation in host country to the one they are current employed by. Nevertheless, for the purpose of this paper, the distinction is only made between self- initiated expatriate(s) - referred later in text as SIE(s) and assigned expatriate(s) - AE(s).

The term 'assigned expatriates' refers to employees being sent on an assignment outside of their country of permanent residence by the company they work for (Andresen et al. 2014). AEs are being sent to the foreign branch of their mother organisation to work on a specific project, being funded by the company and are usually awarded beneficial relocation packages. The time of the assignment is determined by the contract of employment and known to a potential expatriate before the decision to take the opportunity is made. After the assignment, expatriate is expected to repatriate to the home country in order to perform the job for the same company. Foreign assignment is often a part of employee's career path within the organisation(Silajnen and Lamsa, 2009) and it has a form of a formalised job offer,

proposed toan employee, which can be accepted or refused (Andresen et al. 2014). Not many employees are willing to refuse the offer though, as it is believed that the rejection may create obstacles in their further career (Brewster, 1991). Assigned expatriates undertake the assignment to complete company goals on the organisational career path hence getting support during their assignment (Andresen et al. 2014). During their work project abroad, expatriates stay within the same company as in their home country, moving within the boundaries of the firm (Selmer, 2006).

There are three primary motives of sending expatriates on assignments abroad (Edstrom and Galbraith, 1977). First one is to fill the positions in which high technical skills and advanced managerial knowledge are needed. It is crucial, especially in developing countries, where local qualified workforce may not be available or is very difficult to acquire. Second motive is management development. The transfer allows managers to obtain international experience and helps developing skills for future important tasks in subsidiaries abroad or with the parent company. This kind of transfer is carried out even if qualified host-country nationals are available. Third motive for international transfers is organisation development. This motive consists of two elements: socialisation of both expatriate and local managers into the corporate culture and the creation of a verbal information network that provides links between subsidiaries and head quarter.

There are several benefits for companies which are sending their own workforce abroad. These include: transfer of business practices and tacit knowledge; greater and improved control over the subsidiary, as well as guarantee that relevant skills and experience are available (Selmer, 2006). The degree of adjustment of an expatriate in a new environment creates value and may be responsible for the company intentions to expand to new markets (Takeuchi, 2010). From expatriate point of view the advantages of taking up the assignment abroad are to gain new professional and personal knowledge, expand the career perspectives or/and take advantage of beneficial packages offered by the home company (Andresen et al, 2015). However, despite many advantages that assigned expatriation brings, many disadvantages can be identified. Firstly, the transfer and salary costs may be very high for the company, depending on the destination country. Secondly, adjustment of expatriate in the host country may be challenging and, if unsuccessful, may lead to failure (Takeuchi, 2010). For company there are tangible risks such as high costs of interrupted assignment connected to repatriation of current worker, costs of new recruitment, travel and salary of another employee

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as well as decrease in performance (Harrison and Shaffer, 2005). For the individual with problems in adjustment and the need to prematurely finish expatriation leads to intangible outcomes such as family issues, loss of self-esteem and morale (Bozionelos, 2009).

The second types of expatriates explored in this study are called 'self-initiated expatriates'. This term refers to an action being undertaken by the individual and appeared in the literature for first time in 2008 in articles by Doherty and Dickmann (2008) and Jokinen, Brewster and Suutari (2008). Due to existence of many terms referring to self-initiated type of expatriation, on the symposium at the Academy of Management in 2009, academics agreed to term 'self-initiated expatriate' (SIE). Since then it has been used quite consistently in the literature (Doherty and Dickmann, 2013).For self-initiated expatriates the aspiration to seek for a job abroad comes from personal motives; usually connected to one self-growth (Carr et al., 2005) and self-development, as SIEs usually do not follow standard career path within organisations (Al-Waqfi, 2012). Self-initiated expatriation is facilitated by the introduction of free movement of labour in the European Union and other economic regions. SIEs usually move to the foreign country before they have a job and are not guaranteed how soon, if at all, they can get employment (Andresen et al. 2015). As they do not have job contracts with their home country, they are allowed free shift between companies in the host country. Education, information technology and investment banking are usually the professional areas that are willing to be undertaken by SIEsdue to their transferable skills (Richardson and McKenna, 2003). The decision of the employment of self-initiated expatriates lies with the organisation of the host country. SIEs may face obstacles in the planning process, for example in financial terms, as no support or sponsorship comes from the current employer. SIEs need a lot of determination and self-regulation strategies in order to pursue their goal of working in another country (Andresen et al. 2014). It is their personal development project with self-set goals, which can vary from the desire of seeing the world to building better future (Siljanen and Lamsa, 2009).

The benefits for the companies deciding to employ SIEs include reduced costs, as this type of expatriates tend to be less expensive because organisation does not need to pay for logistics concerned with moving and training prior to departure. SIEs may require lower compensations as they may be escaping economic hardships of their own country. Also, organisations may use SIEs to increase their count of woman as self-initiated expatriation proves to be less gendered (Andresen et al., 2015). For individual, the benefits of being SIE

comprise of personal growth and development, ability of getting to know culture of one's interest, gaining new knowledge and skills. The tacit forms of knowledge acquired, may be very useful when looking for better opportunities in finding jobs in the future (Selmer, 2006).This type of expatriation however, possesses many potential problems. For the company, the disadvantages of employing SIEs include adjustment problems that may lead to decreased performance and departure from the country (Andresen et al., 2014). The main disadvantages for individual include the difficulties in finding the job themselves and lack of organisational support (Vance, 2005). Moreover, after repatriation SIEs do not have a guarantee of a job in their home country. In case of adjustment problems it may be more difficult to return to their home as costs connected with travelling and setting up their life again may be greater than cost of staying in the host country.

To sum up, the primary differences between assigned and self- initiated expatriates lie in their motives to expatriate. While SIEs make the expatriation decision themselves, AEs are being chosen to perform foreign assignment by their company, having clear work assignments, and planning to repatriate within given timeframe (Sussman, 2011). SIEs seek work in the destination country, often having much less favourable contracts than AEs (Petrokopi and Froese, 2009). SIEs tend to stay abroad for longer periods of time than AEs or never repatriate to their home country, deciding to live abroad and therefore changing their status to migrant upon receiving permanent residency or visa (Baruch, Dickmann, Altman and Bournois, 2013). Following proposed framework of dimensions that help distinguish SIEs from AEs, eight classifying factors are summarised in Table 1 (Doherty, Richardson and Thorn, 2013).

Dimension	AE	SIE
Initiation	Employing organisation	Self-directed
Goals	Collective company goals	Individual goals
Funding	Organisational	Self funding
Focus	Career	International experience
Career agenda	Boundaryless	Protean
Intended duration	Outlined by employment contract	No limitation – own directed
Employment type of agreement	Contract with home organisation, terms agreed before departure	Contract with local company
Occupational category	Usually senior positions	Usually lower hierarchical levels or freelancing

Table 1 – Dimensions of differentiation between AE and SIE (created using Doherty et al., 2013)

1.3.<u>Adjustment</u>

Adjustment, which in expatriation context, is also being substituted by 'socialisation' (Feldman and Bolino, 1999), and 'adaptation' (Florkowski and Fogel, 1999), has been defined as the degree of psychological comfort that one feels towards the new situation (Black, 1988) or a degree of fit between individual and new environment in various work and non-work aspects (Aycan, 1997). Adjustment occurs on two levels, therefore the distinction between psychological and socio-cultural adaptation had been made. Psychological (affective) adjustment refers to well-being, mood of a person and extent to which a person senses depression, fatigue, tension and the degree of psychological comfort with several aspects of the new environment (Caligiuri, 2000). This aspect of adjustment is mainly connected to coping with work and work environment. Socio-cultural (behavioural) adjustment refers to the ability of a person to fit the new environment and interact with the host culture on an everyday basis (Ward and Kennedy, 1999).

There are several models of expatriate adjustment. The first one – BMO presented by Black, Mendenhall and Oddou (1991) proposed that expatriate adjustment includes two major components: 'anticipatory' and 'in-country' adjustment. Anticipatory adjustment is linked to person's perceptions and expectations of the host country and can have an important positive impact on in-country adjustment. In-country adjustment refers to person's qualities as an individual, one's skills, self-efficacy and various job factors. Anticipatory adjustment has been found to be positively influenced by cross-cultural training and satisfactory previous international experience. Both components help in building expatriate's expectations that are more realistic and accurate as both are based on some knowledge, either personal one from previous experience or delivered via training. These components help to lower levels of uncertainty and minimise cultural shock, which in turn leads to fewer surprises and better and faster adjustment. Therefore, to help anticipatory adjustment for assigned expatriates companies can provide cross-cultural trainings and use comprehensive selection criteria, which look at positive previous international experiences of the potential candidates. Second part of BMO model is dedicated to in-country adjustment, which has been described as a three dimensional concept. It consists of: work, interaction and general non-work environment adjustment. Work adjustment has been defined as a degree of psychological comfort regarding work values and standards, adjustment to supervision, responsibilities and job performance in the host country. Interaction adjustment is characterised by the level of

interaction and communication with host nationals and quantity of social contact. General adjustment has been described as adaptation to various aspects of the host environment such as living conditions, shopping and food. This division proposed by Black et al. (1991) has been widely used by academics and many empirical studies have been basing their research on this distinction. BMO model has been tested for the first time by Shaffer, Harrison and Gilley (1999) using two moderating variables: previous assignments and language fluency. The study found out that role clarity (the degree to which expatriate understands what is expected from him) and role discretion (the flexibility expatriate has over performing his tasks) were both positively related work adjustment. This is because role clarity reduces work uncertainty which in turns facilitates adjustment and therefore it is a significant predictor of work adjustment (Black, 1990). Role conflict (lack of compatibility between the job position, Business Dictionary, 2016) and role novelty (the degree to which current role differs from roles previously undertaken) did not show the expected negative relationship to work adjustment, although role novelty was negatively related to general adjustment (Shaffer et al. 1999). Support from co-workers and logistic support were positively related to interaction adjustment. Cultural novelty and spousal adjustment had a very strong impact on general adjustment and interaction adjustment. The number of previous international assignments and language fluency had been found to have positive, direct and moderating effect on interaction adjustment (Shaffer et al. 1999). In the study of adjustment of Western business expatriates in China and Hong Kong, Selmer (2000) used the three dimension distinction model of Black (1990) and referred to: general, work and interaction adjustment. Western expatriates were found to be better socio-culturally adjusted in Hong Kong in terms of general and work adjustment which had been explained by the modernity and higher quality of living conditions in Hong Kong than in China. Better social life, less air pollution, advanced medical services, all these which are comparable to many Western cities. Regarding the work adjustment, Selmer (2000) pointed out that Hong Kong has a greater familiarity with Western practices than China, hence can better accommodate Western employees' needs. The third dimension – interaction did not significantly differ between Hong Kong and China, as in both cases the expatriates encountered language barriers, which limited them to interact with the local national on a daily basis. In another study of adjustment, Selmer (2006) extended previous research to study business expatriates in Greater China and the differences in adjustment of expatriates in Hong Kong and Singapore to mainland China and Taiwan, confirming earlier research. Expatriates living in Hong Kong and Singapore had higher degree of general and work adjustment and needed less time to adjust. This was explained being due to the

modernity of Hong Kong and Singapore over Mainland China and Taiwan, which includes better living conditions and workplace standards. The revised BMO model that included personal motivational factors was presented by Kauppinen (1994). His study of Finnish expatriates in USA proved that motivation had a major effect on both anticipatory and in-country adjustment. He also highlighted the importance of language which was revealed as the most important skill. Anderson (1994), with the psychological approach to the subject of adjustment, added a new argument to the previous research, finding that adaptation is a dynamic process and should be seen as rebuilding one's personality. Another model of adjustment was introduced by Kim (2001) and referred to adjustment as a process of creating and maintaining reciprocal, stable relationships with the new environment. This model was the first one to present adjustment as an ongoing, three facet transformation, that included host communication skills, expatriate psychological health and his intercultural identity. Developmental model of intercultural sensitivity presented by Benett and Benett (2004) argued that process of adjustment aids re-establishment one's identity through different stages. Expatriate goes from ethnocentricity, which is characterised by avoidance, discrimination and minimisation of host country and community, to ethno-relativity, described by acknowledgement of different values and adapting to them, reaching integration by transformation of one's identity. More recent adjustment studies extend the research of Black et al. (1991) by proposing revised conceptualisation of adjustment (Haslberger et al., 2013). Researchers, going beyond International Human Resource Management, position expatriate in a wider context, where adjustment is being described as a person-environment (P-E) fit. This concept addresses the interaction between an expatriate and the environment around him, which is described as an interdependent dynamic relationship involving meeting each other's requirements (Dawis and Lofquist, 1984, cited in Haslberger et al, 2013). Expatriate must relate to multiple environments in new setting such as work, home, but also family, friends and social community. This concept adds another level to Black et al. (1991) three dimensional concept by presenting adjustment in alternative dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioural. These dimensions are correlated to some extent; however it is possible for the expatriate to adjust to only one and not to the others.

The cognitive dimension of adjustment refers to the degree to which expatriate understands or not the actions of the others around him. Internal aspect refers to the certainty expatriate has in relation to his knowledge about the country. Expatriate may understand and interact appropriately with the others, creating certainty or have difficulties to understand

some situations abroad creating cognitive uncertainty. However, repeated, quality contact with host country nationals helps building certainty and better understanding of the local culture and customs (Kim, 2001). The external aspect of cognition relates to the environment, feedback and knowledge gained from others. AE is more likely to arrive to host destination with higher degree of cognitive certainty, as he believes he is exclusively selected to perform the assignment. SIE however, does not have the notion of being specifically chosen and therefore this may cause his lower cognitive certainty (Haslberger et al, 2013).

The affective dimension refers to feelings that expatriate has towards his assignment abroad, as well as norms of showing the emotions in the host country. The internal aspect of affective dimension relates to the feelings of an expatriate - whether he is happy and excited to participate in new challenge or obliged by the company to do so, or whether he misses the family and home or is thrilled to be meeting new people. The external aspect refers to the norms and rules of expressing emotion and affection in the host country. As each nation has its own way of emotional reacting and showing affections, it may be difficult for an expatriate at first to realise how to react in some situations, which he has to learn through different social encounters. The third dimension refers to the adequacy or inadequacy of expatriate's behaviour upon arrival to a host country. Internal aspect refers to expatriate own standards of behaviour in terms of effectiveness, that he had acquired from his own culture, but which may not necessarily be adequate in the host country. The external aspect refers to behaviours being appropriate in a host country, set out by norms in the host society and in many cases expatriate manager at work. The reconceptualised model of Haslberger et al (2013) places an emphasis on constant interaction between an expatriate and multiple environmental aspects in order to adequately understand the adjustment process and its factors.

This study, looking at psychological, work environment, social and general living adjustment will look at the differences for both types of expatriates. Firstly, in relation to psychological adjustment, it is expected that it will not be solely affected by expatriation type and it is more likely to be influenced by other factors such as differences in norms and values between home and host countries or cultural openness of an individual to new environment.

Hypothesis 1a: The degree of psychological adjustment is expected to be similar for assigned and self- initiated expatriates.

In relation to work adjustment of SIEs and AEs studies show that differences have been found. While assigned expatriates still work for the same company as they do back home and in many ways are still connected to their home country, self-assigned expatriates have to deal with much more uncertainty, taking higher risks by moving abroad. For AEs interaction is facilitated by the company language, which usually is English, while SIEs often find work in local companies and therefore must possess at least some basic language skills (Wang and Tran, 2012). SIEs may receive less organisational support due to their lower organisational status and foreign nationality. They can be fired easier as they work in less favourable contracts, or sometimes without a written contract. AEs receive monetary incentives from their home company, which are likely to increase their extrinsic motivation (Peltokorpi, 2008). Moreover, AEs go abroad for the particular assignment, having in mind that they will return home after it is finished and still have a job in their company. SIEs do not have any guarantee that upon returning to their home country they will be able to find a suitable employment (Andresen et al., 2014). Therefore, it is expected that work adjustment will be better for AEs as they get continuous support from their mother organisation and perform similar activities to the ones in their home countries.

Hypothesis 1b: Assigned expatriates will experience higher degree of work environment adjustment in comparison to self-initiated expatriates.

Type of expatriation should not affect general adjustment of expatriates. Both SIEs and AEs are expected to have similar results. Although some researchers argue that companies help assigned expatriates with finding accommodation, setting up bank accounts and other general issues when arriving to new country; these practices are not being widely used and are present in companies with large HR departments (Lei, Udaniand Arches, 2011).

Hypothesis 1c: The degree of general living adjustment is expected to be similar for assigned and self-initiated expatriates.

Regarding interactions in host country, many studies discussed adjustment ofAEswho live in company housing or compounds and have less contact with host country nationals. Often, these housing facilities contain restaurants, shops that provide assistance in English facilitating adjustment to general living conditions (Peltokorpi, 2008). However, as these reduce contact with host country nationals, it may suggest that these interactions are limited.

Social interactions with host country nationals are very important for adjustment however, there are other individuals, such as co-workers and other expatriates who are valuable source of information and socialising with them may be a great opportunity for expatriates to adjust better. Taking into consideration that SIEs travel to their desired destinations, often for motives connected to meeting new people and getting to know cultures, adjusting socially is expected to be higher for SIEs.

Hypothesis 1d: Self-initiated expatriates will experience higher degree of social adjustment in comparison to assigned expatriates.

Any individual who decides to undertake work in a form of expatriation is likely to face adjustment problems that may lead to failure (Bozionelos, 2009). As expatriate adjustment has been found a predictor of job performance (Parker and McEvoy, 1993) and turnover (Black and Stephens, 1989) it is very important to be studied and understood. Adjusting to a new environment and cultural setting is a very challenging task for an expatriate. It requires a lot of self-reliance and self-efficacy (Fan and Mak, 1998). Efforts to adjust occur because expatriate realises he cannot fully meet the demands that are connected with the move to another country or that the move does not meet his expectations. This creates stress and even crisis, which then requires changes in resources, capabilities or reduction of demands. Stress at the beginning of expatriation is regarded as a positive signal of expatriate being willing to change and therefore adjust (Haslberger et al. 2013).

1.4. Cultural distance and cross-cultural motivation

Cultural distance has been described as a degree of difference between host and home country, not only in basics aspects of culture such as core values, beliefs, customs, rituals, (Hofstede, 1980), but also legal, political and economic systems (Adler, 1998). Different cultures follow different sets of values and systems (Hofstede, 1980) and this is what distinguishes one culture from another. As much as those differences make cultures unique and make people strive to explore the world, they are also likely to create misunderstandings, reduce communication and create greater social distance among people (Lau and Murnighan, 1998). Expatriates arriving to host country have to deal with unfamiliar norms, values and beliefs that sometimes significantly differ from their home country (Liu and Lee, 2008). When encountering less familiar situations in a culturally distant country, expatriates may not

know how to behave due to different social norms worldwide (Haslberger et al, 2013). The issue of cultural distance may be especially challenging in an organisational setting, because people with different values have different goals and priorities, practices and habits of work and interpretation of their surroundings. Moreover, people from culturally distant countries usually have unlike beliefs and perspectives that may collide with expatriate's own. This may create social categorisation to in group and out group. According to social identity theory (Tajfel, 1972) people tend to attribute positive characteristics to similar people and things, therefore favouring their own in-groups. In the case of expatriation, the expatriate would be more likely to choose culturally similar country to their own. Relocating to culturally similar country has been found more attractive than to dissimilar one. An important factor in expatriate willingness to relocate is perceived cultural similarity of the destination country to one's home place (Wagner and Westaby, 2009). Similarity-attraction theory (Byrne, 1971) states that people feel attracted to similarity and therefore the interaction in a country that has similar attitudes and values would be easier than to a dissimilar one. Lastly, theory on cultural toughness (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985) states that people would find difficulties in adjustment to dissimilar culture to their own and therefore expatriates are more likely to choose countries with similar cultures. Therefore, the more distant culture, the more difficult it is for the expatriate to adjust (Selmer, 2006). While these theories have been confirmed by studies such as Noe and Barber (1993), who found that people from rural areas were more likely to move to rural areas and ones from urban to urban or in the study of Aryee and Stone (1996), where Singaporean participants were more likely to relocate to culturally similar country, some other researchers found that the cultural similarity does not have a significant impact on choosing the destination country. In contradiction with previous studies, the study of Wagner and Westaby (2009) has found that similarity did not have an impact on willingness to relocate for employed graduate American students willing to move internationally. Other factors, such as monetary benefits and country's safety were attributed higher importance over cultural similarity. The researches, however, stated that it might have been due to young (average age of 27.2) and adventurous seeking sample, looking for cultural experiences. In regards to direct relationships between cultural novelty and adjustment researchers found that it was negatively impacting adjustment of expatriates (Hechanova et al., 2003, Shaffer et al., 1999). The extent of cultural similarity allows expatriates to develop necessary intercultural competencies. This suggests that expatriates from culturally similar countries to their hosts, will have a higher degree of adjustment and feel more confident at work and in social contacts.

Hypothesis 2: Cultural distance will have a negative impact on expatriate's adjustment in terms of work and non-work related factors for both assigned and self-initiated expatriates.

Due to differences between cultures, expatriates are likely to seek social contact with people from similar cultures; however, researchers consider that people who posses cross-cultural motivation and competencies may seek for support from sources that are not necessary similar to their own (Farh et al., 2010). This is due to the fact that they stop looking through the prism of cultural differences and start noticing personal characteristics of individuals. This cultural maturity and capability to deal effectively with situations of cultural diversities is known as cultural intelligence (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008). CQ is a multidimensional concept which distinguishes cognitive, meta-cognitive, behavioural and motivational dimensions. Cognitive dimension of cultural intelligence is described as level of cultural knowledge connected to other cultures, their beliefs, social norms, economic systems. Meta-cognitive CQ refers to a higher level of cognitive processes and is described as a level of cultural awareness during cross-cultural interactions. Behavioural CQ is the capability of exhibiting verbal and non-verbal actions during cross-cultural interaction adapting them to cultural setting. Motivational CQ, formed of self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation, is the capability to direct energy and effort toward cross-cultural interactions (Ang, Van Dyne, Koh, Ng, Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar, 2007).Self-efficacy is described as a level of confidence that one possesses in relation to his own ability of completing a task, while intrinsic motivation refers to performance of activities for own pleasure and satisfaction (Schaffer et al., 1999). Therefore, they are key factors in expatriates' adjustment, as they impact peoples' ability to successfully perform in a new environment. As motivational CQ is composed of both self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation it has been said to have an impact on all dimensions of expatriate adjustment. As people who have high motivational cultural intelligence feel more comfortable in new situations, their psychological adjustment is believed to be higher. In relation to work adjustment, people with high motivational CQ seek new challenges and are convinced that they are able to succeed in new situations including work situations; their work adjustment is expected to be better (Hechanova et al., 2003, Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl, 2009). Similarly, general adjustment should be better as they like to try out new things and may be more persistent in adapting to new living conditions (Templer, Tay and Chandrasekar, 2006). Expatriate with high motivational cultural

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intelligence are more likely to interact with people of other cultures and because of their confidence may actively seek to engage in relationships with culturally different people (Fan and Mak, 1998; Farh et al., 2010). These interactions are said to bring information and emotional support, improving social adjustment of people with high motivational CQ. Summing up, people with high motivational CQ are motivated intrinsically and therefore they are more open-minded to new experiences and may adjust better to living conditions, work demands and interaction with host country nationals because of their curiosity and enthusiasm (Mo and Yong, 2015).

Hypothesis 3a: Cultural intelligence will have positive impact on social and general living adjustment of both assigned and self-initiated expatriates.

1.5. Language proficiency and cross-cultural training

Multilingualism and multiculturalism are inevitably linked to the mobility of people seeking better lives. The underlying idea of the European Union, free movement areas (such as Schengen) and lower visas restrictions are, among others, aimed at aiding mobility of people, who by changing their place of work and residence, influence the development of multilingual and multicultural societies (Gebal, 2013).Language knowledge is one of the key skills when going to live and work in another country. It aids in communication with local people, enhancing social adjustment, but most importantly, it helps in everyday life situation such as shopping or renting an apartment. (Wang and Tran, 2012).

Individuals raised in a specific linguistic tradition see the world differently than individuals raised in another linguistic tradition (Gadamer, 1993, cited in Kwasnica, 1991). This is due to the fact that through the language, norms, behaviours, moral and cognitive values are transmitted. In other words, using a language transmits the culture of one's nation in most parts. Language conceptualizes and structures reality, interprets it, categorizes and evaluates it. The same observations can be common, ground picture of the world only if the language skills are similar (Whorf, 1982, cited in Kwasnica, 1991). Therefore, in order to properly function within a social group, knowledge concerning linguistics and non-verbal communication (gestures, facial expressions) is required. Various ways of communication shape in their users different relationships to people, events and objects. The interior human

experiences, as well as moral and ethical norms, depend on the language used in the given culture (Gebal, 1991).

Language knowledge helps to deal with common situations in the culture and shows expatriate the right ways to behave (Argyle, 1991). Individuals with different language background may be excluded from conversations (Lauring and Selmer, 2010) and experience negative social interactions. Language deficiencies may cause problems as expatriates may not be able to achieve desired social networking in the host country and may be classified as belonging to out-group. Through interactions, language becomes linked to other social structures, such as group formation, interpersonal attraction and social exchange. Language can potentially be a powerful force in creating a sense of exclusion from some information and decision making for people with lower language abilities (Lauring and Selmer, 2010). Along with the language, expatriates get to know the culture, and most importantly, social structure. To operate effectively in the community, one has to learn to communicate in accordance with the group rules. Therefore, expatriate needs to learn not only a new language, but also the new rules of behaviour, a new hierarchy of values. Previously used patterns of behaviour that are known from expatriate own culture must be abandoned. Until this is done, new environment will not be likely to fully accept newcomer (Argyle, 1991) and it may cause issues with adjustment. However, adapting to these new conditions happens step by step in everyday life situations. These informal and minor adaptations get unnoticeably accumulated, until they get recognized as new ones (Hall, 1987). The faster and more proficient one becomes in social rules that operate in the host country, the greater are the chances of getting greater social, professional and economic position that corresponds to one's abilities and ambitions (Kwasnica, 1991). The aim of language training is to prepare expatriates for the effective interaction with the host country nationals. This type of training helps expatriates to adapt to living and working in the host country. Various academics studied the influence of the language proficiency on adjustment of expatriates. Kauppinen (1994) in his study of Finnish expatriates in USA found language to be rated as the most important skill needed in the country. Similarly, Peltokorpi (2008) in his study of adjustment in Japan, found that language proficiency facilitated expatriates' adjustment. In the study of academics adjusting to life in South Korea, seventeen out of thirty said they had a significant language problem, which caused negative effect on all three types of adjustment , especially on general and interaction adjustment (Froese, 2012). Selmer (2006) found language barrier as a primary obstacle to interaction adjustment for business expatriates in China, Taiwan and Hong Kong.

The results of the study, which tested interaction adjustment, showed that expatriates in Singapore were able to interact with local nationals easier and more effective than others expatiates in Greater China. This was due to the inability of expatriates to speak Chinese and, on the other hand, the capacity of English language knowledge of the host country. Although the business language in all destinations tested was English, and moreover Hong Kong's official language is English as well as Chinese, the ability to speak it in Taiwan, Hong Kong and Mainland China was very low. However, earlier study of Selmer (2000) found that interaction for Western business expatriates in China was more challenging than in Hong Kong because of lack of English skills of the population, which made it harder to communicate with Chinese nationals. Consistency in communication in English was determinant factor and was significantly related to group involvement and group trust in the study of the effect of common language on group involvement, conflict and trust in multicultural organisations (Lauring and Selmer, 2010).

Hypothesis 3b: Language proficiency and cultural intelligence will have positive impact on social and general living adjustment of both assigned and self-initiated expatriates.

Studies of linguistics developed models of origin of languages that explains relation between families and groups of languages that are similarly structured. This closeness of languages has been said to have an impact on the easiness of learning a language (Cowler, 1981, cited in Lauring and Selmer, 2010). Hence, the greater linguistic distance, the more difficult is to interact between expatriates and host country nationals, creating problems with adjustment. Therefore, this study proposes that:

Hypothesis 3c: Expatriates whose mother tongue comes from the same language family to host country will have higher language proficiency.

There is no better way to get to know and understand other culture than through the language (Dolainski, 1997). And one way of learning the language is by training. Cross-cultural and language training have been recognized as essential for the intercultural adjustment. Training is a medium to facilitate effective cross-cultural interactions. Studies showed that awareness may reduce uncertainty and have positive impact on facilitating adjustment. One of the mean of provision awareness is cross-cultural training (CCT).

Researchers claim that CCT is the powerful medium in preparing expatriates for their encounter with a different culture. However, the practice of CCT is still not undertaken by many organisations (Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl, 2009). The effectiveness of cross-cultural training has been examined by Deshpande and Viswesvaran (1992), who undertook meta-analysis to demonstrate a positive effect of training on a number of assignment-related outcome variables. Others have argued that pre-departure training helps expatriates in developing accurate expectations towards the assignment, which in turn enhances their effectiveness abroad (Black et al., 1991). Also, CCT usually equips expatriate with knowledge about the host country, its values, and habits in order to notice the differences between their own culture and prepare the individual for the assignment (Kealeyand Protheroe, 1996). However, Mendenhall (2000) suggested that additional training measures should be undertaken and that the training should continue in host country with an aid of e-learning. Research also suggests that a gap remains between individual training needs and the actual training offered (Harris and Brewster, 1999) and often expatriates are expected to take responsibility for their own training and preparation. In the study on the role of cross-cultural training in facilitating the adjustment of the expatriates pre-departure training has been found positively related to general adjustment, interaction adjustment and work adjustment (Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl, 2009). Pre-departure training had positive effect on all three dimensions of adjustment and it is influenced by amount of prior international experience (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005). The study showed that cross cultural training for expatriates with less than two years of international experience brought more profits than to the ones that have more than two years of experience and that this extends to work, general and interaction dimensions. Findings of Waxin and Panaccio (2005) showed that the larger cultural distance between the home and host country, the more distinct the effects of the training are. However, there is other empirical evidence that found weak (yet still positive) relationship between the training and all dimension of adjustment (Morris and Robie, 2001) and negative relationship between attending CCT and interaction (Hechanova et al., 2003), general and work adjustment (Kealeyand Protheroe, 1996). In the study of self-expatriated nurses in Saudi Arabia, Bozionelos (2009) found that CCT did not have an effect on adjustment in nurse setting, however, peer support and mentoring had positive significant effects on job satisfaction and therefore on adjustment, especially in the context of culturally similar countries and has been found to be more beneficial than CCT in general. This may be explained by the fact that mentoring is ongoing process and undertaken in the destination country, while CCT has been treated as a singular occurrence in this case (Bozionelos, 2009).

Assigned expatriates usually receive cross-cultural training before departing for their international assignment and also may receive it after arrival to their destination. However, self-initiated expatriates mostly do not have an opportunity for prior-departure training; as they are not being sent by their company and look for work themselves.

Hypothesis 4a: Assigned expatriates will be more likely to receive pre-departure and post-arrival cross-cultural training than self-initiated expatriates.

. This would suggest that SIEs are disadvantaged and may have difficulties in adjusting, without receiving the training prior to their departure. However, due to the antecedents such as motivation and self-reliance, SIEs usually know more about the country they are willing to expatriate to than AEs. As they only rely on themselves, they prepare earlier, to avoid any surprises and it may help them in adjusting. Following this line of thought it is suggested that AEs will be more likely to receive training before departure and after arrival however, there will be no significant differences in adjustment between SIEs and AEs caused by cross-cultural training but it will have positive impact on general, interaction and work adjustment.

Hypothesis 4b: Cross-cultural training will positively impact general, interaction and work adjustment for both self-initiated and assigned expatriates.

As cross-cultural training focuses on building self-confidence and developing behaviours in the context of the foreign culture (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005), it increases person's self efficacy and awareness, therefore reducing the uncertainty in interactions and in turn leads to better adjustment.

1.6. Cultural meanings - dealing with cultural shock

Cultural shock is the reaction of the individual, when one finds himself in a culturally new environment. It is feeling of anxiety for the unknown, loss of familiar setting, norms and social interactions (McGinley, 2008). The concept of cultural shock has been introduced by Oberg (1960), who described it as an anxiety cause by loss of all symbols, signals, behaviours and rituals known from own culture, that helps individuals function in everyday life. The

reaction to culture shock is usually frustration followed by withdrawal of anything connected with a local culture. Initially, minor incidents do not impact newcomer to a great degree, however, with time, the gradual accumulation results in stress, anxiety, frustration and may impact the continuation of the foreign assignment (Simpson, 2014). Culture shock is a natural reaction of a person when entering new cultural environment induced by many irritating and incomprehensible situations that cannot be compared to previous experiences. It is usually deepen by inability to communicate, lack of local language skills, lack of knowledge about the culture, traditions, customs, beliefs, reality and priorities of local population (Simpson, 2014).

Cultural shock, when not treated properly, can lead to serious psychosomatic dysfunctions that then need a treatment from a specialist. Therefore, it is important that the culture shock is just a phase and it is used to getting the knowledge and experiences in order to better understand the host country (Adler, 1975). Cultural shock does not have to be necessary negative. Some people take it as an opportunity and motivation to learn about the new culture in order to feel more comfortable and confident in the new setting. This opportunity of acquiring knowledge and experience leads to increased cultural maturity (Adler, 1975), which in turn guarantees high degree of self-awareness and personal growth. Therefore, researchers argue the cultural shock is a process of learning skills that are necessary in new cultural environment (Kim, 1991, Black and Mendenhall, 1991).

The process of minimising cultural shock is called acculturation. It is a 'process of cultural and psychological change which results following meeting between cultures' (Sam and Berry, 2010). It's a two-way interaction: action and reaction, as in the end both cultural groups become changed. Acculturation starts when an expatriate arrives to a host country because he brings a set of cultural and psychological qualities. When mixing with other culture, the compatibility and incompatibilities are being encountered and examined. There are various aspects in which differences may be found, starting from basic ones such as dress code, speaking, eating habits to more complex connected to different language and sense of well being. The ABC of acculturation (Ward, 2001) stands for changes to affective, behavioural and cognitive areas of human life. Affective perspective is linked to all emotional aspects of a person and includes well-being and life satisfaction and the adaptation to these. Behavioural aspect includes all the things that individual uses in everyday encounters such as language, rules and norms, while cognitive perspective refers to person's perceptions of

himself and own abilities in facing intercultural encounters. In the cognitive perspective, social identity theory (Tajfel, 1979) plays an important role. Individuals need to be part of a group in order to feel the sense of well being and belonging. The theory distinguishes the existence of in-group and out-group and is concerned with definition of groups' and individuals' identity in relation to the own ethnic group as well as society in which they are acculturating. Humans tend to put people in categories and be biased towards their group attributing negative qualities to the other group to boost their self-image.

One of the first acculturation models was presented by Lysgaard (1955). His 'U-curve model' was based on empirical study of Norwegian scholarship receiving students in USA. The model highlighted three main stages of adjustment. First stage, named as 'honeymoon period' happens upon arrival, when expatriate is highly satisfied, everything around is new and waiting to be explored. The second stage is a psychological crisis, when an expatriate struggles to make sense of some cultural values, beliefs and norms in the host country. The initial euphoria is over and the expatriate sees how challenging functioning in everyday life can be. Last step, recovery and adjustment, happens when expatriate gathers some more knowledge about the host country and becomes accustomed. Empirical studies did not find much support for this model (Kealey, 1989).Despite the lack of confirmation, U-curved model is still widely used in expatriation adjustment studies (Sussman, 2011). The lack of support for this model can be explained by the fact that international assignments have been treated as a multi dimensional process since the studies in 50's and 60's have divided adjustment to psychological and socio-cultural (Simpson, 2014). In fact, more recent models showed the reverse of U-curved model. The initial phase of expatriation begins with depression and shock, which then gradually improves over time (Ward and Kennedy, 1996). Other researchers proposed models that include the phase of repatriation to one's own country (seven-step Oberg's model, 1960 or W-curve full cycle of Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963) and explain the dilemma of reverse cultural shock one is faced with when returning to home country.

The issue in acculturation is linked to the fact how much of own values and cultural identity people actually want to maintain and to what extent they are willing to engage in contact with the ones outside their group. Based on an analysis of four thousand expatriate youth from thirteen countries and thirty ethnic groups, different acculturation strategies have been found (Berry, 2005). First strategy called assimilation occurs when people do not want

to maintain their own identity and look for close contact with host country national. Separation is used by people who place a high value on their original culture and avoid interactions with new society. Integration strategy is undertaken by individuals that have interest in maintaining their culture, but have daily encounters with host country and therefore they are acculturated to some degree. Lastly, marginalisation represents lack of interest in the host culture and maintenance of little interest in relations with new environment.

The type of acculturation strategy person chooses has an impact on how well one adapts. The most common finding is that integration strategy is the most adaptive and associated with better psychological and socio-cultural adaptation (Sam and Berry, 2006) marginalization has been found to be the least adaptive (Simpson, 2014). Therefore, hypothesis 5 states:

Hypothesis 5: Degree of acculturation will have an impact on adjustment. Preference for home country will be negatively related to adjustment, and preference for host country will have a positive impact on adjustment.

1.7. Motives to expatriate

In order to fully understand the effectiveness of one undergoing an assignment abroad or choosing to expatriate on his own, it is very important to understand motives to pursue individual and assignment goals (Chen, Kirkman, Kim and Farh, 2010). Success of international assignments depends on multiple factors and motivation is surely one of them. The integrative model that explains motivators to expatriate is formed by push and pull factors, career anchors and protean and boundaryless career attitude (Cerdin, 2013). The concept of push of pull factors states that individuals are pushed to make decisions by their internal forces and pulled by external forces. Push factors are mainly intrinsic motivators of a person such as financial benefits, career factors, while pull factors are the ones emerging from the attractiveness of a destination and dissatisfaction with current life and economical situation (Cerdin, 2013). Research regarding expatriation motives varies in the findings. Some studies which looked at push and pull factors of both SIEs and AEs concluded that pull factors are more common for SIEs than AEs (Cerdin, 2013, Doherty et al, 2013) and getting to know new cultures as well as having opportunities to travel were dominant motivational factors for SIEs (Thorn, 2009). While AEs mostly accept the offers due to push factors related to financial benefits and development in their career, SIEs are mostly motivated by pull factors, such as exploring particular culture and country (Inkson et al., 1997) Therefore, SIEs

believe they are more in control of their decision to go abroad while AEs are more likely to perceive it as obligation, that they do not have much control over (Mo and Yong, 2015). In contrary, another study of SIEs motivation, found push factors to be the dominant ones. Especially internationalism and poor home country conditions were found to be the strongest (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). Both push and pull factors motivated expatriate academics to work in Korea (Froese, 2012). Pull factors such as international experience and job conditions were dominant but push factors (family, labour market situation in their country)also relevant. Pull factors of individual desires to travel are important motivators for expatriates (Inkson et al., 1997), however family is usually the main influence of decision (Richardson and Mallone, 2005).

Hypothesis 6a: Self-initiated expatriates will be more likely to be motivated by pull factors, while assigned expatriates will be motivated by push factors.

Career anchor is a concept which an individual will not abandon, no matter how difficult the choices are (Schein, 1990, cited in Cerdin, 2013). For SIEs the decision to expatriate can be hard and, depending on what anchor they chose, this is how their career will move forward. The career anchors have been found identical for SIEs and AEs (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009), and are: lifestyle, pure challenge and internationalism, however with a pure challenge being less significant for AEs. This has been explained by the fact that AEs get more support from organisation they work for, while SIEs have to deal with occurring problems themselves. Also, managerial competence has been found to be more common for AEs than SIEs (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010) due to the fact that AEs complete organisational goals, which in most expatriate cases fit in with individual goals of developing managerial skills and aid promotion. As SIEs primary motivation was found to be concerned with exploring new countries and cultures rather than career development (Doherty et al, 2013), it has been speculated that this motivation may positively influence interaction adjustment (Peltokorpi and Freose, 2011).

Hypothesis 6b: Expatriates whose motives are connected to travel and exploring cultures will experience higher degree of social adjustment.

Boundaryless career attitude makes individual believe that careers are not constrained by organisational or occupational frames (DeFillipi and Arthur, 1994) and are not

geographically bound (Tung, 1998). This attitude lets people move freely between countries and companies, relying on their own transferable competencies. People with this mindset are proactive and tend to look for opportunities themselves and take charge of their own careers (Andresen et al. 2015). As SIEs motivation comes from an individual often motivated by desire to travel and adventure (Inkson et al, 1997) boundaryless mindset dimension is said to be higher for SIEs than AEs (Ceredin and Le Pargneux, 2010). However, recent comparative study (Andresen et al. 2015) found that the difference between SIE and AE in boundaryless attitude was not significant. Protean career is individual's values-driven attitude consisting of adaptability and self- direction in personal career management, where skills and abilities are being transformed by individuals to fit changing work environment (Hall, 1987). People with this mindset value freedom, are flexible, constantly learning and looking for more qualifications. Protean concept is said to be more influential for SIEs than for AEs (Ceredin and Le Pargneux, 2010) however it has only been partially supported as no significant differences have been found.

To sum up, personal motivators are very important to SIEs and tend to be dominant over career factors, in contrary to AEs who tend to attribute higher importance to career and development. Expatriates who are motivated by travel and desire to explore foreign culture will adjust better to interaction with host country nationals as oppose to ones motivated by work and career factors.

1.8. Networking in host communities

Network is 'a pattern of ties linking a defined set of persons or social actors' (Seibert, Kraimer and Liden, 2001). Networks have been found to predict career success, both subjective (career satisfaction) and objective (salary and promotion). This is because they serve as emotional support, task assistance and sources of career information (Seibert et al. 2001), supplying individuals with upward mobility and job opportunities. In the context of expatriation, new social networks are built to aid in everyday life situation and teach certain behaviours that are appropriate in the host country (van Erp, Giebels, van der Zee and van Duijn, 2011). Social support networks facilitate expatriate adjustment by providing information and reducing uncertainty (Shaffer and Harrison, 1999) as well as relieve stress and anxiety (Johnson, Kristof-Brown, Van Vianen, De Pater and Klein, 2003).

Social ties are linkages and/or relations between people that help coping with changes, characterised by size, diversity, closeness and frequency of interaction (Johnson et al. 2003). A five stage model of expatriate tie formation allows understanding building the continuous, long-term emotional and informational support (Farh et al., 2010). Firstly, the expatriate is motivated to seek support from people in a host country and this motivation is deepened by high degree of uncertainty. The second and third steps are contact and selection. They involve both parts – expatriate perceived competent candidate and actor's willingness and expertise. Fourth step is the ability that expatriate has to use the knowledge and support received. The whole process of forming ties is completed when expatriate adjustment is enhanced and as a result one decides to add that individual to personal network that would be willing to contact in the future. Host country nationals (HCN) play an important role in building social ties for expatriates. Studies find that increased interaction with HCNs reduces role uncertainty, increases performance and minimises intentions to terminate assignment prematurely (Caligiuri, 2000). HCNs, because of their knowledge about customs and social norms, as well as longer experience living in the country, are able to guide expatriates, and, by sharing their expertise, aid in adjustment process. HCNs may help in getting to know the country, its institutions and documents needed to stay and work there. This form of support in everyday life may create the whole experience of expatriation a very pleasant one, which can be compared to holiday (Simpson, 2014). According to Kim (2001) expatriate, in order to adapt, has to have direct, regular and functional relationship with host country nationals. Poor relationships with HCNs have been found to have negative effect on adjustment and work commitment (Florkowski and Fogel, 1999) and on expatriate wellbeing (Johnson et al., 2003). The group value model (Lind and Tyler, 1988, cited in Van Erp et al. 2011) suggests that people value memberships in social groups because they are source of social validation and provide members with important resources such as emotional support that are needed to view themselves positively (Tyker, 1989, cited in Van Erp et al. 2011). Justice is an important factor in groups, fair decision making provides information on how individual is appreciated, therefore by being group member one has the notion of being stronger and benefit greater overtime (Van Erp et al. 2011). On the other hand, empirical study of non-profit organisations conducted in Israeli-Palestinian context that included interviews with thirty employees of various organisations, from fourteen nationalities, found out that cross-cultural adjustment can succeed with minimum or non-existent host society communication and interaction (Siljanen and Lamsa, 2009).

Expatriates are situated in new, often socially uncomfortable environment, therefore developing and maintaining sources of social support can be very beneficial to their adjustment (Liu and Schaffer, 2005). Especially managers and co-workers who interact with expatriates on a daily basis, at work and outside work, are sources of valuable information. The information that they may provide have positive impact on aspects of socialization, not only in terms of work environment but also connected to living in the new country (Morrison, 1993, cited in Liu and Schaffer, 2005). Co-workers support has been found positively related to expatriate adjustment in all three dimensions: work, general and interaction (Takeuchi, 2010).

Hypothesis 7a: Social support will be an important factor for adjustment of self-initiated and assigned expatriates.

According to social exchange theory (Homans, 1958) two parties enter in relationship, where one party sees the other as possessing something of a value. Over time, as the relationship improves and is mutually satisfying, each party is prepared to invest more and there is greater exchange of resources built on mutual trust. This reciprocal form of relationship is more likely to provide greater support in work and non work problems. A challenge is the potential problem of convincing host country nationals to support expatriates in work setting. As noted by Liu and Schaffer (2005) many are not willing to share their knowledge in apprehension of expatriate taking over their work position or may intentionally withhold some information to jeopardize the abilities of expatriate (Florkowski and Fogel, 1999). Therefore, from HRM perspectives it is suggested that some other means of support have to be provided, such as counselling or mentoring (Siljanen and Lamsa, 2009), which can benefit expatriate as well as a host country national.

Other research in the field of networking looks at the process of informational and emotional ties that expatriates built in a new environment (Farh et al., 2010) highlighting the importance of variety stakeholders that should be taken into account when measuring expatriate adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010). Therefore it is necessary to examine not only how host country nationals contribute to adjustment of expatriates, but also peer expatriates, who may be of different nationalities, family, as well as on-line networking sources (Piekut, 2013). As language barrier may be an obstacle in forming ties with HCNs, expatriates often feel more comfortable asking other expatriates how things work in the host country (Johnson et

al., 2003). The wider range of people expatriate has in his circle, the better it is to gather more information, which has a positive impact on general adjustment. However, numerous relationships were not found to have an impact on work and interaction adjustment (Wang and Kaungo, 2004, cited and Farh et al, 2010), where quality and depth of relationship has been found much more important (Liu and Schaffer, 2005). Out of people who give social support in the host country: Polish nationals, expatriate co-workers and other expatriates, comparison will be made what is contributing the most in which social group out of: time spent, real talk, virtual talk and visiting homes. As exchange of information requires a lot of talk and personal contact, it is suggested that real talk with HCNs as well as expatriates will be the most important for expatriates.

Hypothesis 7b: Quality and quantity of social interactions will contribute to higher degree of expatriate adjustment.

Cultural distance can have an impact on build social ties. Americans, European and New Zealander academics working in South Korea admitted that it was hard to build social networks with host country nationals due to 'unfamiliar social behaviours' and that they rather socialised and networked with other expatriates. Only the ones that were married to Korean spouse reported to be satisfied with social interaction as they admitted their partner opened up social networks for them (Froese, 2012). Similarly, in the study of expatriates living in Warsaw, social activities that were performed outside work were mostly connected with activities performed by spouses or partners of expatriates (Piekut, 2009). In the study of Western expatriates adjustment in Saudi Arabia, Jackson and Manderscheid (2015) found out that the biggest obstacle to building ties was due to living in compounds. Expatriates did not interact with local people as everything they needed was built for them on the Western style compounds. Rules, dress code, food, traffic laws were adjusted to US conditions, which did not give much chance for expatriates to blend in local culture. Due to this factor, expatriates did not have much contact with local population, however, once they befriended Saudi person they realized that they share many common goals. The participants of the study admitted that if they had lived outside of compounds they would have adjusted better and faster (Jackson and Mandescheid, 2014).

Comparing networking in host communities, taking into account the nature of expatriation, studies found that self-initiated expatriates rely much more on networking

thantheir assigned counterparts (Vance, 2005, Peltorkopi and Froese, 2009). While AEs rely on intra-organisational networks, SIEs networks are mostly extra-organisational (Shen and Kram, 2011). SIEs usually work locally finding internships or teaching jobs and they network actively in order to find more stable jobs (Vance, 2005). For SIEs, interacting with a wide range of people from diverse cultural, social and professional backgrounds is expected to provide informative and emotional support, and may be useful for future career plans. Networks has been described as a personal tool and career path strategy to find employment (Vance, 2014) which help in broadening SIEs career horizon and acquire more career insights and opportunities that can benefit their career satisfaction (Cao, Hirschi and Deller, 2012). Because SIEs are less dependent on the organisational support, especially in terms of their career, it is crucial for them to develop networks in the host community. In the study that measured networking with host country nationals, it was found that SIEs rely on the networking as they believe social ties are useful in the event of changing jobs and that networking with local people can provide greater socio-emotional support (Seibert et al, 2001). Similarly, Vance (2005) stated that a key to success for SIEs is networking with host communities to find or change employment. Another argument states that SIEs tend to get involved into relationships with local people more often than AEs, who tend to expatriate with their family and at older age (Brewster et al. 2000). SIEs have closer, long-term relationships with host country nationals (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009) and tend to stay longer or settle down in the host country (Suutari, 2003). In a series of interviews with Finnish expatriate managers, AEs relationships were found to be much shorter and superficial because expatriates knew that they were on a specific, time bound assignment and that they would leave. In cases of SIEs these relations are highly important. The benefits for both SIEs and AEs however were possibilities of building international social network (Suutari, 2003).

Thanks to constantly developing technology, the flow of information and networking possibilities is growing. Social networking applications and websites make it possible to contact host nationals before entering the destination country therefore making collection of information very fast and easy. On the other hand, modern communication technologies such as internet radio, phone and television globalize communication by allowing expatriates around the world to easily connect with their home country and culture instantaneously. This has the effect of reducing the separation anxiety associated with the expatriation process (Simpson, 2014). Formal and informal networking aids expatriates in exchanging strategic information, getting advice or even emotional support (Simpson, 2014).

1.9.Evaluating social threats and security risks

Many threats that target expatriate safety, security and health are connected with expatriation. Although similar risks could exist in home country, in case of expatriation they may be much more severe as conditions in the host country differ. One of the greatest risk is associated with accidents, especially road traffic accidents, to a large extent in countries where road systems are not well developed (Jones, 2000). Climate factors posses risk as too hot or too cold weather may cause health problems; similarly water and air quality, as well as food hygiene may be an issue in some countries and can cause illnesses and gastronomic diseases. Another risk is connected to mental health which is compounded by problems with adjustment and in extreme cases may lead to substance abuse such as alcohol and drug usage, especially in those cases where expatriate is away from the family and children (Jones, 2000) as well as sleep disturbances, apathy and depression. Occupational health is also an issue as some countries have different work systems and schedules. In Macau, expatriates working in gaming industry complained about six day working schedule and more workload hence less time with family (Lei et al., 2011).Furthermore, various diseases not existent in home country, epidemics or sudden outbreaks of diseases can create problems and stress. As expatriate often takes family abroad with him there are some additional issues for specific group of people that are travelling with an expatriate. These can include spouse pregnancy as they may be a different care system or language barrier, children whose immune system is less developed than adults can suffer from illnesses and psychological problems of adapting to new school, friends and life. Disabled also require special attention and some countries may be less prepared in terms of infrastructure and care for people with disabilities. Chronic illnesses such as diabetes or asthma may become more troublesome and difficult to treat in different conditions.

Except these threats, that could be researched and in most cases dealt with before departure by vaccinating, prevented by learning basic of local language, there are some cases that cannot be predicted. Political risks, kidnapping, murders and terrorist attacks are among threats that one cannot get prepared to and which more and more are directed towards soft targets such as tourists and businesses. Stress connected to these factors increases dissatisfaction with host country and has a negative impact on performance (Bader and Berg, 2014). Because of terrorist attacks and conflicts across the world, there is an increasing interest in finding out motives to relocate to the countries that pose security risks. Because

terrorist attacks are quite unpredictable as we all witnessed – WTC 2001, bombing in Madrid 2004 or recent attacks in France and Belgium in 2015 and 2016, there is a chance that expatriates may be among the victims. Financial benefits encourage willingness to relocate to unattractive places as it is usually assumed by the organisations (Konopaske and Werner, 2005, cited in Wagner and Westaby, 2009). People highly value safety and security as it is one of basic human need according to Maslow (1968). Therefore, some people are not willing to relocate to a higher risk country, especially if they have families. Organisations usually provide incentives to people that are willing to relocate to less desirable locations. Many US companies follow guidelines provided by US State Department on offering these so called danger benefits (Wagner and Westaby, 2009). Individuals are more likely to take risks if they are offered higher rewards according to equity theory (Mowday, 1973) in weighting ratio of inputs to outputs. Studies found that expats whose family or/and kids are with them do not perform better when in terrorism – endangered situations. Instead families that are together in those kinds of places suffer greater tension and are likely to argue more (Bader, Berg and Holtbrugge, 2015). Surprisingly, according to previous studies, security and stability anchor has been found more significant for SIEs and not for AEs (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010). This however, may be caused by the fact that AEs get attractive packages for relocating to these destinations while SIEs choose themselves where they want to go so they are not so risky in choosing their destination. The most important tool in crisis management Perceived organisational support has been found the most important tool in crisis management and terrorism induced stress lowers expatriate attitude to work increasing disaffection with host country national and in turns negatively influences performance (Bader and Berg, 2014).

1.10. Analysis of the Polish society and social networks

Expansion of companies into foreign markets is usually dictated by various motives, although its ultimate goal, mainly sought by shareholders, is to maximize profits and increase the value of the company (Simpson, 2014). Due to this reason, companies decide to move current activities or take upon new ones in places where they have guaranteed access to cheaper tangible and intangible resources. The most significant here are human resources, as their cost play an important role in making decision in engaging in activities in other parts of the world. Technology and know-how transfers are usually accompanied by transfers of workforce, who at the initial stage of the project perform key functions in the organisations (Gebal, 2013).

Flow of employees worldwide has opened the world to deal with changes and become multicultural. For the inhabitants of Western Europe working and living next to people from different cultures and languages becomes natural. European workplaces, educational systems, frequently take into account the changing reality, introducing programs of intercultural education, which are aimed at building open, full of respect and tolerance attitudes towards diversity of the world (Gebal, 2013). However there are countries that may find welcoming foreign workforce difficult. One of these countries is Poland. For the average Pole, living in a multilingual and multicultural society is a big challenge. Poland as a country fairly uniform in terms of culture, ethnicity (96.9% of Polish nationals; CIA World Factbook, 2015) language (96.2% of Polish speakers; CIA, 2015), religion (86.9% declares membership to Roman Catholic Church; CIA, 2015) is basically an exception in Europe. Practically in all countries of European Union there are greater numbers of expatriates, minorities and representatives of other cultures (Piekut, 2013). This situation causes that Poles find it often quite difficult to imagine their life next to 'others' who are about to become their new colleagues, co-workers or even friends and new family members (Gebal, 2013). For many years, Poland had been functioning as a mono-ethnic and mono-cultural country, starting to receive immigrants only in the 90s. In 1989, with communism falling, Poland had been undergoing political, economical and societal transformation. The country was lacking specialists and people with appropriate skills encouraging expatriates to flow to Poland and causing 40% increase in immigrants' arrival than in the previous year (Piekut, 2013). From 2004, when Poland entered European Union, number of expatriates started to increase, making Poland an attractive hub of expatriation. In the past 20 years of political and economical transformation, Poland has become one of the most appealing countries in Central and Eastern Europe in terms of location attracting foreign investments (Przytula, 2012). For neighbouring countries, especially from West Europe, but also for Americans and Asians, Poland, is a developing, economically immature country which is still not highly developed in terms of managerial knowledge and technological advancements. This is the reason why most branches of foreign corporations in Poland top management positions are occupied by expatriates (Przytula, 2013).

Obtaining accurate figures on number of expatriates in Poland is difficult or even impossible due to lack of work permits since 2007 (Piekut, 2013).However, it can be seen that the total number of working foreigners has almost doubled between 2008 and 2010 (refer to Figure 1).
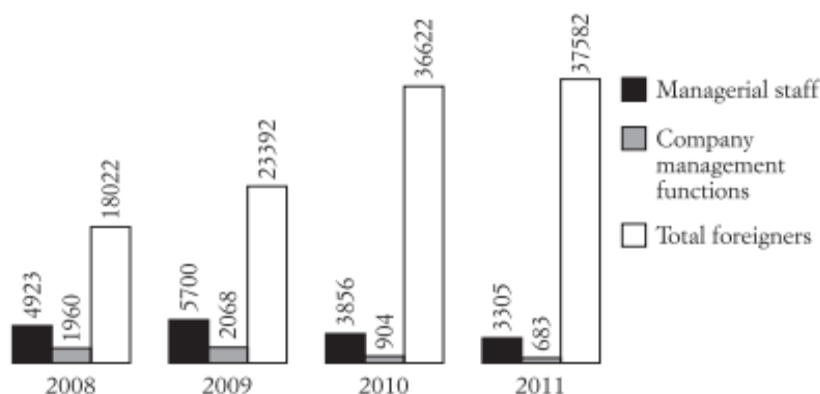
Figure I. Estimated number of foreigners working in Poland (Przytula, 2012).

Since 2009 fairly easy procedure to get work permission in Poland has been applied, it is enough if the employer declares willingness to employ foreign national. Between 2007 and 2011 approximately 7000 EU citizens registered a temporary stay in Poland annually, and approximately 1000 registered an over five-year stay. The most frequent groups came from Germany, France, the United Kingdom, Italy and Spain, and 89% of all EU citizens applied for a temporary stay. Intra-EU migration to Poland is dominated by males, and the percentage of women varies from 15-20% (Italians, Greeks and Germans) to approximately 40-45% (Slovenians, Slovakians, Swedish and Czech). Latvia is the only country where women predominate among migrants (almost 60% of applications). Most of expatriates in Poland are located in big cities such as Warsaw, Lodz, Cracow, Poznan, Gdansk, Wroclaw and Szczecin (Piekut, 2013). In 2010 the major sectors of employment of foreigners were: trade, production, science and engineering. Two major groups of expatriates that work in Poland are: expatriates from West – usually highly qualified staff and management who are being sent by their parent companies that established new offices in Poland. They come to fulfil the strategies of their organisations, train local staff and managers and transfer knowledge from head office to subsidiary and expatriates from former Eastern bloc who come to Poland to seek better life conditions working mostly in construction and agriculture.

Very few studies focusing on expatriation in Poland have been done to date and none of the existing ones measures adjustments of expatriates to any of the work and non-work factors. The studies rather look at tolerance and perceptions of Polish people on foreigners vice versa. Regarding general characteristics of expatriate in Poland in the study of AEs (Przytula, 2012) 84% expatriates were male. The most common age group was 30-49 years old (47% of respondents). The most of expatriates came from Western Europe (79%) with the

dominant countries being the UK, Germany, Italy, France, Sweden and Finland. 11% of expatriates come from Central-Eastern Europe, 12% from Asian countries and 9% from North America. 60% of expatriates had up to 5 years of work experience, 21% from 5 up to 10 years and 19% more than 10 years. The predicted length of stay was rather short, temporary stay. Up to 1 year of intention to work in Poland declared 38% of respondents and 34% stated they predict to stay from 1 year up to 3 years. The main motive of coming to Poland was transfer of know-how (60%), followed by management of operations in subsidiaries of the mother companies (44%). Development of local workforce (35%), transfer of corporate culture (33%) and improvement of communication process between head office and subsidiary (31%) were also found important motives of expatriation. The biggest challenges that expatriate faced when living and working in Poland were: language problems (60%), bureaucracy (52%), family issues (33%) and differences in quality of life (30%). Minor problems recognised in connection to work environment were: working hours (8%), cultural adaptation (13%), different business practices (13%) and weak relationships with head office (17%).In another study, which considered cross-cultural interactions between expatriate and local managers in Poland 86% of Polish managers interviewed admitted that expatriates were necessary in subsidiaries in Poland (Przytula, Rozkwitalska, Chmielecki, Sulkowski and Basinska, 2014). They were being valued for their openness to challenges, skills, innovation, sociability and willingness to share knowledge. Staff working with expatriates highlighted the importance of foreign colleagues as being a link between headquarter and subsidiary. Polish managers and workers appreciated the cultural diversity in their companies and took presence of expatriates as a learning experience that helped them in gaining more self-confidence when dealing with foreigners. Knowledge of Polish language had been found to positively influence perception of expatriates. Even if foreigners could not fluently communicate in local language but made effort to learn basic greetings, they were likely to receive higher approval in Polish society. On the other hand, expatriates when talking about Polish managers noted that they often lacked professional experience, however they were able to compensate for it by their hard work and dedication. Polish managers and employees had been described by expatriates as friendly but too emotional, taking business and feedback personally at times (Przytula et al., 2014).Another study, performed by Polish Measurement of Attitudes and Values (PPPiW, 2010) focused on Polish nationals' perceptions on expatriates and found that in Polish people's minds foreigners make Poland more open to other cultures (74,2% responded absolutely yes or rather yes), however respondents said that growth in number of foreigners causes increase in crime in their perceptions. Most of working groups (in exception of farmers

and construction workers) did not tend to see foreigners as competition in jobs and were willing to accept expatriate as their neighbour or, in smaller percentage, a friend. Only older generation (65 years old and above) and ones declaring their deep religious membership were against foreign nationals. The most open to foreigners were habitants of big cities and ones with higher levels of education. In relation to ethnic groups of direct neighbours of Poland the most sympathy was attributed to Slovakians, Czech, Lithuanians and Germans respectively and the least to Russians and Bulgarians, with Ukrainians being the most neutral group. In relation to other nations, Americans were found as the nation towards which Poles had the most positive attitudes, while Romas and Arabs had been classified as the least favourite groups.

2. Methodology

The chapter of methodology is connected to explanation of the study and instruments that were used to collect data. General characteristics of the sample, as well as differentiation between assigned and self-initiated expatriates are presented.

2.1. Data collection

Empirical data has been collected from expatriates using online survey, powered by surveymonkey.com, using various channels of distribution. The link to an online questionnaire was posted in various facebook groups that gather expatriates in Poland; starting from the general ones such as 'Expats in Poland', through more specific like 'Asians in Poland' to very specific ones such as 'Portugueses na Polonia'. Second channel of data collection was an expatriation forum called Inter Nations (www.internations.org), where around 200 personalised messages had been sent to expatriates currently living in Poland. Last channel through which data has been collected was LinkedIn, where total of 40 e-mails were sent to workers and HR departments of companies recruiting expatriates. Because of use of facebook groups where anyone could answer the questionnaire, invitations to HR departments via LinkedIn to send the survey to their employees, as well as posting the link in forum poll, it is not possible to measure response rate from each channel. The participants of the survey were only people who currently are either on a job assignment (AE) or have found a job at their own initiative (SIE) in Poland. The questionnaire, available in English language had been built by multiple instruments:

<u>Type of expatriation</u>

Firstly, the respondents were asked to assess the circumstances under which they came to Poland and indicate whether they were sent by their company (AE) or decided to look for employment themselves (SIE). This question helped eliminating students and unemployed foreigners who were not relevant to this study.

<u>Adjustment</u>

The main purpose of this study is to compare adjustment between self-initiated and assigned expatriate groups. In order to measure all aspects of the expatriate adjustment, which had been defined as a psychological comfort in new situation (Blackand Stephens, 1989) and degree of fit between individual and various non-work and work factors (Aycan, 1997), self-evaluative scales of adjustment were used. Respondents, by rating their own degree of adjustment to various psychological, work, general and social items, presented their own view at how well they feel and function in everyday life in Poland.

Psychological adjustment

The Brief Psychological Adaptation Scale (BPAS) designed by Demes and Geeraert (2013) had been used to measure expatriates' psychological adjustment, which is well-being and psychological condition of a person in new environment (Caligiuri, 2000). The survey asked questions that determined expatriate psychological state of being in Poland and the degree to which expatriate is missing his/her home country or is satisfied with current life. Sample item from the total of 8 item scale included: 'In the last two weeks, how often have you felt sad to be away from your home country' and responses were recorded on a 7-point Likert type scale from (1) 'never' to (7) 'always'. The scale of *psychological adjustment* showed excellent reliability (Cronbach α=.869) and homogeneity (KMO=.825).

Work adjustment

In order to measure expatriates' perceived degree of fit to aspects connected to work, the scale developed by Hippler, Caligiuri, Johnson and Baytalskaya (2014) had been used. Respondents

indicated the degree of significance regarding change when comparing their previous to current living and working environment on a scale of 1–4, where (1) 'insignificant in my life', (4) 'very significant in my life' and whether the change was perceived as (+1) 'positive', (0) 'neutral' or (-1) 'negative'. By combining responses to both items, scale varying from -4 to +4 has been created. Of the original scale, 4 items: ability to play sports, practice hobbies, way of spending leisure time and opportunities for leisure, were excluded. After factor analysis two scales were extracted – *work environment adjustment* (7 items) and *work-life balance* (2items), which both presented excellent reliability (Cronbach $\alpha_{workadj}$=.841, Cronbach $\alpha_{balance}$=.869) and good homogeneity (KMO=.766).

General living and social adjustment

The Brief Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale (BSAS) designed by Demes and Geeraert (2013) had been used to measure socio-cultural adjustment, which describes degree of fit and ability to interact with host country nationals on an everyday basis (Ward and Kennedy, 1996). It asked questions to determine how well expatriates deal with every day functioning in the host country. The scale started with the statement: 'Think about living in Poland. How easy or difficult is it for you to adapt to…' and then asked to rate 12 items such as living, food and eating, values and beliefs on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) 'very difficult' to (7) 'very easy'. After excluding 'social environment' from the original scale, the measure was distributed by *social adjustment* (6 items) and *general living adjustment* (5 items) and showed excellent and good reliability (Cronbach $\alpha_{social\ adj}$ =.829, Cronbach $\alpha_{general\ adj}$=.717) as well as good homogeneity (KMO=.834).

Cultural distance

To be able to measure the degree of distance between expatriate own and host country culture and its effect on adjustment, the Brief Perceived Cultural Distance Scale (BPCDS) designed by Demes and Geeraert (2013) was used. It asked questions to determine the similarity of norms, practices and culture between home and host country. The scale started with the statement: 'Think about your home country and Poland. In your opinion, how different or similar are these two countries in terms of…' asking to rate exactly the same items as in Brief Socio-cultural Adaptation Scale on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) 'very similar' to (7) 'very different'. The measure was a 12 inter*cultural distance* scale,

which showed excellent reliability (Cronbach α=.924) and excellent homogeneity (KMO= .918).

Cultural intelligence

Cultural intelligence is term defined as capability of an individual to effectively function in different cultural setting. Motivational cultural intelligence refers to a drive that triggers individuals' effort to functioning in new cultural setting (Ang and Van Dyne, 2008). Motivational questions from Cultural Intelligence Questionnaire by Ang, Dyne, Koh, Ng, Klaus, Tay and Chandrasekar (2003) with total of 5 items, were used to measure cultural intelligence. The scale was composed of 2 intrinsic motivation ("I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures", "I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me") and 3 self-efficacy statements ("I am confident that I can socialise with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me", "I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me", "I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture"). Respondents' answers have been recorded on a 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree' to (7) 'strongly agree'. The scale of *cultural intelligence* showed excellent reliability (Cronbach α=.858) and excellent homogeneity (KMO=.811).

Language proficiency

Language proficiency had been measured using self- rating scale proposed by Haslberger (2005). It asked questions regarding knowledge of Polish language: reading, speaking, writing and understanding; recording responses on a 7-point Likert type scale, ranging from (1) 'not at all' to (7) 'like a native speaker'. The *language proficiency* scale showed excellent reliability (Cronbach α=.962) and excellent homogeneity (KMO=.843). In addition, direct question of the mother tongue was asked to enable to measure similarities between language families.

Cross-cultural training

To measure cross-cultural training participation, firstly a direct question about pre-departure and post–arrival training availability was asked with distinction whether the training was formal and provided by an external trainer or informal, provided by a colleague.

Secondly, if the participant indicated taking part in training, additional questions were asked. Relevance and adequacy of the training was assessed using shortened version of cross-cultural training scale designed by Wang and Tran (2012) consisting of 2 pre-departure items and 3 post-arrival item. Sample item included: 'The training I have gotten from my organisation strives to expand my capacities to enhance my awareness of Polish culture'. Answers were recorded using 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree' to (7) 'strongly agree'. Additionally, a question about availability of mentor was asked in relation to post-arrival training. This could be chosen independently of training. For example an expatriate could answer that he has had formal post-arrival training and used help of a mentor.

Acculturation

Acculturation, which is the process of cultural and psychological change encountered as a result of contact of different cultures and used as a mean of minimising one's cultural shock (Sam and Berry, 2010) was measured using the Brief Acculturation Orientation Scale (BAOS) designed by Demes and Geeraert (2013). The bi-dimensional scale with statements measuring the value of cultural friendships, traditions, characteristics and actions asked to rate 8 statements that determined preference for home or host culture. Sample statement include: 'Is it important for me to: have Polish friends/ have my home country friends and answers were recorded on a 7-point Likert type scale, from (1) 'strongly disagree' to (7) 'strongly agree'. The two dimensions of acculturation –*home country preference* and *host country preference* presented excellent reliability (Cronbach α_{home}=.818; Cronbach α_{host}=.797) and good homogeneity (KMO=.690).

Motives to expatriate

Two scales were being combined for the purpose of measuring motives to expatriate. First scale, presented by Lauring, Selmer and Jacobsen (2014), divided motives into two main categories – tourism and work, which were further split to sub-groups. Second scale was a 28-item scale of Doherty, Dickmann and Mills (2011) and asked question 'How much influence do the following factors have on your decision to accept an international assignment? For the purpose of this study both scales were compared and total of 18 items consisting of both pull and push factors were chosen. The question asked: 'To what extent the following statements express your motives to come and work in Poland', items being the ones previously used in

studies such as: 'I desired an adventure' or 'It would allow to develop relevant job-related skills' and answers were recorded in 7-point Likert type scale ranging from (1) 'strongly disagree' to (7) 'strongly agree'. After factor analysis three main motive categories have been extracted, where two presented excellent reliability: *work motives* (Cronbach α=.876) and *leisure motives* (Cronbach α=.848) and last one, *financial motives*, satisfactory reliability (Cronbach α=.682) and excellent homogeneity (KMO=.819).

Social Support

Relations between people, known as social ties, help to cope with changes (Johnson et al, 2003), provide emotional support and predict career satisfaction (Seibert et al, 2001). In order to measure the support received from various social network groups, social support scale by Sarason, I.G., Levine, H.M., Basham, R.B. and Sarason, B.R. (1983) consisting of 27 items that measured perceptions of social support and satisfaction with that social support was used as a base for creating scale that is more relevant to this study. In the original scale each item was composed by a question built of two parts. First, asked participants to list people that fit the description of the question and second to indicate how satisfied or dissatisfied they are with the chosen people. The answers were recorded on a 6-point Likert type scale from (1) 'very dissatisfied' to (6) 'very satisfied'. The scale had been modified to fit the purpose of this study by already suggesting people whose support was measured: family, own country friends, expatriate co-workers, other expatriates and Polish nationals. The *social support* scale was similarly measuring degree of satisfaction from (1) 'very dissatisfied' to (6) 'very satisfied' and presented good reliability (Cronbach α=.768). and homogeneity (KMO=.736).

In addition, questions about the quantity of time spent, real and virtual talk and visiting expatriate co-workers , other expatriates and Polish nationals were asked recording responses on a 5-point Likert type scale where (1) 'never' and (5) 'most of the time'.

Control variables

In addition to the scales that helped collect the data, demographic questions were asked to collect information about the sample. These general questions helped to classify and distinguish different groups of expatriates as well as measure the differences in terms of age, marital status, and previous experience. Following the previous researcher (Hechanova et al. 2003, Froese and Peltorkopi, 2013) basic factors were analyzed. *Age* was measured by stating

year of birth and then coded to age ranges (1=below 30 years old, 2=between 30-40 years old, 3=more than 40 years old). *Gender* was coded as 1=female, 2=male. *Education* was ranked, from the lowest level 1=no schooling completed to the highest 9= doctorate degree, and then further recoded for analysis to 1=secondary education, 2=bachelor degree, 3=master degree and above. M*arital status* answers were coded to 1=single and 2=in a relationship/married. *Number of children* had been split into 2 categories 1= under 12 years old, and 2= more than 12 and less than 18 years old. *Time of finding a job* was categorised to before departure (=1) or after arrival (=2) to Poland.

Previous experience abroad was measured in number of months working abroad and recoded to the same scale which measured *time already spent in Poland*, *predicted time of stay in Poland* and *time spent in current employment* (1=less than 6 months, 2=6 months to 1 year, 3= 1 year to 3 years, 4=3 years to 6 years, 5=more than 6 years) *nationality* and *native language* asked direct questions of the country of origin and native language respectively. For the purpose of analyses nationality was coded to 1=UK, 2=Central/Eastern Europe, 3=Western Europe, 4=North America, 5=South America, 6=Asia and 7=Other. In terms of language, coding accordingly to relevant language families was performed: 1=Slavic, 2=Germanic, 3=Latin, 4=other. *Organisational nationality* was coded to 1=Polish, 2=English, 3=Central European, 4=American and 5=other. *Business language* has been distinguished to 1=Polish, 2=English and 3=other. *Current position* in the company has also been coded to 1=senior/manager and 2=junior position.

2.2. Sample characteristics

2.2.1. General characteristics of the sample

The total number of 191 responses have been recorded, however 26 (14%) were regarded invalid due to missing data or failure to complete the questionnaire until the end. From 165 valid responses 61 (38%) were assigned and 98 (62%) self-initiated expatriates.

In relation to gender 70% of all respondents were male and 30% female. Average age of the sample was 35 years old with 21 years old being a minimum and 70 years old maximum age. Most of expatriates (39%) belong to the group between 30 and 40 years old. The dominating education level was higher education (89%) with 37% of respondents having bachelor degree and 52% master or above. Only 1% did not complete any schooling. Being in relationship was declared by 50% of expatriates (33% married and 17% couple) and 43% claimed to be single.

Previous work abroad was performed by less than half of expatriates (44%). From all respondents that had declared to have previous experience abroad the most of expatriates have been previously abroad for less than 6 moths (26%), between 6 months and a year (22%) and more than 6 years (20%). 74% of all respondents found job before arriving to Poland and most of expatriates have already been staying in the country between 1 and 3 years (35% of all expatriates). In terms of intention to stay in Poland (not taking into consideration the time they have already been there) 36% aimed at staying between 1-3 years but high percentage (30%) were planning to stay 6 years or longer. Western Europe (countries such as Germany, Spain, France) were the most popular sources of expatriation to Poland (35%), followed by Eastern Europe (Ukraine, Hungary, Belarus) – 24%, 14% of expatriates come from Asian countries and 9% from UK (including Scotland and Ireland).

2.2.2. Assigned and self-initiated expatriates' comparison of characteristics

As AEs and SIEs differ in regards to demographics (Whitman and Isakovic, 2012) it is important to analyze our sample comparing these two categories. In the sample 24% of AEs and 31% of SIEs were female, being in line with previous studies that traditional expatriate assignments are male dominated while self-initiated tend to be less gendered (Suutari and Brewster, 2000, Andresen et al. 2015). However, in general it can be noted that expatriation is still largely male dominated regardless the expatriation type. In relation to age, when comparing groups, the youngest SIE was 21 years old, being also the youngest expatriate in the sample, while the youngest AE was 24 years old. The oldest SIE is 52 years old (mean age= 34) and AE 70 years old (mean age 38). As in previous studies confirmation if found that SIEs tend to be generally younger than AE (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). Both SIEs and AEs dominated in higher education, having completed master degree or above by 51% of AEs and 53% of SIEs. The level of academic achievement did not significantly differ between SIE and AE (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010). Slightly higher percentage of AEs was in relationship/married (52%) comparing to SIEs (47%). This similarity is also present when exploring accompanying people – there were no significant differences, and suggestion from previous studies that SIEs tend to expatriate alone and have fewer dependants (Doherty et al.2013) did not find support in the study. 92% of SIEs and 88% of AEs did not have any children and 39% of SIEs comparing to 36% of AEs declared to come to Poland with someone – a partner, child or other family member. More than half of AE have had a previous foreign work experience (51%) comparing to 40% of SIE. This contradicts with previous

study, where SIEs significantly differed in relation to international experience and they worked in many different countries (Jokinen et al, 2008). In terms of number of months previously abroad the largest group of AE declared more than 6 years (30%), while for SIE it was less than 6 months (33%). This difference can be explained by age factor – 42% of SIE were below 30 years old, which explains why they cannot have a lot of international experience. For AE, 41% of respondents were between 30 and 40 years old, which allowed gaining more international experience.

In terms of the time already spent in Poland both AEs and SIEs had similar results with 33% and 35% respectively being in the country for 1-3 years. Predicted time of stay in Poland for AEs was 1-3 years (46%), while for SIEs the dominant time was more than 6 years (40%), which may suggest that they might not be planning to repatriate to their countries. This is in line with study of Doherty et al. (2013) who found that SIEs stayed longer in the host country than AEs. In general AEs tend to be in their current job for longer period of time (3-6 years responded by 28% and more than 6 years - 22%). For SIEs times spent in current organisation was much shorter – 41% answered less than 6 months and 27% between 1 and 3 years. The time of work at the company may also explain higher positions performed by AEs (58% are in managerial/senior position, while only 31% of SIEs and many declared that they run their own business or work as freelancers). Similar findings regarding job hierarchy for SIEs and AEs have been confirmed by previous studies (Inskon et al. 1999, Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Jokinen et al., 2008, Doherty et al., 2013). As much as 33% of SIEs worked in local companies while only 4% of AEs declared their company to be of Polish origin. This confirms previous studies that SIE usually work in home country owned companies (Suutari and Brewster, 2000). 60% of SIEs had found their job before arriving to the host country, which contradicts with Peltokorpi (2008) who stated that usually SIEs go to the country first before having a job, however in a study of Doherty and Dickman (2013), similarly to this study, 54% of SIEs found jobs before expatriating.

3. Results

	M	ST	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1 Psychological adjustment	5.08	1.100	(.869)													
2 Work environment adjustment	1.03	1.419	.217**	(.841)												
3 Work-life balance	1.47	2.017	ns	.258**	(.869)											
4 Social adjustment	4.40	1.255	.522**	.272**	ns	(.826)										
5 General living adjustment	5.30	1.087	.603**	.272**	.169*	.534**	(.717)									
6 Cultural distance	4.35	1.333	-.297**	ns	ns	-.477**	-.407**	(.924)								
7 Cultural intelligence	5.90	.885	.424**	ns	ns	.283**	.273**	ns	(.858)							
8 Language proficiency	3.15	1.639	ns	ns	ns	.289**	.194*	-.240**	.180*	(.926)						
9 Home country preference	4.29	1.316	-.392**	ns	ns	-.216**	ns	ns	-.219**	ns	(.818)					
10 Host country preference	5.03	1.088	.308**	.252**	.202*	.373**	.346**	ns	.229**	ns	ns	(.797)				
11 Work motives	4.96	1.311	ns	.224**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	-.263**	ns	ns	(.876)			
12 Leisure motives	5.71	1.194	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	.406**	ns	ns	.166*	ns	(.848)		
13 Financial motives	3.60	1.621	ns	ns	.227**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	.473**	ns	(.682)	
14 Social support	4.70	.903	.194*	.247**	ns	.221**	.229**	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	(.768)

*p<0.05; ** p< 0.01; diagonally shown values of Cronbach's α

Figure II. Bivariate Correlations Matrix

The main purpose of the study is to analyse the factors that affect expatriate adjustment and assess whether differences between self-initiated and assigned expatriates exist. Firstly, bivariate correlation (Figure II) was performed to determine initial relationships between study variables. In relation to adjustment, negative correlations have been found between psychological adjustment and cultural distance (r= -.297, p<.01) and psychological adjustment and home country preference (r= -.392, p <.01). This suggest that the more expatriate's home country is culturally distant from Poland and the more expatriate wants to maintain home country characteristics, the more difficult psychological adjustment will become. Positive correlations have been observed between psychological adjustment and

cultural intelligence (r= .424, p<.01) as well as psychological adjustment and host country preference (r=.308, p<.01). These results suggest that the more culturally aware expatriate is, the better his psychological adjustment will be, and, contrary to home country preference, when expatriate is willing to adapt some Polish characteristics, psychological adjustment improves. Work adjustment was found to be positively correlated with host country preference (r=.252, p<.01), work motives to expatriate (r=.244, p<.01) and social support (r=.247, p<.01). As expected, when expatriate is motivated by work, his work adjustment will be higher. Receiving support from others (family, friends, co-workers, other expatriates or Polish nationals) will also lead to improved work adjustment. Social adjustment showed high negative correlation with cultural distance (r= -.477, p<.01) and home country preference (r=-.216, p<.01) and positive with cultural intelligence (r=.283, p<.01), language proficiency (r=.289, p<.01), host country preference (r=.373, p<.01) and social support (r=.221, p<.01). This suggests that the higher local language proficiency, the better social adjustment of expatriates in Poland. Additionally, the higher satisfaction with support received the better social adjustment. General living adjustment was negatively correlated with cultural distance (r=-.407, p<.01) and positively with cultural intelligence (r=.273, p<.01), host country preference (r=.346, p<.01) and social support (r=.229, p<.01). As it can be noted all types of adjustment showed positive correlation with host country preference, suggesting that right acculturation strategy chosen by expatriate in fact can be a mean of minimising cultural shock and adjusting in foreign country (Sam and Berry, 2006).

3.1. Relationship between *Type of Expatriation* and *Adjustment*

To test hypothesis one, independent sample t-test have been performed. Means of dependent variables connected to psychological, work, social and general living adjustment were found not to be significantly different in the sample. This suggests that there were no significant differences between self-initiated and assigned expatriates in terms of adjustment in Poland. Therefore, hypothesis 1a which stated that *the degree of psychological adjustment will be similar for self-initiated and assigned expatriates* was validated. Hypothesis 1b, which stated that *assigned expatriates will experience higher degree of adjustment to working environment in comparison to self-initiated expatriates* was not validated as the means of work environment adjustment of both expatriate groups were statistically similar. Both SIEs and AEs presented similar degree of work environment adjustment in Poland. Hypothesis 1c which stated that *general living adjustment will to be similar for self-initiated and assigned*

expatriates was validated. Lastly, hypothesis 1d stated that *self-initiated expatriates will experience higher degree of social adjustment in comparison to assigned expatriates* was not validated as the comparison of means of social adjustment for SIEs and AEs showed that these means are not statistically different. Both SIEs and AEs presented similar degree of social adjustment in Poland. To sum up, mere factor of membership to assigned or self-initiated expatriate group is not a factor which affected psychological, work environment, general living or social adjustment in Poland. Other determining factors should be studied to discover differences between types of expatriation and adjustment.

3.2. Relationship between *Cultural Distance* and *Adjustment*

Hypothesis 2 stated that *cultural distance will have negative impact on expatriates' adjustment in terms of work and non-work related factors for both assigned and self-initiated expatriates*. To validate this hypothesis firstly t-test for equality of means was performed to assess whether differences between two expatriate groups exist. As the differences between SIEs and AEs were not significant in the sample, therefore confirming first assumption of the hypothesis, linear regressions with two steps for each dependent variable were performed (Table 2).In the first steps, socio-demographic control variables were used: *gender, age, marital status, education level* and number *of children below 12 years old*. In the second steps, cultural distance was found to explain dependant variables of psychological, social and general living adjustment. Looking at the analyses between *types of adjustment* (dependent variable) and *cultural distance* (independent variable) it can be observed that control variables did not have any effect on adjustment (model 1, 3 and 5) and did not affect relationships between adjustment and cultural distance. However, in models 2, 4 and 6 it can be observed that cultural distance impacted adjusted R^2 for psychological (increase of R^2 to 10.8%), social (increase of R^2 to 17.2%) and general living (increase of R^2 to 16.4%) adjustment. No significant relationships between cultural distance and work adjustment or work-life balance have been found. As expected, the values in the variations are negative, which suggest that the larger cultural distance between home and host country the lower psychological, social and general living adjustment. Therefore, hypothesis 2 was only partially validated. Negative impact of cultural distance has been found significant only on non-work related factors. These can be summarised that the more expatriate home country is culturally distant to Poland the more difficult it is for expatriate to have psychological comfort in the new environment, socialise with host country nationals and cope with general living situations in the country.

Independent variable	Psychological Adjustment		Social Adjustment		General living Adjustment	
	Model 1	Model 2	Model 3	Model 4	Model 5	Model 6
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Cultural Distance		**-.335**[**]		**-.419**[**]		**-.409**[**]
ΔR^2		.108[*1]		.172[*2]		.164[*3]
F Change	ns	17.981[**]	ns	29.201[**]	ns	27.348[**]
Adjusted R^2	.001	.109	-.021	.151	-.028	.136

B coefficients presented t test values with ** p< 0.01

Notes:
[*1]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\,2}$ – Adjusted $R^2_{model\,1}$
[*2]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\,4}$ – Adjusted $R^2_{model\,3}$
[*3]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\,6}$ – Adjusted $R^2_{model\,5}$

Table 2. Regression analyses (dependent variable: adjustment; independent variable: cultural distance)

3.3. Relationship between *Language Proficiency, CQ, Language Family* and *Adjustment*

Performing t-test for equality of means found that language proficiency statistically differed between SIEs and AEs (t= -4.3, Sig=.000) with mean scores being 3.56 for SIEs and 2.48 for AEs, indicating better knowledge of Polish language for self-initiated expatriates. The means of cultural intelligence were statistically similar for both expatriate groups. Hypothesis 3a stated that *language proficiency and cultural intelligence will have positive impact on social adjustment for both assigned and self-initiated expatriate groups.* To measure the relationship of *language proficiency* and *cultural intelligence* (independent variables) with *type of adjustment* (dependant variables) multiple regression analyses had been performed (Table 3). In the first steps socio-demographic control variables were used, however they were not found to have an effect on dependent variables. In the second steps, *language proficiency* and *cultural intelligence* were added. Language proficiency was found to explain the dependent variables of social and general living adjustment and cultural intelligence explained social and general living adjustment. As a result of multiple regression analyses it can be observed that social adjustment is positively affected by language proficiency and cultural intelligence, increasing adjusted R^2 to 13.6% (model 14). The

positive value suggests that the better language proficiency and higher motivational cultural intelligence of expatriates, the higher degree of social adjustment. Therefore, hypotheses 3a and 3b were validated. As the differences between AEs and SIEs existed in means of language proficiency it suggests that SIEs might be able to adjust socially better when taking into consideration their language ability.

Other relationships between language proficiency and adjustment have been found that could be commented on as being relevant to this study. Psychological adjustment was positively affected by cultural intelligence (model 12) impacting adjusted R^2 and increasing it to 16.2%. Language proficiency and cultural intelligence impacted adjusted R^2 of general living adjustment to 10.1% (model 16). All values were positive, suggesting that higher cultural intelligence will result in better degree of psychological adjustment and higher language proficiency and cultural intelligence will be a cause of higher degree of general living adjustment.

Independent variable	Psychological Adjustment		Social Adjustment		General living Adjustment	
	Model 7	Model 8	Model 9	Model 10	Model 11	Model 12
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Language proficiency		ns		.259**		.231**
Cultural Intelligence		.397**		.245**		.211*
ΔR^2		.162*1		.136*2		.110*3
F Change	ns	14.205**	ns	11.434**	ns	8.414**
Adjusted R^2	.000	.162	-.019	.117	-.023	.077

B coefficients presented t test values with ** p< 0.01; * p<0.05
Notes:
*1 ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 8}}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 7}}$
*2 ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 10}}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 9}}$
*3 ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 12}}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model 11}}$

Table 3. Regression analyses (dependent variable: adjustment, independent variables: language proficiency and cultural intelligence)

Hypothesis 3c stated that *expatriates whose language comes from Slavic language family will, in general, have higher proficiency of Polish language due to similarities that exist between the language families*. One way ANOVA was performed in order to assess if the means of language proficiency are identical for all language groups in the sample. The normality assumption and equality of variances in each family of languages were validated. The results of ANOVA showed that there are at least two means of language proficiency that are not identical in the sample (F= 1.447, Sig=.001). With a use of post hoc multiple comparisons Bonferroni test it could be seen that the mean differences of dependant variable language proficiency between Slavic and remaining language families were significantly different ($Sig_{Germanic}$=.027, Sig_{Latin}=.003 and Sig_{other}=.002). Expatriates whose native language came from Slavic language family had the highest mean score of language proficiency, followed by Germanic, Latin and other group. These results suggest that expatriates whose language family came from the same language family as Polish language (Slavic), were, in general, more proficient in local language than expatriates whose native language came from different language families, therefore hypothesis 3c was validated.

3.4. Relationship between *Cross-Cultural Training (CCT)* and *Adjustment*

Hypothesis 4a, stated that *assigned expatriates will be more likely to receive prior-departure and post-arrival training than self-initiated expatriates.* To validate this hypothesis descriptive statistics – crosstabs were used. By entering all CCT items and grouping those by type of expatriation conclusions are summarised in Table 4.

Form of training		Expatriation type	
		Assigned expatriates	Self-initiated expatriates
Pre-departure training	Formal	12.1%	0.0%
	Informal	27.6%	7.3%
	No training	60.3%	92.7%
		100%	100%
Post- arrival training	Formal	20.3%	10.3%
	Informal	25.4%	19.6%
	No training	54.3%	29.9%
		100%	100%
Mentoring		20.3%	7.2%

N= 154 (Pre-departure training), N= 156 (Post-arrival training), N=156 (Mentoring)

Table 4. Frequency of receiving pre-departure and post-arrival training

Looking at the results obtained through cross tabulation it can be noted that AEs in general are more likely to receive cross cultural training. 40% of AEs declared to have had pre-departure training and 45% said they took part in post-arrival training. From the number of AEs declaring pre-departure training, 12% took part in formal training performed by external trainer. No SIEs declared receiving formal training. This is not a surprising result and confirms reliability of the data. SIEs are not provided an opportunity to expatriate by the company and look for the job on their own; therefore it is very unlikely that they would receive formal training before departing to their destination country. In relation to informal pre-departure training (given by a colleague) 28% of AEs and 7% of SIEs declared this type of support, which could also mean they knew someone from Poland who was able to give them some tips about living in the country. Post-arrival cross-cultural training participation did not present such big differences between SIEs and AEs. Still, only 10% of SIEs were given opportunity to participate in a formal training, comparing to 20% of AEs receiving such training. Informal post-arrival training had been received by 25% of AEs and 20% of SIEs. Availability of mentor was declared by 20% of AEs and only 7% of SIEs. These results validated hypothesis 4a. Both pre-departure and post-arrival trainings are more likely to be received by assigned expatriates

Hypothesis 4b stated that *cross-cultural training will positively impact general living, social and work environment adjustment of both self-initiated and assigned expatriates.*To measure the effect of *cross- cultural training* (independent variable) on *adjustment* (dependent variable) set of multiple regression analyses was performed. Control variables were found not to have any effect on dependent variables and in the second step only two out of 5 methods of CCT were found significant. The results are summarised by Table 5.

Independent variable	Work Environment Adjustment		Social Adjustment	
	Model 13	Model 14	Model 15	Model 16
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns
Pre-departure formal		ns		ns
Pre-departure informal		ns		ns
Post-arrival formal		ns		**.412**[*]
Post-arrival informal		**-.173**[*]		ns
Mentoring		ns		ns
ΔR^2		.027[*1]		.126[*2]
F Change	ns	2.288[*]	ns	2.095[*]
Adjusted R^2	.001	.028	.005	.131

B coefficients presented t test values with * p< 0.05
Notes:

[*1]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 14}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 13}$
[*2]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 16}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 15}$

Table 5. Regression analyses (dependent variable: adjustment; independent variable: CCT)

The results show that while pre-departure CCT was not significantly correlated to any type of adjustment, formal post-arrival CCT was significantly positively related to social adjustment, increasing R^2 to 12.6% (model 10). These suggest that expatriates who receive formal post-arrival training will be better socially adjusted than the ones that have not received such training. Surprisingly, informal post-arrival training had negative effect on psychological and work adjustment of expatriates. The change was significant, however not big, increasing R^2 to 2.7% for work environment adjustment. The results suggest that only social adjustment is positively influenced by CCT and only by post-arrival formal training and that work environment adjustment is negatively affected by CCT, namely informal post-arrival training, therefore, hypothesis 4b was only marginally validated. To sum up the effects of training, assigned expatriates are more often recipients of training than self-initiated expatiates and the training received, namely formal post-arrival training makes a difference in expatriates' social adjustment.

3.5.Relationship between *Acculturation* and *Adjustment*

Hypothesis 5 stated that *the degree of acculturation will have an impact on adjustment in a way that home country preference will be negatively related to adjustment, and host country preference will have positive impact on adjustment*. To measure the relationship of *acculturation* (independent variables) with *types of adjustment* (dependant variables) multiple regression analyses had been performed (Table 6). In the first steps socio-demographic control variables were used and were not found to explain any of the dependent variables. In the second steps *home country preference* and *host country preference* were added and found to explain the dependant variables of psychological, work environment, social and general living adjustment.

Independent variable	Psychological Adjustment		Work Environment Adjustment		Social Adjustment		General living Adjustment	
	Model 17	Model 18	Model 19	Model 20	Model 21	Model 22	Model 23	Model 24
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Home country Preference		**-.371**[**]		ns		**-279**[**]		**-.179**[*]
Host country Preference		**.294**[**]		**.214**[*]		**.326**[**]		**.309**[**]
ΔR^2		.217[*1]		.037[*2]		.180[*3]		.122[*4]
F Change	ns	20.426[**]	ns	3.596[*]	ns	15.927[**]	ns	10.3774[**]
Adjusted R^2	.001	.218	-.009	.028	-.021	.159	-.028	.094

B coefficients presented t test values with ** p< 0.01; * p<0.05
Notes:
[*1] ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 18}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 17}$
[*2] ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 20}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 19}$
[*3] ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 22}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 21}$
[*4] ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 24}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 23}$

Table 6. Regression analyses(dependent variable: adjustment, independent variable: acculturation)

Looking at psychological adjustment it can be observed that both home country preference and host country preference significantly increase R^2 to 21.7% (model 18). This is the highest increase within all models suggesting that acculturation affects the most psychological adjustment of expatriates. The second highest increase of R^2 caused by acculturation appeared in social adjustment (model 22). Both acculturation dimensions affected change of

R^2 increasing it to 18%. In relation to general living adjustment again both variables are responsible for increasing R^2 to 12.2%. As it can be noted, the relations between home country preference with psychological, social and general living adjustment are negative, indicating that the more expatriates cannot let go of their home country characteristics, values and way of doing things, the lower their degree of psychological, social and general living adjustment. Similarly, when expatriates adapt integrative acculturation strategy, showing interest in acquiring host country culture to some degree, maintaining at the same time their country traditions, their adjustment will be improved. Looking at model 20, it can be seen that only host country preference plays role in work environment adjustment, increasing R^2 to 3.7%. Due to the fact that home country preference did not have significant negative effect on work adjustment as expected, hypothesis 5 was not fully validated.

3.6. Relationship between *Motives to Expatriate* and *Adjustment*

Motives to expatriate differ among SIEs and AEs. By comparing means of motives, it had been found that there are significant differences between expatriate groups, specifically in work motives (t= 5.3, Sig=.000) and financial motives (t=3.0, Sig =.004). Mean scores of AEs in both cases are higher in comparison to SIEs. Mean of work motives of expatriation for AEs was 5.62 while for SIEs it was 4.56 and mean of financial motives was 4.08 for AEs versus 3.29 for SIEs. These results suggest that AEs are motivated more for work and finance than SIEs. As the assigned expatriates are being sent by the company it is expected that their motivation will be concerned to work items such as development of skills, opportunity of promotion and growth as well as money incentives. These suggest that the set of push factors, connected to development and career are more important for AEs. Hypothesis 6a, which stated that *self-initiated expatriates will be more likely to be motivated by pull factors, while assigned expatriates will be motivated by push factors* was only partially validated.

To measure the relationship of *motives to expatriate* (independent variable) with expatriates *adjustment* (dependent variable) multiple regression analyses were performed. In step one and two socio-demographic control variables did not have any effect on adjustment, however in step two significant relationships were found (Table 7).

Independent variable	Work Environment Adjustment		Work-life balance	
	Model 25	Model 26	Model 27	Model 28
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns
Work Motives		**.264**[*]		ns
Leisure Motives		ns		**.223**[*]
Financial Motives		ns		ns
ΔR^2		.047[*1]		.040[*2]
F Change	ns	3.222[*]	ns	2.747[*]
Adjusted R^2	-.009	.038	-.020	.020

B coefficients presented t test values with * p<0.05

Notes:

[*1]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 26}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 25}$
[*2]ΔR^2 = Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 28}$ − Adjusted $R^2_{model\ 27}$

Table 7. Regression analyses (dependent variable: adjustment, independent variable: motives to expatriate)

Work motives were found to be positively affecting work environment adjustment increasing R^2 to 4.7% (model 26) and leisure motives were positively affecting work-life balance of expatriates adjusting R^2 to 4% (model 28). Although only slight, yet still significant positive relationships can concluded that motivational antecedents of expatriation have effect on work environment adjustment as well as work-life balance. Hypothesis 6b, which stated that *motives of expatriation will have an effect on expatriate adjustment* was only partially validated.

3.7. Relationship between *Social Support* and *Adjustment*

The relationship between *social support* (independent variable) received by expatriates and the *adjustment* (dependent variable) has been studied using multiple regression analyses. This analysis enabled to establish the relationships between all types of adjustment and quality of support from family, own country friends, co-workers expatriates, other expatriates and Polish nationals. Significant results have been summarised in table 8.

Independent variable	Psychological Adjustment		Work Adjustment		Social Adjustment		General living Adjustment	
	Model 29	Model 30	Model 31	Model 32	Model 33	Model 34	Model 35	Model 36
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Family		ns		**.203****		ns		ns
Expatriate co-workers		ns		ns		ns		**.242***
Polish nationals		**.280****		**.331****		**.374****		ns
ΔR^2		.108^{*1}		.206^{*2}		.126^{*3}		.125^{*4}
F Change	ns	4.157**	ns	7.696*	ns	4.663**	ns	4.618**
Adjusted R^2	.003	.111	-.003	.203	-.009	.117	-.020	.105

B coefficients presented t test values with ** p< 0.01; * p<0.05

Notes:

$^{*1}\Delta R^2 = \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 30}} - \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 29}}$

$^{*2}\Delta R^2 = \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 32}} - \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 31}}$

$^{*3}\Delta R^2 = \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 34}} - \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 33}}$

$^{*4}\Delta R^2 = \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 36}} - \text{Adjusted } R^2_{\text{model 35}}$

Table 8. Regression analyses (dependent variable: adjustment, independent variable: social support)

It can be noted that control variables did not affect relationships with adjustment for any of dependent variable. Regarding psychological adjustment only Polish nationals' support was found to affect it, improving R^2 to 10.8%. Work environment adjustment was significantly positively affected by social support received from family and Polish nationals explaining in total 20.6% of variance in work environment adjustment (model 32). For social adjustment only support received from Polish nationals had significant effect and accounted for 12.6% of change in R^2. Therefore, hypothesis 7a, which stated that *social support will be an important factor for adjustment of self-initiated and assigned expatriates* has been validated.

Furthermore, overall satisfaction and quantity of social interactions (independent variables)and their relationship with adjustment (dependant variable) were studied. In the first steps, socio-demographic control variables used did not explain any of the relationships. In the second steps, explanations by independent variables on psychological, work environment and social adjustment were found. The results have been summarised in Table 9.

Independent variable	Psychological Adjustment		Work environment Adjustment		Social Adjustment		General Living Adjustment	
	Model 37	Model 38	Model 39	Model 40	Model 41	Model 42	Model 43	Model 44
Gender	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Age	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Marital Status	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Education Level	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Children below 12	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Satisfaction with social interactions		**.275****		**.365****		**.241***		**.322****
Quantity of social interactions		**.250****		ns		**.155***		ns
ΔR^2		.158*1		.150*2		.087*3		.102*4
F Change	ns	14.062**	ns	12.911**	ns	7.395**	ns	8.616**
Adjusted R^2	.001	.159	-.009	.141	-.019	.068	-.025	.077

B coefficients presented t test values with ** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$
Notes:
$^{*1}\Delta R^2 = $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }38} - $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }37}$
$^{*2}\Delta R^2 = $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }40} - $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }39}$
$^{*3}\Delta R^2 = $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }42} - $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }41}$
$^{*4}\Delta R^2 = $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }44} - $ Adjusted $R^2_{\text{model }43}$

Table 9. Regression analyses(dependent variable: adjustment, independent variables: social interactions)

It can be noted that overall satisfaction with social interactions in combination with quantity of these interactions impacted adjusted R^2 of psychological (increase of R^2 to 15.8%) and social (increase of R^2 to 8.7%) adjustment. Furthermore, work environment (increase of R^2 to 15%) and general living (increase of R^2 to 10.2%) adjustments were impacted by the overall satisfaction with social interactions. The values of the variations were positive, suggesting that the higher overall satisfaction level with interactions with Polish nationals, expatriate co-workers and other expatriates guarantees better adjustment in all dimensions. Additionally, it had been found that the more social interactions, the better psychological and social adjustment of expatriates. This partially validates hypothesis 7b, which stated that *quality and quantity of social interactions will contribute to higher degree of expatriate adjustment.*

4. Discussion

The section of discussion focuses on critical review of study findings as well as contrasting them against existing literature. The aim of the study was to find the differences between self-initiated and assigned expatriates in Poland, their adjustment and factors that distinct the two groups. Based on results of the study, the major findings are:

(1) The factor of membership to one of expatriates group: self-initiated or assigned did not have any effect on psychological, work environment, social or general living adjustment.

(2) **Cultural distance** affected negatively psychological, social and general living adjustment of both self-initiated and assigned expatriates.

(3) **Language proficiency** was found to be higher for self-initiated expatriates. Furthermore, expatriates whose native language comes from the same language family that host country language were able to achieve better results in mastering host country language.

(4) C**ultural intelligence,** together with language proficiency was found positively affecting social and general living adjustment. Cultural intelligence was also found to have positive effect on psychological adjustment.

(5) **Cross-cultural training** was more likely to be received by assigned expatriates, and formal post-arrival training positively impacted social adjustment.

(6) Assigned expatriates **motives** to expatriate were linked to pull factors, namely work and finances drivers and were significantly higher comparing to self-initiated expatriates. Work motives were positively related to work environment adjustment and financial motives had positive impact on work-life balance.

(7) **Social support** from host country nationals was important for psychological, work environment and social adjustment; quality of social interactions was positively related to all types of adjustment and quantity of these interactions positively affecting psychological and social adjustment.

Firstly, comment on no differences found in levels of adjustment between SIEs and AEs must be made. The results of the study indicate that the mere factor of membership to one of the expatriation group does not have any significant effect on any type of adjustment. Hypotheses, based on previous research, suggested that AEs and SIEs will differ in terms of

work and social adjustment and present similar degree of psychological and general living adjustment. Only the latter had been confirmed. Therefore, findings of this research contradict with previous studies, where type of expatriation was significantly related to adjustment, implying that SIEs are better adjusted to interact with host country nationals (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009, Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013). The factors presented in previous studies of SIEs being mostly employed by host national organisations, having higher motivation to expatriate to a given country and being more eager to learn local language found confirmation in this study – one third of SIEs were employed by Polish companies, their primary motivations were connected to leisure and in general they were more proficient in Polish language, however, in terms of adjustment no differences have been fund between the groups. In relation to work adjustment, the results of this study did not find AEs to be better adjusted to work environment as in previous research. Vance (2014), based on interviewing American expatriates, found that AEs were presenting higher level of adjustment due to increased company support and the fact that AEs worked for international corporations which were more likely to adapt family–friendly policies and practices. Suutari and Brewster (2000) stated that SIEs were expected to have lower degree of work adjustment as local and smaller companies usually hiring SIEs are not as well prepared as international organisations to deal with expatriates and may not be providing services facilitating adjustment like specific training and mentoring. This study did not measure the size of organisation and therefore no comparisons as such can be made. However, the results are similar to Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) who found no differences in work adjustment between AEs and SIEs. Regarding general adjustment, the study indicated that it was similar for SIEs and AEs. While this confirmed hypothesis of the study it contradicts with previous research of Peltokorpi and Froese (2009), who, however highlighted that it was a surprising finding of SIEs being better generally adjusted as it is AEs usually getting help in finding accommodation by their company, in order to help them maintaining the same standard they had in their home country.

The results of the study indicate negative influence of cultural distance on adjustment, as expected. Cultures that are different from our own generate stress and tension (Peltokorpi, 2008) and these differences appearing in everyday life may create challenges in how to behave in certain situations. Differences in terms of climate, social environment, norms and values create uncertainty (Aryee and Stone, 1996) and this has been confirmed by the study. Psychological, interaction and general adjustments were found to be negatively affected by cultural distance; however, there was not relationship between cultural distance and work

adjustment. This can be explained by two factors. Firstly, expatriates often work in multinational organisations that standardise work norms globally and use English as their business language. In Poland these companies are often foreign owned and transfer their corporate culture from their place of origin. This means that practices, task execution and way of work are not affected by host country culture as much. Furthermore, these firms may have other expatriates working for them and the multicultural factor may diminish influences of host country. Secondly, for AEs who are being sent by the company they work for their job positions usually do not change and therefore they already know the descriptions of their jobs, work setting and expectations. Black and Stephens (1989), when presenting their model of adjustment, proposed that cultural novelty has negative impact on adjustment, especially general and interaction. Support of this statement was found by this study as well as academics (Shaffer et al, 1999, Gregsen and Stroh, 1997). Similarly, Zhou and Quin (2009) found significant negative correlation between cultural distance and general and interaction adjustments and no correlation with work adjustment. To explain these negative relationships survey questions were analysed. In relation to psychological adjustment expatriates had to choose frequency of feeling: out of place, nervous how to behave in certain situation and excited about being in Poland, among others. Therefore, the larger cultural distance between home country and Poland expatriates felt less belonging and more homesickness due to dissimilar norms and values. Interaction and general adjustment items in the survey were exactly the same as items of cultural distance. Therefore negative relationships can be explained by the fact that when expatriates rated, for example, making friends or food and eating as very difficult to adapt to, they rated the same items as being very different from their home countries. As cultural distance may be explained by geographical, cultural and historic, ethnic and religious features (Ronen and Shenkar, 1985) it is likely that Eastern European Slavic expatriates' adjustment will be the easiest because of the set of factors that predetermine their cultural distance to Poland.

In relation to language proficiency, firstly, this study indicated positive association between time already spent in Poland and language ability, confirming previous study of academic expatriates in Finland and Norway (Slemer and Lauring, 2015). Secondly, there was no relationship between language proficiency and work adjustment, which can be explained by majority of companies using English as their business language. Previous studies highlighted the importance of host language knowledge for work adjustment in cases where managers deal with staff that does not speak common language as theirs (Lei et al., 2011).

However, in this study, three thirds of expatriates declared English as a company's language of operation. This makes communication and tasks performance easier for expatriates as they do not feel excluded by the language barrier (Lauring and Selmer, 2010). Thirdly, on average, SIEs language abilities were better, with higher means in all four language dimensions – speaking, reading, writing and understanding. Better SIEs language abilities fall in line with study of Peltokorpi and Froese (2012) which was carried out in Japanese setting. This results may indicate that SIEs are more concerned with learning language because they motivation is to come particularly to Poland, they plan to stay for extended amount of time and, on average, have been living in Poland for longer period of time than AEs. Fourthly, Polish language proficiency has been found important to social adjustment. Studies, in general have been quite consistent in findings that host language ability is positively related to interaction with host country nationals (Hechanova et al, 2003, Selmer and Lauring, 2015) and that it was more significant for SIEs in comparison to AEs (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013). As English is enough in work setting, it is important for expatriates to learn Polish for their social activities. It can help to better understand norms and cultural values, enabling them to gain appropriate behaviours in everyday living and being included in everyday communication. In countries with very difficult languages expatriates may not be able to learn a lot of it but they can use it to enhance their adjustment (Selmer and Lauring, 2015). By demonstrating even basic language skills expatriate sends a message to local population that he is trying to make an effort to understand the culture. Lastly, it can be concluded that expatriates whose native language come from Slavic family of languages (Ukrainian, Bulgarian, Slovenian, Russian, Serbian or Slovak native speakers) have higher proficiency of Polish language than expatriates whose native language belongs to group: Germanic (English, German, Dutch or Norwegian), Latin (Spanish, Italian, French or Portuguese) and other (Hungarian, Finnish, Romanian, Arabic, Urdu, Bengali or Hindi). This was testing Cowler's (1981) linguistic study and proved to be true in expatriate field. Therefore, for expatriates whose native language comes from Slavic family of languages, learning Polish, which also belongs to Slavic family, should be easier. Remaining language families (Germanic, Latin and other) would have more difficulties with mastering Polish; however their capabilities to acquire the language will be similar between groups.

Regarding relationships between cultural intelligence and adjustment, positive impacts on psychological and social adjustment were found. As CQ is composed by self-efficacy and intrinsic motivation this suggests that it can be improved as self-efficacy is malleable and can

be learn through training (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005). Expatriates with high self-efficacy are better socially adjusted as they tend to continue learning despite receiving negative feedback (Black et al. 1991). Culturally intelligent expatriates were found psychologically, socially and generally better adjusted as they are open minded and seek contact with other country nationals. This is in line with previous studies on motivational cultural intelligence, where similar results were found (Klaus et al. 2006).

As expected, AEs were more likely to receive pre-departure and post-arrival training than SIEs. This is in line with the expectations, as SIEs do not have opportunity to receive formal training before their departure because they are not being sent to their destination by their company. However, surprisingly to previous research, this study had not found any significant relationship between cross-cultural pre-departure training to any dimension of adjustment. This could be due to only few people declaring receiving such training and supports earlier research that this type of training is still largely ignored (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005). Therefore, it seems that SIEs adjustment in Poland is not disadvantaged because of lack of pre-departure training. The result of this study contradicts with some of the previous studies that found positive relationships between pre-departure CCT and general, work and interaction adjustment (Waxin and Panaccio, 2005, Osman-Gani and Rockstuhl, 2009). However, study of Bozionelos (2009) similarly to this one did not find any effect of training on adjustment (with no differentiation to pre-departure and post-arrival), Puck, Kittler and Wright (2008) also did not find any significance of pre-departure CCT to any type of adjustment, while some studies found negative relationships (Kealey and Protheroe, 1996, Hechanova et al, 2003). In relation to formal post-arrival training it had been revealed being positive to social adjustment. This means that expatriates who are already in Poland benefit from having formal cross-cultural training as it helps them to build contacts with people. In previous study of Wang and Tran (2012), on the contrary, post-arrival CCT was found to be the most related to general and work adjustment, while this study found negative relationship between informal post-arrival training and work environment adjustment.

When studying acculturation, positive relationships were found between host country preference and all types of adjustment both for SIEs and AEs. As theories of minimising cultural shock state the best way to culturally adjust in a new country is to adapt integration strategy (Ward, 2001; Sam and Berry, 2010). It balances acquiring host country characteristics and behaviours while letting keep those of home country therefore guarantees

optimized adjustment in all aspects. Negative relationship between home country preference and adjustment were expected and these were connected to psychological, social and general living adjustment. In fact, when a person cannot let go of own country, is nostalgically returning with thoughts to the way they work in home country, they will not be trying to experience how things work in the host country. Therefore, host country preference was positively affecting all adjustment types as the will to take part in traditions, adapt some of the host country characteristics can aid in feeling better, meeting people and getting more information.

Motives to expatriate were found significantly different for expatriate groups especially in terms of work and financial motives, which were found to be much important reasons to expatriate for AEs in comparison to SIEs. This is in line with study of Doherty and Dickamnn (2011) who explored motives of SIEs and AEs and found that AEs placed higher emphasis on career motives when expatriating. Regarding motives of SIEs, as found by Altman and Baruch (2012) who studied self-initiated corporate expatriates, they vary from career oriented, through leisure to self-development and probably this is why the study did not show significant results for this type of expatriation. When studying groups of motives and their relations to adjustment, leisure motives of expatriation were found positively linked to work-life balance and work motives were found positively linked to work environment adjustment, which are very logical findings.

Social support received during the expatriation is very important to adjustment. Social support from Polish people had been found significantly positively related to psychological, social and work environment adjustment. As interaction with HCNs reduces uncertainty (Caligiuri, 2000) and allows learning appropriate behaviours in the country, it is not surprising that it is beneficial to adjustment. Inability to form such relationships with host country nationals may lead to social alienation (Weiss, 1973; cited in Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009). Interacting with host country nationals is a way of becoming aware of appropriate behaviour in the host country. Local people are an important source of information and the more expatriates interact with HCN; the more confident they may become in everyday life situations. Not being able to interact with local population makes expatriates ignorant about mentality of people, which may influence their ability to assess work situation and develop false assumptions about people they manage (Selmer, 1998). Although McGinley (2008) found host country nationals' support to be positively related to general adjustment, in Poland

HCN support is linked closer to other types of adjustment. The results of this study are in line with Johnson et al. (2003) who found host country nationals' contacts to be positively related to work and interaction adjustment and Liu and Shaffer (2005) who measured depth of relationships with HCN and their positive relationship with interaction adjustment. The positive effect of building networks with Polish people can be explained by the fact that Poland is still not very popular expatriate destination and there are many places where the number of foreigners is very low, therefore support from Polish people and socialising with them as well relations at work are highly important. Regarding support from co-workers, studies found it to be positively related to all facets of adjustment (Hechanova et al., 2003, Takeuchi, 2010, Lei et al., 2011); however these studies did not differentiate between co-workers who were HCNs and expatriates. In the current study support received from expatriate colleagues affected general living adjustment. It is in line with study of Takeuchi (2010) who stated that other country nationals also contribute to expatriate adjustment as expatriates feel more confident asking questions to other expatriates than HCNs (Johnson et al., 2003). As mentioned before, different countries have different norms and methods and standards of living. Therefore, it is not surprising that an expatriate would prefer to contact other expatriates, even before arrival to Poland, in order to inspect if salary offered by the company will allow comfortable living or to ask for tips on how to survive during the first days inPoland. Getting further information, which for HCNs may seem obvious, such as flat finding, places of meeting new people, may be better explained by other expatriates who had to go through similar practicalities upon their arrival. Furthermore, this study proved that overall quality of social interactions is positively related to all types of adjustment and that quantity of these interactions affects psychological and social adjustment of expatriates in Poland. These mean that social interactions are highly important for expatriates and the higher satisfaction with these interactions leads to better adjustment in all dimensions. Whereas quantity of interactions between expatriates and other social groups (HCN, expatriates co-workers and other expatriates) was found positively contributing to better psychological and social adjustment.

5. Conclusion

The focus of the study was placed on finding differences and factors affecting expatriate adjustment of self-initiated and assigned expatriates in Poland. The results revealed information that may aid choosing the right people for international assignments. Nowadays, merging and acquisitions between companies create necessities to move workforce abroad. Global recruitment becomes natural and international experience is highly valued. Most of the companies choose the expatriates based on their technical skills, not taking into consideration social skills and interest in the country and its culture. It is said that managers mostly focus on hard skills when choosing candidates for international assignments often forgetting how important are behavioural skills, as well as cultural intelligence (Simpson, 2014). As better adjustment is positively connected to satisfaction with work and non-work factors (Shaffer and Harrison, 1999) and performance (Park and McEvoy, 1993) it is important for Human Resource Management to understand what triggers better and faster adjustment of people away from their home country. Human resource management's role within organisation is career planning, guidance and support practices (Suutari, 2003) and therefore HRM plays one of the most important roles in expatriate's adjustment. With the emergence of self-initiated careers choices, in addition to individuals send by their companies for foreign assignment, HRM needs to be constantly developing and changing, following the trends of international careers (Suutari, 2003). Self-initiated expatriates may be reachable at lower costs, however they are challenging with management (Doherty and Dickmann, 2013) and may lack track of performance making it more difficult to recruit and select the right candidate (Mayrhofer, Meyer, Steyrer and Langer, 2007). Also HR needs to take into account their protean career attitude. Assigned expatriates may be easier to manage because multinational companies have HR practices and policies in place. Therefore, HR should develop multinational strategy, as it had been found to be a moderator of the relationship between HR systems and expatriate adjustment (Takeuchi, 2010).As this study found, different approach could be develop when sending an expatriate abroad in comparison to choosing employee at the destination. Based on the results, it can be concluded that in order to benefit from sending foreign workforce HR should select people interested in the country with host language communication skills and high cultural intelligence. Regarding expatriates who are being chosen by companies at the destination, people that are interested in the culture and willing to adapt necessary host country characteristics, the ones with host country language skills that preferably come from culturally similar countries should be chosen. Furthermore, at the destinations, hiring

companies should provide further cross-cultural training to reduce uncertainty, develop awareness of differences, show appropriate behaviours and positively orientate expatriates toward other culture.

5.1. Limitations

The study has brought some interesting results in the field of expatriation; however it has a few limitations. Firstly, the sample size, especially in regards to assigned expatriates could have been larger. The ratio of SIE to AE was 62%:38% and it may have disrupted the results. This difference in percentages is hypothesised to be due to AEs usually occupying higher positions in Poland, what makes it more challenging to reach them and get them to answer questionnaire. Secondly, due to time constraint the data had been collected only online within two months period. Probably, if spread across time and with use of other means, such as paper questionnaires it could have reached more expatriates from greater variety of professions and recorded substantial number of responses. Thirdly, expatriates in the study came mostly from Europe (66% of AEs and 71% of SIEs) and it could be beneficial to have more diverse sample. Fourthly, questionnaire available only in single language might have been a disadvantage. The survey had been done in English and therefore might have excluded some expatriates, especially the ones coming from Eastern Europe as some of them speak better Polish than English as well as older generation of expatriates that do not have proficient language abilities. Lastly, too many variables might have been used for comparisons, which meant that people filling in the questionnaire had to answer multiple questions, often very similar to each other. This has created the tendency of middle response as most of the answered used five and seven point scales.

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APPENDIX A. EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS

Table 10. Exploratory factor analysis of psychological adjustment scale.

Feelings of:	Psychological adjustment
Sadness	**.829**
Frustration	**.821**
Out of place	**.795**
Homesickness	**.764**
Loneliness	**.762**
Happiness	**.740**
Excitement	**.531**
Nervousness	**.517**
% of explained Variance	53.2%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.869

N= 159. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.825. The total variance is explained by single factor named *psychological adjustment* in 53.2%. The factor loading was obtained by Varimax rotation.

Table 11. Exploratory factor analysis of work adjustment scale.

Significance of change comparing with previous experience to:	Work environment adjustment	Work-life balance
Corporate culture	**.755**	.141
Work method	**.752**	.208
Communication	**.718**	-.099
Corporate climate	**.710**	.143
Work qualifications	**.701**	.093
Worker reliability	**.693**	-.093
Worker attitudes	**.672**	.160
Working hours	.044	**.941**
Work-life balance	.131	**.923**
% of explained Variance	40.0%	20.8%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.841	.869

N= 136. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.766. The total variance is explained by 2 factors in 60.8%: *work environment adjustment* explains 40% and *work-life balance* in 20.8% of the variance. The factor loading were obtained by Varimax rotation, excluding 4 items of original scale: ability to: play sports, practice hobbies, way of spending leisure time and opportunities for leisure.

Table 12. Exploratory factor analysis of general living and social adjustment scales.

Degree of adjustment in Poland to:	Social adjustment	General country adjustment
People	**.819**	.253
Friends	**.767**	.090
Values	**.752**	.209
Social norms	**.733**	.304
Family life	**.597**	.436
Language	**.543**	.080
Practicalities	.062	**.796**
Living	.199	**.661**
Food	.160	**.647**
Natural environment	.186	**.631**
Climate	.383	**.548**
% of explained Variance	27.7%	25.6%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.829	.717

N= 154. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.834. The total variance is explained by 2 factors in 54.4% : *social adjustment* explains 27.7% and *general country adjustment* 25.6% of the variance. The factor loadings were obtained by Varimax rotation, excluding social environment item from the original scale.

Table 13. Exploratory factor analysis of cultural distance scale.

Differences between home country and Poland in terms of:	Cultural distance
Social norms	**.833**
Social environment	**.829**
Food	**.799**
Natural environment	**.780**
Living	**.752**
Climate	**.737**
People	**.726**
Practicalities	**.726**
Friends	**.694**
Family life	**.665**
Language	**.664**
Values	**.661**
% of explained Variance	54.9%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.824

N= 159. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.918. The total variance is explained by single factor-*cultural distance* in 54.9%. The factor loading was obtained by Varimax rotation and forced only 1 factor.

Table14. Exploratory factor analysis of language proficiency scale.

Level of Polish	Language Proficiency
Reading	**.971**
Speaking	**.963**
Understanding	**.946**
Writing	**.912**
% of explained Variance	90.0%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.962

N= 155. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.843. The total variance is explained by single factor named *language proficiency* in 90%. The factor loading was obtained by Varimax rotation.

Table 15. Exploratory factor analysis of cultural intelligence scale.

Degree of general confidence in:	Cultural Intelligence
Dealing with stress in new culture	**.861**
Socializing with locals	**.851**
Getting accustomed to shopping	**.792**
Interacting with people from different cultures	**.765**
Enjoying living in unfamiliar cultures	**.739**
% of explained Variance	64.5%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.858

N= 154. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.811. The total variance is explained by single factor – *cultural intelligence* in 64.5%. The factor loading was obtained by Varimax rotation.

Table 16. Exploratory factor analysis of acculturation scale.

Degree of importance of:	Preference for home country	Preference for host country
Home country characteristics	**.880**	.033
Home country traditions	**.812**	.068
Home country people do	**.808**	-.040
Home country friends	**.713**	-.049
Polish traditions	.055	**.826**
Polish characteristics	-.067	**.821**
Polish people do	.019	**.767**
Polish friends	-.006	**.756**
% of explained Variance	32.5%	31.6%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.818	.797

N= 159. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.690. The total variance is explained by 2 factors in 64.1% : *preference for home country* explains 32.5% and *preference for host country* 31.6% of the variance. The factor loadings were obtained by Varimax rotation.

Table 17. Exploratory factor analysis of motivation scale.

Motive to expatriate to Poland:	Work motives	Leisure motives	Financial motives
Job skills	**.850**	.121	.061
Career prospects	**.826**	.059	.236
Good for career	**.819**	.188	.051
Leadership skills	**.797**	-.022	.082
Perspectives	**.707**	.126	.197
Promotion	**.639**	-.139	.340
See world	.133	**.840**	.110
Something new	.009	**.823**	.048
New experiences	.213	**.822**	-.060
Adventure	-.076	**.807**	-.135
Save money	.131	.100	**.910**
Well paid job	.364	-.141	**.721**
% of explained Variance	32.0%	23.6%	13.4%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.876	.848	.682

N= 149. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.819. The total variance is explained by 3 factors in 69%: *work motives* explain 32%, *leisure motives* - 23.6% and *financial motives* -13.4% of the variance. The factor loadings were obtained by Varimax rotation, selecting 12 out of 18 factors from combined scales.

Table 18. Exploratory factor analysis of social support scale.

Satisfaction with support received from:	Social support
Expatriate co-workers	**.858**
Other expatriates	**.772**
Family	**.678**
Polish nationals	**.668**
Own country friends	**.628**
% of explained Variance	52.7%
Cronbach's Alpha coefficients	.768

N= 147. Keiser-Meyer-Olkin index = 0.736. The total variance is explained by single factor named social support in 52.7%. The factor loadings were obtained by Varimax rotation.

APPENDIX B. QUESTIONNAIRE

Expatriate Adjustment Survey

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. This survey has been designed to measure your adjustment to living and working in Poland. Your responses are anonymous, however if you would like to know the results of the study, make sure to leave your e-mail address at the end.

Thank you for your time! Joanna Grelecka (jdgaa@iscte.pt)

1. What is the circumstance under which you are in Poland?

◯ I was sent to Poland by my company

◯ I decided to look for work opportunities in Poland myself

2. Have you ever worked abroad before coming to Poland?

◻ Yes

◻ No

3. If 'yes', how long for (in months)?

[   ]

4. When did you find your job in Poland?

◯ Before departing for Poland

◯ After arriving to Poland

5. Please answer the following: It is important for me to:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
Have my home country friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Take part in my home country traditions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Hold on to my home country characteristics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Do things the way my home country people do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Have Polish friends	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Take part in Polish traditions	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Develop Polish characteristics	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Do things the way Polish people do	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Please answer the following: In the last 2 weeks, I have felt:

	Never	Rarely	Occasionally	Sometimes	Frequently	Usually	Always
Excited about being in Poland	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Out of place, like I don't fit into Polish culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Sad to be away from my home country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Nervous about how to behave in certain situations	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Lonely without my family and friends around me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Homesick when I think of my home country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Frustrated by difficulties adapting to Poland	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Happy with my day-to-day life in Poland	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. How long have you been living in Poland?

○ Under 6 months

○ More than 6 months and less than 1 year

○ More than 1 year and less than 3 years

○ More than 3 years and less than 6 years

○ More than 6 years

8. How long do you intend to stay in Poland? (not taking into account the time you have already been here)

○ Under 6 months

○ More than 6 months and less than 1 year

○ More than 1 year and less than 3 years

○ More than 3 years and less than 6 years

○ More than 6 years

9. Who have come to live with you in Poland?

☐ No one

☐ Spouse/Partner

☐ Children

☐ Other family members

☐ Friend

Other (please specify)

[   ]

10. Think about living in Poland. How easy/difficult is it for you to adapt to:

	Very difficult	Difficult	Somewhat difficult	Neither easy or difficult	Somewhat easy	Easy	Very easy
Climate (temperature, rainfall, humidity)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Natural environment (plants and animals, pollution, scenery)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social environment (size of the community, pace of life, noise)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Living (hygiene, sleeping practices, how safe you feel)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Practicalities (getting around, using public transport, shopping)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food and eating (what food is eaten, how food is eaten, time of meals)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family life (how close family members are, how much time family spend together)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social norms (how to behave in public, style of clothes, what people think is funny)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Values and beliefs (what people think about religion and politics)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People (how friendly, stressed or relaxed people are, attitudes toward foreigners)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends (making friends, amount of social interaction)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language (learning the language, understanding)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. What is your country of origin?

[   ]

12. Think about your home country and Poland. In your opinion, how similar/different are these two countries in terms of:

	Very different	Mostly different	Somehwat different	Neither similar nor different	Somewhat similar	Mostly similar	Very similar
Climate (temperature, rainfall, humidity)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Natural environment	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social environment (size of the community, pace of life, noise)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Living (hygiene, sleeping practices, how safe you feel)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Practicalities (getting around, using public transport, shopping)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Food and eating (what food is eaten, how food is eaten, time of meals)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family life (how close family members are)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Social norms (how to behave in public, style of clothes, what people think is funny)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Values and beliefs (what people think about religion and politics)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
People (how friendly, stressed or relaxed people are, attitudes toward foreigners)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friends (making friends, amount of social interaction, what people do to have fun)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Language (learning the language, understanding)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. How long have you been an employee of your current oraganisation?

◯ Under 6 moths

◯ More than 6 months and less than 1 year

◯ More than 1 year and less than 3 years

◯ More than 3 years and less than 6 years

◯ More than 6 years

14. What is your current position in the company you work for?

◯ Manager/ Supervisor

◯ Technical Senior

◯ Technical Junior

◯ Administrative/ Staff

Other (please specify)

[   ]

15. What is the nationality of the organisation you work for?

[   ]

16. Comparing to your previous experience, in what extent changes in the following items were positive, neutral and negative

	Negative	Neutral	Positive
The work attitudes of the employees	☐	☐	☐
The corporate culture of the organisation where I work	☐	☐	☐
The qualifications and skill level of my colleagues (co-workers, direct reports)	☐	☐	☐
The work climate (the environment affecting my daily experience on-the-job)	☐	☐	☐
The employees' method of working	☐	☐	☐
The way in which people communicate	☐	☐	☐
The reliability of the people	☐	☐	☐
The opportunities for playing the sports I enjoy	☐	☐	☐
Opportunities for practicing the hobbies I enjoy	☐	☐	☐
The way I spend my leisure time	☐	☐	☐
Opportunities for spending my leisure time	☐	☐	☐
My sense of balance between my professional/work and private/home life	☐	☐	☐
My working hours	☐	☐	☐

17. Comparing to your previous experience, how significant was the change in following items :

	Insignificant in my life	Somewhat significant	Moderately significant	Very significant in my life
The work attitudes of the employees	☐	☐	☐	☐
The corporate culture of the organisation where I work	☐	☐	☐	☐
The qualifications and skill level of my colleagues (co-workers, direct reports)	☐	☐	☐	☐
The work climate (the environment affecting my daily experience on-the-job)	☐	☐	☐	☐
The employees' method of working, in general	☐	☐	☐	☐
The way in which people communicate	☐	☐	☐	☐
The reliability of the people	☐	☐	☐	☐
The opportunities for playing the sports I enjoy	☐	☐	☐	☐
Opportunities for practicing the hobbies I enjoy	☐	☐	☐	☐
The way I spend my leisure time	☐	☐	☐	☐
Opportunities for spending my leisure time	☐	☐	☐	☐
My sense of balance between my professional/work and private/home life	☐	☐	☐	☐
My working hours	☐	☐	☐	☐

18. Read the statements and select the answer that BEST describes you as you really are:

	Stronglydi sagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somehwat agree	Agree	Srongly agree
I enjoy interacting with people from different cultures	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident that I can socialise with locals in a culture that is unfamiliar to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am sure I can deal with the stresses of adjusting to a culture that is new to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I enjoy living in cultures that are unfamiliar to me	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
I am confident that I can get accustomed to the shopping conditions in a different culture	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

19. To what extent the following statements express your motives to come and work in Poland

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Slightly disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Slightly agree	Agree	Strongly agree
I desired an adventure/ challenge	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I would have an acceptable protection to security risks	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It would allow to meet my children's educational needs	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I thought it might do my career some good	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It would allow to develop relevant job-related skills	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I wanted new experiences	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I wanted to do the 'right' thing for promotion	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It had a high potential for leadership skills development	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I wanted to see more of the world	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I thought it allow to maintain my personal networks	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I needed well-paid job for my family	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I wanted to escape from current situation	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I desired to enhance my career prospects	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I hoped to save a large amount of money	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It was not going to affect my spouse career	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
It would allow to gain new perspectives of my own professional development	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
I was bored with my home country	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

20. How satisfied you are with the help and support you have from following people:

	Very dissatisfied	Fairly dissatisfied	A littledissatisfied	A little satisfied satisfied	Fairly	Very satisfied
Family	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Friend(s) from my country	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriate colleague(s) from my company	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriate colleague(s) from other companies	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Polish people (from my company or not)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

21. How often do you spend time with:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
Polish people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriate co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other expatriates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

22. How often have you engaged in real informal conversations at clubs, restaurants, religious groups, sports, associations with:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
Polish people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriate co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other expatriates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

23. How often do you engage in virtual informal conversations through social media (Skype, Facebook, LinkedIn, E-mail) with:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
Polish people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriate co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other expatriates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

24. How often do you visit homes of:

	Never	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Most of the time
Polish people	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Expatriates co-workers	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Other expatriates	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

25. Have you received pre-departure training provided by your company before going to Poland?

☐ Yes, formal training (external trainer)

☐ Yes, informal training (colleague)

☐ No

26. If your answer to the previous question was 'yes' please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with the following:

	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or disagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly agree
In general, the cultural orientation program about Poland my organisation provided before my departure was adequate tome.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The training my organisation provided before my departure was of a value in contributing to the success in my present job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

27. Have you received post-arrival training provided by your company when you started working in Poland?

☐ Yes, formal training (external trainer)

☐ Yes, informal training (colleague)

☐ I could use help of mentor in my company

☐ No

28. If your answer to the previous question was 'yes', please indicate your level of agreement/disagreement with the following:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree or diasagree	Somewhat agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
The training I have gotten from my organisation strives to expand my capacities to enhance my awareness of Polish culture.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The post-arrival training my organisation provided me promotes attitudinal flexibility and capabilities to handle unknown situations.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
The post-arrival training my organization provided is of value in contributing to the success in my present job.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

29. What is the business language of the company you work for?

☐ English

☐ Polish

Other (please specify)

_____

30. What is your native language?

_____

31. Please indicate how well you cope with Polish language:

	Not at all	Very low ability	Low ability	Moderate ability	High ability	Very high ability	Like a native speaker
Reading	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Speaking	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Writing	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
Understanding	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

32. What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male

33. In what year were you born? (enter 4-digit birth year; for example, 1976)

34. What is your marital status?

○ Single, never been married

○ Married

○ A member of unmarried couple/ domestic partnership

○ Widowed

○ Divorced

Other (please specify)

35. What is the highest level of education you have completed?

◯ No schooling completed

◯ Some high school, no diploma

◯ High school, diploma or equivalent

◯ College

◯ Trade/technical/vocational training

◯ Bachelor's degree

◯ Master's degree

◯ Ph.D/ Professional Degree

◯ Doctorate degree

36. How many children do you have?

	None	1	2	3	More than 3
Under 6 years old	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
More than 6 years old and less than 12 years old	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
More than 12 years old and less than 18 years old	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

37. Please enter your e-mail address, if you would like to receive the summary of findings:

[   ]