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Impact of a Local Host on the Success of an International Assignment

By
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This longitudinal study examined whether contact with a local host in the Netherlands positively impacts on the adjustment and performance of “Western” expatriates with English or French as their first language. Thirty-one expatriates were put in contact with a Dutch host with whom they would have regular contact over nine months; another 30 similar expatriates would have no contact with a host. After a five-month period of contact with a host, there was a positive impact on interaction adjustment. The results also indicated that expatriates who valued the contact highly derived more benefit from it. Contact with a host seems to be especially worthwhile for expatriates who have to deal with host nationals on a daily basis. © 2011 Wiley Periodicals, Inc.

Introduction

It may take time before expatriates are able to meet company expectations because they have to adjust not only to new work roles but also to new living environments. The more time this takes, the greater the costs for the organization (Black & Stephens, 1989, p. 529). An unsuccessful international assignment is not only costly in terms of financial compensation and lost expenses for relocation and training, but also in terms of consequences for future business success of the organization (Van der Bank & Rothmann, 2006, p. 34). In addition, a failed assignment can lead to indirect costs such as disappointment and a loss of self-esteem for the expatriate (Black, Gregersen, & Mendenhall, 1992, p. 12; Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985, p. 39; Tung, 1987, p. 117). Although expatriate failure rates may not be as high as have been claimed in the past (e.g., Harzing & Christensen, 2004), it is clear that job changes across national borders are difficult and warrant as much research attention as domestic turnover.

There are many different ways in which a company can support its employees before, during, and after an international assignment. These range from offering...
cross-cultural training or preparatory visits to acquaint
the expatriate with the country of assignment to keep-
ing in touch with the expatriate during the assignment
to assuring the expatriate that he or she has a job after
returning home. In this article, a specific type of support
is introduced—namely, putting expatriates in touch with
a host national. The aim of this article is to examine
whether this type of support can improve the success of
an international assignment.

The period immediately after arriving in a new
country is full of uncertainty and anxiety. Moving home
or job are important stressors in life. In the case of an
international assignment, the stress is exacerbated due
to the fact that one also moves to another country. The
expatriate needs to learn to cope with this important life
event. Coping is defined as “constantly changing cogni-
tive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external
and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing
or exceeding the resources of the person” (Lazarus &
Folkman, 1984, p. 141). The resources that people have
(for example, social skills and social support) influence
the way in which they cope with the demands (Lazarus &
Folkman, 1984, p. 179).

Research has shown the importance of informal
relationships in dealing with uncertainty (Albrecht &
Adelman, 1987, p. 19). Social networks are crucial in the
management of cross-cultural transition. An additional
complication, when transferred to another country, is that
part of the social network that could provide support in
such situations is left behind (Adelman, 1988, p. 190). New
social ties need to be formed. This can be done by draw-
ing on two important sources of social support in the new
country: fellow expatriates and host-country nationals.

Contact with host nationals has long been said to
reduce the degree of difficulty an expatriate faces (Land-
dis, Bennett, & Bennett, 2004, p. 302). This ties in with
contact theory (e.g., Allport, 1954) that posits that in-
terpersonal contacts between individuals from different
cultures should reduce prejudice (Pettigrew & Tropp,
2006) and result in understanding and adjustment (Han-
vey, 1979). These suggestions are supported by the results
of a number of studies. Furnham and Bochner (1986, p.
251) suggested that expatriates who have “some intimate
contact” with host nationals seem to be more satisfied in
their private and professional lives, and are more success-
ful than expatriates who do not have this kind of contact.
Brewster and Pickard (1994) showed that a high level of
interaction with host nationals is associated with easier
adjustment to the environment. The support of host-
country nationals is also found to be a predictor of spous-
al adjustment (Shaffer, Harrison, Luk, & Gilley, 2000, p.
30). These findings were confirmed in a recent study by
Podsiadlowski, Spieß, Stroppa, and Vauclair (2008), who
found that of the two sources of support available in the
host country, only support of host nationals was related to
psychological well-being and overall satisfaction with the
sojourn. Their finding that support from people from the
home country did not influence these outcomes corrob-
rates the importance of establishing a new social network
in the host country.

Expatriates often find it difficult, however, to make
contact with host nationals. Through the many expatriate
clubs and associations, especially numerous in popular
expatriate destinations, one mainly meets other expatri-
ates. Therefore, it is not surprising that expatriates tend
to receive more support from fellow nationals than from
host nationals (Johnson, Kristof-Brown, Van Vianen,
De Pater, & Klein, 2003, p. 284). This focus on contact
with fellow expatriates can even be negative. Parker and
McEvoy (1993) show that a great amount of contact with
fellow expatriates is correlated negatively with adjust-
ment, and Geeraert, Demoulin, and Deme (2008) have
recently found that “any” social support was positive at
the start, but that the co-national expatriate “bubble” had
a negative effect in the long run.

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Ward, Bochner, and Furnham (2001, p. 43) consider a
cross-cultural transition as a significant life event that
brings new forms of intercultural contact. Two important
models that describe how the confrontation with these
new situations can be dealt with, and where a host can
provide assistance, are the stress and coping model and
the culture learning model.

The stress and coping model focuses on, among
other things, the importance of social support for psy-
chological adjustment (Ward et al., 2001). Albrecht and
Adelman (1987, p. 19) define social support as verbal
and nonverbal communication between recipients and
providers that reduces uncertainty about the situation,
the self, the other, or the relationship, and functions to
enhance a perception of personal control in one’s life
can consist of giving care, love, information, technical
assistance, and tangible help. The new situation of the
expatriate poses certain demands that could trigger a cri-
sis when resources and capabilities are insufficient. Social
support is an important resource to cope with uncertainty
(Wang, 2002).

Adelman (1988) divides the social network into
strong ties such as family and friends, and weak ties such
The Success of an International Assignment

Studies on the success of an international assignment, also called expatriate effectiveness, focus often on cross-cultural adjustment. An international assignment is an important life change with an intercultural component (Ward et al., 2001, p. 43), and cultural differences seem to be an important source of problems for expatriates (Bennhold-Samaan, 2004, p. 376). Many of these studies assume that adjustment impacts the performance of the expatriate. Mol, Born, and Van der Molen (2005, p. 341) posit, however, that “causal relationships between such variables [e.g., adaptation] and job performance are more often assumed than empirically investigated.” Since, from the point of view of the sending organization, optimal performance of the expatriate is the ultimate goal of the international assignment, it is important, according to them, to include performance measures in research examining the determinants of successful international assignments.

Although performance should be a central concept in research on the success of international assignments, it should not be the only focus. After transition to a foreign country, expatriates enter an unfamiliar environment with which they have to become familiar in order to be able to function well. As Wang (2002, p. 333) puts it: “it is obvious that if the expatriate can adjust to the local environment and [reach a high level of psychological well-being], he or she will be able to develop his or her full potential to perform well.” Adjustment is necessary not only in the workplace, but also in private life. Since these two domains are neither isolated nor independent of each other, spillover might occur (Takeuchi, Yun, & Tesluk, 2002).

A number of studies show that cross-cultural adjustment is positively related to performance (Bhaskar-Shrinivas, 2005, p. 273; Caligiuri, Phillips, Lazarova, Tarique, & Burgi, 2001; Cui & Awa, 1992). It is therefore important to include both cross-cultural adjustment and performance in studies concentrating on the determinants of the success of international assignments. In the following paragraphs, these two concepts will be elaborated upon.

Cross-Cultural Adjustment

The concept of cross-cultural adjustment has been extensively studied in both the acculturation and the expatriation literatures. For this concept, other terms are often used, such as adaptation, acculturation, and accommodation (Haslberger & Brewster, 2008; Searle & Ward, 1990, p. 450). In this article, the term is simply shortened to adjustment.

The earliest theories on sojourner adjustment focused on the negative effects that were often experienced. An important concept is the U-curve (Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960), which consists of an initial honeymoon phase, a crisis (culture shock), a transition stage where one starts to feel better again, and a final period of adjustment. Culture shock was seen as an occupational
disease (Oberg, 1960, p. 177). Nowadays, models of adjustment have evolved from the “pseudo-medical” model of culture shock, for which only limited empirical support exists (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Ward, Okura, Kennedy, & Kojima, 1998), to models that emphasize learning experiences and management of stress-provoking life changes (Ward et al., 2001, p. 45).

Both the acculturation literature and the expatriation literature conceptualize adjustment as a multidimensional concept. The leading model in the expatriation literature is that of Black (1988), which consists of three dimensions: general adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. This model has been tested in a number of studies, which has resulted in the firm establishment of these three dimensions. The model has, however, also received some criticism, notably with regard to conceptualization and the actual items of the measuring instrument. For instance, Thomas and Lazarova (2006, p. 251) point out that the scale was not constructed on a sound theoretical base.

Soon after Black published his model, Searle and Ward (1990) reviewed two decades of publications on the contact between expatriates, immigrants, refugees, and sojourners with the host culture and the subsequent effect it had on their adjustment. On the basis of this review, they proposed a distinction between psychological and sociocultural adjustment in order to distinguish between the “feelings of well-being and satisfaction” and the “ability to ‘fit in’ and negotiate interactive aspects of the new culture” (Searle & Ward, 1990, p. 450). These two facets are widely used in acculturation research but are not as popular as Black’s model in the expatriation literature (Thomas & Lazarova, 2006, p. 251).

Although Ward’s model is theoretically sounder than Black’s model, Thomas and Lazarova (2006, p. 252) identify some limitations, such as the actual measurement of the two facets of adjustment. For example, Ward and colleagues conceptualize psychological adjustment as well-being and satisfaction but measure it through an established depression inventory. In order to explain that some studies do not find a separate set of predictors for each type of adjustment, as originally proposed by Ward and colleagues (e.g., Searle & Ward, 1990, p. 453), Oguri and Gudykunst (2002) suggest that it makes a difference whether psychological adjustment is measured in a negative way (as depression) or in a positive way (as satisfaction). For example, the predictor “host-language fluency” is only related to psychological adjustment when it is conceptualized in a positive way (satisfaction), and not when it is measured as depression (Oguri & Gudykunst, 2002, p. 592).

Thomas and Lazarova (2006, p. 252) conclude in their review of expatriate adjustment and performance that both the Black model and the Ward model contain useful aspects and insights for the study of adjustment. In our research project, we therefore used both models to complement each other.

Performance

For an organization to survive and realize its goals, it is important that its employees have a reasonable level of job performance. Job performance is a set of behavior patterns that are relevant for the goals of the organization (Campbell, 1990). It is a central concept in human resource management (HRM) literature: the aim of selection procedures is to predict performance, while other organizational interventions are implemented to measure or improve job performance (Arthur & Bennett, 1997, p. 142). The criterion of job performance, however, has not been conceptualized structurally in domestic HRM, nor in international HRM (Ones & Viswesvaran, 1997, p. 75).

A change of jobs brings about uncertainty and ambiguity even when it occurs in the same city or company. When the job change includes a different country, another level of complexity is added because factors such as cultural differences come into play. These circumstances add to the constraints that can hinder—or stimulate—job performance (Spector, 2000, p. 234).

There are two basic methods for assessing job performance. Objective measures result from companies tracking the behavior of employees, such as turnover and absenteeism. Subjective measures are based on ratings by supervisors or other people who should have an overview of the job and the job performance in question (Spector, 2000, p. 79). For managers, 360-degree feedback has become a frequently proposed measure to evaluate performance from more than one perspective—not only from the perspective of the supervisor, but also from the perspective of the peers and subordinates (Spector, 2000). In addition, a multiple-perspective evaluation will reduce the rating biases and rating errors that every individual almost unavoidably makes.

Most of these methods are, however, not easily available for researchers who are interested in expatriate job performance. Performance management systems at headquarters are often not applicable to the specific expatriate’s environment. Supervisors may be too far away to be able to evaluate expatriate performance, or there may be other practical constraints. It is also possible that there are cultural differences in performance assessment. Abe and Wiseman (1983, p. 62) found, for example, that Japanese and Americans had different perceptions of the
Our research project examines whether contact with host nationals is indeed beneficial for the success of an international assignment.
French (31%), American (25%), and British (22%) were the top three nationalities represented in the sample. The expatriates had been in the Netherlands an average of 6.4 months when they started in the project; 92% of the expatriates had been in the Netherlands for less than a year.

**Instruments**

**Adjustment**

In order to measure psychological and sociocultural adjustment, we used the following instruments:

- **Psychological adjustment**: Following Van Oudenhoven, Mol, and Van der Zee (2003, p. 160) we operationalized psychological adjustment through “positive” concepts such as psychological and physical health and satisfaction with life. Psychological health (αbaseline = .83; α5 months = .85) consisted of nine items on a scale of 1 (none of the time) to 5 (all of the time). The scale started with the phrase: “How much of the time during the past four weeks” and was followed by items such as: “have you felt calm and peaceful” or “did you feel worn out.” Physical health (αbaseline = .74; α5 months = .68) was assessed by two questions assessing the general health on a scale of one (poor) to five (excellent) and the amount of time the physical or emotional health interfered with social activities (1 = none of the time to 5 = all of the time). To complete the picture, respondents reacted to four statements such as “I seem to get sick a little easier than other people” and “My health is excellent” on a scale of 1 (definitely false) to 5 (definitely true). Satisfaction with life scale (αbaseline = .85; α5 months = .86) was composed of five items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), such as “In most ways my life is close to my ideal” and “If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.”

- **Sociocultural adjustment**: As this aspect of adjustment focuses on the quality of the interaction with people in the host country, a short version of the 41-item Social Support List Interaction (Van Sonderen, 1993) was used, as in the study of Van Oudenhoven et al. (2005). Fifteen items on a scale of 1 (seldom or never) to 4 (very often) assessed the number of times respondents experienced that people were “affectionate towards you,” “ask you for help,” or “blame you for things” (αbaseline = .85; α5 months = .81).

- **General, work, and interaction adjustment** were measured by 14 items on a scale of 1 (unaccustomed) to 7 (accustomed), very similar to the measure developed by Black and Stephens (1989). The first seven items regarded general adjustment (e.g., “living conditions in general”), followed by four items focusing on interaction adjustment (e.g., “socializing with host nationals”). The final three items assessed work adjustment through items such as “specific job responsibilities” and “supervisory responsibilities.” Reliability coefficients for all three variables were generally very high (general adjustment: αbaseline = .83; α5 months = .79; interaction adjustment: αbaseline = .87; α5 months = .95; work adjustment: αbaseline = .94; α5 months = .85).

**Performance**

Performance was measured by two instruments.

- **Desire to terminate the assignment**: The instrument of Cailigurì (2000) was used to determine the expatriates’ desire to terminate the assignment. The instrument contains three items on a scale of 1 (no, definitely not) to 5 (yes, definitely). A sample item is: “Would you like to terminate this expatriate assignment early?” (αbaseline = .83; α5 months = .82)

- **Assessment of own performance** (αbaseline = .66; α5 months = .73) was measured with four items that asked the expatriates to assess their own performance on a scale of 1 (poor) to 5 (excellent) in areas such as “ability to get along with others” and “ability to complete assignments on time” (Parker & McEvoy, 1993).

**Covariates**

We also examined the effect of the quality of the contact with the host, because it not only indicates whether the strategy of putting expatriates in contact with a host was successful in itself, but also whether the expatriates benefited more from the contact with a host when they rated the contact as sufficiently high. The expatriates with a host were therefore asked to provide a score on a scale of 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest) when judging the contact with their Dutch host.

**Procedure**

The participants in our study were solicited through a variety of channels: international schools, expatriate associations and (online) networks, expatriate fairs, and information about the project on websites, in company newsletters, in local newspapers—even social networking sites. It is therefore likely that the sample is somewhat biased toward the more active type of expatriate who has an interest in what is going on in his or her new environment.
The expatriates could register through the website www.let.ru.nl/m.v.bakel. They were then asked to fill in the first questionnaire of the project as well as a form with questions (e.g., about hobbies) that could help to match the expatriate with a suitable host. Hosts were volunteers not working for the same company as the expatriate, and they were mainly found through our personal networks and through snowball sampling. The registration procedure for the hosts was similar to that of the expatriates.

Sixty-one participants took part in the study; 31 expatriates were put in touch with a host (experimental group) and 30 were not (control group). After having filled in the first questionnaire, the participants were told whether they would be put in touch with a host immediately (experimental group) or after nine months, when the research project had finished (control group). We tried to find a suitable host within a reasonable amount of time, matching primarily for place of residence, age, and family situation.

Expatriates in the experimental group were put in touch with their host through an e-mail containing a short introduction to both parties to facilitate the first contact. To monitor the contact during the project, the first author of this article kept in touch with the hosts, rather than the expatriates, in order to minimize the possible effects of contact with the researcher. At the end of the project, the participants in the control group were asked whether they were still interested in being put in touch with a host. If so, they were put in touch with a host using the same procedure as described earlier. They were no longer research subjects and did not have to fill in any more questionnaires.

Data Analysis Strategy
The effect of a host on the performance and adjustment variables was analyzed using multivariate and univariate analyses of variance with host (yes or no) as the fixed factor. To reflect the development of the dependent variables during the first five months, change scores of the dependent variables were used in the analyses. These scores were obtained by deducting the score of the first assessment (baseline level) from the score of the second assessment (five months). This was done for each of the dependent variables.

Results
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Tables 1 and 2 show an overview of the change scores on the adjustment and performance variables for the experimental group (host) and the control group (no host). In

| TABLE 1  | Mean Change Scores on Adjustment (Over Five Months) of Expats With or Without a Host |
| Change Scores (5 Months–0 Months) | Host | | No Host | | Sign. |
| Adjustment | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| Psychological adjustment | | | | | | |
| Satisfaction with life | 31 | 0.08 | 0.46 | 30 | 0.01 | 0.62 | - |
| Physical health | 31 | -0.34 | 0.58 | 30 | -0.20 | 0.62 | - |
| Psychological health | 31 | 0.16 | 0.36 | 30 | 0.09 | 0.59 | - |
| Sociocultural adjustment | 31 | 0.03 | 0.27 | 30 | 0.01 | 0.39 | - |
| General adjustment | 31 | 0.47 | 0.83 | 30 | 0.87 | 0.92 | - |
| Interaction adjustment | 31 | 0.99 | 1.34 | 29 | 0.25 | 1.82 | p < .05 |
| Work adjustment | 30 | 0.31 | 1.05 | 30 | 0.74 | 1.09 | - |

| TABLE 2  | Mean Change Scores on Performance (Over Five Months) of Expats With or Without a Host |
| Change Scores (5 Months–0 Months) | Host | | No host | | Sign. |
| Performance | N | M | SD | N | M | SD |
| Assess own performance | 30 | 0.03 | 0.41 | 30 | 0.07 | 0.46 | - |
| Desire to terminate | 23 | 0.25 | 0.87 | 21 | 0.22 | 0.55 | - |
after five months, 70% of the expatriates rated the contact with the host as sufficient (6 or higher); 59% scored the contact even as good or very good (8 or higher). It can therefore be concluded that more than two-thirds of the interventions with a host were successful according to the participants themselves. The following quote of a Canadian expatriate can serve as illustration:

What did we do? Dinner, walks, museum, dancing, hanging out, etc. Meeting with the host family meant caring, stimulating encounters, and it made me feel welcome and cared for. There was someone to listen to me. It is a very meaningful connection.

We can expect that there is a difference in change in adjustment and performance between expatriates who value the contact with the host as sufficient or higher and expatriates who value the contact as insufficient. Therefore, we have performed $t$-tests for all adjustment and performance variables with the factor quality of contact with host (sufficient, insufficient). The results presented in Table 3 show that quality of contact with the host has an impact on satisfaction with life ($t (28) = –2.20, p < .05$), psychological health ($t (28) = –2.14, p < .05$), and physical health ($t (28) = –1.97, p < .05$; one-sided testing) (see Table 3). A sufficiently or highly valued contact leads to significantly more positive changes on these variables than an insufficient contact.

These findings indicate a possible moderating effect of the quality of the contact during the first five months when examining the effect of a host on the success of an international assignment. However, these results should be treated with caution in view of the small numbers in both groups.

**Discussion**

There was only an effect of a local host on interaction adjustment, one of the three aspects of adjustment of the

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dependent Variable</th>
<th>Five Months</th>
<th>$N$</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Satisfaction with life</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td>$p &lt; .05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychological health</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0.22</td>
<td>0.35</td>
<td>$p &lt; .05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.09</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical health</td>
<td>Sufficient</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>-0.20</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>$p &lt; .05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Insufficient</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>-0.64</td>
<td>0.56</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**Figure 2** The Effect of Contact With a Host on Interaction Adjustment, 1 (Lowest) to 5 (Highest)

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view of the direction of the predictions, differences were tested one-sidedly.

The only variable that shows a significant effect of having a Dutch host is interaction adjustment ($F(1, 57) = 3.06, p < .05$). The group with a host has a higher increase on interaction adjustment in the first five months of the contact than the group without a host (Figure 2). The assignment of a local host does not appear to have any significant effects on the other adjustment and performance variables.

**Quality of Contact**

For exploratory reasons, we also asked about the quality of the contact with the host; this was done not only because it is important to examine whether the intervention of putting expatriates in touch with a host has worked in itself, but also because the quality of the contact could affect the benefit that is derived from being in touch with a local host. After five months, 70% of the expatriates rated the contact with the host as sufficient (6 or higher); 59% scored the contact even as good or very good (8 or higher). It can therefore be concluded that more than two-thirds of the interventions with a host were successful according to the participants themselves. The following quote of a Canadian expatriate can serve as illustration:

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These findings indicate a possible moderating effect of the quality of the contact during the first five months when examining the effect of a host on the success of an international assignment. However, these results should be treated with caution in view of the small numbers in both groups.
Black model (Black, 1988). The host probably provides the expatriate with opportunities to come into contact with the local community and, as a result, to learn the Dutch cultural norms and behaviors. This leads to better adjustment when interacting with people from the host country. The results also indicate that the quality of the contact with the host could be important as well. The rating of the contact (sufficient or not) was linked to satisfaction with life, psychological health, and physical health, indicating that high-quality contact with a host can provide more benefits than when the contact has been less appreciated.

**Theoretical Implications**

Social support is, in many ways, crucial for the success of an international assignment. It is “one of the primary strategies for coping with the stress of an overseas assignment” (Fontaine, 1986, p. 362). The social networks that can give social support are not always readily available in the host country; they can be left behind in the home country, or, as in the case of an accompanying partner and children, they can also experience stress related to their adjustment to the new country. For these reasons, Fontaine (1996) suggests including social support as a topic in intercultural training. Our study shows that it is possible to increase the amount of social support an expatriate and his/her partner receives on their assignment by putting them in touch with a host. Although personal relationships are inherently difficult to direct, friendships can be developed in this way, as exemplified by the following quote of an American participant:

> I think for us it worked because we became friends very quickly; we have a lot in common; we enjoy each other’s company a lot and did quite a few things together very early on. In the first few weeks, we met up about twice a week.

**Practical Implications**

The results of this research suggest that it is important to consider the goal and context of the international assignment when designing expatriate support programs. Including an intervention such as putting the expatriate in touch with a host is especially important for those expatriates for whom contact with host-national colleagues and customers is an integral part of their job. They could benefit from the social contact with the host to learn better how to deal with the host nationals they encounter in their day-to-day jobs. It should be noted, however, that the present research focused on interactions between “Western” expatriates and hosts. Future research is needed to determine whether such an intervention could be beneficial as well—or perhaps even more beneficial—for expatriates crossing larger cultural gaps.

Even though our study did not indicate a direct influence of host contact on job performance, contacts with the local community could have other beneficial effects for the company as well. Au and Fukuda’s (2002) research on boundary-spanning activities—the amount of cross-boundary information that managers exchange (Au & Fukuda, 2002, p. 286)—suggests that contacts with locals in general can be profitable, not only for the expatriate but also for the multinational corporation. As boundary-spanning activity is facilitated by an increased diversity of the social network, contact with a host provides extra access to local knowledge. This can be adapted to the global corporate context to benefit the multinational corporation (Hocking, Brown, & Harzing, 2007).

**Limitations and Future Research**

As this research project uses self-report questionnaires, the adjustment and performance variables are subject to common method bias. For this reason, we included several measures of adjustment and performance in the current study. Although the expatriates were randomly assigned to both conditions, and informed of this fact only after they had filled out the first questionnaire, the experimental group (with a host) had a significantly higher score at the baseline level on four of the nine adjustment and performance variables (physical health, psychological health, general adjustment, and work adjustment). This could have led to a possible ceiling effect. In addition, due to the method of soliciting participants, the sample in our longitudinal research might not be representative for the “Western” French- or English-speaking expatriate population in the Netherlands. It is, for example, likely that those expatriates who were interested in connecting with their local community would have signed up more easily for our project than those who were less interested. It could therefore be that these people would also have managed by themselves because they would have made contact with the Dutch in other ways. This might make it more difficult to discern the effect of a host for this particular group than it would be for other expatriates. It is possible that contact with a host is especially beneficial for those expatriates who find it more difficult to make contact with others and who would not readily sign up for such a project. This calls for further research.

The present study offers some indication that the quality of the contact with the host is an important element for...
In addition, it is also possible that the effect of the host will only be seen in the longer term. At the start of the research project, one has to get in touch through e-mail and make the first appointment. Then it takes a while to get acquainted and to establish a frequent contact. Five months may not be enough for a clear effect to show.

**Conclusion**

In summary, companies could offer their expatriates support by bringing them in contact with a local host. This seems to be especially worthwhile for those dealing with host nationals on a daily basis. The expatriates themselves express positive reactions about the contact in the open-ended questions in the questionnaires. These comments range from making daily situations easier to helping to meet Dutch people socially outside the workplace. Future research should determine when and how putting expatriates in touch with a host can optimally contribute to the success of the international assignment.

An additional avenue of research could be to investigate which aspects of the quality of contact play a part in adjustment. It is possible that a local host would contribute much more to the assignment when they qualify as a strong tie (Adelman, 1988) and have met frequently. Other aspects could be influential as well—for example, the type of contact (instrumental vs. emotional support) or the fit between the expatriate and the host, not only in terms of place of residence, age, and family situation, but also in terms of personality. Also, in this research, the hosts were not trained. Although the first author kept in touch with the hosts to monitor the contact from a distance, one could imagine that a closer monitoring and assistance when the contact is encountering obstacles could further enhance the effectiveness of having a host.

In the present study, the partner has not been taken into account. It might also be that the effect of having a host is more substantial for partners than for the one employed because they often struggle to deal with not having a meaningful job (Punnett, 1997, p. 245) and frequently have a lot of time on their hands.

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