

PERSONALITY AS PREDICTOR OF ADJUSTMENT
IN MILITARY SOJOURNERS

Schahresad Forman

A Thesis

Submitted to the

Graduate Faculty of Auburn University at Montgomery

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the

Degree of

Master of Science

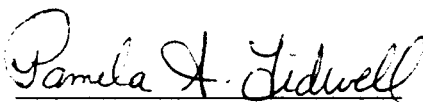
Montgomery, Alabama

May 15, 1999

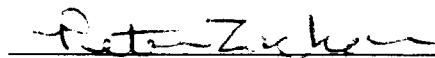
PERSONALITY AS PREDICTOR OF ADJUSTMENT
IN MILITARY SOJOURNERS

Schahresad Forman


Certificate of Approval:




Pamela S. Tidwell, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor
Psychology



Peter Zachar, Ph.D.
Chairperson
Assistant Professor
Psychology



Sheila Mehta, Ph.D.
Associate Professor
Psychology



Roger Ritvo, Ph.D., Vice Chancellor
for Academic and Student Affairs

PERSONALITY AS PREDICTOR OF ADJUSTMENT
IN MILITARY SOJOURNERS

Schahresad Forman

Permission is granted to Auburn University at Montgomery to make copies of this thesis at its discretion, upon the request of individuals or institutions and at their expense. The author reserves all publication rights.

Signature of Author

Date

Copy sent to:

Name

Date

VITA

Schahresad (Sherry) Forman, daughter of Dr. Jacob and Kani Forman, was born May 22, 1956, in Frankfurt a/m, Germany. She graduated from Matawan Regional High School, Matawan, New Jersey, with a Community Scholar Award in 1974. She attended DeKalb Community College in Decatur, Georgia for one year, where she was awarded membership to Phi Theta Kappa Honor society. She then entered Georgia State University in September, 1975, and graduated **cum laude** with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Psychology in June, 1978. She also completed a Master Business Administration degree in Management at Georgia State University in June 1981, at which time she was commissioned a second Lieutenant in the U.S. Air Force. After serving in the Air Force for eight years as a space launch and base-level contracts officer and four years as the Executive Officer of the International Officer School at Maxwell Air Force Base, Alabama, she entered Graduate School, Auburn University at Montgomery, in September, 1995. She is currently a doctoral student in Applied Psychology at the University of Georgia in Athens.

THESIS ABSTRACT
PERSONALITY AS PREDICTOR OF ADJUSTMENT
IN MILITARY SOJOURNERS

Schahresad Forman

Master of Science, December, 1998
(M.B.A., Georgia State University, 1981)
(B.A., Georgia State University, 1978)

67 Typed Pages

Directed by Dr. Peter Zachar

This correlational study investigated the relationship between personality as measured by the NEO PI-R Personality Inventory and adjustment to life in the United States as measured by the Inventory of Student Adjustment Strain (ISAS), for international military officers participating in a one year professional military education training program in the US. It specifically pits the U-Curve Model of Adjustment against the Business Sojourner/Social Support Models.

The U-Curve Model states that adjustment levels should be high when a sojourner is first exposed to a new culture, but decrease as they become more alienated, beginning to bottom out at the six month point. After a sojourner reaches the bottom of the U, adjustment levels should begin to increase. This is a personality based or “trait” model. The Business Sojourner Model or “state” model claims that adjustment is basically a function of social support. It predicts that international military sojourners, since their

level of support is high throughout the entire course of their stay, should be well adjusted during their time in the US.

Using a longitudinal design, the adjustment measure (ISAS) and the NEO PI-R were administered to the officers three months after their arrival in the United States. The adjustment measure was re-administered a second time approximately seven months after their arrival. A dependent t test was performed comparing results of the two administrations of the adjustment measure and was found significant, but in the opposite direction of what was predicted by the U-Curve Model. Rather than being lowest at Time Two, adjustment was lowest at Time One. The fact that the U-Curve Model of Adjustment is not generalizable to international military sojourners on assignment in the US, supports the Business Sojourner/Social Support Models.

Multiple regression analysis failed to support the hypotheses that personality style would be related to adjustment. Zero-order correlations, however, provided some support for this hypothesis.

A significant contribution of this study to the cross-culture literature is the use of an instrument designed to measure a universal representation of trait structure: the five-factor model of personality. Another fairly significant contribution of this study is the use of international military officers as participants. No studies were found in the literature using international officers on assignment in the US, as participants.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author would like to thank Dr. Allen Hess for his guidance during the initial stage of problem formulation. An especially big thanks is due my director, Dr. Peter Zachar, for making this thesis a reality and standing patiently by to the end, as well as to my committee members Dr. Pamela Tidwell and Dr. Sheila Mehta for their support and patience throughout this project. I would also like to thank Ms. Jamie Mills for her assistance with statistical analyses, and Ms. Dora Ervin for assistance with word processing. Thanks are also due to family members Kani Forman and Robert Love for their support during the course of this study.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
Introduction	1
Literature Review	6
Statement of the Problem	22
Method	26
Results	31
Discussion	35
References	45
Appendix A	54
Appendix B	55
Appendix C	56
Appendix D	64

Personality as Predictor of Adjustment

in Military Sojourners

Introduction

Cross-cultural contact over the centuries has accounted for advances across the human spectrum. Such contact has resulted in transferring scientific and technological developments to different continents, as well as exchanges in art, literature, music, and political thought (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Hannigan, 1990; Triandis, 1967).

Cross-culture contacts, however, are not problem-free. Adjusting to the people and customs of cultures can be stressful. Shortly after World War II, when multinational corporations and government agencies began sending their personnel overseas, they found that operations were being hampered by staff who were not able to adjust to their new environments (Anderson, 1991; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Hannigan, 1990; Triandis, 1967; Ying, 1996). Many organizations such as the Peace Corps and international student exchange programs send individuals overseas as well, resulting in a multitude of adjustment problems, and in many cases, high failure rates.

In the late 20th century, corporations and governments are increasing the rate at which they send their personnel to foreign countries. The individuals involved are expected not only to cope with the demands of their profession, but to live and work in a

new cultural environment. If industry and government officials can be more certain about the ability of their personnel to adjust successfully to life in the new country, they can also have more assurance that those individuals will be productive. This is important because the ultimate outcome for the corporation or government agency is increased productivity and decreased costs.

Both business and government, therefore, have a large stake in determining the factors that contribute to the successful adjustment of their personnel to unfamiliar cultures. For this reason, there have been numerous studies concerning the intercultural movement of business persons (Anderson, 1991; Boker, 1981; Boxer, 1969; Brislin, 1979; Fayerweather, 1959; Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Guthrie, 1966; Seidel, 1981; Skinner, 1968; Triandis, 1967; Ward & Kennedy, 1993). Based on their research, Furnham and Bochner (1986) have developed a theoretical model to explain the special circumstances involved in the intercultural adjustment of business professionals. The model attempts to explain why their cross-cultural experiences are different from that of students, refugees, and Peace Corp volunteers.

Due to the high level of support provided by United States military units hosting internationals, the situation of international officers on temporary assignments here in the United States is closely related to the business professional (Wright-Patterson, 1990). Each year the United States Department of State provides training programs for several thousand international officers (IOs) from over 120 countries worldwide. These international officers are sponsored by the State Department's Security Assistance

Training Program, which attempts to support the independent political development of allied nations; promote international stability; encourage economic development and reform; and promote the interoperability of United States and allied forces to strengthen the United States's collective security framework (Wright-Patterson, 1990). Studies concerned with international officers' intercultural adjustment, however, are missing from the literature.

It is particularly important that a program such as this, which involves over 50 million dollars per year in government funds, achieve its stated goals. According to Security Assistance Program policy, one way these goals are accomplished is by increasing goodwill, one IO at a time. In an attempt to increase goodwill, the program provides international officers who come to the United States not only with the training required, but also with professional, financial and social support. This helps assure that they obtain the maximum benefit from their encounter with the United States, its military and its people.

Any information provided to the government that may enhance its ability to achieve the goals of this program is potentially valuable. The three contributions of this study are:

1. An improvement on cross-culture research that has sought to identify which personality traits are related to intercultural adjustment. The study improves past research by using an instrument designed to measure a universal representation of trait structure; the five-factor model of personality.

In a recent study by McCrae and Costa (1997), data from studies using 6 translations of the Revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R) were compared with the American factor structure. German, Portuguese, Hebrew, Chinese, Korean, and Japanese samples (N=7134) showed similar structures after varimax rotation of 5 factors. The samples represented highly diverse cultures with languages from 5 distinct language families. These latest data strongly suggest that the five factor personality trait structure is universal. Most personality measures used in previous cross-culture research have not been verified as universal measures of personality across cultures and are based on Western culture-bound models of personality (Amelang & Borkenau, 1982; Bond, Nakazata & Shiraishi, 1975; Cheung, Conger, Hau, Lew & Lau, 1992; Church & Katigbak, 1989; McCrae, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1995, 1997; Paunonen, Trzebinski & Fosterling, 1992).

2. A determination of whether personality variables predict the intercultural adjustment of IOs, even when the Business Sojourner Model variables found to be positively related to adjustment, are operative.

3. To see if the U-curve model of intercultural adjustment applies to military sojourners by administering an adjustment measure both at the two month point and shortly after the critical six month point, which according to Lysgaard (1955) is the beginning of the "bottoming-out" period, where adjustment begins to reach its lowest point. The U-curve model states that adjustment is at its highest point when entering a new culture, and slowly decreases until it begins to bottom-out at around six months.

According to the U-curve, therefore, adjustment at the two month point is expected to be relatively high. It should begin to be lower at the six month point, until around the eighteen month point (Lysgaard, 1955).

Literature Review

Beginning in the 1950s, with an increase in commercial travel across national boundaries, psychologists, sociologists, and anthropologists began to facilitate the study of cross-culture contact through the development of theoretical models that attempted to guide research on the issue. They also attempt to explain these research findings in a systematic, integrated way. These early models took the following views: (a) cross-culture interaction is a stressful and noxious experience, requiring intervention to counteract its ill effects; and (b) certain individuals are more likely to be successful because of certain personality factors (Coelho, 1958; Deutsch & Won, 1963; DuBois, 1956; Gullahorn & Gullahorn, 1963; Jacobson, 1963; Lysgaard, 1955; Morris & Davidsen, 1954; Oberg, 1960; Selltitz & Cook, 1962; Sewell, Morris & Davidsen, 1954; Smalley, 1963).

Culture Shock Model/ U-Curve Theory of Adjustment

Probably the most popular clinically oriented concept of interculture contact was the idea of "culture shock." Oberg and Foster (1960) introduced this concept to the literature in the late 1950s and early 1960s. In the ensuing years many scholars widely used and misused this term to explain the difficulties of the cross-culture experience. In a brief article, Oberg (1960) summarized the following six aspects of culture shock:

1. Strain due to the effort required to make the necessary psychological adaptations.

2. A sense of loss and feelings of deprivation with regard to friends, status, profession, and possessions.
3. Being rejected by/and or rejecting members of the new culture.
4. Confusion in role, role expectations, values, feelings and self- identity.
5. Surprise, anxiety, even disgust and indignation after becoming aware of cultural differences.
6. Feelings of impotence due to not being able to cope with the new environment. (p. 48)

"With culture shock as its pivot point" (Anderson, 1994, p. 293), the U-curve theory of adjustment states that recovery from "the shock" is the mechanism for accommodation to life in strange new lands.

Lysgaard's (1955) U-curve model states that cross-culture sojourners experience three main phases during their attempt to adjust to new cultures: (a) an initial stage of elation and optimism, (b) a period of frustration, depression and confusion (the culture shock period described by Oberg); and (c) a period of gradual improvement that leads to feelings of confidence and satisfaction with the new society. In Lysgaard's original study on the U-curve using over 200 Norwegian Fulbright scholars in the United States, his results implied that the full period of adjustment took about twenty months, with some point between six and eighteen months being the bottom of the U (Lysgaard, 1955).

In reviewing the U-curve literature, Church (1982) found seven studies that show evidence for the hypothesis and seven that did not. Based on this, Church concluded that support for the U-curve hypothesis is weak, inconclusive and overgeneralized. One

example of lack of support for the theory is that all sojourners start off in the phase of supposed adjustment, elation and optimism; however, some are unhappy, depressed and anxious from the beginning (or even before they begin their travels). Furthermore, some never become depressed or anxious, but rather enjoy the experience from the beginning to the end. Also, Church observed that U-curves can take dramatically different shapes- some relatively flat, others tall and fairly irregular.

Social Skills/Support Model- The State Approach

Beginning in the 1970s the cross-culture experience began to be viewed as a learning experience, and instead of emphasizing therapy, the importance of learning new culture skills was stressed in order to facilitate positive encounters. The importance of social support systems also began to be recognized as an important factor in cross-cultural adjustment (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Hannigan, 1990). Bochner introduced the idea of "culture learning" to the literature during the late 1970s and early 1980s. It emphasized the idea that successful adjustment to a new culture involves possessing new social skills (Bochner, Buker, & McLeod 1976; Bochner & Orr, 1979). The importance of individual personality factors was discounted. According to Furnham and Bochner (1986), the underlying assumption of the social skills/support model was that given the proper skills and social support to negotiate in a new culture, there would be no adjustment difficulties. They indicate that the acquisition of social skills appropriate to a new culture is facilitated by contacts with host nationals who act as "culture friends" and informal culture trainers.

The large majority of studies that supported Bochner's above conclusions utilized foreign university students as participants. One particularly important study was done by Klineberg and Hull (1979) using 2536 foreign students from 139 nations, studying in eleven countries, as participants. The questionnaire used was designed to ensure its relevance in all the nations and to establish its conceptual equivalence across various cultural settings. The design permitted "an explicit test of the importance of friendly social contact with host members and of whether adjustment follows a U-curve- both major theoretical issues in the field" (Furnham & Bochner, p. 124). In this study, no support was found for the U-curve hypothesis of adjustment, and the two most important factors implicated in the coping process of students at foreign universities were found to be contact with local people and prior foreign experience. These findings are compatible with the culture-learning/social skills interpretation of the coping process.

Furnham and Alibhai (1985) replicated and extended some of the earlier studies done by Bochner and coworkers by using 140 students from 35 different countries, roughly categorized into nine groups: Asian, African, Oriental, European, Middle Eastern, North American, South American, West Indian, and British. This study also confirmed the hypothesis that students who have limited contact with host nationals have a higher rate of dissatisfaction than those with bonds in the local culture.

This finding was further supported in a more recent study in which Ying (1996) examined the immigration satisfaction of a group of 95 Chinese living in San Francisco. He found that immigrants who had no American friends were less satisfied than those who

had both Chinese and non-Chinese close friends (bicultural), and enjoyed both American and Chinese-oriented activities. Problems with language, discrimination, and social isolation were negative predictors of immigration satisfaction in this study. Having a stronger American cultural orientation was a positive predictor. Although a cause and effect conclusion cannot be drawn from these studies, these findings show that immigration satisfaction was positively predicted by a bicultural life-style, which includes having American friends. These findings are in line with Furnham and Bochner's (1986) social skills/support model, as well as more recent models which take individual differences into consideration (Hannigan, 1990).

Furnham and Bochner's Business Sojourner Model. A sojourn is a temporary stay at a new place. By definition, the business traveler is a sojourner. Sojourners can spend anywhere from a few months to several years in countries other than their own, normally on a voluntary basis and for a specific and limited purpose (Berry & Kim, 1988). Studies have shown that although business people who travel cross-nationally do experience various amounts of distress and adjustment problems, they seem to have less difficulty than university students and other sojourners (Furnham & Bochner, 1986).

To better understand factors influencing the sojourner experience, Furnham and Bochner consulted the scientific literature as far back as Fayerweather, 1959. They found that the experience of business travelers is similar to that of tourists; relatively stress-free in comparison with students, migrants, and Peace Corps volunteers. Their sojourn is relatively brief, they are posted abroad for a set, finite period, and they are given a specific

task to do. Sheltered from mundane concerns encountered by students and migrants such as transportation and housing, the business traveler experiences less stress associated with those "housekeeping" problems (Furnham & Bochner, 1982; Kuo, 1976). Additionally, most corporate travelers have local counterparts who function as mediating persons and "culture friends." This has also been shown to facilitate intercultural adjustment (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Hannigan, 1990; Richardson, 1974; Selltiz & Cook, 1962). Business travelers normally interact with their host colleagues on an equal footing, increasing the possibility that the contacts can lead to an "improved mutual understanding and better intercultural relations" (Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 158).

Finally, the overseas assignment is usually financially rewarding, providing opportunities for promotions and career development, "considerations which may be regarded as compensation for the cultural inconveniences of the sojourn, and hence make it more acceptable" (Furnham & Bochner, 1986, p. 158). Supporting this view is a study by Stokols and Shumaker (1982), who tested a group of over 200 people at two different periods of time and found that while moves to lower socioeconomic levels promote stress and illness, moves to higher levels do not. For instance, individuals whose socioeconomic mobility is blocked and who remain in low-quality residential situations have increased rates of illness. The data suggest that the consequences of moving depend on how well the new location compares with one's previous environment in meeting important needs.

Additionally, a large empirical study by Torbiorn (1982) included over 1000 Swedish businessmen and businesswomen in 26 host countries found that better educated individuals and those who spent most of their free time with host nationals showed higher levels of adjustment to life in their new cultures.

As a result of their research and review of the literature, Furnham and Bochner (1986) proposed the following model to explain the superior adjustment of the business sojourner:

1. Business people view their move as temporary and not requiring much adaptation and change on their part.
2. Business people posted abroad do not have to worry about transportation, accommodations, and other housekeeping problems; their problems are confined to work.
3. Business people have strong sponsorship, and many are given financial incentives for working abroad, and in many cases their lifestyle abroad is an improvement over what they left behind. The sponsorship is not only financial but also includes social and political benefits that increase rather than decrease social standing, political power, and influence in the new society.
4. A tour abroad often increases the chance for advancement on return. Travel is for the purposes of promotion, therefore, is seen as a small price to pay for increased pay later.
5. Business people are usually older than students and more mature, therefore, they cope more successfully with intercultural moves.
6. Businesses often provide a social support network that insulates the foreigner from the initial difficulties of the move.
7. Business peoples' work acts to insulate them from the stresses of moving to a new culture, unlike the unemployed.
8. The social relationships both inside and outside the work place are probably more likely to be on an equal footing for business people than for students.

Such equal-status peer group interaction probably goes some way in accounting for the relatively better adjustment of business people compared to students, whose social relationships are more often asymmetrical with respect to status. (p. 155)

The Business Sojourner Model and the IO in the United States By definition, the IO qualifies as a sojourner. The average profile of the IO is a successful, military career man, whose primary purpose for coming to the United States is to further his career in his home country. He spends anywhere from a few weeks to several years in the United States. He is proficient in the English language upon arrival to this country (as per tests administered both in the United States and in his home country), is a leader in his country's military, and is a potential leader in his country's government, no matter where on the globe he comes from (Wright-Patterson, 1990).

According to the Defense Institute of Security Assistance Management Training Manual (Wright-Patterson, 1990), in addition to possessing leadership potential, the types of IOs selected to attend military schools in the United States must have the following qualifications:

1. Retainability- professional career personnel likely to remain in their country's armed forces for an extended period of time, or be placed in a high level government position after retirement from the military.
2. Utility- personnel who will be employed in the skill for which trained for a sufficient period of time to warrant the training expense.
3. Language- IOs must be proficient in the English language and meet all course prerequisites.

As mentioned earlier, the IOs are sponsored through the State Department's Security Assistance Training Program. Former Secretary of Defense, Frank C. Carlucci, summarized this program by calling it a "fundamental component of United States defense and foreign policy" (Wright-Patterson, 1990, p. 1-1). According to recent policy established by the State Department, Security Assistance attempts to play a significant role in preserving security through the collective efforts of the United States and its military allies not only through military exchange programs, but also by providing training to the top career officers of allied nations. The demographics of the average IO sent to the United States by the Security Assistance Program is similar to Furnham and Bochner's 8-point business sojourner model:

1. IOs view their move as temporary;
2. IOs have assistance with housekeeping problems from the local base;
3. IOs have strong financial and social sponsorship- many of them bring their families;
4. Their tour in the United States increases their career benefits upon return home;
5. IOs are older than students and more mature;
6. The local base provides a social support network that insulates the IO from initial difficulties of an intercultural move;
7. IOs' work insulates them from the stresses of moving to a new culture;
8. Social relationships are on more of an equal footing for IOs than for students, whose relationships are more asymmetrical (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Wright-Patterson, 1990).

Concerning social support provided to the IOs, most military units which have international officers assign them to classes alongside their United States counterparts. These counterparts provide personal attention to their international guests and act as sponsors to the officers and their families (approximately 70% bring their families). In most units, each IO is also assigned a sponsor from the local community. Single IOs are provided with on base housing. The Security Assistance Program also provides IOs with a salary commensurate with their rank if they come from countries that cannot afford to fund their training (Wright-Patterson, 1990). The IOs, therefore, are a group of sojourners who, according to the cross-culture literature as well as Furnham and Bochner's 8-point model of business sojourners, should have minimal difficulty adjusting to life in the United States (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Hannigan, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1994).

Personality in Interculture Contact- The Trait Approach

The within-skin model of behavior has been the most influential in psychology stimulating eight decades of research into personality and its structure (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). Freud (1923), Allport (1954), Cattell (1951) and Eysenck (1967, 1991) are only a few of the well known scholars who approach the field from this point of view. What vocational psychologists call the trait-factor approach has guided selection practices for a multitude of occupations, operating under the assumption that psychology can assist by matching the right personality to the task at hand. Although face validity is high when using personality tests to match the person with the task, research has shown that traits are

not always good predictors of actual performance in the field especially when other factors are ignored (Mischel, 1984).

The between-skin approach, which states that behavior results from an interaction between the person and the situation, was largely ignored in the earlier literature because cross-culture researchers were traditionally more oriented toward personality than toward social psychology. One exception is Furnham and Bochner's intercultural adjustment approach of the 1980s mentioned above, which minimizes the importance of personality traits in the determination of behavior and, in some extreme cases, does away with the importance of traits altogether.

To completely discount the importance of traits, however, is to ignore the fact that human beings do differ from each other on many levels, and those differences can account for differences in cross-culture relations, as well as a myriad of other factors. As Gordon Allport put it, "A trait has more than nominal existence... it is dynamic or at least determinative in behavior" (Allport, 1966, p. 1). There have been numerous studies that have attempted to discover the particular traits associated with positive intercultural adjustment. Smith (1966) and Torbiorn (1982), have found variables such as "persistence with flexibility", "self-confident maturity", self-confidence, high self-esteem, energy, principled responsibility and optimistic realism as positively related to intercultural adjustment. These traits have been poorly defined, however, and found not to be uniformly applicable across cultures or studies (Furnham & Bochner, 1986).

One group that has been particularly interested in personality traits associated with intercultural success is the Peace Corps. The Peace Corps has been involved in the assessment, selection, and placement of volunteers since the 1960s (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Harris, 1973). Smith (1966) cited "persistence with flexibility" as the ideal personality trait for the successful Peace Corps volunteer. Torbiorn (1982) referred to the ideal Peace Corps volunteer as a "kind of flexible superman." By this he means a person who is able to adapt to a new environment, remain open, have respect for other people's opinions and ideas, and who is strong enough to withstand the stresses of moving to a foreign culture.

According to Berry, Kim, Minde, and Mok (1987), stress is considered to be a "generalized physiological and psychological state of the organism brought about by the experience of stressors in the environment which must be reduced for normal functioning to occur, through a process of coping, until some satisfactory adaptation to the new situation is achieved" (p. 492). They found that factors such as education, attitude toward the new experience, prior intercultural experiences, and relationships with the new cultural group all facilitate the coping process, thereby reducing stress.

Harris (1973) conducted a study of Peace Corps volunteers in the South Pacific Kingdom of Tonga, in which performance and adaptation criteria were analyzed. He found that the factors that predicted attrition of volunteers included (a) negative attitudes of the host country government toward the Peace Corps as a resident-guest organization, and (b) negative living conditions, and/or inadequacies of the Peace Corps program within

the country. This study also revealed that deep-lying personal qualities, described as traits of character, constituted the single most important category of variables which distinguished successful volunteers from early terminees in the field. These qualities consist of traits such as inner strengths, self-reliance, patience, perseverance, initiative, industry and reliability. General technical competence, cultural interaction and interpersonal relations were also found to be important factors to success in the Peace Corps.

Torbiorn (1982) found certain personality traits to have negative correlations with cross-cultural effectiveness, including perfectionism, rigidity, and dogmatism. Lunstedt (1963) and Rokeach (1960) both cite rigid ethnocentrism as a limiting factor in intercultural coping. Dependent anxiety and self-centered role behaviors are also inversely related to effectiveness in an overseas setting (Ruben & Kealey, 1979). Although Mischel (1968) has persuasively argued the situation is more predictive of behavior than are traits, the importance of traits pervades all of psychology from Allport (1954) to Zuckerman (1981).

The Big Five. Eysenck (1986) undertook a quest to find features of human personality that appear to be common across all populations, and found universal personality dimensions across 24 cultures. Discovering general traits is necessary in order to facilitate effective cross-culture research because "many of the assumptions about personality in psychology are considered to be Western cultural products- a Western "folk" psychology" (Kagitcibasi & Berry, 1989, p. 503). Most personality measures used

in previous cross-culture research have not been based on models which have been verified across cultures, but rather were based on culture-bound models of personality, typically a Western model. Using a model developed in the West and applying it to non-Western cultures has been called the etic approach. The opposite approach is the emic approach, or the intensive study of psychological phenomena as they appear within a specific culture. Although the emic approach has long been favored in anthropology, the search for a valid etic model that incorporates universal human factors has continued.

Eysenck, as well as other trait theorists, have discovered the same basic dimensions of personality in their studies of both Western and non-Western cultures. These studies have led to the development of the five-factor model, the idea that all human personalities can be described in terms of five fundamental dimensions. Both quantitative and qualitative approaches resulted in evidence that strongly supports this model (Narayanan, Menon & Levine, 1995). Although there are some differences in terminology between researchers, the dimensions are considered to be Neuroticism, Extroversion, Openness to Experience, Conscientiousness and Agreeableness. When Amelang and Borkenau (1982) used the Cattell, Guilford, and Eysenck Inventories in a sample of German subjects, factoring of the scales led to a five-factor solution. In 1992, Paunonen, Jackson, Trzebinski, and Fosterling assessed personality structure in Canada, Finland, Poland, and Germany by using a verbal and nonverbal measure of personality and found support for the five-factor model regardless of whether the measure was verbal or nonverbal.

Noller, Law, and Comrey (1987) tested the robustness of the five-factor model on a sample of Australian undergraduates and found a grouping of factors that were very similar to the Big Five. Results have been similar in studies done in Eastern cultures. Bond, Nakazato, and Shiraishi (1975) used Norman's (1963) 20 scales. These were translated into Japanese and administered to Japanese students. When the scales were factored, the resulting structures were very similar to the five-factor model. In 1995, Narayanon, Menon, and Levine found evidence of the five-factor model in a study on university students in India, offering further proof of the validity of the five-factor model across cultures. As noted above, a surprising degree of replicability of the Big Five structure was indicated across many languages and cultures (Pervin, 1994).

According to McCrae and Costa (1997), a consensus among psychologists has now been reached that the best representation of trait structure is provided by the five-factor model. This model of personality is an etic model with a high degree of generalizability across cultures and is, therefore the model used in this study to base the decision of which personality traits correlate positively with intercultural adjustment. The primary advantage to this personality model is that it potentially represents "real" or genetically-loaded traits (McCrae & Costa, 1997) that should apply across most cultures of the world.

The most popular operationalization of the five-factor model is the NEO Personality Inventory-Revised (NEO PI-R), which has high cross-cultural validity (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Digman, 1990; McCrae & Costa, 1987; McCrae & Costa, 1997). As

Triandis (1980) noted, "Since establishing cultural differences is extremely difficult, it may well be good strategy for the present generation of cross-cultural psychologists to give top priority to the establishment of the generality of psychological laws" (p. 9). McCrae and Costa (1997) further state that the "general laws of personality structure suggest the range of traits that should be investigated- traits in the Five Factor Model (FFM) - and encourage the use of imported or etic questionnaires as one component in cross-cultural research" (p. 515).

Statement of the Problem

This study will attempt to determine if specific personality traits (predictors) as measured by the NEO PI-R facilitate, inhibit, or have no significant effect on the intercultural adjustment (criterion) of IOs, in situations in which the Business Sojourner model predicts that they will have minimal adjustment difficulties. There are several possible outcomes, depending on whether personality traits do indeed have an effect on intercultural adjustment or not.

The trait approach to understanding adjustment to life in new cultures supports the position that personality traits are important to the successful adjustment of a sojourner to life in a new culture. The Business Sojourner model takes a state approach to understanding adjustment, discounting the importance of personality traits and emphasizing the importance of demographic, social support, and social skills variables.

In order to examine these possibilities, both personality and adjustment will be measured approximately three months after the IOs' arrival in the United States, along with certain demographic variables. If personality does indeed predict intercultural adjustment in this population, the data analysis will reveal a statistically significant relationship between the personality variables and adjustment.

The U-Curve model will also be examined in this study. This model discounts the importance of both state and trait variables and predicts that adjustment for all sojourners

will be high upon entry into a new culture, but decrease steadily until it begins to reach its lowest levels at around the six month point. If the U-Curve model is applicable to this population, adjustment should be fairly high at the three month point, and significantly lower at the seven month point. This is, therefore, an appropriate point at which to re-administer the adjustment measure since Lysgaard (1955) implied in his Norwegian Fulbright scholar study, that the bottom of the U actually occurs at some point between six and eighteen months.

The adjustment measure will be administered at the three month point and re-administered after the IOs have been here approximately seven months when according to the U-Curve model, adjustment should be considerably lower. If results of the t test show that adjustment levels at the seven month point are significantly lower, the U-Curve model will be supported in this particular population. Although Lysgaard (1955) stated that the bottom of the U curve may be reached at any time between six and eighteen months, it was not possible to administer the adjustment measure past the seven month point due to the limitations of the study.

If this study finds that personality is related to the adjustment of the IOs, the trait approach to explaining intercultural adjustment will be supported. If, however, personality is found to be unrelated to adjustment, then the Business Sojourner Model or state approach will be supported. If personality is more associated with adjustment problems at seven months than at three months, a version of the U-Curve theory will be supported.

If personality is found to be related to adjustment in this population, I expected the factors to be related in the following ways: Neuroticism, which represents the individual's tendency to experience distress, anxiety or depression, will correlate negatively with intercultural adjustment. The literature has shown that the personality traits negatively correlated with intercultural adjustment are rigidity, perfectionism, and dogmatism. These are related to the neurotic traits that comprise the Neuroticism factor (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Lundstedt, 1963; Rokeach, 1960; Ruben & Kealey, 1979; Torbiorn, 1982).

Extroversion underlies a broad group of traits, which include sociability, activity, and the tendency to experience positive emotions (Costa & McCrae, 1992). These are all traits that should correlate positively with the acquisition of "culture friends" and with an overall positive experience in new environments (Furnham & Bochner, 1986). Extroversion, therefore, should correlate positively with intercultural adjustment.

Individuals high on Openness to experience are imaginative, sensitive to art and beauty, and have a rich and complex emotional life; they are intellectually curious, and behaviorally flexible, which are traits cited by Torbiorn (1982) as crucial to success in foreign cultures. They are nondogmatic in their attitudes and values, another important trait in intercultural relations (Torbiorn, 1982). I would expect, therefore, that this variable will be positively correlated with intercultural adjustment.

Agreeableness is primarily a dimension of interpersonal behavior. High Agreeableness individuals are trusting, sympathetic, and cooperative, as opposed to Low-

Agreeableness individuals who are cynical, callous and antagonistic (Costa & McCrae, 1992; 1997). This dimension should also correlate positively with successful intercultural relations.

Possible Outcomes

The following possible outcomes of this study will be examined:

1. Personality predicts adjustment.
2. The U-Curve model generalizes to military sojourners.
3. Personality predicts adjustment and the U-Curve generalizes to military sojourners.

Method

Participants

The participants were international military officers (IOs) who came to a military installation in the United States for professional military education. The particular group of IOs in this study were attending two separate courses for senior officers (captain through general) on a military installation in the United States, which helped prepare them for positions of higher responsibility in their countries. Participants were volunteers from a group of 121 officers representing 59 countries, worldwide. All countries are presently military allies of the United States. Thirty-five IOs or 30% volunteered for the first administration of measures. There was an attrition of 4 IOs between the first and second administration of adjustment measures.

Participants ranged in age from 30-48, with an average age of 40.4. Approximately 91% had a college education or higher, and 75% were from non-western/developing nations. All participants were male and 97% were married. Over 71% were accompanied by their families, and 77% were accompanied by at least one other officer from their country. Over 82% knew at least one American they consider their friend, and 32% have been in the United States at least once before. Sixty-three (63%) had lived outside their countries prior to this assignment, and 46% have lived in the United States before. All IOs had an adequate command of the English language and were required to pass the English Language Comprehension Level or ECL test upon arrival to

the base. They were also required to pass an English Comprehension Level (ECL) test in their own countries prior to selection in the program. This test is administered by the United States military liaison in each country.

Informed consent form. Access for this study was granted by the Commander responsible for the IOs on the military installation involved. The Commander was assured that confidentiality would be maintained, and that individuals' names would absolutely not be associated with their responses. Volunteers were given an informed consent form, emphasizing that although some demographic information would be collected, their responses would be anonymous and kept strictly confidential. All volunteers were asked to identify their forms by a pseudonym which they used when the adjustment measure was administered again for the second time. The form also stated they could withdraw from the study at any time (see Appendix B). Two copies of the informed consent form were distributed to each IO, one for him to sign and return, and one for him to keep for his records.

Procedure

Volunteers were solicited from among the 121 IOs attending training on a military installation in the United States about three months after the beginning of their course by means of a briefing given in their schools by the researcher. Before the study began all volunteers were given an informed consent form. They were also told that approximately four to five months after administration of the first measures, another brief questionnaire concerning their experiences in the United States would be administered.

Before distributing the instruments, detailed instructions were given on how to fill out the SCANTRONS which were used to record the answers. Because the SCANTRONS used can only record a total of 200 answers, two copies were given to each IO. The IOs were told to begin answering the questions on the BLUE SCANTRON and when they have completed the 200th question, to proceed to the RED SCANTRON with question numbers 1 through 103. The two instruments, and the demographic questionnaire were distributed for each IO to take home, complete and return in approximately one week. Instruments were collected by their military instructors and returned to the researcher for statistical analysis.

Instruments

The following instruments were administered to the participants:

Personality. The five factor model of personality was measured by the revised NEO Personality Inventory (NEO PI-R), Form S (Costa & McCrae, 1992) (see Appendix C, Sec. I). The five-factor model was chosen for this study because of its durability across cultures and languages. The NEO PI-R is based on decades of factor analytic research with both clinical and normal adult populations. The five domains measure an individual's emotional (Neuroticism), interpersonal (Extroversion), experiential (Openness), attitudinal (Agreeableness), and motivational (Conscientiousness) styles.

On the domain scales, internal consistency coefficients for Form S which is designed for self-reports, range from .86 - .95. The NEO PI-R is validated against other personality inventories as well as projective techniques (Tinsley, 1994). It is self-

administered and contains 240 items and 3 validity items and requires a 6th grade reading level. It takes about 30-40 minutes to complete.

Psychological Adjustment. Psychological adjustment was measured by the Inventory of Student Adjustment Strain (ISAS) (see Appendix C, Sec. II). The ISAS is an English-language scale designed to tap the problems or strains with which international students must contend in their day to day lives in a foreign culture (Crano & Crano, 1993). The ISAS assesses normal rather than pathological reactions to life in a new culture. It focuses on day-to-day hassles and issues, instead of the kind of long-term debilitating stresses that would be faced by refugees or exiles.

The ISAS taps respondents' perceptions of the strains that arise from language difficulties, relationships with others outside of one's own culture, academic problems, and issues of homesickness. The original inventory consisted of 60 items, but Crano and Crano retained only those 38 items whose factor loadings satisfied a preset criterion of .40 or greater. The 38 items form six psychologically meaningful subscales as follows:

1. EDUCATION- The 7 items of the EDUCATION factor (coefficient alpha = .69) relate to schooling (e.g. concerns with grades, being unable to concentrate on studies, etc.).
2. HOST- The 5 items of the HOST factor (coefficient alpha = .80) involve the students' relationships with the host family. In this study, references to host will mean host base, sponsor, or host United States officers.
3. ENGLISH- The 6 items of the ENGLISH factor (coefficient alpha = .86) relate to difficulties that are experienced with the English language, difficulties speaking, being able to understand language, etc.
4. PROBLEM- The 5 items of the PROBLEM factor (coefficient alpha = .69) concern global difficulties, including dietary issues, health issues, etc.

5. **SOCIAL**- The 6 items of the SOCIAL factor (coefficient alpha = .73) concern social practices that prove troublesome in a new culture, like dating, relationships between men and women, morals, etc.
6. **PERSONAL**- The 9 items of the PERSONAL factor (coefficient alpha = .80) involve personal experiences that could pose problems, such a homesickness, inability to maintain good relationships, etc.

The items are administered using a 5-point Likert scale whose endpoints range from 1 (very much) to 5 (no). The ISAS total score has demonstrated good internal consistency (coefficient alpha= .88). Average scores ranged from 0 to 112 out of a possible 190. For the current study, ten items were slightly modified to fit the unique circumstances of the IO attending a professional military course on a United States military installation (see Appendix D).

Demographic questionnaire. This study asked participants their age, education level, sex, marital status, whether they were accompanied by their family, how many Americans they met during their stay who they considered their friend, how many times they have been in the United States, and how many times they have traveled outside their country (see Appendix A).

Results

Simple Correlations

The first possible outcome of the study, personality predicts adjustment, was partially supported. At time two, adjustment was negatively correlated with neuroticism and positively correlated with openness to experience. Since the research questions are directional, these two correlations are statistically significant at the .025 level (see Table 1). During the first administration of personality and adjustment measures, complete data were collected from 35 IOs. There was an attrition of 4 participants between the first and second administration of the adjustment measure.

Scores on the adjustment measure for time one ranged from 1.81 to 4.97. The Likert scale used to score this instrument ranged from 1 to 5, with 1 implying a low level of adjustment and the 5 a high level. Scores on the adjustment measure for time two ranged from 3.57 to 4.97, an obvious decrease in range. The mean adjustment score for time one was 4.30. For time two it was 4.58, a slight increase. According to Crano and Crano (1993), an average score of 5.00 would represent a perfectly well adjusted sojourner, an average of 3.00 represents a medium level, and a 1.00 represents a low level of adjustment.

Regression Analysis

A multiple regression analysis for time one and time two, where the NEO PI-R variables were regressed onto the total adjustment scores was also performed, and found

Table 1

Correlation Matrix of the Criterion Variable for and All Predictor Variables in the Study for Time 1 and Time 2

Time 1						
	<u>Adjustment 1</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>C</u>
Adjustment 1	1.00	-.21	-.05	.17	.04	-.04
N		1.00	-.29	-.06	-.53*	-.66*
E			1.00	.49*	.07	.23
O				1.00	.02	-.19
A					1.00	.33
C						1.00

Time 2						
	<u>Adjustment 2</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>E</u>	<u>O</u>	<u>A</u>	<u>C</u>
Adjustment 2	1.00	-.31	.24	.31	.02	.14
N		1.00	-.29	-.06	-.53*	-.66*
E			1.00	.49*	.07	.23
O				1.00	.02	-.19
A					1.00	.33
C						1.00

p = p < .05

to be statistically nonsignificant both times (see Table 2). Personality variables were entered into the regression analysis in the following order; neuroticism, extroversion, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The order of entry was based on a review of the literature on personality and adjustment (see literature review). The F value for the full model was slightly higher for time two than time one. The regression analysis for time two was performed by regressing personality scores received during the time one administration onto the adjustment scores received during the time two administration. The personality measure was only administered once, at time one, because it is assumed that personality is relatively stable over short periods of time. T-tests were run to examine the null hypothesis that each predictor's population regression coefficient is zero. For all predictors, the t-tests were non-significant. The non-significances of the individual predictors is what might be expected with a non-significant multiple correlation.

t-test

The second possible outcome of the study, the U-Curve model generalizes to military sojourners, was not supported. This hypothesis was analyzed by conducting a dependent t test, which was found to be significant, but in the opposite direction of what was predicted by the U-Curve model ($t = -2.438$, $\text{prob} > |T| = 0.0211$, $df = 64$, $\alpha = .05$). The U-Curve model predicts that adjustment would be significantly lower at the second administration of the adjustment measure, but results showed adjustment was significantly higher for this sample.

Table 2

Results of Regression of Personality Factors on Adjustment

Time 1

<u>Predictor Statistics</u>					
<u>Model Statistics</u>	<u>Variable</u>	<u>beta</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>R² Change</u>	<u>F Change</u>
Multiple R ² = .16 Adj R-Square= .01 F= 1.12 p > .3732 α = .05	Neuroticism	-.89	-1.88	.05	3.66
	Extroversion	-.59	-1.14	.01	1.36
	Openness	.58	1.04	.06	1.12
	Agreeableness	-.36	-.67	.01	.46
	Conscientiousness	-.38	-.93	.03	.91

Time 2

<u>Predictor Statistics</u>					
<u>Model Statistics</u>	<u>Variable</u>	<u>beta</u>	<u>t</u>	<u>R² Change</u>	<u>F Change</u>
Multiple R ² = .20 Adj R-Square= .03 F= 1.18 p > .3503 α = .05	Neuroticism	-.37	-1.45	.09	2.19
	Extroversion	.07	.29	.03	.09
	Openness	.35	1.09	.05	1.25
	Agreeableness	-.24	-.87	.02	.80
	Conscientiousness	-.08	-.40	.01	.16

The mean adjustment score for time one is 4.3, with a standard deviation of .75. For time two, the mean adjustment score was 4.5, with a standard deviation of .37. The N used for the t test was 30, although the adjustment scores were collected from 35 participants on time one and 30 on time two. Degrees of freedom, therefore, are $df = N - 1$ or 29. There was an attrition of 4 participants between time one and time two data collection, but the computer only used an $N = 30$ to calculate the t test score. There is no apparent reason for the computer program (SAS) to use $N = 30$, as opposed to $N = 31$ in calculating the t test score, except a possible anomaly in the SAS program.

Given the above, the third possible outcome of the study, personality predicts adjustment *and* the U-Curve generalizes to military sojourners was, therefore, not supported. The first part was analyzed based on the results of the correlation and regression analyses, as described above. The second part was analyzed based on the results of the dependent t test, which provided results opposite to what was predicted by the U-Curve model of adjustment.

Discussion

The first possible outcome of this study was that personality alone predicts adjustment, regardless of the time the IO has spent in the United States, i.e., time is not a variable and the U-curve does not generalize to this population. It would be expected, were this outcome supported, that a significant negative correlation would be found between neuroticism and adjustment and a significant positive correlation would be found between adjustment and openness to experience, agreeableness, and extroversion at both

the three month and seven month points. Results of the simple correlation analysis, in fact showed that neuroticism was significantly negatively correlated with adjustment only at time two. Openness to experience was significantly positively correlated with adjustment at time two, as well.

These results are congruent with the personality research literature, where neuroticism and traits related to neuroticism are negatively correlated with intercultural adjustment (Furnham & Bochner, 1986; Torbiorn, 1982). Research has also shown that openness to experience and its related traits are associated with success in foreign cultures (Torbiorn, 1982). The factors extroversion and agreeableness surprisingly showed no significant correlation with adjustment in this analysis.

The multiple regression analysis of personality factors on adjustment was statistically nonsignificant both at time one and two, although personality was predictive of adjustment using zero order correlations as mentioned above. According to Pedhazur (1997) in order to perform multiple regression analysis a large number of participants are needed, i.e. a large N, which was not achieved in this study. Additionally, the predictors used in this study are correlated with each other. In performing multiple regression analysis, the neuroticism and openness to experience factors had the covariance they shared with other predictors partitioned out. Therefore, neuroticism and openness to experience in the multiple regression analysis were mathematically not the same variables that they were in the simple correlation analysis. This is an anomaly of multicollinearity, is noted by Pedhazur (1997), i.e., correlated independent variables can have adverse effects

on the estimation of regression statistics. Where multicollinearity is present, even slight fluctuations in the data may lead to substantial fluctuations in the sizes of those estimates.

The second possible outcome, the U-Curve model generalizes to military sojourners, was also not supported. This model states that time is the only variable involved in the adjustment of IOs to life in the United States. All IOs, therefore, would be expected to exhibit a fairly high level of adjustment at time one, or three months after their arrival and a fairly low level at time two, or the seven month point. This is the beginning of the “bottoming-out” period at which, according to the U-Curve model, adjustment levels begin to reach their lowest levels (Oberg, 1960).

In fact it was found that the IOs actually exhibited a fairly high level of adjustment, or an average of 4.30 at the three month point and statistically significant higher levels of adjustment at time two than at time one. This finding supports the “state” models of adjustment rather than the U-Curve or “trait” models. The current results can be supported by a Social-Skills/Social-Support Model, since the more time an IO spends in the United States, the more culture skills he acquires and the more “culture friends” he makes. This finding also demonstrates that the Business Sojourner Model does generalize to IOs on assignments in the US. Although theoretically expected, this study provides the first empirical proof that military IOs are similar to business sojourners.

The review of the literature revealed three overarching factors that contribute to the success of the sojourner, which can explain these nonsignificant results: (1) prior foreign experience, (2) local “culture friends,” and (3) family accompanying the sojourner.

The majority of the IOs in this study had the benefit of all three factors being present (participants section), in addition to the factors in Furnham and Bochner's (1986) Business Sojourner Model.

The final possible outcome, personality predicts adjustment *and* the U-Curve generalizes to military sojourners, therefore, was not completely supported. If this outcome was supported, Neuroticism would be significantly negatively correlated with adjustment at the three month point, and Openness to experience, Agreeableness and Extroversion would be significantly positively correlated with adjustment at the three month point.

Additionally, there would be a stronger negative correlation between neuroticism and adjustment at the seven month point, which was actually seen in the correlation analysis and a stronger positive correlation between openness to experience, also seen in the correlation analysis. A significantly stronger positive correlation between adjustment and agreeableness and extroversion at the seven month point was not seen, however. It would be expected that when the IOs adjustment was at the low point, according to the U-Curve Model, personality would predict better than it would during the optimum phase. This was partially supported by the correlation analysis during time two (see Table 1), but not by the regression analysis.

It was originally expected that if the IO adjustment was at its lowest at time two, as predicted by the U-Curve model, personality would predict better. This study actually showed that the IOs were significantly better adjusted at the seven month point, or time

two, but neuroticism was still slightly more negatively correlated with adjustment at time two than at time one, and openness to experience was slightly more positively correlated.

Implications

These results support the Business Sojourner Model, as well as Furnham and Bochner's (1986) Social-Skills/Social-Support Model, which states that coping difficulties in a new culture are attributable to a lack of appropriate culture skills, as well as a lack of social support from the new culture. More recent studies (Hannigan, 1990; Ying, 1996; Azar, 1995) continue to point to the need for "culture friends," strong family relationships and prior experience in new cultures as necessary for effective adjustment to life in new cultures. The majority of IOs in this study were not only accompanied by their families, claimed friendships with Americans, and had prior experience with cultures other than their own, they also fit the profile of the Business Sojourner. It seems logical, therefore, that none of the proposed hypotheses would be supported when one looks only at the situation variables, or state of the individual IO.

While the data suggest support mostly for the above situational models or the state of the individual, research has shown that certain personality traits are significantly positively related to success in new cultures. In an effort to assist international corporations find the right people to send overseas, psychologists have conducted, and continue to conduct research on traits that correlate positively with the success of an individual in new cultures. It was found that success often depends heavily on a worker's personality and attitudes (Meyers, 1993). This has also been referred to as the

“intercultural competence topography.” The characteristics and skills include: (1) open-mindedness to new ideas and experiences; (2) intercultural empathy; (3) accurate perception of similarities and differences in one’s own and the host culture; (4) nonjudgmentalness; (5) astute, noncritical observation of one’s own and others’ behavior; (6) the ability to establish meaningful relationships with host-culture persons; and (7) minimal ethnocentrism (Dinges, 1983, p. 184). This research implies that the data in this study do not give a completely accurate account of all factors involved in the adjustment of the IO to life in the United States.

Limitations

“Sound thinking within a **theoretical** frame of reference and a clear understanding of the **analytic methods** used are probably the best safeguards against drawing unwarranted, illogical, or nonsensical conclusions” (Pedhazur, 1997). This study was guided by theories and models developed over years of research in the fields of cross-culture relations, personality, and I/O psychology. The proposed research questions were theory-driven and developed based on information from the review of literature in the above areas, however, because of an insufficient number of participants, the results may paint an incomplete picture of which factors contribute to adjustment to life in new cultures.

This was a correlational study and the method chosen to analyze the data was multiple regression analysis. This particular study has a limitation in that multiple regression analysis requires a large amount of participants, and in this case there were only

a total of 35 IOs who volunteered to complete the measure on time one, and an attrition of 4 IOs between the first and second administration of the adjustment measure.

“Sound research design principles dictate that the researcher first decide the effect size, or relation deemed substantively meaningful in a given study” (Pedhazur, 1997, p. 26). This is followed by decisions regarding the level of significance (Type I Error) and the power of the statistical test (1-Type II Error). The appropriate sample size is then calculated. This could not be accomplished in this study since the researcher had no control over the number of participants to be included. The insufficient number of participants, therefore, reduced statistical power to the point where it was very difficult to detect a true alternate hypothesis, increasing the likelihood of making a Type II error.

It is also possible that some of the IOs who chose to not participate in the study were having adjustment problems, as well as the possibility that the 4 IOs who chose to not participate in the second part of the study were experiencing even greater adjustment problems. This introduces the possibility of self-selection problems that unfortunately, cannot be eliminated. It is unlikely, therefore, that the first and third possible outcomes could have been supported even if personality factors do indeed effect adjustment, given all of the above.

There was a rather interesting finding, however, in that not only was the U-Curve model not supported, but adjustment levels actually rose significantly between time one and time two, exactly opposite the prediction of the U-Curve model. This finding can be explained by the Social Support/Social Skills Model, given the fact that the IOs had more

time to acquire both culture skills and American friends at the second administration of the adjustment measure than they had at the first.

It is also important to note that the U-Curve model was only partially tested in this study due to the time constraints imposed on the researcher. As mentioned earlier, Lysgaard (1955) stated that the bottom of the U may last anywhere from 6-18 months. A complete test of the U-Curve model, therefore, would include the administration of the adjustment measure a third time, at around the 19-20 month point. Due to the limited time the participants were in the US (around 12 months), it was not possible to administer the measure at that point.

Directions for Future Research

Psychologists have been engaged in an ongoing person-situation debate in order to determine whether behavior is determined primarily by the situation or by a person's attributes; the old state-trait debate, but the person-situation interaction perspective holds the greater promise for explaining behavior in any situation (Pedhazur, 1997). Bowers (1997), who reviewed "situationism" in psychology, criticized the almost "religious allegiance to a main effects psychology that emphasizes the situational impact on behavior almost to the exclusion of person and interaction effects" (Bowers, 1973, p. 325). In his review, Bowers found that interactions between participants' attributes and situations accounted for far greater proportions of variance of the dependent variable (or in this case criterion) than did the main effects of either attributes or situations alone.

Clearly, future research in the area of international military sojourner adjustment to life in the United States should include a sufficient number of participants, as well as the measurement of new trait and state variables such as attitude, adaptability, emotional resilience, country of origin, rank, etc. In addition to the problem of insufficient subjects, IOs could not be partitioned by country/culture of origin or by rank, due to confidentiality issues. Future research could allow for analysis of participants by country/culture of origin, as well as extend the time period in which IOs are studied, from immediately after arrival to shortly before departure, with an adjustment measure administered several times in between.

A complete test of Lysgaard's U-Curve model could also be attempted by selecting a participant population that will be available for at least 18-20 months, or until the end of the bottoming out period (Lysgaard, 1955). Future studies of IOs' adjustment to life in the United States could also re-administer several applicable demographic questions, such as number of American friends, upon re-administration of the adjustment measure to determine if a significant increase in "culture friends" correlates positively with an increase in adjustment. A culture skills measure could also be administered along with adjustment measures.

An additional factor that should be examined in future studies of IOs in the United States is the adjustment level of spouse/family members. Research has shown that spouses and family members often suffer more in intercultural moves than the worker, since the working member is more insulated from the new culture through contact with his/her

organization. The spouse is left at home to cope with shopping and conducting daily chores in the household in a strange environment without the support provided to the worker by the organization (Azar, 1995; Furnham & Bochner, 1986).

Selecting people for successful performance in other cultures is “still more of an art than a science” (Azar, 195, p. 32). Research in the area of successful performance in new cultures has not caught up to the need, so more companies are relying on I/O psychologists to select people for overseas assignments. This need is expected to increase with the dawn of the new millennium as United States industry and government agencies continue to increase global operations. It is critical, therefore, that high-quality research continues to be conducted in this new and growing area.

References

- Allport, G.W. (1954). The nature of prejudice. Garden City, New York: Doubleday Anchor.
- Allport, G.W. (1966). Traits revisited. American Psychologist, 21, 1-10.
- Amelong, M. & Borkenau, P. (1982). Über die factorielle struktur und externe validität einiger fragebogen-skalen zur erfassung von dimensionen der extraversion und emotionalen labilität [On the factor structure and external validity of some questionnaire scales measurement dimensions of extraversion and neuroticism]. Zeitschrift für Differentielle Diagnostische Psychologie, 3, 119-146.
- Anderson, L.E. (1994). A new look at an old construct. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18 (3), 293-328.
- Azar, B. (1995). Predicting workers' success overseas. American Psychological Association Monitor, 26 (7), 32.
- Berry, J.W., Kim, U., Minde, T., & Mok, D. (1987). Comparative studies of acculturative stress. International Migration Review, 21, 491-511.
- Berry, J.W., Kim, U. (1987). Acculturation and mental health. In P. Dasen, J.W. Berry, & N. Sartorius (Eds.), Cross-cultural psychology and health: Toward applications (pp. 207-236). London: Sage.

Bochner, S., Buker, E.A., & McLeod, B.M. (1976). Communication patterns in an international student dormitory: a modification of the "small world" method. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 6, 275-290.

Bochner, S., & Orr, F.E. (1979). Race and academic status as determinants of friendship formation: A field study. International Journal of Psychology, 14, 37-46.

Boker, W. (1981). Psychopathological reactions among foreign labourers in Europe. In L. Eitinger & D. Schwartz (Eds.), Strangers in the World. Bern: Hans Huber.

Bond, M. H., Nakazato, H., & Shiraishi, D. (1975). Universality and distinctiveness in dimensions of Japanese person perception. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 6, 346-357.

Bowers, K. S. (1973). Situationism in psychology: An analysis and a critique. Psychological Review, 80, 307-336.

Boxer, A.H. (1969). Experts in Asia: An inquiry into Australian technical assistance. Canberra: Australian National University Press.

Brislin, R.W. (1979). Orientation programs for cross-cultural preparation. In A.J. Marsella, R.G. Tharp, T.J. Ceborowski (Eds.), Perspectives on cross-cultural psychology. New York: Academic Press.

Cheung, P.C., Conger, A. J., Hau, K., Lew, W. F. J., & Lau, S. (1992). Development of the multitrait personality inventory (MTPI): Comparison among four Chinese populations. Journal of Personality Assessment, 59, 528-551.

Church, A.T. (1982). Sojourner Adjustment. Psychological Bulletin, 91, 540-572.
Bulletin, 91, 540-572.

Church, A.T., & Katigbak, M.S. (1989). Internal, external, and self-report structure of personality in a non-Western culture: An investigation of cross-language and cross-cultural generalizability. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 57, 857-872.

Coelho, G.V. (1958). Changing images of America. Glencoe, IL: Free Press.

Costa, P.T. & McCrae, R.R. (1992). Normal personality assessment in clinical practice: The NEO Personality Inventory. Psychological Assessment, 4 (1), 5-13.

Crano, S.L., & Crano, W.D. (1993). A measure of adjustment strain in international students, Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 24 (23), 267-283.

Deutsch, S.E., & Won, G.Y.M. (1963). Some factors in the adjustment of foreign nationals in the United States. Journal of Social Issues, 19 (3), 115-122.

Digman, J.M. (1990). Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. Annual Review of Psychology, 41, 417-440.

Dinges, N. (1983). Intercultural competence. In D. Landis and R. W. Brislin (Eds.), Handbook of Intercultural Training. New York: Pergamon Press.

DuBois, C. (1956). Foreign student and higher education in the United States. Washington, DC: American Council on Education.

Eysenck, H. J. (1967). The biological basis of personality. Springfield, Ill: Charles C. Thomas.

Eysenck, H. J. (1986). Cross-cultural comparisons: The validity of assessment by indices of factor comparisons. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 17, 506-515.

Eysenck, H. J. (1991). Dimensions of personality: 16, 5 or 3?: Criteria for a taxonomic paradigm. Personality and Individual Differences, 12, 773-790.

Fayerweather, J. (1959). The executive overseas: Administrative attitudes and relationships in a foreign culture. Syracuse: Syracuse University.

Furnham, A., & Alibai, N. (1985). The friendship networks of foreign students. International Journal of Psychology, 20, 709-722.

Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1982). Social Difficulty in a foreign culture: An empirical analysis of culture shock. (Eds.), Cultures in contact: Studies in cross-cultural interaction. Oxford: Pergamon.

Furnham, A., & Bochner, S. (1986). Culture shock. New York: Methuan.

Freud, S. (1927). The ego and the Id. London: Hogarth Press.

Gullahorn, J.T., & Gullahorn, J.E. (1963). An extension of the U-curve hypothesis. Journal of Social Issues, 19 (3), 33-47.

Guthrie, G.M. (1966). Cultural preparation for the Philippines. In R.B. Textor (Ed.), Cultural Frontiers of the Peace Corps. Cambridge, Mass: MIT Press.

Hannigan, T.P. (1990). Traits, attitudes, and skills that are related to intercultural effectiveness and their implications for cross-cultural training: A review of the literature. International Journal of Inter-cultural Relations, 14, 89-111.

Harris, J.G. (1973). A science of the South Pacific: Analysis of the character structure of the Peace Corps volunteer. American Psychologist, 28 (3), 232-247.

Jacobson, E.H. (1963). Sojourn research: A definition of the field. Journal of Social Issues, 19, (3), 123-129.

Kagitcibasi, C., & Berry, J. W. (1989). Cross-cultural psychology: Current research and trends. Annual Review of Psychology, 40, 493-531.

Klineberg, O. (1980). Historical perspectives: Cross-cultural psychology before 1960. In H.C. Triandis (Vol. Ed.), Handbook of Cross-Cultural Psychology: Vol. 1. (pp. 31-67). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

Klineberg, O., & Hull, W. F., IV. (1979). At foreign university: An international study of adaptation and coping. New York: Praeger.

Kuo, W. (1976). Theories of migration and mental health: An empirical testing on Chinese-Americans. Social Science and Medicine, 10, 297-306.

Lunstedt, S. (1963). An introduction to some evolving problems in cross-cultural research. Journal of Social Issues, 19, 1-10.

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

McCrae, R.R., & Costa, P.T. (1987). Validation of the five-factor model of personality across instruments. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52 (1), 81-91.

McCrae, R. R., & Costa, P.T. (1997). Personality trait structure as a human universal. American Psychologist, 52 (5), 509-516.

Meyers, J. E. (1993). The Cross-Cultural Adaptability Inventory. Minneapolis: National Computer Systems, Inc.

Mischel, W. (1968). Personality and Assessment. New York: Wiley.

Mischel, W. (1984). Convergences and challenges in the search for consistency. American Psychologist, 39, 351- 364.

Narayanan, L., Menon, S., & Levine, E. L. (1995). Personality structure: A culture-specific examination of the five-factor model. Journal of Personality Assessment, 64 (1), 51- 62.

Noller, P., Law, H., & Comrey, A.L. (1987). Cattell, Comrey, and Eysenck personality factors compared: More evidence for the five robust factors? Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 53, 775-782.

Norman, W. T. (1963). Toward an adequate taxonomy of personality attributes: Replicated factor structure in peer nomination personality ratings. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 66, 574-583.

Oberg, K. (1960). Cultural shock: Adjustment to new cultural environments. Practical Anthropology, 7, 177-182.

Park, R.E. (1928). Human migration and the marginal man. American Journal of Sociology, 33, 881-893.

Paunonen, S.V., Jackson, D.N., Trzebinski, J., & Forsterling, F. (1992).

Personality structure across cultures: A multimethod evaluation. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 62, 447-456.

Pedhazur, E. J. (1997). Multiple regression in behavioral research (3rd ed.). Fort Worth: Harcourt Brace College Publishers.

Pervin, L.A. (1994). Further reflections on current trait theory. Psychological Inquiry, 5 (2), 169-178.

Richardson, A. (1974). British immigrants and Australia: A psycho-social inquiry. Canberra: Australian National University Press.

Rokeach, M. (1960). The open and closed mind. New York: Basic Books.

Rubin, B.D., & Kealey, D. J. (1979). Behavioral assessment of communication competency and the prediction of cross-cultural adaptation. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 3, 15-47.

Seidel, G. (1981). Cross-cultural training procedures: Their theoretical framework and evaluation. In S. Bochner (Ed.), The mediating person: Bridges between cultures. Boston: Schenkman.

Selltiz, C., & Cook, S.W. (1962). Factors influencing attitudes of foreign studies towards the host country. Journal of Social Issues, 18 (1), 7-23.

Sewell, W. H., Morris, R.T., & Davidsen, O.M. (1954). Scandinavian students-images of the United States: A study in cross-cultural education. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 295, 126-135.

- Skinner, W. (1968). American Industry in Developing Economies: The Management of International Manufacturing. New York: Wiley.
- Smalley, W. (1963). Culture shock, language shock, and the shock of self-discovery. Practical Anthropology, 10, 49-56.
- Smith, M.B. (1966). Explorations in competence: A study of Peace Corps teachers in Ghana. American Psychologist, 21, 555-566.
- Stonequist, E.V. (1937). The Marginal Man. New York: Scribner.
- Tinsley, H.E.A. (1994). NEO Personality Inventory-Revised. In D. J. Keyser & R.C. Sweetland (Eds.), Test Critiques: Vol. 10. Austin: Pro-ed.
- Torbiorn, I. (1982). Living abroad: Personal adjustment and personnel policy in the overseas setting. Chichester: Wiley.
- Triandis, H.C. (1967). Interpersonal relations in international organizations. Organizational Behavior and Human Performance, 2, 26-55.
- Triandis, H.C. (1980). Introduction to handbook of cross-cultural psychology. In H.C. Triandis & W.W. Lambert (Eds.), Handbook of cross-cultural psychology. Vol. 1: Perspectives (pp. 1- 14). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1993). Where's the culture in cross-culture transitions? Comparative studies of sojourners' adjustment. Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 24, 221-249.

Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1994). Acculturation strategies, psychological adjustment, and sociocultural competence during cross-cultural transitions. International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18 (3), 329-343.

Ward, C. (1997). Culture learning, acculturative stress, and psychopathology: Three perspectives on acculturation. Applied Psychology, 46, 58-62.

Wright-Patterson. (1990). The Management of Security Assistance, (Library of Congress Catalog Card No. 90-81208). Wright-Patterson AFB, Ohio: United States Government Printing Office.

Ying, Y.W. (1996). Immigration satisfaction of Chinese Americans: An empirical examination. Journal of Community Psychology, 24, 3-15.

Zuckerman, M. (1981). Sensation seeking and psychopathy. In R. Hare & D. Shalling (Eds.), Psychopathic Behavior. New York: Wiley.

Appendix A

Demographic Questionnaire

Code Name _____

Age _____

Check highest education level received: _____ High School; _____ Undergraduate

(University); _____ Graduate; _____ Post Graduate (Doctoral Level)

Marital status _____

Are you accompanied by your family? _____

Are there other officers from your country here at Maxwell AFB, and if so, how many? _____

How many Americans have you met during your stay who you consider your friend (s)? _____

How many times have you been in the United States? _____

Have you ever lived in the United States and if so, for how long? _____

How many times have you traveled outside your country? _____

How many countries have you visited? _____

Have you ever lived in another country and if so, for how long? _____

Appendix B

Informed Consent Form

I am a graduate student at Auburn University at Montgomery, and am doing a cross-culture study for completion of my Master's degree. I am asking for your participation, in order to help me achieve this goal. If you participate you will be asked to complete one questionnaire concerning some of your personal preferences and style, and another questionnaire which will involve answering questions about your experiences as a professional military officer who is in training in another country. There are no right or wrong answers. I will also need to collect some brief demographic information about you: that is, your age, sex, etc. The total time to participate will be about 1 hour. In about three months I will return and ask you to answer questions about your experiences in the United States once again. This should only take about 15 minutes more.

Your signature below will indicate that you have read this sheet and that you agree to participate. Your participation is voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty. There are no possible negative side-effects from participating in this study. It only involves filling out paper and pencil instruments. In order to properly analyze the results of the study, I will ask you to use a pseudonym in identifying your responses. No one will know your pseudonym except you. It is critical to the analysis of data that you remember this pseudonym and use it to identify the survey I will ask you to complete, about 5 months from now. Your confidentiality will be strictly maintained at all times after the study, and it will be impossible to trace any information you give, back to you. The base commander has given me permission to ask you for your help, but identifying information about your responses will NOT be shared with ANYONE either here or at Auburn University at Montgomery.

When the data collection process is completed, I will answer any questions you may have about the project. If you think of any questions later, you may contact Dr. Peter Zachar at Auburn University at Montgomery at 244-3306.

Thank you very much for your time and willingness to consider participating in this project.

Schahresad "Sherry" Forman, Psychology Graduate Student
Department of Psychology
Auburn University at Montgomery

I have read and understand the above statement about the nature of this project.
I CHOOSE TO PARTICIPATE

Name (please print): _____

Signature: _____ Date: _____

Appendix C

This questionnaire is divided into two sections consisting of 303 questions. Please read all instructions carefully before beginning. Use a No. 2 pencil to complete your responses on the accompanying answer sheets. Please mark all your answers on the answer sheets. The first 200 questions will be answered on the BLUE answer sheet. The remaining 103 questions will be answered on the RED answer sheet. Do not write on this questionnaire.

Section I: Personal interests and preferences (pages 1-7)

This questionnaire contains 240 statements. Please read each item carefully and fill in the one answer that best corresponds to your agreement or disagreement.

Fill in "1" if the statement is definitely false or if you **strongly disagree**.

Fill in "2" if the statement is mostly false or if you **disagree**.

Fill in "3" if the statement is about equally true or false, if you cannot decide, or if you are **neutral** on the statement.

Fill in "4" if the statement is mostly true or if you **agree**.

Fill in "5" if the statement is definitely true or if you **strongly agree**.

There are no right or wrong answers, and you need not be an "expert" to complete this questionnaire. Describe yourself honestly and state your opinion as accurately as possible.

Answer every item and be sure to fill in the circles completely. Please make sure that your answer is marked in the correctly numbered space. If you make a mistake or change your mind, erase

your first answer completely. Then fill in the circle that corresponds to your correct answer. (On this particular answer sheet, number 1 or A corresponds with strongly disagree, number 2 or B corresponds with disagree, number 3 or C corresponds with neutral, number 4 or D corresponds with agree, and number 5 or E corresponds with strongly agree.)

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly agree

1. I am not a worrier.
2. I really like most people I meet.
3. I have a very active imagination.
4. I tend to be cynical and skeptical of others' intentions.
5. I'm known for my prudence and common sense.
6. I often get angry at the way people treat me.
7. I shy away from crowds of people.
8. Aesthetic and artistic concerns aren't very important to me.
9. I'm not crafty or sly.
10. I would rather keep my opinions open than plan everything in advance.
11. I rarely feel lonely or blue.
12. I am dominant, forceful, and assertive.
13. Without strong emotions, life would be uninteresting to me.
14. Some people think I'm selfish and egotistical.
15. I try to perform all the tasks assigned to me conscientiously.
16. In dealing with other people, I always dread making a social blunder.
17. I have a leisurely style in work and play.
18. I'm pretty set in my ways.

19. I would rather cooperate with others than compete with them.
20. I am easy-going and lackadaisical.
21. I rarely overindulge in anything.
22. I often crave excitement.
23. I often enjoy playing with theories or abstract ideas.
24. I don't mind bragging about my talents and accomplishments.
25. I'm pretty good about pacing myself so as to get things done on time.
26. I often feel helpless and want someone else to solve my problems.
27. I have never literally jumped for joy.
28. I believe letting students hear controversial speakers can only confuse and mislead them.
29. Political leaders need to be more aware of the human side of their policies.
30. Over the years I've done some pretty stupid things.
31. I am easily frightened.
32. I don't get much pleasure from chatting with people.
33. I try to keep all my thoughts directed along realistic lines and avoid flights of fancy.
34. I believe that most people are basically well-intentioned.
35. I don't take civic duties like voting very seriously.
36. I'm an even-tempered person.
37. I like to have a lot of people around me.
38. I am sometimes completely absorbed in music I am listening to.
39. If necessary, I am willing to manipulate people to get what I want.
40. I keep my belongings neat and clean.
41. Sometimes I feel completely worthless.
42. I sometimes fail to assert myself as much as I should.
43. I rarely experience strong emotions.
44. I try to be courteous to everyone I meet.
45. Sometimes I'm not as dependable or reliable as I should be.
46. I seldom feel self-conscious when I'm around people.
47. When I do things, I do them vigorously.
48. I think it's interesting to learn and develop new hobbies.
49. I can be sarcastic and cutting when I need be.
50. I have a clear set of goals and work toward them in an orderly fashion.
51. I have trouble resisting my cravings.
52. I wouldn't enjoy vacationing in Las Vegas.
53. I find philosophical arguments boring.
54. I'd rather not talk about myself and my achievements.
55. I waste a lot of time before settling down to work.
56. I feel I am capable of coping with most of my problems.
57. I have sometimes experienced intense joy or ecstasy.
58. I believe that laws and social policies should change to reflect the needs of a changing world.
59. I'm hard-headed and tough-minded in my attitudes.
60. I think things through before coming to a decision.
61. I rarely feel fearful or anxious.
62. I'm known as a warm and friendly person.
63. I have an active fantasy life.

64. I believe that most people will take advantage of you if you let them.
65. I keep myself informed and usually make intelligent decisions.
66. I am known as hot-blooded and quick-tempered.
67. I usually prefer to do things alone.
68. Watching ballet or modern dance bores me.
69. I couldn't deceive anyone even if I wanted to.
70. I am not a very methodical person.
71. I am seldom sad or depressed.
72. I have often been a leader of groups I have belonged to.
73. How I feel about things is important to me.
74. Some people think of me as cold and calculating.
75. I pay my debts promptly and in full.
76. At times I have been so ashamed I just wanted to hide.
77. My work is likely to be slow and steady.
78. Once I find the right way to do something, I stick to it.
79. I hesitate to express my anger even when it's justified.
80. When I start a self-improvement program, I usually let it slide after a few days.
81. I have little difficulty resisting temptation.
82. I have sometimes done things just for "kicks" or "thrills."
83. I enjoy solving problems or puzzles.
84. I'm better than most people, and I know it.
85. I am a productive person who always gets the job done.
86. When I'm under a great deal of stress, sometimes I feel like I'm going to pieces.
87. I am not a cheerful optimist.
88. I believe we should look to our religious authorities for decisions on moral issues.
89. We can never do too much for the poor and elderly.
90. Occasionally I act first and think later.
91. I often feel tense and jittery.
92. Many people think of me as somewhat cold and distant.
93. I don't like to waste my time daydreaming.
94. I think most of the people I deal with are honest and trustworthy.
95. I often come into situations without being fully prepared.
96. I am not considered a touchy or temperamental person.
97. I really feel the need for other people if I am by myself for long.
98. I am intrigued by the patterns I find in art and nature.
99. Being perfectly honest is a bad way to do business.
100. I like to keep everything in its place so I know just where it is.
101. I have sometimes experienced a deep sense of guilt or sinfulness.
102. In meetings, I usually let others do the talking.
103. I seldom pay much attention to my feelings of the moment.
104. I generally try to be thoughtful and considerate.
105. Sometimes I cheat when I play solitaire.
106. It doesn't embarrass me too much if people ridicule and tease me.
107. I often feel as if I'm bursting with energy.
108. I often try new and foreign foods.

1	2	3	4	5
strongly disagree		neutral	agree	strongly agree

109. If I don't like people, I let them know it.
110. I work hard to accomplish my goals.
111. When I am having my favorite foods, I tend to eat too much.
112. I tend to avoid movies that are shocking or scary.
113. I sometimes lose interest when people talk about very abstract, theoretical matters.
114. I try to be humble.
115. I have trouble making myself do what I should.
116. I keep a cool head in emergencies.
117. Sometimes I bubble with happiness.
118. I believe that the different ideas of right and wrong that people in other societies have may be valid for them.
119. I have no sympathy for panhandlers.
120. I always consider the consequences before I take action.
121. I'm seldom apprehensive about the future.
122. I really enjoy talking to people.
123. I enjoy concentrating on a fantasy or daydream and exploring all its possibilities, letting it grow and develop.
124. I'm suspicious when someone does something nice for me.
125. I pride myself on my sound judgment.
126. I often get disgusted with people I have to deal with.
127. I prefer jobs that let me work alone without being bothered by other people.
128. Poetry has little or no effect on me.
129. I would hate to be thought of as a hypocrite.
130. I never seem to be able to get organized.
131. I tend to blame myself when anything goes wrong.
132. Other people often look to me to make decisions.
133. I experienced a wide range of emotions or feelings.
134. I'm not known for my generosity.
135. When I make a commitment, I can always be counted on to follow through.
136. I often feel inferior to others.
137. I'm not as quick and lively as other people.
138. I prefer to spend my time in familiar surroundings.
139. When I've been insulted, I just try to forgive and forget.
140. I don't feel like I'm driven to get ahead.
141. I seldom give in to my impulses.
142. I like to be where the action is.
143. I enjoy working on "mind-twister"- type puzzles.
144. I have a very high opinion of myself.
145. Once I start a project, I almost always finish it.
146. It's often hard for me to make up my mind.
147. I don't consider myself especially "light-hearted."
148. I believe that loyalty to one's ideals and principles is more important than "open-mindedness."
149. Human need should always take priority over economic considerations.
150. I often do things on the spur of the moment.
151. I often worry about things that might go wrong.
152. I find it easy to smile and be outgoing with strangers.

153. If I feel my mind starting to drift off into daydreams, I usually get busy and start concentrating on some work or activity instead.
154. My first reaction is to trust people.
155. I don't seem to be completely successful at anything.
156. It takes a lot to get me mad.
157. I'd rather vacation at a popular beach than an isolated cabin in the woods.
158. Certain kinds of music have an endless fascination for me.
159. Sometimes I trick people into doing what I want.
160. I tend to be somewhat fastidious or exacting.
161. I have a low opinion of myself.
162. I would rather go my own way than be a leader of others.
163. I seldom notice the moods or feelings that different environments produce.
164. Most people I know like me.
165. I adhere strictly to my ethical principles.
166. I feel comfortable in the presence of my bosses or other authorities.
167. I usually seem to be in a hurry.
168. Sometimes I make changes around the house just to try something different.
169. If someone starts a fight, I'm ready to fight back.
170. I strive to achieve all I can.
171. I sometimes eat myself sick.
172. I love the excitement of roller coasters.
173. I have little interest in speculating on the nature of the universe or the human condition.
174. I feel that I am no better than others, no matter what their condition.
175. When a project gets too difficult, I'm inclined to start a new one.
176. I can handle myself pretty well in a crisis.
177. I am a cheerful, high-spirited person.
178. I consider myself broad-minded and tolerant of other person's lifestyles.
179. I believe all human beings are worthy of respect.
180. I rarely make hasty decisions.
181. I have fewer fears than most people.
182. I have strong emotional attachments to my friends.
183. As a child I rarely enjoyed games of make believe.
184. I tend to assume the best about people.
185. I'm a very competent person.
186. At times I have felt bitter and resentful.
187. Social gatherings are usually boring to me.
188. Sometimes when I am reading poetry or looking at a work of art, I feel a chill or wave of excitement.
189. At times I bully or flatter people into doing what I want them to.
190. I'm not compulsive about cleaning.
191. Sometimes things look pretty bleak and hopeless to me.
192. In conversations, I tend to do most of the talking.
193. I find it easy to empathize- to feel myself what others are feeling.
194. I think of myself as a charitable person.
195. I try to do jobs carefully, so they won't have to be done again.
196. If I have said or done the wrong thing to someone, I can hardly bear to face them again.
197. My life is fast-paced.
198. On a vacation, I prefer going back to a tried and true spot.
199. I'm hard-headed and stubborn.
200. I strive for excellence in everything I do.

PLEASE GO TO RED

Answer Sheet

1	2	3	4	5
strongly	disagree	neutral	agree	strongly
disagree				agree

1. Sometimes I do things on impulse that I later regret.
2. I'm attracted to bright colors and flashy styles.
3. I have a lot of intellectual curiosity.
4. I would rather praise others than be praised myself.
5. There are so many little jobs that need to be done that I sometimes just ignore them all.
6. When everything seems to be going wrong, I can still make good decisions.
7. I rarely use words like "fantastic!" or "sensational!" to describe my experiences.
8. I think that if people don't know what they believe in by the time they're 25, there's something wrong with them.
9. I have sympathy for others less fortunate than me.
10. I plan carefully when I go on a trip.
11. Frightening thoughts sometimes come into my head.
12. I take personal interest in the people I work with.
13. I would have difficulty just letting my mind wander without control or guidance.
14. I have a good deal of faith in human nature.
15. I am efficient and effective at my work.
16. Even minor annoyances can be frustrating to me.
17. I enjoy parties with lots of people.
18. I enjoy reading poetry that emphasizes

feelings and images more than story lines.

19. I pride myself on my shrewdness in handling people.
20. I spend a lot of time looking for things I've misplaced.
21. Too often, when things go wrong, I get discouraged and feel like giving up.
22. I don't find it easy to take charge of a situation.
23. Odd things- like certain scents or the names of distant places- can evoke strong moods in me.
24. I go out of my way to help others if I can.
25. I'd really have to be sick before I'd miss a day of work.
26. When people I know do foolish things, I get embarrassed for them.
27. I am a very active person.
28. I follow the same route when I go someplace.
29. I often get into arguments with my family and co-workers.
30. I'm something of a "workaholic."
31. I am always able to keep my feelings under control.
32. I like being part of the crowd at sporting events.
33. I have a wide range of intellectual interests.
34. I'm a superior person.
35. I have a lot of self-discipline.
36. I'm pretty stable emotionally.
37. I laugh easily.
38. I believe that the "new morality" of permissiveness is no morality at all.
39. I would rather be known as "merciful" than as "just."
40. I think twice before I answer a question.

Section II: Inventory of Student Adjustment Strain

The ISAS consists of the following 60 items, to be answered on the RED SCANTRON scoring sheet with a number 2 pencil. You are to answer YES or NO to each question. If the answer is YES, mark the appropriate block according to the following: 1 = Very much, 2 = Much, 3 = Some, 4 = A little bit. If the answer is NO, mark block 5.

-
- 1 = Very much
 2 = Much
 3 = Some
 4 = A little bit
 5 = No
-

1. Feeling that I never should have participated in an international officer training experience troubles me.
2. The lack of availability of personal counseling troubles me.
3. My inability to maintain good relationships with people in the United States troubles me.
4. The difference between the food of the United States and the food of my home country troubles me.
5. My difficulties in speaking English trouble me.
6. The treatment I receive at social functions troubles me.
7. The relationship between men and women troubles me.
8. Being unable to concentrate on my studies troubles me.
9. Being lonely troubles me.
10. Difficulty in making new friends in the United States troubles me.
11. I am troubled when I attend classes and lectures in English because I don't understand English very well.
12. I am troubled when I read textbooks and novels written in English because I don't understand them well.
13. Feeling uninterested in the course I am attending in the United States troubles me.
14. The dating practices of people in the United States troubles me.
15. My lack of knowledge about the United States troubles me.
16. My concerns with grades in my course trouble me.
17. Sexual customs in the United States trouble me.
18. Feelings of homesickness trouble me.
19. My relationship with my host military unit troubles me.
20. My relationship with my host United States officers troubles me.
21. Not feeling like a member of my host base troubles me.
22. The difficulties I have in getting along with my civilian sponsors in the local community troubles me.
23. Feeling too shy to socialize with my United States military hosts troubles me.
24. Dietary problems trouble me.

25. Rapidly gaining or losing weight since I arrived in the United States troubles me.
26. Not being able to understand slang phrases in the United States troubles me.
27. My limited English vocabulary troubles me.
28. The fact that the United States military is not what I expected it to be troubles me.
29. Differences between the military system of the United States and the military system of my home country troubles me.
30. Relationships between officers and their subordinates in the United States military troubles me.
31. Not feeling at ease among groups of people troubles me.
32. Frequently crying or feeling depressed troubles me.
33. The differences between weather conditions in the United States and my home country troubles me.
34. Feeling that I am under stress and tension troubles me.
35. Concern that my health is deteriorating troubles me.
36. Confusion that I have about the morals in the United States troubles me.
37. Knowing that I need help with English troubles me.

38. Feeling that I would prefer to go home immediately troubles me.

Please answer the next question using the following answer code:

- 1= strongly disagree
- 2= disagree
- 3= neutral
- 4= agree
- 5= strongly agree

39. I have tried to answer all of these questions honestly and accurately.

Please answer the last 2 questions using the following answer code:

- 1= YES
- 2= NO

40. Have you responded to all of the statements?
41. Have you entered your responses in the correct areas?

Thank you very much for being willing to participate in this study!

Appendix D

- Original 4. Feeling that I never should have participated in an AFS experience troubles me.
Modified 4. Feeling that I never should have participated in an international officer experience troubles me.
- Original 24. Feeling uninterested in the high school I am attending troubles me.
Modified 24. Feeling uninterested in the military course I am attending troubles me.
- Original 30. My concerns with grades in school troubles me.
Modified 30. My concerns with grades in my course troubles me.
- Original 34. My relationship with my host parents troubles me.
Modified 34. My relationship with my host military unit troubles me.
- Original 35. My relationship with my host brothers and/or sisters troubles me.
Modified 35. My relationship with my host United States officers troubles me.
- Original 36. Not feeling like a member of my host family troubles me.
Modified 36. Not feeling like a member of my host base troubles me.
- Original 37. The difficulties I have in getting along with the friends of my host brothers and sisters troubles me.
Modified 37. The difficulties I have in getting along with my civilian sponsors in the local community troubles me.
- Original 38. Feeling too shy to come out of my room to join my host family troubles me.
Modified 38. Feeling too shy to socialize with my United States military hosts troubles me.
- Original 45. The fact that education in the United States is not what I expected it to be troubles me.
Modified 45. The fact that the United States military is not what I expected it to be troubles me.
- Original 46. Differences between the education system of the United States and the education system of my home country troubles me.
Modified 46. Differences between the military system of the United States and the military system of my home country troubles me.