



**Labouring to Learn:
Employment Experience and Cross-cultural Adjustment of Migrant Workers**

by

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ABSTRACT

International labour mobility has become more evident due to globalisation. This study helps to identify the relationships between perceived employment experience and the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers, especially in the hospitality sector. To facilitate examination two cities with a high portion of foreign workers and hotel workers in the Asia Pacific region were selected. These cities are Darwin in the Northern Territory, Australia and Beppu in Oita Prefecture, Japan. Both cities are comparable in terms of demographic size and both their economies largely depended on tourists.

The central question for this study is whether perceived employment experience would result in cross-cultural adjustment. This study examines (i) whether the employment experience of migrant workers can be a predictor of the workers' cross-cultural adjustment in a new cultural environment? (ii) If employment experience could predict the workers' cross-cultural adjustment, and, would this relationship be similar in the Darwin and Beppu contexts; and (iii) Would type of visa influence employment experience as well as cross-cultural adjustment? If so, which type of visa for migrants would have less cross-cultural adjustment and negative impact on workers? And how does the outcome like in Darwin and Beppu? Each of these questions was used to hypothesise concepts for further analysis.

The findings of the study have established that cross-cultural adjustment varies according to the employment experience of migrant workers. When migrant workers perceive job characteristic as poor, cross-cultural adjustment is negatively affected. The model is explained better with migrant workers in Darwin than Beppu. Temporary migrant visa holders tend to have less cross-cultural adjustment than long-term visa holders as reflected in Darwin and Beppu. However, the results of employment experience between visa category was dissimilar between the destinations. The study's findings help to enhance migration studies, especially for future job design and adequate policy-making designed to raise migrant workers' quality of work. The consequence of such change is expected to improve work productivity and to enhance the quality of life for migrant workers.

Key words: Employment experience, Cross-cultural adjustment, Migrant workers, Hospitality industry, Temporary migrants

DEDICATION

To the people that count the most,
the ones that truly make my life worth living –
My father, Manmoo Yoo; husband, Manoj Ramiseti;
and all my loving family in Korea and India.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

TABLE OF CONTENTS	IV
ABSTRACT	I
DEDICATION	II
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	III
LIST OF TABLES	V
LIST OF FIGURES	VI
 CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION	 1
Research Background	1
The Research Problem	5
Research Sites: Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan)	8
Purpose of the Study	11
Research Questions	13
Significance of the Study	13
Organisation of the Study	14
CHAPTER 2. OVERVIEW OF MIGRANTS IN AUSTRALIA AND JAPAN	17
Migrants in Australia	18
Migrants in Japan	24
A Comparison between Australia and Japan: Hypotheses	29
CHAPTER 3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE	35
Cross-cultural Adjustment	35
Cross-cultural adjustment and work-related factors	39
Working in the Hospitality Industry	42
The nature of work: Hypotheses	44
Emotional work	45
Long working hours	46
Work and personal life imbalance	47
Work attachment and workplace discretion: Hypotheses	49
Work benefit: Hypotheses	50
Workplace socialisation: Hypotheses	52
Interactions with host and home nationals: Hypotheses	53
CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY	58
Research Design	58
Instrumentation	60
The Pilot Study	64
Data Collection	66
Data Analysis	71
Research Ethics and Confidentiality	75
CHAPTER 5. RESULTS	76
The Demographic Profile of Migrant Workers	78
Employment Background of Migrant Workers	82
Descriptive Analysis of Measurements	86
Measurement Concepts	91
Study Enquiry Focus 1	100
Study Enquiry Focus 2	102
Study Enquiry Focus 3	107
CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS	127
CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS	150
REFERENCES	159
APPENDICES	173

LIST OF TABLES

Table 2.1 Temporary migration trends between Australia and Japan	32
Table 3.1 Research hypotheses	56
Table 4.1 Cross-cultural adjustment variables.....	62
Table 4.2 Perceptions of hospitality work variables	63
Table 5.1 Total number of participants.....	78
Table 5.2 Demographic profile	80
Table 5.3 Country of origin	81
Table 5.4 Employment information.....	85
Table 5.5 Descriptive analysis of cross-cultural adjustment items.....	87
Table 5.6 Descriptive analysis of perceptions on hospitality work items	89
Table 5.7 Descriptive analysis of interactions at the workplace items	91
Table 5.8 EFA of cross-cultural adjustment factors	94
Table 5.9 EFA of employment experience in the hospitality industry factors	97
Table 5.10 Correlations between measures of CCA and employment experience scales	99
Table 5.11 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA	101
Table 5.12 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA - Darwin.....	103
Table 5.13 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA - Beppu	105
Table 5.14 T-test: Cross-cultural adjustment between Darwin and Beppu	106
Table 5.15 T-test: Employment experience between Darwin and Beppu	107
Table 5.16 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category	109
Table 5.17 Post-hoc comparisons (Scheffe test): Non-work and work adjustment by visa category ..	110
Table 5.18 ANOVA Test: Employment experience by visa category.....	113
Table 5.19 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): ‘Nature of work’ and ‘work attachment’ visa category	114
Table 5. 20 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category Darwin versus Beppu.....	116
Table 5.21 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Non-work and work adjustment by visa category, Darwin.....	117
Table 5.22 ANOVA Test: Employment experience by visa category, Darwin.....	119
Table 5.23 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Nature of work by visa category, Darwin	120
Table 5. 24 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category Darwin versus Beppu.....	121
Table 5.25 ANOVA Test: Employment Experience by visa category, Beppu	122
Table 5.26 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Work adjustment by visa category, Beppu	123

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 Model	13
Figure 3.1 The Research Model.....	55
Figure 5.1 Flow Chart.....	77
Figure 6.1 Summary of Study Enquiry Focus 1	135
Figure 6.2 Summary of Study Enquiry Focus 2	141

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Research Background

Globalisation has enabled the international flow of capital, people and trade more than ever before. Consequently, the world has become increasingly integrated and interdependent in economy, society, politics and culture. Moreover, advancements in information and communication technology (ICT) have added value in expansion of the global market by allowing and assisting in sharing and distributing market space. Owing to this development in information access and modernisation, international labour mobility has become possible (International Labour Organization, 2010). According to The World Bank (2016), 3.4 percent of the world's population, estimated at around 247 million, live outside their countries of origin, and this number has rapidly increased in the last 15 years. It is known that one of the major determinants of this phenomenon is the economic disparities between developing and developed countries that creates uneven demand on labour markets. Therefore, more than 90 percent of the existing migrant population are economically active migrants (International Labour Organization, 2010), who have relocated to higher income countries from their countries of origin (United Nations, 2016).

In the current environment, immigration is regarded as a sustainable economic development resource to both origin and receiving countries. In the perspective of receiving countries such as Australia and Japan, migrants have become a great labour resource to offset labour shortages issues in specific sectors of the labour markets (Koser, 2007). Also, migrants tend to create jobs as entrepreneurs and contribute to the enrichment of host communities by promoting cultural diversity (United Nations, 2016). In return, they also contribute to economic

development through currency exchange, increased travel, import of goods to receiving countries, and the export of ideas and expertise to home countries. However, there are also challenges involved with current migration patterns and trends. For instance, there has been a growing gap between international migration demand and supply related to specific skills. Although more people wish to move for a better life and opportunities, fewer workers with the right skills are available, which has resulted in an increasing pattern of irregular migration across nations. This trend in migration pattern is regarded as a threat to state security. Specifically, irregular migration and asylum have been the primary concerns for potential terror threats and further illegal activities in receiving nations. The growing fears about international migration trends are alarming for host countries, which in turn hampers the benefits of skilled migration in both developed and developing nations. This, consequently, influences the immigration policies of host nations. Hence, there have been ongoing discussion concerning a new form of immigration policy development which may maximise the positive aspects while minimising the negative aspects (Wickramasekara, 2008). In this perspective, the form of temporary migration has received considerable attention as an alternative solution from policy-makers. As per the definition, temporary migration involves staying in the host nation for a fixed period with an anticipated return to the home country (International Labour Organization, 2010). Both home and host nations are assumed to benefit from temporary immigration while minimising the negative challenges.

The United Nations (UN, 2015) describes an ‘international migrant’ as ‘a person who is living in a country other than the country of birth’. When this is defined as depending on the duration of stay, it can be distinguished as ‘permanent migration’ or ‘temporary migration’ (International Labour Organization, 2010). ‘Permanent migration’ is for an indefinite period of stay while ‘temporary migration’ is for a specified time after which the migrants return to their

source nations (International Labour Organization, 2010). According to Castles (2000), temporary migrant workers (also known as guest-workers or overseas contract workers) are defined as individuals who migrate for a limited period to take up employment. In addition, many other forms of temporary migration can be included in this category, such as international students, working holiday-makers, or self-initiated expatriates who leave their home country for a limited period (Doherty et al., 2013). Similarly, these migrants also have work permits and work rights during their stay in host nations. This particular migrant population showed a considerable impact in terms of resolving labour shortage issues in certain countries such as Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2014). Although they are regarded as an important labour source, these temporary migrant workers have received little attention in previous migration studies, especially from the perspective of cultural adaptation via work experience. However, in reality, young and low-skilled individuals leave their home countries with an international studentship or other forms of entry to find jobs. These types of workers tend to be exposed to labour-intensive sectors such as service or manufacturing with unprotected employment agreements, due to their limited host culture knowledge and host language skill. These types of workers are also an important labour substitute for the shortage of labour in the tourism and hospitality industry (Baum, 2012).

In 2016, the tourism and hospitality sector had 284 million people in employment, which is about 1 in 11 jobs in the world (World Travel and Tourism Council, 2016). Among those employees, temporary migrant workers have been a vital source for industries, especially in developed and developing nations (Baum, 2012). Like other sectors, labour shortage has become a critical issue in the tourism and hospitality sector; thus having migrant workers in the sector could reduce labour market pressures (wage inflation), and contribute to labour market segmentation (Choi et al., 2000; Baum, 2012).

Jobs in the hospitality industry are seasonal, physically stressful, low paid, and are assigned low status. Thus, most host nationals often forego hospitality jobs. In contrast, temporary migrant workers with low skills and low host language proficiency often find these opportunities attractive as the industry offers various points of entry that are suitable to their skill sets. However, migrant workers also stay in the industry only for a temporary purpose or as a transition experience (Choi et al., 2000) due to the unfavourable working environment.

Although previous research has highlighted the positive impacts of having migrant workers in the industry, its adverse effects have not been much discussed in detail. This point is also agreed by Baum (2007), who said that issues such as productivity, skills and general workplace enhancement concerning migrant workers in the industry have been ignored. Furthermore, migrant workers are particularly unable to enjoy the benefits of supportive trade union representation (Baum, 2012) due to their work permits and informal employment contracts. Consequently, the majority of migrant workers remain in low-paid jobs after several years of employment compared with native workers (International Labour Organization, 2010). This can also further lead to different work environments for migrant workers that would negatively influence the employees' work satisfaction and efficient work performance. Indeed, in the case of Australia, overall migrant workers' turnover rates were recorded as being 20 percent higher than local born workers (Shah, 2009). Therefore, migrant workers can make their best contribution and development when they enjoy decent working conditions and fair opportunities (Wickramasekara, 2008).

The Research Problem

The benefits of migration in host communities are not exploited to the maximum. The migrant population remains the most vulnerable section of society (Turchick Hakak & Al Ariss, 2013). Migrants are faced with lower levels of job security, often working for less pay, longer hours, and in more disadvantageous working conditions than host nationals. Migration for many is an empowering experience. Yet at the same time, a significant proportion endures difficult times (United Nations, 2015). From an individual perspective, one of the main reasons why this population still takes up lower paid and less secure jobs is because of their lack of necessary skills to engage in the new culture (Masgoret & Ward, 2006). This aspect can be a significant obstacle when searching for suitable jobs even though they have the necessary work experience and knowledge. However, many migrants take employment opportunities as a channel of learning and adapting to a foreign culture. Therefore, their expectations of employment experience can be dissimilar to other types of workers. For instance, previous research has revealed that self-initiated expatriates in Korea are mostly satisfied with extrinsic motivational factors from their jobs which include job condition, international experience and family factors (Froese et al., 2012). This means, although the given jobs are not desirable occupations for those migrants, their needs can be fulfilled with specific job elements such as having cross-cultural experience and having favourable job conditions. Unfortunately, in reality, not many host national employers provide adequate opportunities to these people which leaves a significant gap between employers and employees.

When considering migrant workers' success in host countries, individuals' adjustment to the host culture is a significant aspect (Mendenhall & Oddou, 1985; Black, 1988). The previous literature has extensively explained various perspectives on migrant individuals' acculturation

and, further, to cultural adjustment (Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960; Berry, 1997, 2005). When individuals experience a new culture, they are not sure of the appropriateness of the host culture, which is mostly different to their home culture. Therefore, many migrants and foreign workers tend to experience culture shock during the process of coping with the uncertainties of the host culture. A basic knowledge of the cross-cultural adjustment processes is essential in reducing the risk by adopting appropriate behaviours while interacting with the new culture (Black & Gregersen, 1991a). This process assists migrant individuals to obtain psychological comfort and, further, bring life satisfaction in new locations. However, Janta and colleagues (2012) prove that migrant workers could gain cultural knowledge through their employment experience while having positive interactions with working colleagues and customers. Furthermore, it has been noted that migrant workers' job motivations also have a close relationship with enhancement of adjustment to a host country (Froese et al., 2012). In other words, when migrant workers' perceived job motivation such as job condition, relationship with colleagues, and cultural learning opportunities are fulfilled, their cultural adjustment can also be enhanced accordingly. Therefore, it can be expected that particular migrant workers such as temporary migrants and self-initiated expatriates have a greater potential to adapt to a new culture via a positive employment experience.

In order to adjust to a new culture, attaining a positive attitude towards host nationals is vital (Black, 1988). Having frequent interactions with host nationals creates positive influences when learning about their culturally appropriate behaviours (Black & Mendenhall, 1990). Migrant workers' employment activities would contribute significantly in developing their cultural adjustment. Sam and Berry (2010) also agree that individuals' situational factors during a new culture learning could modify experiences which may bring different outcomes or behaviours to cross-cultural adjustment. For instance, positive organisational socialisation

creates social ties which also influence individuals to achieve expected interactions and social knowledge. It is an essential process in the role of organisations and for participating as one of the organisations' members (Ashford & Taylor, 1990; Louis, 1980). Creating social connections in the workplace can be an additional support while building knowledge about host nationals. Prior research has proved that the more social interactions migrant workers make with host nationals, the more likely they become affluent and comfortable in adjusting to the host culture (Caligiuri, 2000).

In addition to organisational socialisation, migrant workers' psychological well-being in relation to direct and indirect work influences is also an important element when adjusting to a new culture. Temporary migrants often take jobs which are less related to their previous professional experience and educational background due to their current circumstances and proficiency in the host language skills. Therefore, they tend to experience job novelty while also experiencing cultural novelty. However, as highlighted above, particular migrants are more satisfied with extrinsic job factors than intrinsic job factors since they have primary motivations: learning a new culture or seeking financial support during an overseas experience.

Consequently, it is interesting to consider whether migrant workers' cultural adjustment can be interrelated to perceived employment experience. Previous research has paid attention to relationships between the acculturation and the job satisfaction of migrant workers in various sectors (Leong & Chou, 1994; Au et al., 1998; Mace & Carr, 2005; Ea et al., 2008) which show that highly assimilated migrant workers tend to experience less job stress, resulting in more job satisfaction. While previous research has focused on individuals obtaining acculturation concerning job satisfaction, some highlight the opposite. In this case, job satisfaction is considered as a moderator to host cultural adjustment to a certain extent. Caligiuri (2000)

explains that low-skilled migrant workers tend to experience less job satisfaction resulting in less work adjustment in the host country. Therefore, by considering types of migrants and their primary migration motivation, their host culture adjustment can be enhanced through employment experience which should be considered at an organisational level.

Research Sites: Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan)

This study examines temporary migrant workers in two different locations to compare the workers' activities and learning cultures in different migration sites: one in Australia, a 'traditional' immigration receiving country (Hugo et al., 2015) and one in Japan, a 'latecomer' immigration receiving country (Seidel, 2015) in the Asia Pacific region. Depending on each government's immigration policies, the migrants' perceived opportunities and quality of life in the host countries vary.

The Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2016a) reveals that 28.2 percent of the Australian population was born overseas, accounting for 6.7 million of the total population of 24.1 million in 2015. The growth has been continuously increasing since 2004 which indicates that more people are migrating to Australia. Various nationalities are included in the total migrant population of which the top contributors are British (5.1%) and New Zealanders (2.6%) followed by Chinese (2.0%), Indian (1.8%) and Filipino and Vietnamese (both 1.0%) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016c). Australia has become one of the leading host countries in the globe.

Net overseas migration (NOM) is the net gain or loss of population through immigration to Australia and emigration from Australia (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016). Individuals

who stayed in Australia continuously for at least 12-month period or more over a 16-month period (12/16 rule) are included in the NOM category (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016a). In this category, there are four major groupings, including temporary visas (67.0%), permanent visas (40.2%), New Zealand citizen (6.5%), Australian citizen (-10.5%) and others (-3.2%) (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016a). Temporary visa holders are the main contributors to the NOM population. Since 2000, the NOM population has been contributing more than the natural population increase (births minus deaths) to the total population growth rate (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011). In the latest record, its contribution was 55.2% of the total population growth in 2015 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016). As the numbers indicate, the migrant population and its changes are a significant influence on the Australian population which also falls into many aspects.

Specifically, the group of temporary visas is divided into visitor, student, temporary skilled workers (subclass 457), working holiday and others. The arrival of temporary visa-holders in Australia has increased by 108 percent since 2002. Specifically, student and working holiday visas increased by 108 percent and 111 percent and are expected to grow continuously (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011).

Darwin was chosen as one of the sites for this study as the total population in Darwin was counted as 140,400 in 2014 (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2016b), and in the same year, the migrant population in Darwin was recorded at 23,952, or 17 percent of the total population of the city (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2014). Specifically, the NOM rate is recorded as being higher than the average national rate, as the city is known as a transit point for many temporary migrants (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2016d). In terms of the tourism and hospitality sector in this region, slightly above half (52.5%) of the work force are Australian-born employees,

while others (46%) were born overseas (City of Darwin, 2016). As the rates indicate, a culturally diverse population exists in this region, contributing to the high workforce diversity in the hospitality sector. Birrell (2013) noted that the NOM proportion is competing for low-skilled jobs in such areas including retail, tourism and hospitality sectors. Because of these unique characteristics of the region, Darwin has been identified as the best suitable research destination for this research.

According to the Statistics Bureau (2015) of Japan, international migrants formed about 2.1 percent (2.7 million) of the 127.1 million population in 2015 in Japan. The growth of international migrants has declined as well as the total Japanese population since 2011. As of 2015, major immigrants by nationality in Japan were as follows: Chinese (32.0%), Korean (20.5%), Filipino (10.3%), Brazilian (7.8%), Vietnamese (6.6%), American (2.3%), Peruvian (2.1%), Thai (2.0%) and Indonesian (1.6%). In comparison to other members of the OECD, Japan has a relatively small portion of immigrant population over national population. However, the current government has encouraged more migrant population as a substitute to losing national workforce due to ageing and decline of the population.

The Japanese government is in the process of constructing a suitable immigration policy to assist national demands. Historically, Japan was a former out-migration country. The country has turned into an in-migration country. In 1990, the government introduced immigration in the form of family reunification, which is similar to ancestry visas in European countries, for the children of overseas Japanese nationals. It is a proactive way of implementing immigration policy from the government. The government is a little less active concerning immigration of trainees, but it is progressing through Japan's overseas development assistance and justifies this in terms of transfer of technology and expertise to developing countries (Kondo, 2008).

Foreigners' status of residence in Japan can be divided into six classifications including permanent residence, family reunification, specialized and technical labour, trainees, ethnic repatriates, asylum seekers, students and others (Kondo, 2008).

In Japan, the city of Beppu was chosen as the site for this study. Beppu's total number of migration population is about 3,663, which is around three percent of the total population (121,100) in 2015 (Statistics Bureau, 2015). This is higher than the national average migrant population rates (2.1%); Chinese migrants are the largest group with 940 people, followed by Koreans (613), Vietnamese (472), Indonesians (330), Thais (211), and others (1,097) (Statistics Bureau, 2015).

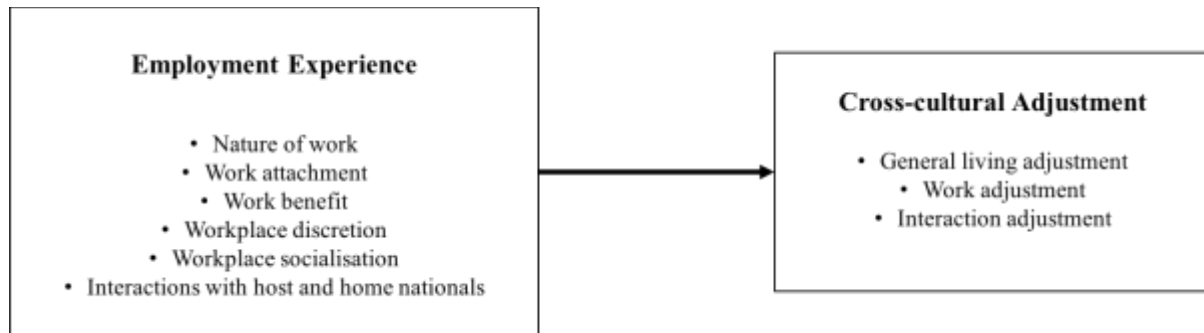
According to the information from the Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (2016), the annual employment trends showed that service-based industries provide more job opportunities than other industries due to flexible employment. Therefore, service-based industries have a great portion of non-regular employees than regular employees. For instance, non-regular employees accounted for around 73.3 percent in the food and beverage and hotel sectors in Japan (Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training, 2016). Non-regular workers and non-regular foreign workers in the hospitality section are expected to be much greater in the Beppu area.

Purpose of the Study

This research is focused on migrant workers in two sites in the Asia-Pacific region: Australia (Darwin) and Japan (Beppu). The common factors for the chosen sites are that, in their respective nations, they are both known for receiving the highest number of temporary migrants

in the Asia Pacific region. The history, political and social aspects of both countries have however influenced a different set of national immigration policies. For instance, in terms of immigration policies, Australia is known as a traditional immigration country, whereas Japan is known as a latecomer (Seidel, 2015) which maintains a conservative and cautious attitude towards migrant population (Korekawa, 2015). Depending on immigration policy practices, migrant workers' perceived experience in the host countries can be significantly different. In fact, previous research highlights that migrant workers' intention to stay in a foreign country such as short-term or long-term could be an important factor when observing the workers' labour market behaviour (Dustmann, 1997).

This study examines migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment while having an employment experience. Furthermore, this study chose migrant workers, especially from the hospitality sector in which there is a great demand for foreign workers to offset the experienced labour shortages. To learn about how well migrant workers are adjusted to the host culture, this study firstly examines cross-cultural adjustment, followed by general living, work, and interaction adjustments. To comprehend whether their perceived employment experience in the host country would have a relationship with the enhancement of cultural adjustment, this study investigated employment experience by considering individuals' perceived nature of work, work attachment, work benefit, work discretion, and interactions with host and home nationals (Figure 1.1).

Figure 1.1 Model

Research Questions

The central research question for this study is whether perceived employment experience would predict cross-cultural adjustment. In particular, this study examined (i) Whether the employment experience of migrant workers could be a predictor of the workers' cross-cultural adjustment in a new cultural environment?; (ii) If employment experience could predict the workers' cross-cultural adjustment, and, would this relationship be similar in the Darwin and Beppu contexts?; and (iii) Would type of visas influence employment experience as well as cross-cultural adjustment? If so, which type of visa for migrants would have the lowest cross-cultural adjustment and negative impact among hospitality employees? And how does the outcome like in Darwin and Beppu? Each of these research questions were used to hypothesise concepts for further analysis.

Significance of the Study

Firstly, this study is advantageous, since the research interest is about a migrant population: temporary migrants. The number of temporary migrants is growing in these two study sites,

and there is a perceived lack of studies of this trend. However, they remain unprotected and vulnerable in the host society as employees. Secondly, this study is also important for its theoretical contribution, especially from the perspective of cross-cultural adjustments. The study's outcomes may help give an understanding of whether individuals' employment experiences matters in enhancing the cross-cultural adjustment of foreign nationals. Thirdly, since this study has selected the hospitality sector as a target research area, migrant individuals' perceived job satisfaction via the nature of hotel jobs will be revealed. Although an adequate amount of research has explored hotel employees and their job satisfaction, this study will further add the perspectives of migrant workers. In practice, understanding migrant workers' job fulfilment would add value to the study of the retention of this population. Finally, this study compares migrant workers in the two destinations in two different countries to consider the influence of national policy on immigration, which results in overall migrant workers' activities in the host countries. It must replace the idea that migrant population will soon be a superior substitute for labour shortage in developed countries. However, until now, not much emphasis has been given to this population. In this respect, this study would pay attention to the 'temporary migrant workers', particularly workers in the hospitality sector.

Organisation of the Study

This study uses cross-cultural adjustment theory to examine whether migrant workers' employment experience in the hospitality industry is related to cross-cultural adjustment in the host countries. The idea is inspired by the research of Janta and Ladkin (2009). Although a great amount of research on cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates and migrant workers has been conducted concerning work outcomes such as diversity management and employee retention; less attention has been given to temporary migrant workers in the hospitality sector.

Janta and Ladkin (2009) explore cultural learning via Hungarian migrant workers in the United Kingdom's (UK) hotel sector. By extension of their findings, this study examines similar issues but in a different demographic context. In addition, this study employs Black's (1988) cross-cultural adjustment model, which has been widely used and tested in the field of expatriate studies. This time the model is applied to test temporary migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment. As Janta and Ladkin (2009) explored the workers' cultural enhancement during employment experience in the host country, this study also seeks a possible relation between temporary migrant workers' cultural adjustment and employment experience.

There are seven chapters in this dissertation: Chapter One provides an introduction and extensive clarification of the research idea. Chapter Two provides information about current immigration policies at the selected research destinations; Darwin in Australia and Beppu in Japan, to promote an understanding of the background of this research. Chapter Three organises a review of the related literature, and further presents an essential theoretical background for this study. Chapter Four provides information on the applied research methodology. Chapter Five presents the results of the statistical analysis. Chapter Six provides a discussion based on related literature. Finally, Chapter Seven offers insights into the findings, and discusses the research limitations and implications for future research.

Chapter Summary

International labour mobility has become more common than ever before due to globalisation. This study attempts to identify relationships between employment experience and perceived cross-cultural adjustment of temporary migrant workers in the hospitality sector. Two research sites with a higher proportion of foreign workers and hotel workers in the Asia Pacific region

were selected: Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan). The next chapter presents a comparison of macro-national immigration policies in these two research destinations.

CHAPTER 2. OVERVIEW OF MIGRANTS IN AUSTRALIA AND JAPAN

Introduction

Declining birth-rates and an ageing population in developed countries has resulted in a chronic labour shortage in various industries. This labour shortages can however be resolved by taking advantage of globalisation, which in turn improves the mobility of workforces across nations. The current migration policies of many host countries have created a category of temporary workers who toil to learn about their host societies, as well as to find a socio-economic niche to fit themselves. This chapter addresses the current migration policies of Australia and Japan that determine such types of temporary migrant workers. Australia as a ‘traditional’ immigration-receiving country (Hugo et al., 2015) and Japan as a ‘latecomer’ immigration-receiving country (Seidel, 2015) represent somewhat different characteristics in immigration policies. It is certain that migration policies in Australia and Japan have placed significant emphasis on temporary and skilled migrants in response to the economic changes and the market demands for extra workforce. In contrast, both nations have different perspectives on migrant population inflows and accepting them into society. Therefore, understanding the migration policies of both nations should provide insights as to their current migration patterns.

Migrants in Australia

Australia is known as one of the favourite international migration destinations in the globe. In 2014-15, the population of overseas' born residents reached 28 percent (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2016c). Despite Australia being at the top nine international migrants-receiving countries among OECD members in 2015 (United Nations, 2016), the proportion of overseas' born residents per total population was recorded higher than for the US (13.3%), UK (13.2%), and Canada (19.9%) (OECD, 2016). Since the nation's first-immigration portfolio was created in 1945, over 7.5 million migrants have settled there. In 2015-2016, the government offered up to 190,000 permanent migration places under the Skill, Family and Special Eligibility streams for the upcoming year 2016-2017 (Australian Government, 2015a). A primary source for permanent migration to Australia has always been the United Kingdom (UK), but recently this role has shifted to India (21.2%) followed by China (15.3%) and then the UK (10%) (Phillips & Simon-Davies, 2017). Taking advantage of its geographical location, seven of the top ten major source countries include countries in South and Southeast Asia.

To meet the needs of the nation, the Australian migration program focuses especially on economic and social development. Under this policy, immigration has been fine-tuned to determine the quantity and quality of the migrants. In the earlier stages of the migration program, the migrant policy emphasised the social aspects, which allowed significant numbers of migrants under the family stream. Since the 1980s, although the offered migration numbers have remained the same, the focus has been different. The focus has shifted to an emphasis on the labour market and its shortfalls. In response to this, the migration program has made gradual shifts in the balance of migrants which emphasised the skilled migration more than the family migration of previous decades. For instance, in 1996-97, skilled migrants only accounted for

47 percent of the overall permanent migration program (Spinks, 2010), whereas the rate had increased to 67.7 percent by 2015-16 (Australian Government, 2015b).

In Australia, the skilled migration program is categorised into five different types: general skilled migration, employer nomination, state, territory and regional nomination, business skills migration, and distinguished talent migration. In 2015-16, the skilled migration was allocated 37.5 percent to employer nominated (including state, territory and regional nomination), 56.7 percent to general independent, and 5.8 percent to business (Australian Government, 2015b). The government placed more attention on the skilled migration than ever before in response to the recent economic challenges for the nation. This change is indicated by the increase of skilled migration intake as compared to family migration intake (Australian Government, 2015b). In fact, employer nominated skilled migrants, who have arranged employment prior to arrival is the main focus in the recent changes of the policy since 2009. The focus is on ‘demand driven’ migration outcomes such as employer and government-sponsored (state, territory and regional nomination) skilled migration which enables the migration program to better target the skills needed for the economy and ensure that those skilled migrants are in the industries that have the highest labour demand.

As the Australian migration program trends indicate, the migration intake has been flexible depending on the national economy and social demands. Recent changes indicate that the nation is in need of more skilled migrants than ever before. Thus, the migrant intake on the skilled migration category has been raised continuously. The changes in the permanent migration program has a greatly influenced temporary migrants’ future directions and their plans in the country. According to the migration trends in Australia, one-third of the temporary migrant population subsequently become permanent residents via skilled migration categories,

and the movement is expected to be increasing (Phillips et al., 2010). As a result, temporary migration has become the first step towards permanent settlement in Australia. Moreover, the government considers temporary migrants as a prospective source for the permanent migration programme which positively impacts Australia's economy (Hugo, 2005). This indicates that government policies encourage temporary residents to apply for permanent residency in the country, especially the temporary skilled migrants and international students who have particular skills or are applying in specific regions which have a labour demand.

Temporary Migrants

In the mid-1990s, a new set of temporary migration programmes were introduced in Australia in line with the internationalisation of labour markets. Since then, the growth and development in temporary migration programmes has been tremendous. The number of temporary migrants coming to Australia has far exceeded the number of permanent migrants. For instance, in 2014-15, total permanent migration was granted for 189,097 placements, whereas temporary migration was granted to 4.3 million places (Australian Government, 2016a). Temporary migration can be classified into four major categories excluding New Zealand citizens staying in the country: working holidaymakers (WHM), international students, temporary skilled migrants (subclass 457), temporary graduate migrants (subclass 485), and other temporary migrants (temporary transit visas). The main purpose of this migration category was to support existing labour demands in certain sectors or in certain regions. Unlike the permanent migration programme, the balance of temporary migration to Australia is not determined by the government. Thus, the intake changes depending on demands in the labour market from various industries. In line with the changes in the government policy, since the late 1990s, there has been a significant growth in temporary migration. For instance, during 1999-2000, the net

migration gain from long-term temporary migration exceeded those from permanent migration. The intake in temporary migration has been continuously increased since the 1990s (Phillips & Simon-Davies, 2017). For instance, in 2015-16, temporary migration increased by 5.3 percent in comparison to the previous year. The number of international students makes a significant contribution and accounted for 46.9 percent of total temporary migrants in 2016, followed by the temporary skilled migrants (17.2%), working holiday-makers (13.7%), and others (22%) (Australian Government, 2016c). The number of international students and temporary graduate migrants (subclass 485) have shown the major growth (10.6% and 51.4% respectively) while the number of temporary skilled migrants has slightly decreased (-7.8%) since 2015. As the main purpose of temporary migrants moving to Australia is to seek employment opportunities, the workforce participation rate of this population is quite positive. Referring to the data from the Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS) (2014), 67.4 percent of the temporary migrants were employed, which is similar with the employment rate of Australian-born workers (68%), while it was slightly higher than permanent migrants (66%). In terms of labouring sectors, the majority of temporary migrants are involved in low-skilled job sectors such as manufacturing, hospitality and service industries.

International Students

International students, as part of temporary migration, are the very first step towards temporary skilled migration (subclass 457). This is the stage to develop specific elements in order to satisfy permanent migration qualifications, especially for those who are not yet qualified to be a permanent migration applicants. As mentioned earlier, this group makes a major contribution to the temporary migration programme in Australia with 498,155 students in 2015 (Australian Government, 2016b). The arrival of international students into Australia is constantly increasing resulting in the international education sector being the third largest export industry

for the national economy. Among this population, Chinese and Indian students were the leading groups at 27.3 percent and 10.8 percent respectively in 2015 (Australian Government, 2016b). The majority of the students were enrolled in the higher education sector (51%), the vocational education training sector (VET) (25%), and English language intensive courses for overseas students (ELICOS) (24%) (Australian Government, 2016d). In terms of student characteristics, their age range was 20-24 years (42% of total) and 54 percent of the total students were males (Australian Government, 2016d). This specific population makes direct and indirect economic contributions not only in metropolitan areas but also in regional areas of the nation. For example, the total income generated and contributed to the local economy by international students in the Northern Territory (NT) was 81 million Australian dollars, which is about 0.3 percent of the GSP of the state (Australian government, 2015c). In addition, the international student population contributed 444 FTE (full time equivalent) jobs, which was about 0.4 percent of the total employment in the NT region in 2014-15 (Australian government, 2015c). Other than the economic benefits, this population also created several social benefits to the nation, such as cultural awareness and social engagement in the society, and created diplomatic relations among the nations via Australian-educated alumni (Australian government, 2015c).

Temporary Skilled Migrants

The government believes that temporary skilled migration can be highly responsive to changes in economic conditions and the demand for labour in the nation. Therefore, temporary skilled migration becomes a pathway to permanent migration in Australia, and thus the policy allows many international students to be eligible to apply for permanent visas after completion of their courses in Australia. In 1996, the Australian government introduced the temporary skilled migration program called 'subclass 457,' which allowed employers to sponsor skilled overseas workers for a stay of up to four years. In addition, unlike prior temporary migration

programmes, the new version of temporary skilled migration (subclass 457) was designed for simplification of the rules and procedures in administrating the temporary entry of skilled overseas workers into the nation in offset current labour shortages (Khoo et al., 2007). The programme is designed to allow overseas workers who arranged their employment prior to arrival. Entrants of temporary skilled migration is one of the major causes for the growth of the NOM population, which further contributes to Australia's total population growth. In terms of the characteristics of the temporary skilled migrant workforce, their average age is relatively younger than the Australian-born workforce, and social networks plays an important role in their adjustment such as information-gathering and job searching (Khoo et al., 2009). A study by Khoo and colleagues (2007) identifies the average age of the migrant workers was in their middle thirties and that they were preponderantly males.

Working Holiday-makers (WHM)

In Australia, there are two types of working holiday visas: working holiday visa (subclass 417), and work and holiday visa (subclass 462). The purpose of the two programmes is positioned to allow young people, between 18-30, from partner countries, to work and engage in cultural exchange experience for a limited time. There are slight differences in the two visas. The former visa is for young people from mostly developed countries such as the UK, Ireland, Korea, Germany and France which permits for a second-round application if applicants meet the requirements. Conversely, the latter visa is designed for young people from specific countries such as the USA, Indonesia, Malaysia, and Thailand and is limited to up to a year. Both types of working holiday-makers have been strong contributors to short-term workforce requirements for industries in tourism, hospitality and horticulture in both urban and regional areas (Phillips, 2012); 31 percent of these working holiday-makers are located in areas with labour shortages, especially in the regions (Australian Government, 2015d). Although this

population makes money for themselves via labour experience during their stay, their expenditure is greater than their earnings. For instance, the major expenditure by this population is made in tourist goods and services, which account for 60 percent of the total, and is greater than the average expenditure by international tourists (Australian Government, 2015d).

Migrants in Japan

Although the total of foreign residents reached a peak with 2.23 million or 1.7 percent of the total population in 2014 (OCED, 2016), the migrant population in Japan remains relatively small. The number of newly registered permanent migrants dropped to 63,500 in 2014 from 108,500 in 2007; thus it is clear that overall migrant intake has been less active in comparison to other industrialised countries. For example, the proportion of registered foreign-born population in Japan (1.7%) was significantly smaller than in countries such as Germany (13.2%), France (12.4%), the UK (13.2%), and Australia (28.1%) in 2014 (OECD, 2016). In fact, the Japanese government has been strictly controlling migrant intake every year as indicated by the number of registered migrants. Hence, the immigration policies in Japan reflect its desire to maintain Japan as a homogenous society. Kondo (2008) also states that although there has been a slight improvement in the development of immigration flows in Japan, the strict control over immigration is maintained. However, Japan as a ‘latecomer’ migration destination country (Seidel, 2015) has great potential to be a leading migration destination because the government has opened the door for more overseas workforce to overcome labour shortages caused by the decline in birth rate and an ageing population.

According to the Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (2016), the total number of foreign nationals in Japan was 2,172,892. Among them, Chinese nationals formed the largest number at 656,403 (30%), followed by Koreans (498,000), Filipinos (224,000), Brazilians (173,000), Vietnamese (125,000), and Americans (51,000). There has been a significant growth in the number of Vietnamese nationals (up 25%), Nepalese (14.3%), and Taiwanese (12.5%). The total number of special permanent and temporary migrants was 354,291, and 1,818,601, respectively, in the year 2014. In terms of migrant distribution by regions, more than half of the migrants were residing in Tokyo. Most migrants in Tokyo were specialist/technical workers or international students.

The number of temporary migrants in Japan, however, is growing gradually since the government has welcomed temporary foreign workers to resolve the labour shortage issue in the nation. However, the characteristics of immigration policies on temporary migrants by the Japanese government are somewhat different to that of the Australian government, and indicates different immigration positions are being taken by each nation.

Temporary Migrants

Japanese immigration policies began in the 1980s when Japan was experiencing the so called ‘Bubble Economy’ as domestic labour shortage and yen revaluation became serious struggles. To overcome these problems, the government introduced two major temporary migration policies to recruit overseas workforce: the Industrial Training Programme (ITP) and the Quasi-Permanent Resident Programme.

Trainees - Industrial Training Programme (ITP)

The Japanese government introduced the ITP for non-Japanese with the aim of sharing advanced Japanese skills, technology, and knowledge which contribute to the development of human resources that are expected to play a central role in the economic development of developing countries in Southeast Asia such as China, Vietnam, and Indonesia (Liu-Farrer, 2011; Yamada, 2010). The people under this category, referred to as ‘trainees’, are overseas workers and are allowed residence in Japan for a maximum of five years after completing a designated training programme. Since the Immigration Act was revised in 1989 in Japan (to recruit overseas workers), the number of trainees increased dramatically and became the biggest group among the temporary migrant population. For instance, the number of registered trainees was 98,700 while the number of other temporary migrant workers (entertainers, professionals, and ethnic repatriates) was 45,500 in 2014 (OECD, 2016). Although the Japanese government implemented ITP to share Japanese industrial knowledge with developing countries, the workers involved in ITP are classified as low-skilled workers with limited work mobility and no legal possibility to settle in Japan. They are involved in the manufacturing, welding, and plastic moulding sectors (Yamada, 2010). The government allows a large number of intakes of these trainees every year (100,000 people in 2008), but they are largely invisible to the public (Liu-Farrer, 2011).

Ethnic Repatriates – Quasi-permanent Residents

Since a revision to the Immigration Act in 1989, the ‘Long-Term Resident’ status was established by welcoming descendants of Japanese nationals referred to as ‘Nikkei’ migrants (Yamada, 2010). These migrants are mostly from countries in South America such as Brazil and Peru. This group of returning migrants are, officially, the most preferred due to their ethnicity being Japanese (Yamada, 2010). Since the government proposed the new policy, the

number of Japanese descendants residing in the nation increased to 53,359 people in 1991 and the total population peaked at 268,836 people in 2006. The majority of this population are involved in sectors that need low-skilled labour. Unlike overseas workers under the ITP scheme, these people have extended legal constraints on work mobility. For example, they can work without restriction as permanent residents in Japan (Kondo, 2008). In comparison to other migration destination countries among OECD members, the intake of ancestry-based migrants into Japan is relatively higher. In fact, the purpose of accepting ancestry-based migrants is quite different. The Japanese government is targeting this population as a local labour substitute while maintaining the idea of a racially homogeneous nation (Liu-Farrer, 2011).

International Students

In response to internationalisation and globalisation, the Japanese government proposed ‘the Plan to accept 100,000 international students’ to improve the internationalisation and international competitiveness of Japanese education (Shimomura, 2013). To achieve the target, the government simplified the administration process, especially for foreign students who were preparing for pre-university language courses. In 2008, the government announced another plan for 300,000 international students into the nation by 2020. There has been a great migration emphasis on international students. According to the OECD (2016), the number of international students (82,500) is the second largest intake among temporary migrants into Japan following the trainees of ITP (98,700) in 2015. The majority of these students are enrolled in the higher education sector (73%) and the rest are enrolled in Japanese language courses for international students (27%) (Japan Student Services Organization, 2015). Surprisingly, a significant number of international students in Japan are from Asian countries (92.7%) including China (45.2%), Vietnam (18.7%), and South Korea (8.8%) (Japan Student Services Organization, 2015). Chinese students are dominant in student migration into Japan.

The majority of the international students reside in the Kanto area (Tokyo) (55.1%), while others are in Kinki (Kyoto) and Kyushu (Fukuoka) with 16.6 percent and 11.4 percent respectively (Japan Student Services Organization, 2015). From the perspective of the government, international students with a Japanese education have a greater potential to be a core labour source in major industries since they have the language skills, and a knowledge of the Japanese culture and norms through education. In addition, an increasing number of Japanese companies are expanding their market into ASEAN countries that require a workforce with a global talent. Therefore, the government encourages these Japan-educated international students to be retained in Japan's economy by allowing a six-month extended stay after graduation to find employment opportunities in Japan. However, during the college and pre-college years, these students are mainly involved in low-skilled sectors such as hotel or food service, retail or wholesale, and manufacturing sectors with a limited hours work permit (Yamada, 2010).

Specialized and Technical Labour

Unlike 'trainees' under the industrial training programme (ITP), this immigration stream is specially designed for highly skilled workers. In this category, various professionals are included such as medical service workers, artists, professors, skilled labour workers and so on. This particular population was the majority of the temporary migrants into Japan until 2005 and, especially, entertainers (hostess bar workers) from the Philippines contributed the most. However, since 2005, the government has imposed stricter immigration controls, which has resulted in the reduction of entertainer migrants' (-67%), whereas the number of engineer migrants (51%) has improved (Kondo, 2008).

A Comparison between Australia and Japan

Globalisation, a lowered birth ratio, and an ageing population are causes for attracting more skilled overseas workers into developed countries like Australia and Japan. Both highly developed nations have chosen the option of adopting temporary migrant workers as one of the solutions to satisfy their market demands. However, each nation has somewhat different characteristics and immigration policies. Depending on the purpose of immigration policy, temporary migration workers' opportunities in a foreign country could be limited or limitless. These migrant workers' adjustment to a foreign nation could also be dependent upon the offers they receive.

Firstly, based on the discussion, the Australian immigration decisions, especially concerning temporary migrants, are mainly based on market demand. Depending upon the needs of the labour market and industries, policies are established. The Australian government considers temporary visa holders to be prospective permanent migrants. These migrants often develop the required skills during the early stages of migration such as completing higher education. Therefore, the immigration policies in Australia have an encouraging attitude towards temporary visa holders. Temporary migrants as a workforce tend to receive full worker rights and join a labour force based on an employment contract. The majority of temporary migrant visas in Australia are international students, temporary skilled migrants, and working holiday-makers.

Japanese immigration policy concerning temporary migrants also has a similar purpose to that of the Australian immigration policy: Temporary migrants for the solution of labour shortage issues in the nation. Therefore, the government has also attempted to invite foreign workers

with particular skills or with certain backgrounds. However, unlike the policy in Australia, the Japanese immigration policy seems more conservative and cautious especially from the perspective of migrants' accessibility to the labour market (Korekawa, 2015). For instance, the most preferred long-term resident as a solution for the labour shortage is 'ethnic repatriates,' while the population of international students is also significant. The majority of the skilled temporary migrant worker category was filled with entertainment workers until 2005. Also, so-called 'trainees' who are residing in Japan for an internship programme receive limited work mobility, have no legitimate possibility to settle in Japan, and these workers are involved in low-skilled labour-intensive sectors such as the manufacturing industry (Yamada, 2010).

In terms of labour source by migrant population, especially in the low-skilled labour sectors, the Australian and Japanese governments have made quite different approaches. In Japan, migrant workers with international studentships (Liu-Farrer, 2011) and who are part of the trainee programme (Soble, 2017) have been a means to gain low-wage labour imports in the nation (see Table 2.1). On the other hand, in Australia, *working holiday-makers* have been one of the major labour sources for low-skilled sectors such as services or agricultural sectors especially in remote areas (see Table 2.1). *Working holiday-makers* in Australia hold nationalities from developed countries in Europe, North America, and Northeast Asia while *trainees* in Japan are mainly from developing countries in Southeast Asia. From the start, their intentions for temporary migration are very different. The former group in Australia is about traveling while earning their expenses through part-time work, but the latter group enters Japan for a better life-style and economic situation than in their home country. The Japanese immigration policy uses low-skilled temporary migrants such as international students and trainees to fill low-wage labour market. Due to the different immigration policy implications between the two nations, individual migrant workers' perceived employment

experience and cross-cultural adjustment in the host society may emerge as being dissimilar. Those temporary migrant workers are in the most vulnerable position in the society; ruthless working and living conditions for these workers have often been publicised in the media (Soble, 2017). Although the Japanese immigration policy is evolving and opening up to more foreign workers as a solution for the ageing population-related issues, the immigration policy remains unfavourable to foreign workers. Unlike the immigration policies of Australia, the system in Japan needs a lot of enhancement regarding better opportunities for foreign workers.

Australia and Japan present different immigration policy implications on temporary migrant workers yet these have a similar purpose. Therefore, the current study is interested in whether migrant workers' various migration circumstances would predict a different level of experience between the workers located in Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan). In line with the dissection in this chapter, this study formed research hypotheses based on two research questions which will be presented in Chapter 3 (see page 56).

Table 2.1 Temporary migration trends between Australia and Japan**Source: OECD (2016)**

Temporary Migration	Australia		Japan	
	2009 - 2013			
	Thousands	%	Thousands	%
International Students	155.9	31.6	61.4	30.8
Trainees	4.0	0.8	82.1	41.2
Working holiday makers	202.6	41.1	8.5	4.3
Seasonal workers	0.6	0.1	-	-
Expatriates	7.5	1.5	5.8	2.9
Other temporary workers	122.7	24.9	41.4	20.8
Total	493.3	100.0	199.2	100.0

Visa category and Temporary Migrants

The immigration policy for individual migrants plays a significant role especially for settlement outcomes (Cobb-Clark & Khoo, 2006). Because it sometimes limits social activities of migrants to emphasise the purpose of migrants' visit to the host nations, the experience varies depending on visa categories. New migrants especially with the condition of low-skilled work and temporary leave to stay tend to have different experiences in comparison with migrants in the skilled and with long-term stay category. However, it seems that each visa category has a certain allowance from the host society. In fact, low-skilled and temporary visa holders tend to have less flexibility such as career mobility in the host society than skilled and long-term visa holders. However, better opportunities and life-styles at the host nation can improve the overall satisfaction of migrants (Richardson et al., 2002).

Employment experience for migrants is a crucial step toward successful settlement (Van den Heuvel & Wooden, 2000; Richardson et al., 2002). One main reason is that migrants can integrate more willingly into the society through contacts they make in the workplace (Richardson et al., 2002). However, these chances are geared more available to skilled visa holders than non-skilled visa holders. Therefore, it can be assumed that, depending on visa category, migrants' labour force opportunity and outcomes appear to be different. In fact, migrant workers' labour force opportunity (Cobb-Clark, 1999), and outcome (VandenHeuvel & Wooden, 2000), can be differently showed by visa categories. Whilst there is an argument that these effects could be caused by individual migrants' characteristics such as immigration motivation, education, host language skill, and so on (Miller, 1999). Therefore, this study aims to look closely at whether migrant workers have different levels of employment experience and cultural adjustment by different visa categories. Accordingly, *Study Enquiry 3* was established (see page 56).

Chapter Summary

This chapter has addressed highlights of the migration policies of Australia and Japan. Based on the discussion, this study proposed that immigration policies could also be an influential factor when foreign workers are adjusting to a new culture. Depending on the nature of immigration policies, foreign workers' opportunities, quality of living, career mobility, and social access to the host nation may vary. The two chosen research destinations indicated a significantly different level of temporary migration policies although the purpose was similar. Therefore, the study hopes to uncover whether the migrant workers' immigration positions in the host nation influences their perceived employment experience and cross-cultural

adjustment ability. Moreover, this study examines cultural adjustment and labour force experience by visa categories, and within migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu separately.

The next chapter explores the existing literature on cross-cultural adjustment and perceived employment experience of migrant workers. This research focuses on the employment experience of migrant workers comprising of two measures: Perceived working experience and social interaction behaviour. This study selected work experience in the hospitality industry as a suitable research context. The sector represents one of the most segmented job industries with an unfavourable working environment which demands secondary workers who can fit into the jobs. Further comments will be made in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 3. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

This chapter rationalises the research variables prior to the empirical investigation. Based on the three research questions (see page 13), the present study explores relevant previous literature in the field of cross-cultural adjustment of foreign workers, job characteristics and perceived employment experience in the hospitality industry. Accordingly, research hypotheses are presented with a discussion of the findings from the relevant literature.

Cross-cultural Adjustment

Experiencing a new culture and learning unfamiliar social norms are always difficult and often associated with social and psychological distress. It is widely acknowledged that the process of adjustment to a new culture by learning and adopting appropriate behaviours mediate those stresses. Many researchers have attempted to explore various aspects of cross-cultural adjustment. The definition of adjustment is “the degree of a person’s psychological comfort with various aspects of a new setting” (Black and Gregersen, 1991a, p. 498). According to Black and Gregersen (1991a), the theoretical framework for cross-cultural adjustment stems primarily from culture shock (Oberg, 1960) based on Lysgaard’s work (1955). Culture shock explains that the moment individuals enter a foreign country, an experience of cultural differences occurs while understanding appropriate behaviours which might be acceptable within their culture but not in the foreign culture. As a result, this creates a feeling of negative emotional state in individuals such as anxiety and frustration due to the uncertain experience. An extended understanding of the culture shock process can be illustrated by using “U-curve

adjustment theory” which explains individuals’ cultural adjustment via four different phases: Honeymoon stage, culture shock stage, adjustment stage, and mastery (Lysgaard, 1955). According to U-curve adjustment theory, at the first stage, individuals tend to experience an excitement phase with the experience of a new culture, but a culture shock stage activates when the reality of new culture occurs, which can be overcome through gradual adoption and learning how to behave appropriately in the new culture. Each stage develops according to duration of exposure to a foreign culture. Although it explains an individual’s cultural transition and cultural adaptation process, it has been argued that theoretical development on U-curve theory remains weak, and it has failed to explain why individuals experience each different stage (Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Ward et al., 1998). After U-curve theory, other researchers have also proposed similar theories to explain sojourners’ cross-cultural adjustment processes based on duration of exposure to a foreign country.

While social learning theory (SLT) by Bandura and Walters (1977) has received great attention with respect to the fundamental knowledge of individuals’ cross-cultural learning processes, social learning theory (SLT) highlights, cognitive learning process within their social context (Bandura & Walters, 1977), which is based on the idea of learning through direct experience or observing behaviours of others (Bandura, 1971). According to SLT, individuals learn an appropriate behaviour by repeated reinforcement processes, while individuals’ cognitive skills can enable to profit extensively from the experience (Bandura, 1971). Black and Mendenhall (1991) mention that, unlike the U-curve model, SLT provides rather a theoretical framework within which cross-cultural adjustment can be explained through integrated aspects of the cognitive and behavioural learning process.

Conversely, Searle and Ward (1990) highlight the distinction of the cultural adjustment process within psychological (emotion/ affective) and sociocultural (behavioural) adjustment aspects. Reconceptualised as “culture shock”, this concept explains that intensified uncertainties and unfamiliarity in experiences during cross-cultural transitions enhance individuals’ social difficulties that may further result in affecting individuals’ psychological well-being. In this perspective, cross-cultural adjustment was considered in the relationship with individuals’ acculturation processes through an understanding of individuals’ feelings and social abilities. Even though psychological adjustment and sociocultural adjustment are inter-related, they are conceptually and empirically distinct (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Therefore, previous empirical research highlights that these two can be anticipated separately by distinct antecedent factors. For instance, factors related to emotional changes such as individuals perceived cultural distance and personality can predict individuals’ psychological adjustment; whereas other factors such as culture learning and social skills can predict individuals’ sociocultural adjustment (Ward & Searle, 1991). Black (1988) also conceptualizes cross-cultural adjustment (CCA), especially for foreign workers, when considering work and living adjustment aspects.

The cross-cultural adjustment model comprises of three individual factors: (i) Work adjustment, (ii) interaction adjustment (with host nationals), and (iii) general adjustment (general living environment) (Black, 1988; Black & Stephens, 1989; Black & Mendenhall, 1991). In this respect, ‘work adjustment’ refers to the degree of comfort in relation to job and performance expectations while ‘interaction adjustment’ refers to the comfort associated with interaction and socialising with host nationals at/off work. And ‘general adjustment’ refers to the comfort associated with living in a foreign environment by considering conditions of living, housing, food, shopping and others.

According to Black (1988), since cross-cultural adjustment is a multifaceted conceptual model, individuals or environmental factors may indicate different influence on the degree of an individual's adjustment. For instance, work-related factors have strong relationships with the degree of an individual's work adjustment rather than non-work adjustment. In the present study, therefore, since work-related adjustment is anticipated as a significant influence when foreign workers are adjusting to a new culture, the concept developed by Black (1988) is believed to be suitable to explain work and non-work adjustment aspects. Although various cross-cultural adjustment concepts have been considered by many researchers, the individual's cross-cultural adjustment process has been explained within cognitive and behavioural theoretical understandings based on social learning theory (SLT) by Bandura (1971). On the other hand, the cross-cultural adjustment model tests the degree of psychological comfort and familiarity in a new cultural environment for individuals who work in a foreign country (Black, 1990). In this respect, the CCA model requires exploring work-related factors to understand foreign workers' cross-cultural adjustment processes in a foreign culture.

Despite the fact that the CCA model was initially used to test a global professional cultural adjustment while working as an expatriate, only a few studies have adapted the CCA model for other purposes. In fact, the CCA model has been used to test not only organisational expatriates, but also self-initiated expatriates. For instance, Peltokorpi and Fabian (2009) attempted a comparative research between organisational expatriates and self-initiate expatriates to examine potential differences in their cross-cultural adjustment. Their findings revealed that those two groups had slightly different CCA outcomes: Self-initiated expatriates tend to have better interaction adjustment with host nationals than organisational expatriates. This research finding is well supported by similar research conducted by earlier researchers (Inkson et al., 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000). Froese et al. (2012) also tested the CCA

model for 125 English language teachers working in various establishments, including a private language institutes in Seoul. Similarly, Cao et al. (2013) examined the CCA model for 132 self-initiated expatriates in Germany without limiting their jobs or employment contract types. Previous research findings have thus proved that the application of the CCA model with various types of foreign workers can be supported, but different CCA outcomes can be expected. These would be caused depending upon an individual foreign workers' different experiences or circumstances. Cross-cultural adjustment aims to test a foreign worker's degree of psychological comfort and familiarity in a new cultural environment, via work and non-work experience (Black, 1988). Since the present study highlights a particular population that are migrant and currently working in the hospitality industry, the CCA model will explain these migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment. To confirm the appropriateness of the CCA for this study, it will be tested before answering the research questions. Related information will be further explained in Chapters 5 and 6 (see page 76 above).

Cross-cultural adjustment and work-related factors

Black and Mendenhall (1991) note that various situational and individual factors could affect individuals' different patterns of cross-cultural adjustment. Also, these can further explain why individuals' cultural experience and adjustment stages often vary. For instance, while some people are experiencing culture shock during the process of adjusting to a new culture, others may cope well while experiencing less cultural difficulties. It may occur depending on different influences by individuals' various situational factors. As explained by Searle and Ward (1990), perceived social difficulties result in a reduction of psychological comforts, which in turn results in the CCA process. Black (1988) summarised the factors which may influence individuals' CCA process into three categories: Individual, work-related, and external factors.

Furthermore, recent cross-cultural adjustment research has highlighted that work-related factors have a high potential to inhibit or increase individuals' cross-cultural adjustment (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996; Peltokorpi, 2008; Peltokorpi and Fabian, 2009). Work-related factors are most strongly related with individuals' work adjustment (Black, 1988). Black (1988) specified work-related adjustment factors into two categories: (1) Adjustment inhabiting: The work-related factors of this adjustment are role novelty, role conflict, role overload and role ambiguity; (2) adjustment facilitating: The work-related factors of this adjustment are role discretion, previous transfers, and pre-departure knowledge.

Previous empirical research has examined relationships between work-related factors and cross-cultural adjustment. For instance, Black and Gregersen (1991) tested 12 work and non-work related individual factors and their relationships with cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates in Asia. The outcome revealed that all work-related factors had significant relationships with only work adjustment including role discretion, role ambiguity and role conflict. Also, Aryee and Stone (1996) discovered that work-related factors such as role conflict, role discretion, co-worker support, and work method ambiguity (clarity) indicated strong associations with work adjustment of heterogeneous expatriates in Hong Kong. These findings complement the claim made by Black (1988) that work-related factors have the strongest association with work adjustment. However, Peltokorpi (2008) has argued that the cross-cultural adjustment process of foreign workers has been generalised, and that individuals' purpose of working in a cross-cultural context should not be ignored. In fact, previous research has shown different outcomes of cross-cultural adjustment depending on an individuals' purpose for working in a foreign nation. For instance, in the case of self-initiated expatriates, this group of people tend to show better host language skills and positive attitudes towards the host culture. Thus, they tend to demonstrate a higher level of engagement with host nationals

at the workplace than organisational expatriates (Peltokorpi and Fabian, 2009). Also, regarding gender differences, one of the major work adjustment predictors of female foreign workers is work socialisation and interaction with colleagues, while work socialisation is shown to be associated with non-work adjustment (Froese et al., 2012).

In this respect, although the majority of cross-cultural adjustment research deals with organisational expatriates who are experiencing difficulties with job transfer within an international context, other types of workers such as self-initiated expatriates and short or long-term migrant workers might have similar job and life changes in a foreign country. Unlike organisational expatriates, individual migrant workers' have less organisational support when adjusting to a new cultural environment. This may be due to migrant workers being hired in foreign countries rather than being transferred from home country organisations. Therefore, it is assumed that migrant workers' employment experiences would have a significant influence their overall cross-cultural adjustment process. According to Templer and colleagues (2006), cross-cultural adjustment is fundamental to subsequent outcomes such as job strain, job satisfaction, completion of assignment and intent to stay. In this regard, the hospitality industry has a reputation for providing an unfavourable work environment for workers. Specifically, the workers in the industry are struggling to achieve a positive work / life balances due to job characteristics. Therefore, having a difficult employment experience in the hospitality industry for migrant workers would significantly influence cross-cultural adjustment in a foreign nation. To understand its impact, hospitality job characteristics are further explored in the following section.

Working in the Hospitality Industry

The concept of hospitality is a harmonious combination of three major elements that include human interactions, consumption of tangible/intangible products, and a process of exchange for the parties involved. From the perspective of the generic essence of hospitality, Brotherton (1999, p. 168) defines “[hospitality is] a contemporaneous human exchange, which is voluntarily entered into, and designed to enhance the mutual well-being of the parties concerned through the provision of accommodation and food or drink”. The term ‘hospitality’ is more often used when describing hospitality from the perspective of business. When it comes to its commercial aspects, hospitality becomes a product delivered to a customer with the aim of a satisfactory experience. According to the International Labour Organization (ILO) (2017), there are three major sectors in which hospitality is used as a major business driver: The hotel, catering and tourism sectors, all of which also are one of the fastest-growing sectors in the global economy.

Since the hospitality business is delivering experience of tangible and intangible products to customers, the performance of a service deliverer is critical in achieving firms’ successful business outcomes. It is evident that customer satisfaction has a significant positive impact on hospitality firms’ financial performance (Chi & Gursoy, 2009); at the same time, it is also widely accepted that hospitality workers’ attitude has a strong influence on customer satisfaction with the service experience (Zhao & Mattila, 2013). For instance, research has revealed that frontline workers’ motivated and satisfied attitudes are likely to display positive effects, and deliver extra attention to customers. Consequently, such actions lead to enhanced overall customer satisfaction levels. Alternatively, workers undertaking unsatisfactory work and with stressed attitudes deliver a less pleasant service experience to customers. Therefore,

it is important to improve hospitality workers' satisfaction during their employment experience not only for positive business outcomes but also for the workers to enjoy their everyday life.

However, the hospitality industry has a reputation for poor working conditions with low-remuneration, long working hours (24/7/365) and relatively fewer employee benefits (International Labour Organization, 2017). Besides, workers in the hospitality industry are involved with everyday tasks that are labour intensive and may lead to emotional exhaustion that can cause plenty of work stressors. The hospitality industry is also known as a 'refuge sector,' since workers consider working in the industry to be temporary due to economic circumstances, or for self-development before applying for a stable career in other sectors (Szivas & Riley, 1999); "for most employees, the hospitality sector is not a career option, but rather a preparation for a career in another section of the economy" (Riley et al., 2002, p. 21). Consequently, the industry is confronted with the problems of retaining quality employees as well as attracting new hires. Labour market changes under globalisation have shifted the sector to a different landscape with the growing number of foreign workers. However, the need for more workers coincides with problems in staffing (Janta, 2011a). At the same time, the main reason for migrant workers working in the hospitality industry is for better wage options in comparison to working in their home country (Janta & Ladkin, 2009), and opportunities to learn host language skills and cultural exposure which are useful for further career development (Janta & Ladkin, 2009). Consequently, the sector is very 'open' to migrant workers to fill the vacancies unwanted by locals.

However, the nature of hospitality is still considered to be a hindrance not only for local workers but especially for migrant workers, whose adjustment to a new culture is striking via the employment experience. Migrant workers have discovered that negative hospitality job

characteristics create obstacles to their long-term commitment to the sector (Janta et al., 2011a). In fact, it is known that job characteristics could be used to anticipate workers' psychological well-being (Jonge et al., 2001). Therefore, the following sections attempt to discuss hospitality job characteristics, and the elements that would significantly impact hospitality workers' work and non-work adjustment via hospitality employment experience. Firstly, the major hospitality job characteristics are listed and discussed: Nature of hospitality work (emotion work, long working hours and work / life imbalance), employee benefits, work commitment and role discretion, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home and host nationals. These are important to discuss when considering individual workers' employment experience in the hospitality industry.

The nature of work: Hypotheses

As mentioned earlier, everyday work tasks for workers in the hospitality sector provide tangible as well as intangible service products to deliver a satisfiable experience to customers. Meanwhile, the role of service providers and hospitality workers is significantly more important than in any other industries when improving customer satisfaction and business outcomes. Therefore, previous research in hospitality studies has emphasised the issues related to the workers in the industry. Notably, job demand factors from the nature of the hospitality work and the workers' responses have earned major attention from many researchers (Law et al., 1995; Ledgerwood et al., 1998; Zhao & Ghiselli, 2016). Concerning foreign workers' cross-cultural adjustment, job demand factors have strong relationships with workers' work adjustment (Black, 1989). As a result, the current study reviews the nature of hospitality work to understand migrant workers' perceived employment experiences in the hospitality industry. Three major job demand factors (emotional work, long working hours and work/life

imbalance) from hospitality work are listed and explained, based on the results of previous research.

Emotional work

It is widely known that perceived work tasks in the hospitality industry are stressful due to its job characteristics. Previous researchers note that the nature of occupations could lead to workers' emotional exhaustion. Occupations that require frequent and intensive interactions with people like service jobs are more likely to cause higher levels of emotional strain. There are a few stressor factors that hospitality workers experience in their daily work tasks. First of all, emotional exhaustion is the major cause of hospitality workers' burnout, low-commitment, and low-effectiveness, which also results in decisions to leave jobs. Since the major job tasks of hospitality workers involve making interactions with customers who are directly related to customers' service transactions (Pugh, 2001), the workers should manage their emotions to be positive towards the receivers. According to Hochschild (1979), types of work which often involve managing an individuals' emotions during the work process under the policies of organisations are categorised as emotional work. Moreover, workers who are involved in emotional work are the so-called emotional labourers (Hochschild, 1979). The definition of emotional work is “the effort, planning and control needed to express organizationally desired emotion during interpersonal transactions” (Morris & Feldman, 1996, p. 987). The major feature of emotional labour's work is making face-to-face or voice contact with the public to produce an emotional state in another person as a result of those interactions (Hochschild, 1979). Previous research has categorised hospitality industry workers as emotional labourers, especially frontline service workers (Kinman, 2009).

A significant amount of research studies has addressed the unfavourable consequences of emotional labour relating to burnout, stress and depression (O'Neill et al., 2010; Heuven & Bakker, 2003; Kim, 2008) all of which may influence their work and life outside of work. Thus, emotional dissonance is one of the major causes of burnout among hospitality workers. However, service workers do not often report their actual experienced emotion which can be described as surface acting (Hochschild, 1983). For instance, flight service attendants are expected to be cheerful and friendly to the public (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993) although they may not be having such a cheerful day. Research by Heuven and Bakker (2003) found that emotional dissonance was the most important factor of employee burnout than job demands and job control of cabin attendants in the Netherlands. Workers' perceived emotional exhaustion is enhanced when the gap between felt emotion and expressed emotion is significant (Kim, 2008). However, the majority of emotional labourers hide their true emotions while dealing with customers to make the customers feel satisfied, but in reverse, causes workers' emotional exhaustion.

Long working hours

The culture of face time at a workplace is another characteristic in the hospitality industry, and it is a common experience not only for managers but also for subordinates. The concept of face time is described as a phenomenon related to that of "presenteeism" (Cooper, 1998). It is "an overwhelming need to put in more hours or, at the very least, appear to be working very long hours" (Cooper, 1998, p.314). Earlier research has explained the culture of face time in the hospitality industry as a work stressor factor of managerial level employees. Research by O'Neill (2012) showed that managers with higher levels of family culture tend to experience significantly lower levels of face time compared to others. In other words, managers voluntarily

finish work on time instead of staying unnecessary hours if they have a higher level of family culture. In the case of the employees with part-time contracts or non-contract, receiving more hours for future shifts can depend on their work attitudes and commitment, which often indicates their willingness to stay longer even after finishing their shifts. Such industries, where employees are temporary, workers have a dominant face time culture among employees to indicate their hardworking attitudes to their supervisors. Unlike managerial level employees, for low-level employees' the face time culture cannot be explained by their degree of family culture. Instead, it has an opposite effect. Thus, the face time culture at the workplace may be one of the major causes of employees' emotional exhaustion and burnout, especially for those lower-level employees. O'Neill and Xiao (2010) examined the factors associated with emotional exhaustion of hotel workers from 36 hotels across the United States, and their results revealed that the face time culture at the workplace is one of the major factors positively associated with the workers' emotional exhaustion.

Work and personal life imbalance

There is a significant possibility that job characteristics such as job demands have negative effects on workers' personal lives (Bacharach et al., 1991). For instance, when workers have too many tasks to accomplish at work it is inevitable to add down time for extra working hours as time is constrained. As a result, work demands may be one of the main causes of workers' perceived work and life imbalances (Boyar et al., 2003). In the case of the hospitality industry, due to its job characteristics such as an irregular working schedules with 24/7 and weekend shifts, the experience of emotional work, and work-family conflict are common among hospitality workers (Tromp & Blomme, 2012). Research by Zhao and Ghiselli (2016) reports that hospitality job characteristics such as long working hours and irregular work schedules are

the factors significantly related to work interfering with family in China. In line with these findings, other researchers have also agreed that workers in the hospitality industry encounter problems arising from conflicts in the work-family interface (Cleveland et al., 2007; Deery, 2008; Karatepe, 2008; Zhao et al., 2011).

From the perspective of hotel managers, Lawson and colleagues (2013) found that female employees without children at home, and young adults, are at risk of experiencing negative work-family conflict due to the pressure of organisational time expectations. On the other hand, lower-level workers also experience personal life imbalances due to the work expectations of the industry; long working hours, holiday work, and being on call for unexpected work shifts (Cleveland et al., 2007). Although they are depending on designations in the workplace, work and life conflict factors are slightly different. All types of workers in the industry are faced with the same problem: Work-family conflict. These mentioned job characteristics in the hospitality industry and work-family conflict further results in workers' depersonalisation, exhaustion and intention to leave a job (Karatepe, 2010). To improve a workers' perceived work-life balance, Wong and Ko (2009) suggested considering four critical factor: workers' enough time-off from work, workers' attachment to work, workplace support in work-life balance, and flexibility in work schedules.

Hypothesis 1a: The nature of hospitality work has a negative effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 1b: The nature of hospitality work has a negative effect on work adjustment.

Work attachment: Hypotheses

Although an occupation has its responsibilities (both required and perceived), workers with higher job control can manage anticipated job stressors better than others (Karasek, 1979; Karasek et al., 1981). In other words, if workers are motivated by the aspects of learning and personal growth in their work, work stressors can be managed by them. According to Herzberg (1966), workers' growth needs (intrinsic motivation) are directly related to work itself; thus, they can improve job satisfaction and thereby it further enhances work motivation. In line with this idea, previous researchers have found that organisations which support this concept manipulate workers' intrinsic motivational factors by providing training, empowerment and rewards (Sparrowe, 1994; Babakus et al., 2008; Chiang et al., 2014). For instance, Chiang and colleagues (2014) found that while job satisfaction was diminished by high job demands among hotel workers in Hong Kong, adding discretion such as rewards and training into the job content could moderate the negative effects of this on workers' job satisfaction. In line with this finding, Babakus and colleagues (2008) also examined that providing psychological empowerment to workers enhanced their job satisfaction, which in turn further reduced turnover intentions. These outcomes can be explained by the knowledge of job demand and control (D-C) developed by Karasek (1979) that having decision latitude on a job can reduce work stress when perceived job demands on workers are high. Chiang and colleagues (2010) also agree with the idea that hotel workers' high job demand increased with low job control will result in higher levels of perceived work stress. Therefore, workers' employment experience in a specific industry cannot be explained without considering individuals' attitude towards their work. Depending on an individuals' work attitude, the perceived employment experience outcomes may differ significantly. Also, previous research has noted that discretion reduces uncertainty (Black, 1988), and it is highly associated with the need for work adjustment by

foreign workers (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996). Therefore, a positive level of work attachment within employees should predict positive work adjustments.

Hypothesis 2a: Work attachment has no effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 2b: Work attachment has a positive effect on work adjustment.

Hypothesis 3a: Workplace discretion has no effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 3b: Workplace discretion has a positive effect on work adjustment.

Work benefits: Hypotheses

Although the working environment may be unfavourable, some workers find work motivation through employee benefits provided by their companies. For instance, international hotel groups such as Hilton, Accor and Marriot offer their employees special team rates for staying at their hotels internationally. Because of this, many hotel workers remain working in an international hotel even as part-time workers. In other cases, some workers are pleased with the fringe benefits such as good quality of employee restaurants or facility discounts for being a guest (Wan & Chan, 2013). According to Herzberg (1966), extrinsic needs are also an important factor to consider when improving workers' work motivation. Although extrinsic needs such as wage, reward system and fringe benefits, are not directly related to work, they may prevent workers' feelings of dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966). Wan and Chan (2013), exploring perceptions of casino employees' quality of work life, discovered that nearly the majority of workers expressed satisfaction with the role of company fringe benefits, rewards and incentives in their quality of work life. Also, depending on workers' contextual situations extrinsic need factors can be a better motivational drive than intrinsic need factors. For instance, Upchurch and colleagues (2000) assert that the most effective work motivation factor for

hospitality workers in Russia was correlated with the current state of the economy, thus, in this case, extrinsic factors (salary, job security, and working conditions) significantly motivated the workers. However, there is a reputation that the hospitality industry provides poor employee benefits in comparison to other industries (International Labour Organization, 2017). Getz (1994) asserts that rising negative attitudes towards hospitality jobs such as not being a desirable career among prospective workers was due to the poor reputation of the sector.

According to Kusluvan and Kusluvan's (2000) report, prospective hospitality industry employees' perception of benefits of the industry indicated a very negative attitude towards pay and benefits from the hospitality industry. Richardson (2010) also completed a similar study from Australia indicating that hospitality-major prospective employees from Australia had a negative impression of benefits, whereas prospective employees from overseas had a negative opinion of wages per worked hours in the industry. On the other hand, an interesting finding was revealed by Lundberg and colleagues (2009); that short-term seasonal workers were more concerned about meeting new people during the new experience than benefit packages in the workplace. As a result, it can be said that preferences about employee benefits may significantly differ depending on individual workers' situations. However, according to Herzberg (1966), extrinsic factors such as work benefits can have a positive influence on job satisfaction. Therefore, it is anticipated that work benefit factors would have a more positive association with work adjustment than non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 4a: Work benefit has no effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 4b: Work benefit has a positive effect on work adjustment.

Workplace socialisation: Hypotheses

One of the major job characteristics of the hospitality industry is its intense reliance on people – both as consumers and providers of products and services. Having a people-oriented work environment may cause some work stresses but, at the same time, it can be a supporting element for workers' better work adjustment (Bauer et al., 2007). Having positive workplace relationships can be an important factor to enhance a pleasant work environment, which further reduces work involved stress. Positive workplace relationships have been explained from various perspectives such as organisational social support (Wayne et al., 1997), organisational socialisation (Feldman, 1981), and organisational climate (Litwin & Stringer, 1968). For instance, previous research by Ross and Boles (1994) showed that a positive work relationships engendered by superiors' considerate attitudes towards subordinates demonstrated workers' positive perceptions of their supervisors which further results in reducing the workers' role conflict and role ambiguity. Thus, while some research has highlighted the fact that organisational socialisation is an important factor, especially for newcomers' work adjustment and the assimilation process (Bauer et al., 2007; Morrison, 2002), there is no doubt that creating social ties in the workplace is a critical element, especially for migrant workers, in adjusting to a new cultural environment.

In some cases, although job demands are significant, migrant workers choose to stay longer due to limits on job choices in a foreign country. From this perspective, Lundberg et al. (2009) note that frequent interactions and meeting new people were significantly essential elements for seasonal workers to be motivated because these social interactions with work people (host nationals) may assist the workers to be able to cope better to overcome uncertainties in a new cultural environment. Migrant workers tend to show more motivation when interacting with

local people since they volunteered to move to a foreign nation to learn the culture and language. In fact, regarding the acculturation aspect, Ward and Searle (1991) note that an individuals' culture shock stage during cultural transitions could be mediated by frequent socialisation and interactions with people. Although previous research has highlighted that socialisation in the workplace has a most strong relationship with workers' non-work adjustment, socialisation in the workplace would also be positively related to work adjustment impact on employees' work adjustment (Ross, 1994; Bauer et al., 2007; Morrison, 2002). Aryee and Stone (1996) also agree that workplace social support has a positive association with workers' work adjustment. Therefore, in the present study, socialisation with colleagues is expected to have a positive relationship with both the work and non-work adjustment of migrant workers.

Hypothesis 5a: Workplace socialisation has a positive effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 5b: Workplace socialisation has a positive effect on work adjustment.

Interactions with host and home nationals: Hypotheses

One of the benefits of working in the hospitality industry for migrant workers is meeting new people, raising the chances for more interactions with people (Lundberg et al., 2009). Having interactions with various people at a workplace becomes a channel to learn about living in the host nation, which further assists the workers' uncertainty reduction. Research by Janta and colleagues (2011a) discovered that the main motivation for working in the hospitality industry for migrant workers is for self-development which benefits them to use and learn host languages, gain work experience, and receive other benefits provided by the sector. Through the employment experience in the hospitality industry, workers improved their career prospects in the foreign nation. Especially, migrant workers improve host language skills during the

employment experience throughout interactions and networking with co-workers, co-nationals, and customers. Janta and colleagues (2012) also agree that migrant worker learning not only happens via active experimentation but also via collective experiences which are mediated by others through social interactions in the workplace. Previous research shows that, especially, having everyday interactions with host nationals tends to improve workers' language skills and non-verbal behaviour (Janta et al., 2011b), which in turn has a positive effect on the relationship with workers' non-work adjustment (Froese et al., 2012). Meanwhile, having interactions with their home country colleagues assists in accessing instrumental support in negotiating day-to-day life which is important for migrant workers' survival, especially for newly migrant workers (Kim, 2001; Janta et al., 2011b). Moreover, maintaining ties with home country colleagues is helpful in the workers' emotional well-being, but it negatively affects the improvement in host language ability (Janta et al., 2011b). Therefore, it can be anticipated that interaction with host nationals would have a positive relationship with work adjustment regarding language development and career prospects. On the other hand, interactions with home nationals would have a positive relationship with non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 6a: Interaction with home nationals has a positive effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 6b: Interaction with home nationals has no effect on work adjustment.

Hypothesis 7a: Interaction with host nationals has no effect on non-work adjustment.

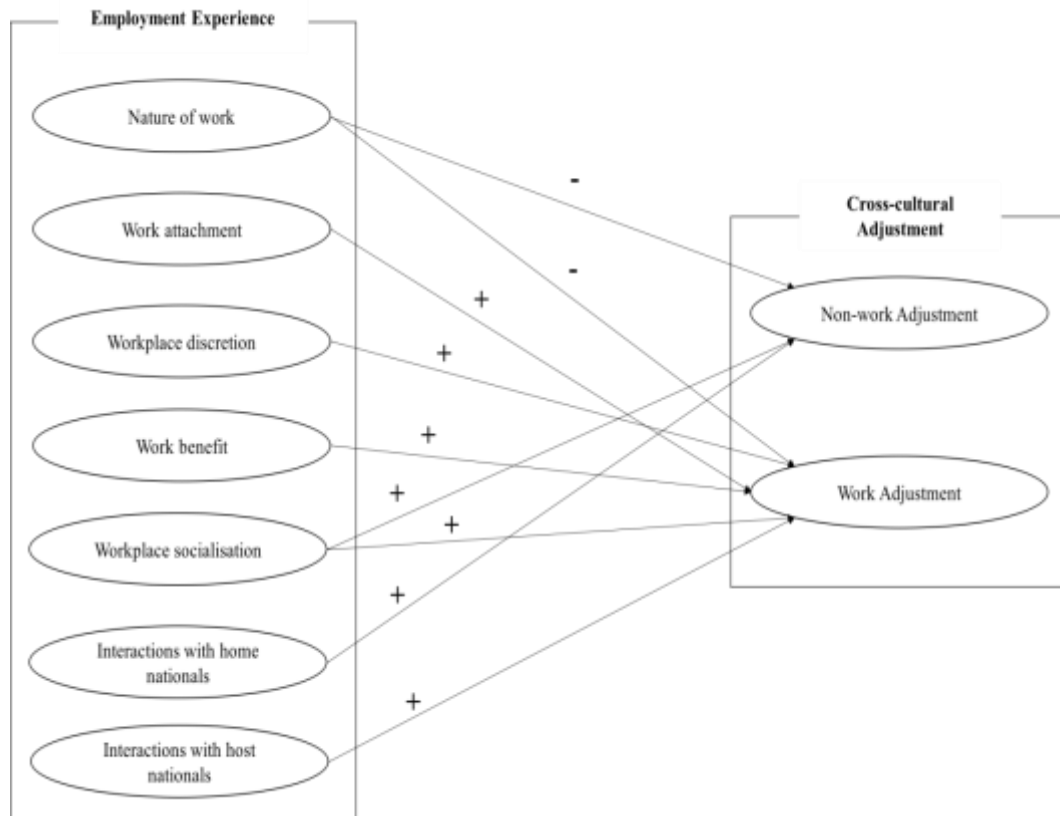
Hypothesis 7b: Interaction with host nationals has a positive effect on work adjustment.

Proposed Research Model and Hypotheses

Based on the discussion of the related literature and associated variables, the research model that is thesis is based on is shown in Figure 3.1 (page 62). Hypotheses 1 to 7 in Table 3.1

explain the proposed research model (Figure 3.1) in terms of the relationships between ‘employment experience’ and ‘cross-cultural adjustment’ variables.

Figure 3.1 The Research Model



A list of research hypotheses based on the discussions in this chapter as well as chapter 2 are organised in Table 3.1, below.

Table 3.1 Research hypotheses

Research Hypotheses
Study Enquiry Focus 1
<p>H1a: Nature of hospitality work has negative effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H1b: Nature of hospitality work has negative effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H2a: Work attachment has no effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H2b: Work attachment has positive effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H3a: Workplace discretion has no effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H3b: Workplace discretion has positive effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H4a: Work benefit has no effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H4b: Work benefit has positive effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H5a: Workplace socialisation has positive effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H5b: Workplace socialisation has positive effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H6a: Interaction with home nationals has positive effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H6b: Interaction with home nationals has no effect on work adjustment.</p> <p>H7a: Interaction with host nationals has no effect on non-work adjustment.</p> <p>H7b: Interaction with host nationals has positive effect on work adjustment.</p>
Study Enquiry Focus 2
<p>H8a: If there is a significant difference in cross-cultural adjustment between Darwin and Beppu, migrant workers in Darwin have better cross-cultural adjustment than migrant workers in Beppu.</p> <p>H8b: There is a significant difference in hospitality employment experience between Darwin and Beppu. Migrant workers in Beppu have poorer hospitality employment experience than migrant workers in Darwin.</p> <p>H8c: Migrant workers in Darwin shows a greater association between hospitality employment experience and cross-cultural adjustment than migrant hotel workers in Beppu.</p>
Study Enquiry Focus 3
<p>H9a: Migrant workers with temporary visas (international student, working and holiday maker) have lower cross-cultural adjustment than workers with long-term or professional visas (expatriate, immigrant, PR immigrant).</p> <p>H9b: Migrant workers with temporary visas (international student, working and holiday maker) have more negative employment experience than workers with long-term or professional visas (expatriate, immigrant, PR immigrant).</p> <p>H9c-1: Cross-cultural adjustment of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly different to long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Darwin.</p> <p>H9c-2: 'Employment experience' in the hospitality industry of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly different to long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Darwin.</p> <p>H9d-1: 'Cross-cultural adjustment' of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly different to long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Beppu.</p> <p>H9d-2: 'Employment experience' in the hospitality industry of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly different to long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Beppu.</p>

Chapter Summary

This chapter developed a theoretical framework to explain the association between employment experience and cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers before proposing an empirical test. The theoretical structure of cross-cultural adjustment is adapted from Black's (1989) research, and which is comprised of three factors: General living adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. After reviewing previous literature, the present study has developed seven factors to examine individual migrant workers' employment experiences in the hospitality industry which include 'the nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work discretion', 'work benefit', 'workplace socialisation', 'interactions with host nationals' and interaction with home nationals'.

CHAPTER 4. METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The present study uses two locations for data collection: Darwin in Australia and Beppu in Japan. The purpose of this cross-national comparison was primarily to examine whether migrant workers' employment experiences in a foreign country would impact on cross-cultural adjustment. Further, the research compares the two research destinations and migrant workers' visa statuses and their relationship to workers' perceptions of employment. This chapter identifies a suitable methodology to answer these research questions, and justifies the appropriateness of its choice by addressing the following aspects: *Research design, instrumentation, the pilot study, data collection, data analysis, and research ethics approval, and confidentiality.*

Research Design

The primary study object of the present study is to examine the association between migrant workers' perceptions of their employment experiences and their cross-cultural adjustment.

The study established a set of research variables to test this association. Migrant worker employment experiences in the hospitality industry were conceptualised as the following independent variables: 'nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', 'workplace discretion', 'workplace socialisation', 'interaction with host nationals', and 'interaction with home nationals'. Three factors from the concept of cross-cultural adjustment were used as dependent variables: 'general living adjustment', 'adjustment to interactions with host nationals', and 'workplace adjustment'. A quantitative research design was chosen as a suitable

method for this research as this method is adequate when a research aims to explain or predict a social phenomenon in relation to the causes of variation in explanatory variables (Neuman, 2014). Besides, it also favours gathering a large sample, which in turn allows generalisation of the research outcome (Neuman, 2014). As the quantitative research method is theory-laden or hypothesis-driven and relies on statistical techniques from collected numerical data, it is also useful when formulating general laws. Therefore, it is believed that the chosen research method would be able to explain the impact of the chosen variables based on the theoretical understandings derived from the literature review.

The quantitative research data collection for this research was completed by using a survey questionnaire with a series of closed-ended and open-ended questions administered to two groups of respondents, tested by means of a 7-point Likert scale questions. Survey research is useful especially when data collection is required for the numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of the population of interest (Edmonds & Kennedy, 2013).

In this study, most questions for the demographic and employment experience sections were created by using those closed-ended items which allow the researcher to manage the participant's responses or data (Privitera, 2017). Moreover, the major benefit of closed-ended survey questions is that the collected responses can be easily entered or coded for the purpose of statistical analysis (Privitera, 2017). Closed-ended questions tend to restrict the answers of respondents (Privitera, 2017), thus including a category 'other' allowed participants to respond in their own words in case the provided choices did not fit with their situation. The survey used for this study is attached in Appendix II, and III.

Instrumentation

The majority of the scales used in this research are in seven-point Likert format. The Likert scale is commonly used to measure affective variables such as opinions, motivations and attitudes towards a certain aspect (De Vellis, 2003). The length of the scale used here was determined by the need to maximise the reliability and validity of the research outcome (Kronsnick & Presser, 2010). When scales have a lower spread, for example 3 points, or higher points above seven points, the reliability of the results tends not to be strong (Kronsnick & Presser, 2010). Therefore, a 7-point Likert scale was selected as a suitable spread for this research.

Demographic Factors

The questionnaire includes two demographic sections that include individual background and work-related background. Individual background variables consist of: Current visa status, country of origin (place born), age, gender, nationality (citizenship), previous international experience, length of staying in the host nation, first language, host language proficiency level, other foreign language proficiency, educational background, education in hotel industry, and intention of remaining in the host nation. Whereas, work related background variables are about current job position in a hotel: Primary motivation of employment, involvement in department, work position, type of employment, period of employment, and variety of colleagues' nationalities in the department. These questions are in the close-ended question format that is popular in survey research as it provides a greater uniformity of responses (Babbie, 2011). To reduce the limitation of responses, a category 'other' with a blank space is added to capture participants' responses holistically (Neuman, 2014).

Cross-Cultural Adjustment – dependent variables

The current study adapted Black's (1988) cross-cultural adjustment questionnaire to measure individuals' level of host culture adjustment. The questionnaire consists of 14 elements divided into three main factors: General living adjustment, adjustment to interactions with host nationals adjustment, and workplace adjustment. Table 4.1 presents each element and the factors to measure cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers. This measurement is designed for participants to indicate their opinions on a 7-point Likert scale. The scale number 1 is assigned to the answer 'not adjusted at all' and the scale number 7 is assigned to the answer 'completely adjusted'. The analysis indicates that each factor had acceptable scores with a Cronbach alpha¹ general living adjustment at .80, the interaction adjustment factor at .86, and the work adjustment factor at .90.

¹ According to Hair et al. (2010), Cronbach's alpha value of .60 to .70 is deemed to be the lower limit of acceptability for factor reliability.

Table 4.1 Cross-cultural adjustment variables

Cross-cultural Adjustment
<i>Factor 1: General Living Adjustment</i>
Living conditions in general
House conditions
Food
Shopping
Cost of living
Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities
Health care facilities
Socializing with host nationals
<i>Factor 2: Interactions with host nationals Adjustment</i>
Interacting with host nationals on a day to day basis
Interacting with host nationals outside of work
Speaking with host nationals
<i>Factor 3: Workplace Adjustment</i>
Specific job responsibilities at work
Performance standards and expectations at work
Supervisory responsibilities at work

To find a relationship between migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment and their employment experience in a foreign nation, this study conceptualised five independent variables: 'nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', 'interaction with host nationals', 'interaction with home nationals'. These independent variables have been used in similar research previously. The validity analysis of each variable showed acceptable scores.

Perceptions of Hospitality Work – independent variables

The questionnaire on the perception of working in the hotel industry is adapted from Richardson's (2010) research on perceptions and attitudes of a career in the tourism and hospitality industry. Twenty out of Richardson's 67 questions were selected to measure

migrant workers' perceptions on the following dimensions: 'nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', and 'workplace discretion'. Table 4.2 presents each element and the factors to measure employment experience in the hospitality industry. The measure required participants to indicate their opinions on a 7-point Likert scale on agreeing or disagreeing with individual statements. The scale number 1 was assigned to the answer 'strongly disagree' and the scale number 7 was assigned to the answer 'strongly agree'. In Richardson's (2010) study, the Cronbach alpha on 'the nature of work' dimension was .68, 'work attachment' was .69, 'work benefit' was .78, and 'workplace discretion' of .51.

Table 4.2 Perceptions of hospitality work variables

Perceptions of Hospitality Work
<i>Factor 1: Nature of Hospitality Work</i>
I find jobs in the hospitality industry interesting
Most jobs in the hospitality industry are low skilled
Jobs in hotels are stressful in general
Working hours are too long in the hospitality industry
Family (or personal) life is negatively affected due to the nature of work
There is always something new to learn each day in hotel jobs
Working hours are not suitable for a regular life in the hospitality industry
It is very difficult to find a stable job in hotels due to seasonality
<i>Factor 2: Work Attachment</i>
Working in a hotel is a respected occupation
I talk to my relatives and friends with pride about my job in the hospitality industry
I see my career in the hospitality industry
<i>Factor 3: Work Benefit</i>
I think the pay is low for most hotel jobs
Considering the long hours worked pay should be higher
The level of fringe benefits low
<i>Factor 4: Workplace Discretion</i>
Managers do not reward employees
Managers behave respectfully towards employees
Managers allow staff to make decisions

Workplace Socialisation – independent variables

The six-item measure of social interaction behaviour was adapted from Wilson's (2013) study of sociocultural adaptation in participants' host countries. These measures specifically accessed 'how often participants have workplace socialisation', 'how often participants have interactions with host nationals', and 'how often participants have interactions with home nationals'. The measurement indicator was designed with scale number 1 assigned 'never' and number 7 assigned 'daily or almost daily'. The Cronbach alpha was at acceptable for each.

The Pilot Study*Item and instrument performance review*

The completed questionnaire was pilot tested with 20 individuals among migrant workers and academic colleagues from the authors' university. A pilot study before the official data collection is required to identify unclear questions and to revisit them for further clarification (Neuman, 2014). After receiving reviews from the pilot survey respondents, minor changes were incorporated by adding extra information to clarify the meaning of the questions for prospective respondents. For example, some were not sure which department they belonged to as they did not have an official agreement with their employers. However, in accordance with their daily roles in the hotel, the department information can be clarified to help the respondents' understanding. Therefore, clarifying information was added to the description of roles and departments from the hotel industry, such as "Front Office: Working as a receptionist or as a concierge who provides hotel information and rooms to hotel guests" and "Team Member: Entry level at a department (receptionist, waiter, waitress, bartender or housekeeper)".

Furthermore, individual workers may not be familiar with specific job titles as they did not have a formal contract and their role changed depending on the hotel business, as in the case of workers in Japan. Consequently, additional information was added to help respondents understand the purpose of the survey questions, in particular, for the migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment section. For instance, at the beginning of each section, extra descriptions were added: For 'general living adjustment', "The items below are to measure your general living adjustment in Beppu, Japan", for 'Interaction adjustment', and "The items below are to measure your interaction adjustment with Japanese in Beppu, Japan" and for 'work adjustment', "The items below are to measure your work adjustment in Beppu, Japan". These changes did not alter the meaning of the original scales, but it added information to help respondents understand the survey questions better, and assist respondents to make meaningful responses.

Translation

The majority of the survey data collected was in English in both Australia and Japan by adapting to foreign workers' English proficiency levels. However, after realising that some of the foreign workers in Japan were fluent in Japanese rather than English, a Japanese version of a survey was required. Therefore, the Japanese version of the questionnaire was also prepared after identifying language barriers. The translated versions of the survey can be observed in Appendix III (III: Japanese and English).

Data Collection

Survey site selection

The two selected research sites were Darwin and Beppu, both of which have similar characteristics. Firstly, the two cities are far from the capital cities, but well-known, with significant tourist attractions. Secondly, due to the characteristics of each city, there are growing demands for an increased workforce in the tourism and hospitality industry. Thirdly, there are comparatively a large number of migrants compared to their respective national averages.

Darwin

Darwin is the capital city of Australia's Northern Territory which is well-known for its World Heritage sites and preserved aboriginal culture in remote parts of the territory. The city and surroundings had a total of 608,000 visitors, including international and domestic visitors in 2016 (Tourism NT, 2017a). The top five visiting nationalities were from the UK, Germany, the USA, France and Japan. The number of international tourists had increased by about 5.5 percent in comparison to 2015 (Tourism NT, 2017b) meaning an increase in demand for workers in the tourism and hospitality sector. This growing demand for labour has been filled by short and long-term migrant workers.

In terms of the population, the total population of Darwin was 140,400 in 2014 (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016b). In the same year, the migrant population in Darwin was recorded at 23,952, forming 17 percent of the total population of the city (Australia Bureau of Statistics,

2014). The workforce in the tourism and hospitality sector in Darwin had Australian-born employees at 52.5 percent, and those born overseas at 46 percent (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2011.). Specifically, the NOM rate was recorded as being higher than the average national rate, which indicates the city is a transit destination for many temporary migrants (Australia Bureau of Statistics, 2016b). As the rates indicate, the culturally diverse population of this region contributes to the high workforce diversity in the hospitality sector.

Beppu

Beppu is a well-established resort city in Oita Prefecture on the island of Kyushu, Japan. According to the information from the Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training (2016), the annual employment trends show that service based industry provides more job opportunities than other industries due to the flexible form employment. Therefore, the service based industry is expected to have a high participation of non-regular employees than regular employees. For instance, non-regular employees accounted for around 73.3 percent in the food and beverage and hotel sector in Japan (Japan Institute for Labour Policy and Training, 2016). The non-regular workers and non-regular foreign workers in the hotel sector are expected to be much greater in the Beppu area. In terms of population, the total population of Beppu city was 121,100 (Statistics Bureau, 2015), and the total number of migrants was 3,663, or 3 percent. This is higher than the national average migrant population rate (2.1 percent). Chinese formed the highest with 940 people, followed by Koreans (613), Vietnamese (472), Indonesians (330), Thais (211), and others (1,097) (Statistics Bureau, 2015).

Sample

The sampling process implemented for this study is further explained in this section. By adapting Neuman's (2014) approach, a range of factors and decisions are discussed and justified for a self-administered survey such as sampling frame, sample size and sampling method. The desired research population for this study was particularly positioned on migrants working in the hospitality industry in Darwin and Beppu. The sampling frame in both destinations included hotel workers who were currently immigrants. In the case of Darwin, a paper-based survey was distributed to the target population and administered by the department managers in the hotels in Darwin city. The survey distribution in Beppu was made via two different channels including online survey and paper based survey. Initial target groups were given an online survey. A paper-based questionnaire was further distributed to their work colleagues and friends, and was self-administered. The paper-based survey was also handed to the initial target groups as a further respondents' back-up.

Sample Size

According to Nunnally (1978), a sample size of 300 to 400 is recommended when research has a moderate number of predictor variables. Although obtaining a large sample size for analysis brings reliable and valid predictions, it is suggested that the different uses of an analysis requires different number of sample sizes. It is of course agreed that sample size is one of the most influential elements, especially when adapting a linear multiple regression analysis (Hair et al., 2010). In a multiple regression analysis, appropriate sample size can be anticipated by understanding the role played by individual predictor (or independent) variables (Maxwell, 2000). Hair and colleagues (2010) indicate that a sample size of 250 will detect an R^2 (R-square) of six percent and above with two predictor variables. This meaning that above four

percent of the data collected fits to the proposed model. Meanwhile, Maxwell (2000) recommends that the necessary sample size in this situation is likely to be closer to 70:1 or even 100:1 which means two predictor variables can be handled with a sample size of 140. On the other hand, Tabachnick and Fidell (2001, p. 117) provide a formula for calculating a suitable sample size: $N > 50 + 8m$ (where m = number of independent variables). Using the suggestion by Tabachnick and Fidell (2001), this research anticipated a suitable sample size to be a minimum number of 114 for each destination for there to be a reliable multiple regression analysis process.

Sampling Method

Even though a non-probability sampling method is suitable for determining the prospective respondents in both destinations, each research site required slightly different sampling collection methods due to cultural differences in the target populations. Therefore, a ‘convenience sampling’ method in Darwin and a ‘snowball sampling’ method in Beppu were applied. It is believed that selecting different sampling method approaches supported the need to meet the target populations most effectively.

In the Darwin area, the convenience sampling method was employed by taking advantage of its feasibility and ease of administration (Neuman, 2014). Since local hotels in Darwin City showed positive acceptance for data collection in this study, a paper-based survey was distributed under the instructions of each hotel manager. Later, the completed questionnaires were returned to the managers. The survey was conducted over a four-month period from October 2016 to January 2017. A total of 300 questionnaires were distributed at 10 hotels in the Darwin City area. 215 questionnaires were returned, which is about a 71.6 percent response rate.

It was difficult to directly approach the local hotel managers to distribute questionnaires to the target population in Beppu. According to some migrant workers, many work as non-contract based employees; consequently, the company could be in trouble if certain information is revealed into the public domain such as workers' working conditions and environments. The hotels' participation in this study was therefore expected to be reluctant. Thus, a snowball sampling method was thought to be appropriate to meet with the hidden migrant workers in the hotel sector in Beppu. A snowball sampling was used to find small groups first, and then recruit more respondents through them. This method is useful when approaching a hidden population that is difficult to be accounted for such as migrant workers or undocumented immigrants (Babbie, 2010).

In Beppu, data collection was also implemented from October 2016 to January 2017. A total of 100 paper-based surveys were distributed to individuals, including people in the Filipino community in Beppu, local job agencies, and individual hotel workers. 50 questionnaires were returned, at a response rate of 50 percent. Besides this, an online survey by Survey Monkey was also distributed to various communities using social media such as the Uzbekistan community, the Sri Lankan community, the Korean community, the Indonesian community, and other international student groups. The online survey response rate was 88 percent. The total of completed responses in Beppu reached 200. All data from the returned questionnaires were entered into *IBM SPSS statistic program version 24*. The data analysis process for this study is explained in the next section.

Data Analysis

Three analytical steps were undertaken for this study including: (1) Reliability and Validity; (2) exploratory factor analysis; and (3) multiple regression analysis.

Reliability

Cronbach's Alpha (α)

Cronbach's Alpha is usually employed when assessing the internal consistency of a set of scale or test items; this indicates whether the set of a scale is a consistent measure of a selected concept for the research. The α coefficient result ranges from 0 to 1 which indicates a set scale's reliability (Hair et al., 2010). When the resulting α approaches close to 1, it means all of the items in the scale have high covariance and indicates substantial reliability in the scale (Hair et al., 2010). In other words, the higher the α coefficient, the more the items have shared covariance.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) is primarily used in multivariate statistics. One of the main purposes of factor analysis is to extract uncorrelated variables from several initially measured variables to discover an underlying structure concerning the domain of the research interest (Hair et al., 2010; Osborne & Costello, 2009). Although well-developed measurements are usually adapted for research, the compositions of factors can vary depending on research contexts. If uncorrelated factors exist, this can produce flattened values of variance accounted

for by the components (Osborne & Costello, 2009). To identify the factors correlations, the ‘principal component analysis (PCA)’ technique was applied in this research.

Factor analysis without factor rotation is not able to fulfil an adequate interpretation of the variables under examination (Hair et al., 2010). An ‘Orthogonal rotation’ method was applied for the factor rotation process by understanding its advantages, such as the most widely used rotational method, ease of construction of a set of uncorrelated factors, and ease of interpretation.

Linear Multiple Regression

Linear multiple regression was used for three primary purposes: (1) Modelling the relationship between dependent and independent variables; (2) prediction of the target variable (forecasting); and (3) testing of hypotheses (Chatterjee & Simonoff, 2013). In the case of multiple regression analysis, there must be more than one independent variable to allow us to predict relationships between those multiple independent variables (IV) and a single dependent variable (DV). The multiple regression analysis equation is the format below:

$$Y^1 = A + B_1X_1 + B_2X_2 + \dots + B_kX_k$$

Where “ Y^1 is the predicted value on dependent variable, A is the Y intercept (the value of Y when all the X values are zero), the X_s represent the various independent variables (of which there are k), and the B_s are the coefficients as to predict the values on the dependent variable for all cases in the sample, a different Y^1 value is predicted for each subject as a result of inserting the subject’s own X values into the equation” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2013, p. 118).

In this study, it was determined that multiple regression analysis is the most suitable analytical method to test the research hypothesis. The central research question for this study is whether

perceived employment experience is related to cross-cultural adjustment. Here, perceived employment experience is measured by two different factors (independent variables): Job satisfaction and organisational socialisation. Hence, in order to discover relationships between the variables, multiple regression analysis is appropriate.

Three values are vital for the interpretation of multiple regression analysis in SPSS: 'p-value', 'regression coefficients', and 'R²'. Further explanations about these values are listed in the following section.

P-Value

P-value is the value of calculated probability that examines null hypothesis (no coefficient). For an interpretation, if individual variables have a low p-value (<0.05), they are likely to be influenced by the proposed model due to changes in the individual's value being associated with variations in the dependent variable. For instance, a p-value of 0 indicates that the independent variable has a significant relationship with the dependent variable (Field, 2010).

Beta (β) Coefficients

This value indicates how strongly the individual variables influence the dependent variable. It is measured in individual units which can easily identify its relationships between variables. Therefore, a higher 'beta coefficients' value factor has a greater influence on the dependent variable. It is also known that a larger 'beta coefficients' value are associated with a lower 'p-value'.

R^2

This value indicates how much a set of individual variables influence the dependent variable. It is an overall measure of the strength of association between variables. For instance, when the R^2 value indicates 0.479, it means a set of independent variables have an influence of around 48% to the dependent variable. It can be interpreted that the greater the value of R squared, the stronger the association with the dependent variable.

T-Test

The T-test is used to compare the mean score of two different groups and their significant differences. In this research, an ‘independent samples’ t-test is suitable as the two populations are expected to show differences in both sample size and variances (Pallant, 2005). By employing a ‘t-test’ analysis, this research is expecting to discover significant differences or similarities in cultural adjustment and the employment experience of temporary migrant workers in Darwin and Japan.

ANOVA

When a comparison of more than two groups is required to analyse their variance, ANOVA is required. A one-way analysis of variance involves one independent variable numerous different levels (Pallant, 2005). Since the present research would like to compare the variance between the different type of visa statuses, the ANOVA test is chosen to be suitable for this research purpose.

Research Ethics and Confidentiality

This research was conducted under an authorisation obtained from Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University. The guidelines on ethical conduct in research involving human subjects are given in Appendix I. Prior to survey data collection, individual respondents were fully informed of the aims and plans of this study. Additionally, consent and information regarding confidentiality were also provided to help in respondents' decision-making before proceeding with participation in the survey. This study did not collect any of the participants' personal details, including names, address, and phone numbers for the research use.

Chapter Summary

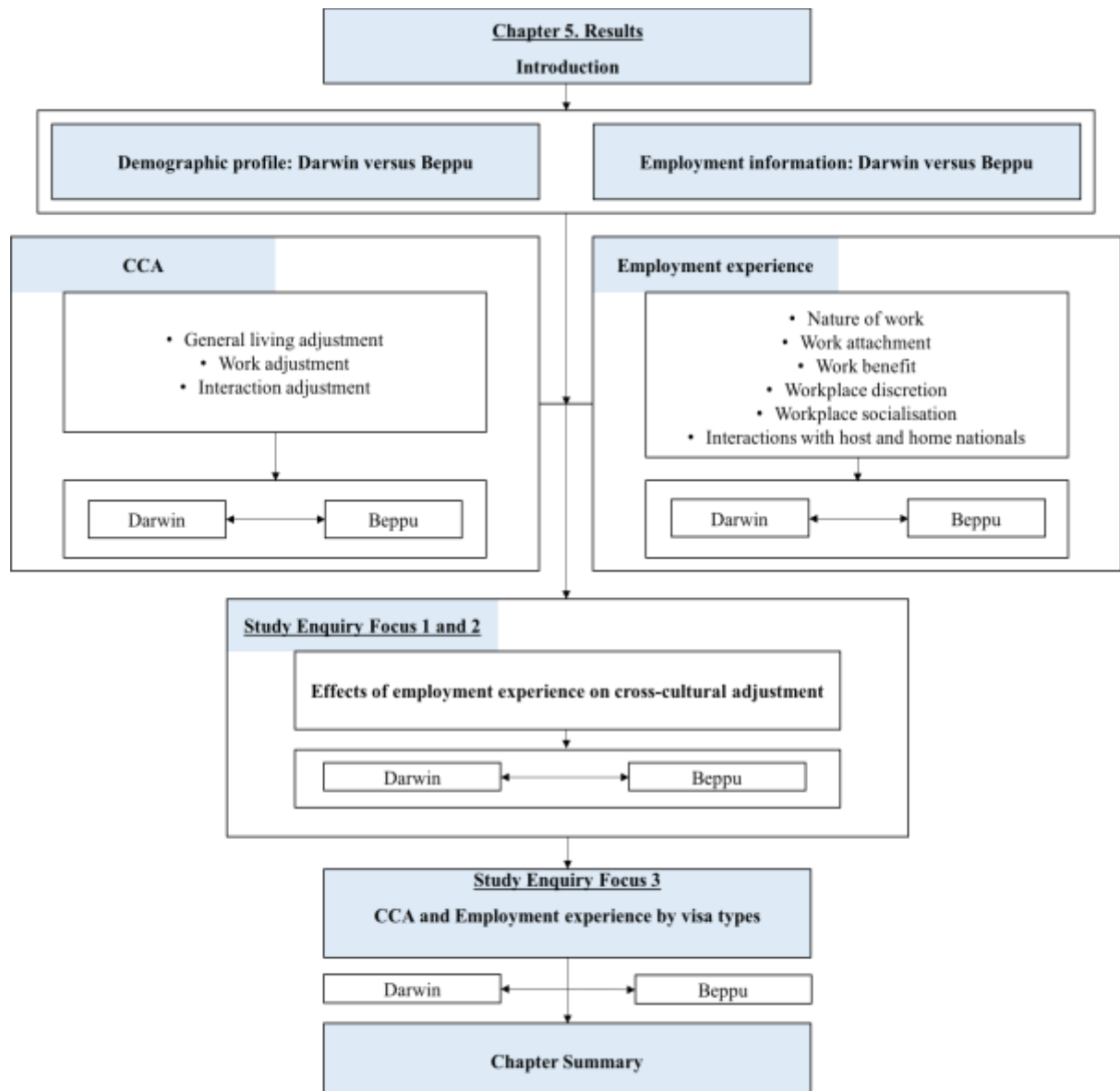
This study was carried out using the quantitative research method to examine whether the perceived employment experience of migrant workers is associated with cross-cultural adjustment. Two sets of survey data collection were made among the migrant workers in Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan). A linear multiple regression analysis, T-Test, and ANOVA test were chosen to test the proposed research hypotheses. The next chapter presents the selected research analysis and its applications.

CHAPTER 5. RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter addresses the final outcomes in relation to the purpose of the present study. Also, this chapter identifies and compares the outcome between the two chosen research destinations: Darwin and Beppu. A total of 405 valid responses from migrant workers was obtained and used in seven different data analysis processes. The first two sections of this chapter present information related to the research participants: Demographic and employment. Although the demographic and employment information was set as controlled variables, this information assists in understanding the background of the workers at the two destinations. Therefore, the current chapter begins with identifying the demographic profile of the research participants: gender, age, current visa category, education background, host language proficiency, previous exposure to foreign culture, and country of origin: including purpose of employment, department, position, employment contract, and length of employment. The following five sections of the chapter demonstrate the research analysis and results. Multivariate data analysis using multiple regression, T-test and ANOVA tests were applied. As multiple regression is chosen as a principal instrument to examine the research hypotheses, corresponding analysis techniques such as exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and correlation tests are presented in order to analyse the research outcomes. Figure 5.1 is a flow chart that displays the structure of analysis taken in the present chapter.

Figure 5.1 Flow Chart



The Demographic Profile of Migrant Workers

As shown in Table 5.1, the number of questionnaires with valid responses from the two research destinations consisted of 205 respondents from Darwin and 200 respondents from Beppu. In total, the population of female respondents was 217 (53.6%) while male respondents were 188 (46.4%). Between the two research destinations, Darwin had slightly more male respondents with nine more than female respondents. In contrast, Beppu had more female respondents with 38 more than male respondents. This has allowed for an easy comparison of male and female populations in this study.

Table 5.1 Total number of participants

Destination	Female		Male		Total
	N	%	N	%	
Darwin	98	47.8%	107	52.2%	205
Beppu	119	59.5%	81	40.5%	200
Total	217	53.6%	188	46.4%	405

Of the total 405 respondents, international students accounted for 61 percent which was the highest population. This portion of international students was mainly contributed by respondents from Beppu (international students = 92%), while the population of international students in Darwin was much less (international students = 30.7%). In contrast, in Darwin, the biggest population was from permanent migrants (31.7%), followed by international students (30.7%), and skilled migrants (29.3%). The proportion of each population, however, was not much different. Only a small number of working holiday-makers and expatriate respondents were seen among the participants (see Table 5.2).

Regarding age distribution, a significant number of participants were between 18 and 30 years (77.0%). Overall, respondents in Beppu were much younger than respondents in Darwin. For instance, in Beppu, 83 percent of participants were between 18 to 25 years, whereas 43.9 percent of participants in Darwin were aged 26 to 30 years. Regarding educational background, Darwin had more participants with higher academic qualifications than participants from Beppu. To compare, Darwin had the most participants with a Bachelor's degrees (48.8%), while Beppu had more secondary school graduates (53.5%). It can be anticipated that education level differs because the participants in Beppu were much younger, at between 18 to 25 (83%) years, in comparison to Darwin with respondents aged 26 to 30 years (see Table 5.2).

Concerning the host language proficiency of migrant workers, overall the respondents had a good level of host language skills. For instance, host language skills with above average level (33.5%) indicated the highest among all participants, followed by the excellent level (28.4%) and the average level (24.0%). In the two destinations, respondents in Darwin showed a more confident level of host language skills with excellent level (45.4%), whereas respondents in Beppu showed host language skills with above average level (32%). All this information is summarised in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2 Demographic profile

Demographic profile	Darwin		Beppu		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Current visa category						
International Student	63	30.7%	183	92.0%	247	61.0%
Working and Holiday Maker	15	7.3%	0	0.0%	15	3.7%
Expatriate	2	1.0%	7	3.5%	9	2.3%
Skilled migrant	60	29.3%	5	2.5%	65	16.0%
Permanent migrant	65	31.7%	4	2.0%	69	17.0%
Age						
18 ~ 25	35	17.1%	166	83.0%	201	49.6%
26 ~ 30	90	43.9%	24	12.0%	114	28.2%
31 ~ 35	58	28.3%	6	3.0%	64	15.8%
36 ~ 40	15	7.3%	3	2.0%	18	4.4%
40 and above	7	3.4%	1	0.0%	8	2.0%
Education						
Secondary/ High school	15	7.3%	107	53.5%	122	30.1%
Diploma/ College	73	35.6%	32	16.0%	105	25.9%
Bachelor's degree	100	48.8%	47	23.5%	147	36.3%
Masters' or Ph.D.	17	8.3%	14	7.0%	31	7.7%
Host language proficiency						
Poor	0	0%	15	7.5%	15	3.7%
Below average	1	0.5%	27	13.5%	28	6.9%
Average	29	14.1%	68	34.0%	97	24.0%
Above average	72	35.1%	64	32.0%	136	33.5%
Excellent	93	45.9%	22	11.0%	115	28.4%
Native speaker	10	4.9%	4	2.0%	14	3.5%

Regarding country of origin (see Table 5.3), it was distinctive that a significant number of respondents were from Asian countries. Most respondents were from the Southeast Asia region (37.33%), followed by respondents from the South Asian region (34.67%), Europe (10.93%), East Asia (8.54%), Africa (4.27%), Central Asia (4.00%), America (3.20%), and Oceania (1.07%) region.

Between the research destinations, respondents in Darwin were seen mainly from the South Asian region (39.30%) which included India (21.97%), Sri Lanka (15.03%), Pakistan (1.16%), and Bangladesh (0.58%). Conversely, more than half of the respondents in Beppu were from the Southeast Asian region (51.50%) which included Vietnam (25.74%), Indonesia (18.81), Thailand (4.46), Singapore (1.49), and the Philippines (0.50%). More information about country of origin of total participants is shown in Appendix IV.

Table 5.3 Country of origin

Region	Darwin (a)	Beppu (b)	Total (a) + (b)
	%	%	%
Southeast Asia	20.80%	51.50%	37.33%
South Asia	39.30%	22.80%	34.17%
East Asia	8.10%	8.90%	8.54%
Central Asia	0.00%	7.40%	4.00%
Middle East	0.00%	0.5	0.5%
Europe	19.70%	3.50%	10.93%
Africa	8.10%	1.00%	4.27%
America	3.50%	3.00%	3.20%
Oceania	0.60%	1.50%	1.07%
Total	100.00%	100.00%	100.00%

Employment Background of Migrant Workers

A total of 405 valid responses describe the total employment information for the present study. As shown in Table 5.4, the following variables were chosen to better understand respondent's current employment background: work purpose, department, designation, types of contract, length of employment, and the level of cultural diversity at the workplace. This information was further segregated to show the characteristics of respondents from Darwin and Beppu.

Overall, most respondents were working for financial reasons (44.20%), followed by gaining experience (27.16%), career (25.19%), and visa (3.46%). Between the two research destinations, half of Darwin's respondents mentioned that they chose to work in the hospitality sector for their career development (44.50%), whereas, in Beppu the majority of the respondents chose the industry only for financial reasons (64.80%) (see Table 5.4).

Overall, about one-third of respondents (34.32%) were in a food and beverage department, and other participants were working in housekeeping (22.72%), kitchen (22.72%), front office (13.09%), and conference and events (7.16%). In Darwin, the population of food and beverage workers (43.81%) was the highest among all categories. In contrast, kitchen workers (30.81%) were the dominant group in Beppu. In fact, the gap between the numbers of employees from each department was less among Beppu workers were from the kitchen (30.81%), food and beverage (25.59%), and housekeeping (24.64%) (see Table 5.4).

In total, the majority were part-time workers with 251 respondents (61.98%), which was mostly contributed by respondents from Beppu (189), whereas full-time workers were far less with

only 97 respondents (23.95%). Considering the Japanese employment system, part-time workers are non-contract employees with minimal work rights. The meaning of casual employee in Australia would hold a similar understanding as a part-time employee in Japan. In this regard, the majority of workers in Beppu were non-contract part-time workers at 189 respondents (94.5%) while casual workers (contract based but with limited work rights) made up only 53 respondents (25.85%) in Darwin (see Table 5.4).

Regarding work designation, 68.77 percent of total participants were at entry level, followed by supervisors (12.59%), team leaders (10.64%), assistant managers (5.33%), and department managers (2.66%). Among respondents from Beppu, 91.35 percent were at entry level. In comparison, respondents from Darwin were diverse in work positions such as team member (45.85%), team leader (15.61%), supervisor (23.90%), assistant manager (9.27%), and department manager (5.37%) (see Table 5.4).

Concerning the length of employment, among the total population, most respondents (36.39%) had worked less than a year, followed by respondents with over a year but less than two years (28.71%), two to three years (15.59%), three to four years (6.19%) and more than four years (13.12%). Between the research destinations, respondents who had worked at the current organisation less than a year were 54.77 percent in Beppu. On the other hand, respondents from Darwin had various lengths of employment period (see Table 5.4).

In terms of cultural diversity at the current workplace, 38.52 percent of total respondents described their workplace cultural diversity as comprising three to four different nationalities followed by five to six different nationalities at about 27.65 percent, followed by more than seven different nationalities 22.47 percent, and one to two different nationalities 11.36 percent.

Specifically, diversity level at the workplace with colleagues from three to four different nationalities showed the highest numbers both in Darwin and Beppu with 39.51 percent and 37.50 percent respectively.

Table 5.4 Employment information

Employment Information	Darwin		Beppu		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Purpose						
For career	93	44.50%	9	4.59%	102	25.19%
For financial reason	52	24.88%	127	64.80%	179	44.20%
For experience	53	25.36%	57	29.08%	110	27.16%
For visa	11	5.26%	3	1.53%	14	3.46%
Department						
Front office	27	13.92%	26	12.32%	53	13.09%
Food and Beverage	85	43.81%	54	25.59%	139	34.32%
Conference & Events	15	7.73%	14	6.64%	29	7.16%
House keeping	40	20.62%	52	24.64%	92	22.72%
Kitchen	27	13.92%	65	30.81%	92	22.72%
Position						
Team member	94	45.85%	190	91.35%	284	68.77%
Team leader	32	15.61%	12	5.77%	44	10.65%
Supervisor	49	23.90%	3	1.44%	52	12.59%
Assistant or duty manager	19	9.27%	3	1.44%	22	5.33%
Department Manager	11	5.37%	0	0.00%	11	2.66%
Contract						
Full-time	86	41.95%	11	5.50%	97	23.95%
Part-time	62	30.24%	189	94.50%	251	61.98%
Casual	53	25.85%	0	0.00%	53	13.09%
Internship	4	1.95%	0	0.00%	4	0.99%
Length of employment						
Less than 1 year	38	18.54%	109	54.77%	147	36.39%
1 - 2 years	52	25.37%	64	32.16%	116	28.71%
2 - 3 years	47	22.93%	16	8.04%	63	15.59%
3 - 4 years	17	8.29%	8	4.02%	25	6.19%
More than 4 years	51	24.88%	2	1.01%	53	13.12%
Diversity at workplace						
1 - 2 different nationalities	3	1.46%	43	21.50%	46	11.36%
3 - 4 different nationalities	81	39.51%	75	37.50%	156	38.52%
5 - 6 different nationalities	75	36.59%	37	18.50%	112	27.65%
7 and above different nationalities	46	22.44%	45	22.50%	91	22.47%

Descriptive Analysis of Measurements

This section examines the results of the descriptive analysis of the three chosen measurements for the current study that includes cross-cultural adjustment, perception of hospitality work, and interactions at the workplace.

Results of Cross-cultural adjustment

Firstly, the cross-cultural adjustment measurement scale consisted of 14 items reflecting general living adjustment, interaction with home nationals, and work adjustment. Respondents were asked to provide answers on each item that was measured by a seven-point Likert scale ranging from 1 being Not adjusted at all to 7 being Completely adjusted. According to the mean score (see Table 5.5), eight items were indicated as the highest among all at above 5.0. This means, migrant workers are slightly adjusted in those eight items in a new cultural environment. These include: Living conditions in general ($M = 5.37$, $SD = 1.22$), housing conditions ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.30$), specific job responsibilities at work ($M = 5.33$, $SD = 1.30$), food ($M = 5.31$, $SD = 1.33$), performance standards and expectations at work ($M = 5.29$, $SD = 1.36$), speaking with host nationals ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.47$), interacting with host nationals on a day to day basis ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 1.38$), and shopping ($M = 5.10$, $SD = 1.50$). On the other hand, the workers were satisfied with entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities ($M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.63$).

Table 5.5 Descriptive analysis of cross-cultural adjustment items

Factors	Mean	SD
<i>Factor 1: General Living Adjustment</i>	5.03	1.13
Living conditions in general	5.37	1.22
House conditions	5.33	1.30
Food	5.31	1.33
Shopping	5.10	1.50
Cost of living	4.83	1.53
Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities	4.69	1.63
Health care facilities	4.85	1.63
Socializing with host nationals	4.80	1.60
<i>Factor 2: Interactions with host nationals Adjustment</i>	5.11	1.46
Interacting with host nationals on a day to day basis	5.17	1.38
Interacting with host nationals outside of work	4.93	1.54
Speaking with host nationals	5.24	1.47
<i>Factor 3: Workplace Adjustment</i>	5.19	1.26
Specific job responsibilities at work	5.33	1.29
Performance standards and expectations at work	5.29	1.36
Supervisory responsibilities at work	4.95	1.60

Note1. 1 = Not adjusted at all, 7 = Completely adjusted

Results on perceptions of employment experience

The measurement for perceptions of employment experience in the hospitality industry consisted of 20 items reflecting: Nature of hospitality work, work attachment, work benefit, and workplace discretion. Respondents were asked to provide answers on each item that was measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 Strongly disagree to 7 Strongly agree.

Based on the mean score of each item (see Table 5.6), participants tended to agree that the jobs in the hospitality industry are generally interesting ($M = 5.00$, $SD = 1.40$). In contrast, the respondents tended to be negative about the level of fringe benefits ($M = 2.93$, $SD = 1.29$) and appropriate payment ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 1.19$) in the sector. While they somewhat disagreed with some statements - jobs in the hospitality industry are high skilled ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.66$), less stressful ($M = 3.00$, $SD = 1.38$), working hours are too short ($M = 3.18$, $SD = 1.47$), positive effects on family life ($M = 3.37$, $SD = 1.60$), working hours are suitable for a regular life ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.43$). Also, they somewhat disagreed with other statements including hotel job for a career ($M = 3.86$, $SD = 1.89$), remuneration is high in the sector ($M = 3.16$, $SD = 1.44$), and managers reward employees ($M = 3.55$, $SD = 1.44$). However, the respondents were not sure about statements like something new to learn each day in hotel jobs ($M = 4.95$, $SD = 1.45$), there are stable jobs in the sector ($M = 4.61$, $SD = 1.41$), the jobs are in respected occupations ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 1.41$), talk to relatives and friends with pride about my job in the sector ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.49$), managers behave respectfully towards employees ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 1.66$), and managers allow staff to make decisions ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.89$).

Table 5.6 Descriptive analysis of perceptions on hospitality work items

Factors	Mean	SD
<i>Factor 1: Nature of Hospitality Work</i>	3.20	1.15
I find jobs in the hospitality industry interesting	5.00	1.40
Most jobs in the hospitality industry are low skilled (reversed)	3.77	1.66
Jobs in hotels are stressful in general (reversed)	3.00	1.38
Working hours are too long in the hospitality industry (reversed)	3.18	1.47
Family (or personal) life is negatively affected due to the nature of work (reversed)	3.37	1.60
There is always something new to learn each day in hotel jobs	4.95	1.45
Working hours are not suitable for a regular life in the hospitality industry (reversed)	3.26	1.43
It is very difficult to find a stable job in hotels due to seasonality (reversed)	4.61	1.41
<i>Factor 2: Work Attachment</i>	4.37	1.29
Working in a hotel is a respected occupation	4.16	1.41
I talk to my relatives and friends with pride about my job in the hospitality industry	4.63	1.49
I see my career in the hospitality industry	3.86	1.89
<i>Factor 3: Work Benefit</i>	2.87	1.04
I think the pay is low for most hotel jobs (reversed)	3.16	1.44
Considering the long hours worked pay should be higher (reversed)	2.52	1.19
The level of fringe benefits low (reversed)	2.93	1.29
<i>Factor 4: Workplace Discretion</i>	4.22	1.66
Managers do not reward employees (reversed)	3.55	1.44
Managers behave respectfully towards employees	4.78	1.66
Managers allow staff to make decisions	4.32	1.89

Note1. 1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree

Results of interactions at the workplace

The measurement for interactions at the workplace consisted of 20 items reflecting workplace socialisation, interaction with host nationals, and interaction with home nationals. Respondents were asked to provide answers on each item that was measured by a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 being Never to 7 being Daily or almost daily. The mean scores shown in Table 5.7 indicates that respondents had the opportunity to speak the host language at the workplace two to three times per week ($M = 6.43$, $SD = 1.22$) while they socialise with foreign work colleagues ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.75$) and with their own country work colleagues once a week ($M = 5.55$, $SD = 1.69$). Also, they interact with host national customers about once week ($M = 5.89$, $SD = 1.78$). On the other hand, interaction ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.74$) while speaking their own language ($M = 4.49$, $SD = 2.23$) with home national work colleagues occurred only happened two to three times per month.

Table 5.7 Descriptive analysis of interactions at the workplace items

Factors	Mean	SD
<i>Factor 1: Workplace Socialisation</i>	5.55	1.53
How often do you socialise with colleagues who are foreign to you but not local born people	5.55	1.75
How often do you socialise with colleagues from your own country?	5.55	1.69
<i>Factor 2: Interaction with Host Nationals</i>	6.16	1.50
How often do you speak host language?	6.43	1.22
How often do you interact with host national customers at work?	5.89	1.78
<i>Factor 3: Interaction with Home Nationals</i>	4.71	1.97
How often do you speak your own language at work?	4.49	2.23
How often do you interact with colleagues from your own country?	4.92	1.74

Note1. 1 =Never, 7 = Daily or almost daily

Measurement Concepts

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was conducted separately for the independent variables (employment experience) and dependent variables (cross-cultural adjustment), prior to multiple regression analysis. The principal purpose of exploratory factor analysis is to gather information about the interrelationships among a set of variables (Pallant, 2005), which is used for data reduction or the summary process. To explore the underlying relationship between the variables, the present study adopted principle components analysis with Kaiser's criterion technique. For the data rotation process, Orthogonal Varimax rotation method was adopted to minimise the number of variables that have high loadings on each factor.

Exploratory factor analysis for cross-cultural adjustment

According to the initial cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) construct developed by Black (1988), three factors were identified as valuable for this study, namely, general living adjustment, interaction adjustment, and work adjustment. This study examined these factors for the exploratory factor analysis. However, unlike the original CCA construct, after the exploratory factor analysis, only two factors remained appropriate for further analysis. The items from interaction adjustment factors were loaded together into the component of work adjustment factor, thus the current study decided to take only the work adjustment factor and general living adjustment factor for further analysis. The two chosen factors were renamed as work adjustment and non-work adjustment factors. A similar process could be observed in previous research.

Thus, only the general living adjustment and work adjustment factors remained for further analysis. Previous research indicates that the initial research construct may be applied differently depending on the context of an investigation. However, it impacts neither on the research purpose nor the outcome. As a result, the present study decided to omit all three items from the interaction adjustment factor in order to improve the overall clarity of the variables (Hair et al., 2010).

According to the findings (see Table 5.8), the remaining factors explained the total variance of 65.71 percent in the cross-cultural adjustment of hotel workers Eigenvalues above 1 (4.40, 2.82). The KOM measure of sampling adequacy was .897, and the Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value was as significant as Chi-Square with 2708.661 ($df = 55$, $p = .000$). In addition, the reliability of each factor was tested using Cronbach's alpha, which satisfied the required

numeric values: General living adjustment with .90 and work adjustment with .87. Therefore, it confirmed that the factor analysis was appropriate.

Table 5.8 also displays the mean value of the 11 items measured in the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers. The general living adjustment factor comprised of eight items with an Eigenvalues of 4.40 and total explained variance of 40.00 percent. While the work adjustment factor was comprised of three items with an Eigenvalue of 2.82 and a total explained variance of 25.71 percent.

Table 5.8 EFA of cross-cultural adjustment factors

Items	Factors	
	1	2
	<i>General Living Adjustment</i>	<i>Work Adjustment</i>
Living conditions in general	0.802	
Housing conditions	0.782	
Food	0.774	
Shopping	0.771	
Cost of living	0.723	
Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities	0.717	
Health care facilities	0.668	
Socializing with host nationals	0.533	
Specific job responsibilities at work		0.866
Performance standards and expectations at work		0.849
Supervisory responsibilities at work		0.832
Eigen value	4.4	2.82
Explained variance	40.00%	25.71%
Cronbach's alpha	0.90	0.87

KOM: .897

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < .000$)

Total explained variance: 65.71%

Exploratory factor analysis for employment experience in the hospitality industry

By adopting EFA, seven independent variables measuring the employment experience of migrant workers in the hospitality industry were examined for a reduction or summarising process. The seven factors include: 'nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', 'workplace discretion', 'workplace socialisation', 'interactions with home nationals', and 'interactions with host nationals'.

Following EFA, the relevant factors for further data analysis had been reduced to five factors. The workplace discretion factor was removed as its items loaded separately into other components, and the interactions with host nationals factor presented lower reliability with Cronbach's alpha below the .60 level (.48) all of which were not serving sufficiently to be an appropriate factor. According to Hair and colleagues (2010), a Cronbach's alpha value of .60 to .70 is deemed to be the lower limit of acceptability for factor reliability.

The remaining five factors, 'nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', 'workplace socialisation', and 'interactions with home nationals', were selected for further analysis. The final results (see Table 5.9) present all factors indicating Eigenvalues of above 1 (2.44, 1.97, 1.96, 1.70, 1.46), which confirmed that there are clear distinctions between each variable. Moreover, these five factors explain the total variance of 68.07 percent in the employment experience of migrant hotel works. It also showed a KMO value of .708, and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value of significance as Chi-Square with 1501.884 (df = 91, p = 00). Therefore, the EFA was confirmed as appropriate.

As shown in Table 5.9, each factor satisfied the required value to be a relevant variable for further analysis. The 'nature of work' factor consists of four items which indicated an Eigenvalue of 2.44 and the total explained variance of 17.46 percent. The 'work attachment' factor contained three items which showed an Eigenvalue of 1.97 and the total explained variance of 14.08 percent. Also, the 'work benefit' factor included three items with an Eigenvalue of 1.96 and the total explained variance of 13.96 percent. The 'workplace socialisation' had an Eigenvalue of 1.70, and a total explained variance of 12.15 percent. The 'interactions with home nationals' factor included two items with an Eigenvalues of 1.46 and total explained variance of 10.43 percent. The reliability measure of each factor indicated that the score with Cronbach's Alpha is above .60, which means the measures are within appropriate levels. Therefore, this factor analysis confirms the existence of appropriate results.

Table 5.9 EFA of employment experience in the hospitality industry factors

Items	Factors				
	1	2	3	4	5
	<i>Nature of Work</i>	<i>Work Attachment</i>	<i>Work Benefit</i>	<i>Workplace Socialisation</i>	<i>Interactions with Home Nationals</i>
Jobs in hotels are stressful in general (reversed)	0.838				
Working hours are too long in the hospitality industry (reversed)	0.813				
Family (or personal) life is negatively affected due to the nature of work (reversed)	0.759				
Working hours are not suitable for a regular life in the hospitality industry (reversed)	0.604				
Working in a hotel is a respected occupation		0.866			
I talk to my relatives and friends with pride about my job in the hospitality industry		0.822			
I see my career in the hospitality industry		0.705			
I think the pay is low for most hotel jobs (reversed)			0.789		
Considering the long hours worked pay should be higher (reversed)			0.76		
The level of fringe benefits low (reversed)			0.742		
How often do you socialise with colleagues who are foreign to you but not local born people				0.874	
How often do you socialise with colleagues from your own country?				0.819	
How often do you speak your own language at work?					0.858
How often do you interact with colleagues from your own country?					0.745
Eigen value	2.44	1.97	1.96	1.70	1.46
Explained variance	17.46%	14.08%	13.96%	12.15%	10.43%
Cronbach's alpha	0.78	0.71	0.69	0.74	0.62

KOM: 0.708

Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p < .000$)

Total explained variance: 68.07%

Note1. Items with '(reversed)' are reverse-coded

Correlation between CCA and Employment experience scales

The relationship between CCA and employment experience was assessed using Pearson correlation coefficients (see Table 5.10). All seven variables were examined: non-work adjustment, work adjustment, nature of work, work attachment, work benefit, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals. The relationships suggest that when one factor changes in value, the related factors also change accordingly. The related scores show the strength of relationships is between the factors.

The 'nature of work' factor indicated a strong and positive correlation with the work benefit factor ($r = .39$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$), but it had a negative correlation with the 'work attachment' factor ($r = -.08$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$). 'Work attachment' showed great correlation with the 'work adjustment' ($r = .36$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$), but a slightly lower correlation with the 'non-work adjustment' ($r = .28$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$) and the 'workplace socialisation' ($r = .18$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$). The 'work benefit' had a positive correlation only with the 'workplace socialisation' ($r = .18$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.05$). On the other hand, 'workplace socialisation' correlated positively with the three factors which were 'interactions with home nationals' ($r = .31$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$), 'non-work adjustment' ($r = .24$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$), and 'work adjustment' ($r = .13$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$). While 'interactions with home nationals' positively correlated with the 'non-work adjustment' ($r = .19$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$) and the 'work adjustment' ($r = .11$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$), 'non-work adjustment' showed positive and the highest correlation only with the 'work adjustment' factor ($r = .58$, $n = 405$, $p < 0.01$). According to the original construct by Black (1988), despite each factor from CCA being greatly interrelated with each other, those factors are distinguished as individual factors.

Table 5.10 Correlations between measures of CCA and employment experience scales

Factor	Mean	SD	Nature of work	Work attachment	Work benefit	Workplace socialisation	Interactions with home nationals	Non-work adjustment	Work adjustment
Nature of work	3.20	1.15	1						
Work attachment	4.37	1.29	-.08	1					
Work benefit	2.87	1.04	.39**	.09	1				
Workplace socialisation	5.54	1.53	.05	.18**	.11*	1			
Interactions with home nationals	4.71	1.97	-.08	.11	-.04	.31**	1		
Non-work adjustment	5.03	1.13	-.11	.28**	-.03	.24**	.19**	1	
Work adjustment	5.19	1.26	-.17**	.36**	-.00	.13**	.11*	.58**	1

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Study Enquiry Focus 1*Effects of hotel employment experience on cross-cultural adjustment*

To predict migrant workers' CCA through their employment experience in the hospitality sector, the present study conducted a multiple linear regression. According to the research purpose, the two factors of the CCA construct by Black (1988), non-work and work adjustment, were set as dependent variables. Five factors measuring migrant workers' hotel employment experience were set as independent variables. Firstly, the relationship between the five factors of employment experience in the hospitality sector and non-work adjustment were examined. Later, the relationship between five factors of employment experience in the hospitality sector and work adjustment is further deliberated as the outcomes revealed that there was some significant relationship between dependent and independent variables, there are further discussed and presented in the following section (see Table 5.11).

Firstly, total 13.3 percent of the variance within the 'non-work adjustment' factor ($R^2 = .133$, $F(5, 365) = 12.294$, $p = .00$) was explained by the three employment experience factors, which included 'work attachment' ($p = .00$), 'workplace socialisation' ($p = .00$), and 'interactions with home nationals' ($p = .04$) (see Table 5.11). Among these factors, 'work attachment' ($\beta = .23$) made the greatest contributions to 'non-work adjustment' in comparison with 'workplace socialisation' ($\beta = .17$) and 'interactions with host nationals' ($\beta = .10$). However, the 'nature of work' and 'work benefit' factors did not indicate any relationship with 'non-work adjustment'.

In terms of the work adjustment of migrant workers, 15.9 percent of the variance in employment experienced in the hospitality sector ($R^2 = .159$, $F(5, 399) = 15.111$, $p = .00$) was

explained by two independent variable factors, ‘nature of work’ ($p = .00$) and ‘work attachment’ ($p = .00$). Specifically, ‘work attachment’ ($\beta = .33$) made a greater contribution than ‘nature of work’ ($\beta = -.15$) on ‘work adjustment’. While ‘work attachment’ had a positive impact on ‘work adjustment’, ‘nature of work’ had a negative impact on migrant workers’ and ‘work adjustment’. The remaining employment experience factors such as ‘work benefit’, ‘workplace socialisation’, ‘interactions with home nationals’, did not show any indication of influencing the work adjustment of migrant workers.

Table 5.11 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA

DV	IDV	B	Std. Error	β	T	p
Non-work Adjustment	(Constant)	3.54	0.31		11.55	0
	Nature of work	-0.08	0.05	-0.09	-0.166	0.10
	Work attachment	0.2	0.04	0.23	4.79	.00**
	Work benefit	-0.04	0.06	-0.03	-0.63	0.53
	Workplace socialisation	0.13	0.04	0.17	3.46	.00**
	Interactions with home nationals	0.06	0.03	0.10	2.03	.04*
	R = .365, R ² = .133, Adjusted R ² = .123 F = 12.294, p = .00, Durbin-Watson = 1.902					
Work Adjustment	(Constant)	3.79	0.34		11.55	0
	Nature of work	-0.16	0.06	-0.15	-2.95	.00**
	Work attachment	0.33	0.05	0.33	7.08	.00**
	Work benefit	0.03	0.06	0.02	0.42	0.67
	Workplace socialisation	0.05	0.04	0.06	1.29	0.20
	Interactions with home nationals	0.03	0.03	0.04	0.89	0.38
	R = .399, R ² = .159, Adjusted R ² = .149 F = 15.111, p = .00, Durbin-Watson = 2.025 Note 1. Factors in grey shading indicate significantly related					

Study Enquiry Focus 2*Comparison of the effects of employment experience on cross-cultural adjustment between Darwin and Beppu*

From the earlier section, the multiple linear regression analysis confirmed that there are effects of employment experience on cross-cultural adjustment (CCA). Therefore, the present research further expanded the analysis by each destination: Darwin versus Beppu. It examined whether the proposed relationship can be explained by testing migrant workers in different locations. The results, indicated however that there were different factors predicting CCA of migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu. In other words, the outcome was different in each of the two research destinations. Three factors in the employment experience (nature of work, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals) predicted the CCA of migrant workers in Darwin, whereas only one factor (work attachment) could influence the CCA of migrant workers in Beppu. This is further explained in the following section starting with Darwin and then Beppu.

The effects of employment experience on CCA - Darwin

In Darwin, migrant workers' 'non-work adjustment' is explained by 17.9 percent of the variance in employment experience ($R^2 = .199$, $F(5, 199) = 9.91$, $p = .00$). The significant relationship factors were 'nature of work' ($p = .01$), 'workplace socialisation' ($p = .00$), and 'interactions with home nationals' ($p = .04$). Among these, 'workplace socialisation' ($\beta = .26$) had by far the greatest positive relationship with the 'non-work adjustment' factor followed by 'interactions with home nationals' ($\beta = .14$). In contrast, the 'nature of work' ($\beta = -.02$) showed a significantly negative impact on the 'non-work adjustment' of migrant workers in Darwin (see Table 5.12). However, although the 'work attachment' and 'work benefit' had

little associations with ‘non-work adjustment’, it did not significantly predict ‘non-work adjustment’.

Regarding the ‘work adjustment’ of migrant workers in Darwin, only the ‘work attachment’ factor explained nine percent of total variance in employment experience [$R^2 = .09$, $F(5, 199) = 4.156$, $p = .00$]. The ‘work attachment’ factor showed a significant and positive impact on ‘work adjustment’ (see Table 5.12).

Table 5.12 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA - Darwin

DV	IDV	B	Std. Error	β	T	p
Non-work Adjustment	(Constant)	3.44	0.52		6.59	0
	Nature of work	-0.23	0.08	-0.2	-2.78	.01**
	Work attachment	0.14	0.08	0.13	1.92	0.06
	Work benefit	0	0.09	-0.01	-0.07	0.94
	Workplace socialisation	0.23	0.06	0.26	3.62	.00**
	Interactions with home nationals	0.1	0.05	0.14	1.94	.04*
	$R = .447$, $R^2 = .199$, Adjusted $R^2 = .179$ $F = 9.91$, $p = .00$, Durbin-Watson = 1.09					
Work Adjustment	(Constant)	4.07	0.53		7.76	0
	Nature of work	-0.15	0.08	-0.14	-1.73	0.08
	Work attachment	0.24	0.08	0.22	3.13	.00**
	Work benefit	0.07	0.09	0.06	0.78	0.44
	Workplace socialisation	0.04	0.06	0.05	0.63	0.52
	Interactions with home nationals	0.07	0.05	0.1	1.38	0.17
	$R = .307$, $R^2 = .095$, Adjusted $R^2 = .072$ $F = 4.156$, $p = .00$, Durbin-Watson = 1.09 Note 1. Factors in grey shading indicate significantly related					

Effects of employment experience on CCA - Beppu

The hospitality employment experience of migrant workers in Beppu indicated a rather weak relationship with cross-cultural adjustment. Only one factor, the ‘work attachment’, predicted both non-work and work adjustment. In fact, the impact on ‘work adjustment’ was slightly stronger than the impact on ‘non-work adjustment’.

Firstly, as presented in Table 5.13, 8.6 percent of variance in employment experience explained ‘non-work adjustment’ ($R^2 = .086$, $F(5, 194) = 3.66$, $p = .00$). While ‘work attachment’ ($\beta = .3$) had a positive impact on the ‘non-work adjustment’ of workers in Beppu. And 10 percent of variance in employment experience was explained by the ‘work adjustment’ of migrant workers in Beppu ($R^2 = .10$, $F(5, 194) = 4.301$, $p = .00$). Furthermore, only the ‘work attachment’ factor ($\beta = .3$) had a significant and positive impact on the ‘work adjustment’ of migrant workers in Beppu.

Table 5.13 Multiple regression test: Employment experience on CCA - Beppu

DV	IDV	B	Std. Error	β	T	p
Non-work Adjustment	(Constant)	3.67	0.38		9.61	0
	Nature of work	0.04	0.06	0.04	0.57	0.57
	Work attachment	0.22	0.06	0.26	3.751	.00**
	Work benefit	-0.05	0.06	-0.05	-0.67	0.51
	Workplace socialisation	0.06	0.05	0.1	1.36	0.18
	Interactions with home nationals	0.02	0.03	0.03	0.46	0.65
	R = .294, R^2 = .086, Adjusted R^2 = .063 F = 3.66, p = .00, Durbin-Watson = 1.00					
Work Adjustment	(Constant)	3.92	0.46		8.48	0
	Nature of work	-0.12	0.08	-0.11	-1.45	0.14
	Work attachment	0.3	0.07	0.3	4.19	.00**
	Work benefit	-0.04	0.09	-0.03	-0.46	0.64
	Workplace socialisation	0.06	0.05	0.08	1.07	0.29
	Interactions with home nationals	-0.01	0.04	-0.02	-0.22	0.83
	R = .316, R^2 = .10, Adjusted R^2 = .08 F = 4.301, p = .00, Durbin-Watson = 1.22 Note 1. Factors in grey shading indicate significantly related					

Cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) between Darwin and Beppu

The current section compares the mean scores of cross-cultural adjustments between migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu to further explore possible differences. An independent samples T-test was adopted for the comparison technique. Table 5.14 presents the findings.

Firstly, the findings revealed the CCA between the workers in Darwin ($p = .00$) and Beppu ($p = .00$) showed noticeable difference. The mean scores of each factor indicated that both the ‘non-work adjustment’ ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.20$) and the ‘work adjustment’ ($M = 5.57$, $SD = 1.13$) of migrant workers in Darwin were relatively higher than the CCA of the workers in Beppu ‘non-work adjustment’ ($M = 4.87$, $SD = 1.04$) and ‘work adjustment’ ($M = 4.81$, $SD = 1.27$). The T-test outcomes indicated that ‘work adjustment’ [$t(403) = 6.36$, $p = .00$] showed a major difference between Darwin and Beppu but ‘non-work adjustment’ [$t(403) = 2.94$, $p = .00$] did not.

Table 5.14 T-test: Cross-cultural adjustment between Darwin and Beppu

Factor	Destination	N	Mean	Mean Difference	SD	t	Df	p
Non-work adjustment	Darwin	205	5.20	.33	1.20	2.94	403	.00**
	Beppu	200	4.87		1.04			
Work adjustment	Darwin	205	5.57	.76	1.13	6.36	403	.00**
	Beppu	200	4.81		1.27			

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note 1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Employment experience between Darwin and Beppu

The mean scores on employment experience of migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu were compared by adopting an independent samples T-test. As Table 5.15 shows, three of the five factors confirmed that there were differences in employment experience, ‘nature of work’ [$t(403) = -4.26, p = .00$], ‘work attachment’ [$t(403) = 10.15, p = .00$], and ‘interactions with home nationals’ [$t(403) = 2.86, p = .00$]. Between Darwin and Beppu, the ‘work attachment’ factor showed the greatest difference. In fact, the ‘work attachment’ of migrant workers in Darwin ($M = 4.94, SD = 1.05$) indicated a higher level of experience than for the workers in Beppu ($M = 3.78, SD = 1.24$). Also, ‘interactions with home nationals’ showed a significant difference between the two groups; the workers in Darwin ($M = 4.98, SD = 1.73$) had a greater level of interactions with home nationals than those in Beppu ($M = 4.43, SD = 2.16$). On the other hand, unlike other factors, the ‘nature of work’ among workers in Beppu ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.20$) indicated stronger experience effects than workers in Darwin ($M = 2.97, SD = 1.06$), but the level of difference between the groups was not apparent as the t-value presented was below zero.

Table 5.15 T-test: Employment experience between Darwin and Beppu

Factor	Destination	N	Mean	Mean Difference	SD	t	Df	p
Nature of work	Darwin	205	2.97	-.48	1.06	-4.26	403	.00**
	Beppu	200	3.45		1.20			
Work attachment	Darwin	205	4.94	1.16	1.05	10.15	403	.00**
	Beppu	200	3.78		1.24			
Work benefits	Darwin	205	2.91	.07	1.03	.72	403	.474
	Beppu	200	2.83		1.05			
Workplace socialisation	Darwin	205	5.67	.25	1.40	1.62	403	.107
	Beppu	200	5.43		1.66			
Interactions with home nationals	Darwin	205	4.98	.56	1.73	2.86	403	.00**
	Beppu	200	4.43		2.16			

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note 1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Study Enquiry Focus 3

Cross-cultural adjustment and employment experience by different visa category: differences between Darwin and Beppu migrant hotel workers

A one-way ANOVA between groups was conducted to explore the effects of visa category on cross-cultural adjustment factors (non-work adjustment, work-adjustment) and employment experience factors (nature of work, work attachment, work benefit, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals). The current study differentiated visa categories into five groups (Group 1: International students, Group 2: Working and holiday maker, Group 3: Expatriate, Group 4: Skilled migrant, Group 5: Permanent migrant). The mean and standard

deviation are presented in Table 5.16. A post-hoc test was further conducted by adopting the Scheffe test to identify which pair of means were significant.

Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category

The two cross-cultural adjustment factors, non-work factor and work adjustment, were found to be different by each visa category. Each non-work adjustment and work adjustment factor indicated a statistically significant difference at $p < .05$ for the five different types of visa. In fact, the 'work adjustment' factor indicated significant gaps between the visa categories in comparison with the 'non-work adjustment' factor.

Regarding 'non-work adjustment,' this was found to be statistically significant between visa categories [$F(4, 200) = 7.76, p = .00$]. According to the findings, the participants reported that the impact of 'non-work adjustment' was significantly higher for 'permanent migrant' visa holders ($M = 5.62, SD = 1.22$) than for 'skilled migrant' visa holders ($M = 5.24, SD = 1.15$), 'expatriate' visa holders ($M = 4.96, SD = .98$), 'working holiday maker' visa holders ($M = 4.65, SD = .95$), and 'international student' visa holders ($M = 4.84, SD = 1.06$).

The level of 'work adjustment' was also dissimilar between visa categories [$F(4, 200) = 15.97, p = .00$]. The findings revealed that the level of 'work adjustment' was greater among 'permanent migration' visa holders ($M = 5.99, SD = 1.06$), than for 'skilled migration' visa holders ($M = 5.69, SD = 1.11$), 'expatriate' visa holders ($M = 4.70, SD = .73$), 'working holiday-maker' visa holders ($M = 4.82, SD = 1.08$), and 'international student' visa holders ($M = 4.88, SD = 1.24$). Overall, the level of 'work adjustment' had greater gaps between different visa categories than the level of 'non-work adjustment'.

Table 5.16 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category

Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Non-work adjustment	International student	247	4.84	1.06	7.76	.00**
	Working and holiday maker	15	4.65	.95		
	Expatriate	9	4.96	.98		
	Skilled migrant	65	5.24	1.15		
	Permanent migrant	69	5.62	1.22		
	Sum	405	5.03	1.13		
Work adjustment	International student	247	4.88	1.24	15.97	.00**
	Working and holiday maker	15	4.82	1.08		
	Expatriate	9	4.70	.73		
	Skilled migrant	65	5.69	1.11		
	Permanent migrant	69	5.99	1.06		
	Sum	405	5.19	1.26		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Post-hoc comparisons using the Scheffe test indicated (see Table 5.17) that the mean score for ‘non-work adjustment’ of migrant workers with ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders (M = 5.62, SD = 1.22) was significantly different to those who had ‘international student’ visas (M = 4.88, SD = 1.24). In comparison, ‘permanent migrants’ had a higher level of ‘non-work adjustment’ compared to international students (a < e).

Regarding ‘work adjustment’ for the five different visa categories, each group had significant gaps apart from the ‘expatriate’ visa holders. Specifically, the level of ‘work adjustment’ among ‘international student’ (M = 4.88, SD = 1.24) and ‘working and holiday-maker’ (M = 4.82, SD = 1.08) visa holders was significantly lower than the level of ‘work adjustment’ of ‘skilled migrant’ and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders (a, b < d, e).

Table 5.17 Post-hoc comparisons (Scheffe test): Non-work and work adjustment by visa category

CCA	Visa category (1)	Visa category (2)	Mean Differences (1) - (2)	p	Scheffe
Non-work adjustment	International student (M = 4.84, SD = 1.06)	Working and holiday maker	.19	.98	a<e
		Expatriate	-.11	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.40	.15	
		Permanent migrant**	-.77	.00	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 4.65, SD = 0.95)	International student	-.19	.98	
		Expatriate	-.31	.98	
		Skilled migrant	-.59	.47	
		Permanent migrant	-.97	.05	
	Expatriate (M = 4.96, SD = 0.98)	International student	.11	1.00	
		Working and holiday maker	.31	.98	
		Skilled migrant	-.28	.97	
		Permanent migrant	-.66	.58	
	Skilled migrant (M = 5.24, SD = 1.15)	International student	.40	.15	
		Working and holiday maker	.59	.47	
		Expatriate	.28	.97	
		Permanent migrant	-.38	.42	
	Permanent migrant (M = 5.62, SD = 1.22)	International student**	.77	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	.97	.05	
		Expatriate	.66	.58	
		Skilled migrant	.38	.42	
Work adjustment	International student (M = 4.88, SD = 1.24)	Working and holiday maker	.06	1.00	a,b<d,e
		Expatriate	.17	1.00	
		Skilled migrant**	-.81	.00	
		Permanent migrant**	-1.11	.00	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 4.82, SD = 1.08)	International student	-.06	1.00	
		Expatriate	.12	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.86	.16	
		Permanent migrant*	-1.17	.02	
	Expatriate (M = 4.70, SD = 0.73)	International student	-.17	1.00	
		Working and holiday maker	-.12	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.98	.24	
		Permanent migrant	-1.29	.05	
	Skilled migrant (M = 5.69, SD = 1.11)	International student**	.81	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	.86	.16	
		Expatriate	.98	.24	
		Permanent migrant	-.30	.69	
	Permanent migrant (M = 5.99, SD = 1.06)	International student**	1.11	.00	
		Working and holiday maker*	1.17	.02	
		Expatriate	1.29	.05	
		Skilled migrant	.30	.69	

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note 1. The mean difference is significant at the below .05 level

2. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Employment experience by visa category

Employment experience factors including ‘nature of work’, ‘work attachment’, ‘work benefit’, ‘workplace socialisation’, and ‘interactions with home nationals’ were also examined with ANOVA test to find any significant differences between visa category (see Table 5.18). Only two factors, ‘nature of work’ and ‘work attachment’, indicated significant gaps between the different visa groups. In fact, ‘work attachment’ ($F = 13.79$) showed a greater difference between the visa category in comparison to ‘nature of work’ ($F = 8.67$).

According to the study is findings, the ‘nature of work’ in the hospitality industry indicated significant variances in the visa status of migrant workers [$F(4, 200) = 8.67, p = .00$]. Especially, ‘international student’ visa holders ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.17$) had the highest mean scores followed by ‘working and holiday-maker’ ($M = 3.17, SD = 1.18$), ‘expatriates’ ($M = 3.03, SD = .85$), ‘skilled migrant’ ($M = 2.74, SD = 1.04$), and ‘permanent migrant’ ($M = 2.77, SD = .96$) visa holders. Post-hoc Scheffe test (Table 5.19) showed that ‘nature of work’ of ‘international student’ visa holders ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.17$) had statistically significant differences with ‘skilled migrant’ ($M = 2.74, SD = 1.04$) and ‘permanent migrant’ ($M = 2.77, SD = .96$) visa holders (a > d, e).

Also, the ‘work attachment’ factor showed significant variations between visa category [$F(4, 200) = 13.79, p = .00$]. Among the five types of visa category, the group ‘permanent migrant’ visa ($M = 4.97, SD = 1.09$) and ‘skilled migrant’ visa ($M = 4.95, SD = 1.19$) had a significantly higher ‘work attachment’ levels than those with ‘expatriate’ ($M = 4.67, SD = 1.27$), ‘working and holiday-maker’ ($M = 4.76, SD = .76$), and ‘international student’ ($M = 4.01, SD = 1.27$) visas.

The comparison of 'work attachment' factor by visa category presented a similar result to the 'nature of work'. The 'work attachment' of an 'international student' ($M = 3.45$, $SD = 1.17$) was significantly different to those of 'skilled migrant' ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.04$) and 'permanent migrant' visa holders ($M = 2.77$, $SD = .96$). In fact, this time, the 'work adjustment' of 'skilled migrant' and 'permanent migrant' visa holders had higher levels of 'work attachment' than those with 'international student' visas ($a < d, e$).

The 'work benefit', 'workplace socialisation', and 'interactions with home nationals' within employment experience did not show significant variances between visa category (see Table 5.18).

Table 5.18 ANOVA Test: Employment experience by visa category

Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Nature of work	International student	247	3.45	1.17	8.67	.00**
	Working and holiday maker	15	3.17	1.18		
	Expatriate	9	3.03	.85		
	Skilled migrant	65	2.74	1.04		
	Permanent migrant	69	2.77	.96		
	Sum	405	3.20	1.15		
Work attachment	International student	247	4.01	1.27	13.79	.00**
	Working and holiday maker	15	4.76	.76		
	Expatriate	9	4.67	1.27		
	Skilled migrant	65	4.95	1.19		
	Permanent migrant	69	4.97	1.09		
	Sum	405	4.37	1.29		
Work benefit	International student	247	2.94	1.02	1.11	.35
	Working and holiday maker	15	3.11	1.18		
	Expatriate	9	2.70	.99		
	Skilled migrant	65	2.76	1.01		
	Permanent migrant	69	2.71	1.09		
	Sum	405	2.87	1.04		
Workplace socialisation	International student	247	5.49	1.54	1.54	.19
	Working and holiday maker	15	6.07	1.16		
	Expatriate	9	6.06	1.33		
	Skilled migrant	65	5.32	1.64		
	Permanent migrant	69	5.79	1.48		
	Sum	405	5.55	1.53		
Interactions with home nationals	International student	247	4.65	1.97	.43	.79
	Working and holiday maker	15	5.20	2.10		
	Expatriate	9	4.89	2.27		
	Skilled migrant	65	4.63	1.70		
	Permanent migrant	69	4.86	2.18		
	Sum	405	4.71	1.97		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Table 5.19 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): ‘Nature of work’ and ‘work attachment’ visa category

Employment Experience	Visa category (1)	Visa category (2)	Mean Differences (1) - (2)	p	Scheffe
Nature of work	International student (M = 3.45, SD = 1.17)	Working and holiday maker	.29	.92	a>d,e
		Expatriate	.43	.86	
		Skilled migrant**	.71	.00	
		Permanent migrant**	.69	.00	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 3.16, SD = 1.18)	International student	-.29	.92	
		Expatriate	.14	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	.42	.78	
		Permanent migrant	.40	.81	
	Expatriate (M = 3.03, SD = .85)	International student	-.43	.86	
		Working and holiday maker	-.14	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	.29	.97	
		Permanent migrant	.26	.98	
	Skilled migrant (M = 2.74, SD = 1.04)	International student**	-.71	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	-.42	.78	
		Expatriate	-.29	.97	
		Permanent migrant	-.03	1.00	
	Permanent migrant (M = 2.77, SD = .96)	International student**	-.69	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	-.40	.81	
		Expatriate	-.26	.98	
		Skilled migrant	.03	1.00	
Work attachment	International student (M = 4.01, SD = 1.27)	Working and holiday maker	-.74	.26	a<d,e
		Expatriate	-.65	.64	
		Skilled migrant**	-.93	.00	
		Permanent migrant**	-.96	.00	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 4.76, SD = .76)	International student	.74	.26	
		Expatriate	.09	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.19	.99	
		Permanent migrant	-.22	.98	
	Expatriate (M = 4.67, SD = 1.27)	International student	.65	.64	
		Working and holiday maker	-.09	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.28	.98	
		Permanent migrant	-.30	.97	
	Skilled migrant (M = 4.95, SD = 1.19)	International student**	.93	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	.19	.99	
		Expatriate	.28	.98	
		Permanent migrant	-.02	1.00	
	Permanent migrant (M = 4.97, SD = 1.09)	International student**	.96	.00	
		Working and holiday maker	.22	.98	
		Expatriate	.30	.97	
		Skilled migrant	.02	1.00	

Note 1. The mean difference is significant at the below .05 level

2. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

CCA and employment experience by different visa category in Darwin and Beppu

After the ANOVA test on employment experience and cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers by different visa category, a set of tests was conducted by separating the research destinations: Darwin and in Beppu. Although each visa allows quite similar permits for migrants, individual migrant workers' experience may vary depending on the host nation's immigration policy. Therefore, further analysis of visa category effects between the two research destinations was unavoidable.

'Cross-cultural adjustment' by visa category of migrant workers in Darwin

Firstly, the ANOVA test examined the overall cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers in Darwin by different visa category. According to the results, the CCA of migrant workers in Darwin significantly differed by visa categories (see Table 5.20).

In Darwin, both 'work adjustment' and 'non-work adjustment' factors were statistically significant and different among the different visa categories $<p=0.1>$. In terms of 'work adjustment', it was noticeably different [$F(4, 200) = 8.98, p = .00$]. According to the Post-hoc comparison using Scheffe test (see Table 5.21), the significant gap appeared between 'international student' visa holders ($M = 5.15, MD = 1.01$) and 'permanent migrant' visa holders ($M = 6.03, MD = 1.06$). The group of 'international student' visa holders tend to experience less 'work adjustment' than the group of 'permanent migrant' visa holders.

Also, the 'non-work adjustment' factor was significantly different between visa categories [$F(4, 200) = 4.88, p = .00$]. According to the Scheffe test (see Table 5.21), four visa groups showed statistically significant differences: 'International student', 'working holiday maker', 'skilled migrant', and 'permanent migrant'. 'Permanent migrant' visa holders ($M = 5.63, MD$

=1.21) and ‘working holiday maker’ visa holders ($M = 5.27$, $MD = 1.13$) had the greatest ‘non-work adjustment’ among all, while the ‘international student’ ($M = 4.82$, $MD = 1.18$) and the ‘working and holiday maker’ ($M = 4.65$, $MD = 0.95$) had the least.

Overall, the ANOVA test outcome indicated that the gap between temporary visa holders and permanent visas holders in both ‘work adjustment’ and ‘non-work adjustment’ was significant ($p = 0.00$). Especially, ‘international student’ visa holders had the greatest difference to ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders in overall CCA. Temporary visa holders tend to have less CCA compared to long-term visa holders.

Table 5. 20 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category, Darwin

Destination	Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Darwin	Non-Work Adjustment	International student	63	4.82	1.18	4.88	.00**
		Working and holiday maker	15	4.65	0.95		
		Expatriate	2	4.81	0.09		
		Skilled migrant	60	5.27	1.13		
		Permanent migrant	65	5.63	1.21		
		Sum	205	5.20	1.20		
	Work Adjustment	International student	63	5.15	1.01	8.98	.00**
		Working and holiday maker	15	4.82	1.08		
		Expatriate	2	4.00	0.47		
		Skilled migrant	60	5.75	1.10		
		Permanent migrant	65	6.03	1.06		
		Sum	205	5.57	1.13		

** $p < 0.01$, * $p < 0.05$

Note1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences

Table 5.21 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Non-work and work adjustment by visa category, Darwin

CCA	Visa category (1)	Visa category (2)	Mean Differences (1) - (2)	p	Scheffe
Non-work adjustment	International student (M = 4.82, SD = 1.18)	Working and holiday maker	0.17	0.99	a<e
		Expatriate	0.01	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-0.44	0.34	
		Permanent migrant*	-0.81	0.01	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 4.65, SD = 0.95)	International student	-0.17	0.99	
		Expatriate	-0.16	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-0.62	0.49	
		Permanent migrant	-0.98	0.07	
	Expatriate (M = 4.81, SD = 0.09)	International student	-0.01	1.00	
		Working and holiday maker	0.16	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-0.45	0.99	
		Permanent migrant	-0.82	0.91	
	Skilled migrant (M = 5.27, SD = 1.13)	International student	0.44	0.34	
		Working and holiday maker	0.62	0.49	
		Expatriate	0.45	0.99	
		Permanent migrant	-0.36	0.54	
	Permanent migrant (M = 5.63, SD = 1.21)	International student*	0.81	0.01	
		Working and holiday maker	0.98	0.07	
		Expatriate	0.82	0.91	
		Skilled migrant	0.36	0.54	
Work adjustment	International student (M = 5.15, SD = 1.01)	Working and holiday maker	0.33	0.89	a,b<d,e
		Expatriate	1.15	0.68	
		Skilled migrant*	-0.60	0.04	
		Permanent migrant**	-0.88	0.00	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 4.82, SD = 1.08)	International student	-0.33	0.89	
		Expatriate	0.82	0.90	
		Temporary migrant	-0.93	0.06	
		Permanent migrant**	-1.20	0.00	
	Expatriate (M = 4.00, SD = 0.47)	International student	-1.15	0.68	
		Working and holiday maker	-0.82	0.90	
		Temporary migrant	-1.75	0.26	
		Permanent migrant	-2.03	0.13	
	Skilled migrant (M = 5.75, SD = 1.10)	International student*	0.60	0.04	
		Working and holiday maker	0.93	0.06	
		Expatriate	1.75	0.26	
		Permanent migrant	-0.28	0.71	
	Permanent migrant (M = 6.03, SD = 1.06)	International student**	0.88	0.00	
		Working and holiday maker**	1.20	0.00	
		Expatriate	2.03	0.13	
		Skilled migrant	0.28	0.71	

Note 1. The mean difference is significant at the below .05 level

2. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences

‘Employment experience’ by visa category of migrant workers in Darwin

Employment experience in the hospitality industry was also further analysed by relating the five visa groups within the experience of migrant workers in Darwin. Among the five factors of employment experience in the hospitality industry, only the ‘nature of work’ factor was significantly different between the groups [$F(4, 200) = 3.46, p = .01$]. Overall, migrant workers’ perceptions on the hospitality industry were neutral ($M = 2.97$). According to the Scheffe test (Table 5.23), migrant workers with ‘international student’ visa holders ($M = 3.33, MD = 1.03$) had better feeling from the ‘nature of work’ than the ‘skilled migrant’ ($M = 2.76, MD = 1.06$) and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders ($M = 2.76, MD = 0.97$).

Although the remaining factors did not appear to be statistically significant, it is interesting to note that temporary visa holders (international student and working holiday-makers) tend to have higher mean scores, especially within the ‘workplace socialisation’ and ‘interactions with ‘home nationals’ factors, than long-term migrants.

Table 5.22 ANOVA Test: Employment experience by visa category, Darwin

Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Nature of work	International student	63	3.33	1.03	3.46	.01*
	Working and holiday maker	15	3.17	1.18		
	Expatriate	2	2.63	0.18		
	Skilled migrant	60	2.76	1.06		
	Permanent migrant	65	2.76	0.97		
	Sum	205	2.97	1.06		
Work attachment	International student	63	4.83	1.03	1.04	.39
	Working and holiday maker	15	4.76	0.76		
	Expatriate	2	6.00	1.41		
	Skilled migrant	60	5.07	1.08		
	Permanent migrant	65	4.94	1.08		
	Sum	205	4.94	1.05		
Work benefit	International student	63	3.10	0.95	1.52	1.20
	Working and holiday maker	15	3.11	1.18		
	Expatriate	2	3.67	0.47		
	Skilled migrant	60	2.77	1.01		
	Permanent migrant	65	2.77	1.07		
	Sum	205	2.90	1.03		
Workplace socialisation	International student	63	5.61	1.32	1.20	.31
	Working and holiday maker	15	6.07	1.16		
	Expatriate	2	5.50	2.12		
	Skilled migrant	60	5.41	1.51		
	Permanent migrant	65	5.88	1.38		
	Sum	205	5.67	1.39		
Interactions with home nationals	International student	63	5.20	1.18	1.47	.21
	Working and holiday maker	15	5.20	2.10		
	Expatriate	2	3.25	2.47		
	Skilled migrant	60	4.64	1.71		
	Permanent migrant	65	5.08	2.03		
	Sum	205	4.98	1.73		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Table 5.23 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Nature of work by visa category, Darwin

Employment Experience	Visa category (1)	Visa category (2)	Mean Differences (1) - (2)	p	Scheffe
Nature of work	International student (M = 3.34, SD = 1.04)	Working and holiday maker	0.17	0.99	a>d,e
		Expatriate	0.71	0.92	
		Skilled migrant*	0.57	0.04	
		Permanent migrant*	0.58	0.04	
	Working and holiday maker (M = 3.17, SD = 1.18)	International student	-.29	.92	
		Expatriate	.14	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	0.42	0.78	
		Permanent migrant	0.40	0.81	
	Expatriate (M = 2.63, SD = .18)	International student	-.57	.05	
		Working and holiday maker	-.40	.77	
		Skilled migrant	0.14	1.00	
		Permanent migrant	.00	1.00	
	Skilled migrant (M = 2.76, SD = 1.06)	International student*	-.57	.05	
		Working and holiday maker	-.40	0.77	
		Expatriate	-.14	1.00	
		Permanent migrant	-.00	1.00	
	Permanent migrant (M = 2.76, SD = .97)	International student*	-.58	0.04	
		Working and holiday maker	-.40	0.76	
		Expatriate	0.14	1.00	
		Skilled migrant	-.00	1.00	

Note 1. The mean difference is significant at the below .05 level

2. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

‘Cross-cultural adjustment’ by visa category of migrant workers in Beppu

Despite the ANOVA test indicating that there were statistical significant between the visa groups only with migrant workers in Darwin, migrant workers in Beppu presented relatively similar results to the groups in Darwin. However, the gaps between the groups were not statistically significant. Among the groups in Beppu, temporary migrants tended to show less CCA in comparison with long-term migrants.

Table 5. 24 ANOVA Test: Cross-cultural adjustment by visa category, Beppu

Destination	Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Beppu	Non-Work Adjustment	International student	184	4.85	1.01	0.37	0.77
		Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
		Expatriate	7	5.00	1.13		
		Skilled migrant	5	4.93	1.50		
		Permanent migrant	4	5.38	1.64		
		Sum	200	4.87	1.04		
	Work Adjustment	International student	184	4.79	1.30	0.35	0.70
		Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
		Expatriate	7	4.90	0.69		
		Skilled migrant	5	4.93	1.14		
		Permanent migrant	4	5.42	1.10		
		Sum	200	4.81	1.27		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

‘Employment experience’ by visa category of migrant workers in Beppu

Unlike the outcome of comparing employment experience with visa category in Darwin, the workers in Beppu only showed that the ‘interactions with home national’ factor was significantly different between the different visa groups [$F(3, 196) = 3.70, p = .01$]. According to the Scheffe test, the gap between the mean scores of ‘international student’ ($M = 4.46, MD = 2.14$) and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders ($M = 1.13, MD = 0.25$) was the most significant. In fact, ‘international student’ visa holders had the highest mean score among the group. In this respect, the employment experience of temporary visa holders tended to be greater than long-term visa holders in terms of ‘interactions with home nationals’. This outcome will be further discussed in Chapter 6.

Table 5.25 ANOVA Test: Employment Experience by visa category, Beppu

Factor	Current visa category	N	Mean	SD	F	p
Nature of work	International student	184	3.50	1.20	1.61	.19
	Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
	Expatriate	7	3.14	0.94		
	Skilled migrant	5	2.50	0.95		
	Permanent migrant	4	2.88	0.83		
	Sum	200	3.45	1.20		
Work attachment	International student	184	3.50	1.20	2.67	.05
	Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
	Expatriate	7	3.14	0.94		
	Skilled migrant	5	2.50	0.95		
	Permanent migrant	4	2.88	0.83		
	Sum	200	3.45	1.20		
Work benefit	International student	184	2.88	1.04	2.25	.08
	Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
	Expatriate	7	2.43	0.94		
	Skilled migrant	5	2.60	1.04		
	Permanent migrant	4	1.67	0.82		
	Sum	200	2.83	1.05		
Workplace socialisation	International student	184	5.45	1.60	2.01	.11
	Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
	Expatriate	7	6.21	1.22		
	Skilled migrant	5	4.20	2.80		
	Permanent migrant	4	4.38	2.50		
	Sum	200	5.43	1.66		
Interactions with home nationals	International student	184	4.46	2.14	3.70	.01*
	Working and holiday maker	0	0	0		
	Expatriate	7	5.36	2.17		
	Skilled migrant	5	4.50	1.77		
	Permanent migrant	4	1.13	0.25		
	Sum	200	4.43	2.16		

**p<0.01, *p<0.05

Note1. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences.

Table 5.26 Post-hoc (Scheffe test): Work adjustment by visa category, Beppu

CCA	Visa category (1)	Visa category (2)	Mean Differences (1) - (2)	p	Scheffe
Interactions with home nationals	International student (M = 4.46, SD = 2.14)	Expatriate	-.90	0.75	b,a>d
		Skilled migrant	-.04	1.0	
		Permanent migrant*	3.33	.02	
	Expatriate (M = 5.36, SD = 2.17)	International student	.90	.75	
		Temporary migrant	.86	.92	
		Permanent migrant*	4.23	.02	
	Skilled migrant (M = 4.50, SD = 1.77)	International student	.04	1.0	
		Expatriate	-.86	.92	
		Permanent migrant	3.38	.14	
	Permanent migrant (M = 1.13, SD = 0.25)	International student*	-3.33	.02	
		Expatriate*	-4.23	.02	
		Skilled migrant	-3.38	.14	

Note 1. The mean difference is significant at the below .05 level

2. Factors in grey shading indicate significant differences

Chapter Summary

The present chapter outlined the process of data analysis and provided the information to answer the research questions. First, the analysis described the socio-demographic information of migrant hotel workers in Darwin and Beppu. Major differences between the two destinations within demographic information were identified as being age, education background, visa category, work purpose, work designation, employment contract, and current visa category.

The data from Japan showed that a significant number of migrant workers were aged 18~25 (83%) years with international student visas (92%), and that they worked for a financial purpose (63.5%). Thus, they tended to be at an entry position (95.0%) and worked in the kitchen or housekeeping department in a hotel. Nearly all of them were working without a contract as part-time workers (94.5%). Conversely, the major group of workers in Darwin were aged 26~30 (43.9%) with international student visas (30.7%), skilled migrant visa (29.3%) and permanent migrant visa (31.7%). They worked in the hospitality sector for career development purposes. Unlike, the workers in Beppu, all workers in Darwin were contract-based on work rights while the workers with limited work rights made up only 25.9 %.

After multiple regression analysis, the current study revealed the relationships between employment experience and cross-cultural adjustment. Thus, the proposed model is confirmed. In total, four out of five employment factors - nature of work, work attachment, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals predicted migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment. Three factors - work attachment, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals - had a significant association with non-work adjustment, whereas only the work attachment factor had an association with work adjustment.

Although the model confirmed the relationship between employment experience and CCA, the outcome was slightly different among the workers in Darwin and Beppu. Firstly, the findings from Darwin were closer to the original model than those from Beppu. For instance, in line with the model, the factors in employment experience showed associations with CCA in Darwin, but only one factor indicated a relationship with CCA in Beppu. Therefore, the present study further investigated the possible difference concerning employment experience and CCA due to the current visa category of the migrant workers.

In Beppu, 92 percent of the workers held an international student visa while at Darwin 60 percent of the workers held temporary and permanent migrant visas. Based on the five different visa categories, there was clear evidence that migrant workers' employment experience and CCA varied significantly.

In the comparison analysis between different visa categories, in both 'non-work' and 'work adjustment' factors, showed considerable differences by visa category. Specifically, 'non-work adjustment' indicated a significant gap between 'international student' visa holders and 'permanent migrant' visa holders while 'work adjustment' was also significantly different between 'international student', 'skilled migrant' and 'permanent migrant' visa holders. On the other hand, the comparison analysis between different visa categories in terms of employment experience in the hospitality industry, only the 'nature of work' and 'work attachment' factors showed statistically significant differences. Overall, the groups, 'international student' and 'temporary migrant' and 'permanent migrant' visa holders showed significant differences.

Depending on the different visa categories, the findings on the experience of migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu differed. In Darwin, a similar pattern to the overall group analysis was evident: Significant differences between the visa groups appeared in the influence of three factors, ‘work adjustment’ and ‘non-work adjustment’ in CCA, and ‘nature of work’ in employment experience. Also, the significant gaps were between ‘international student’ and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders in overall factors. On the other hand, in Darwin and Beppu, the differences between the visa groups in Beppu were not as major as those in Darwin. Only ‘interactions with home nationals’ indicated great gaps between the groups. Especially, ‘international student’ visa holders had the greatest experiences, while ‘interactions with home nationals’ and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders had the least. According to these findings, temporary visa holders tended to have less favourable CCA and employment experiences than long-term visa holders. However, temporary visa holders tend to experience greater workplace social interaction factors such as ‘interactions with home nationals’ than long-term visa holders.

A further discussion on the findings in relation to previous research findings (as discussed in the literature review) will be discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6. DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

Introduction

This chapter deliberates on the empirical findings of the study. This study raised three initial enquiries prior to the investigation: (i) *Whether the employment experience of migrant workers in the hospitality industry can be a predictor of the workers' cross-cultural adjustment in a new cultural environment?* (ii) *If employment experience in the hospitality industry could predict the workers' cross-cultural adjustment, and, would this relationship be similar in the Darwin and Beppu contexts?* (iii) *Would type of visas influence employment experience as well as cross-cultural adjustment? If so, which type of visa would have the lowest cross-cultural adjustment and negative impact among hospitality employees? And how does the outcome like in Darwin and Beppu?*

Previous research on the cultural adjustment of foreign workers has mainly focused on individuals' cross-cultural ability and its effects on cross-cultural adjustment (Caliguuri, 2000; Ryder et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2003; Huang et al., 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). However, this study laid out a different approach to investigating individuals' employment experiences in a foreign nation, and their effects on cross-cultural adjustment. The employment experience concept was comprised of both external and internal factors, while controlling how individuals obtained cultural knowledge. A total of five measurements ('nature of work', 'work attachment', 'work benefit', 'workplace socialisation', 'interactions with home nationals') were used to examine migrant workers' working experience in the hospitality sector to see if some of these predicted the associations with cross-cultural adjustment.

To answer the proposed research questions, the current study established a total of 15 hypotheses based on a survey of related literature. The proposed hypotheses are summarised in Table 3.1 above. The following section attempts to expand the discussions on each hypothesis in view of the study findings.

Study Enquiry Focus 1

This study established a total of 14 hypotheses to serve the first *Study Enquiry Focus*, *whether the employment experience of migrant workers in the hospitality sector may be a predictor of the workers' cross-cultural adjustment in a new cultural environment*. To predict migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment through perceived employment experience, the following factors were examined - nature of hospitality work, work benefit, work attachment, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals. As predicted, some employment experience factors could predict migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment (CCA).

Nature of hospitality work and CCA

Hypothesis 1a: The nature of hospitality work has a negative effect on non-work adjustment.

Hypothesis 1b: The nature of hospitality work has a negative effect on work adjustment.

According to the previous literature addressed in Chapter 3, it was predicted that migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment would have a strong association with the nature of hospitality work experience. However, since job characteristics in the hospitality industry hold unfavourable reputations as per previous research (O'Neill and Xiao, 2010; Heuven & Bakker, 2003; Kim, 2008), the nature of hospitality work experience for migrant workers would negatively impact the overall CCA. Therefore, this study established *Hypotheses 1a* and *1b* -

the nature of hospitality work negatively effects non-work adjustment as well as work adjustment.

Firstly, a multiple linear regression was calculated to investigate hypothesis 1a. The findings revealed that although the nature of work made little contribution to non-work adjustments, the outcome did not support *Hypothesis 1a* since the statistical significance was above 0.05 ($\beta = -0.09$, $p = 0.10$). Consequently, *Hypothesis 1a* is deemed to be rejected. This means, the nature of hospitality work such as emotional work, long working hours, work and personal life imbalance does not have any association with the non-work adjustment of migrant workers.

On the other hand, *Hypothesis 1b* proved that the nature of work in the hospitality industry significantly predicted the work adjustment of migrant workers. Thus, *Hypothesis 1b* was well supported. Additionally, the results indicated that the nature of hospitality work had a negative effect on the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers ($\beta = -0.15$, $p = 0.00$). Therefore, it can be interpreted that the job characteristics of the hospitality industry will have a negative effect on the ‘work adjustment’ aspect of overall cross-cultural adjustment.

These findings contribute to the idea that workers’ perceived job characteristics in any sector may influence cross-cultural adjustment. Specifically, jobs with poor working environments or unfavourable job characteristics could negatively affect foreign workers’ adaption to a new culture, especially the ‘work adjustment’ aspect of CCA. This notion is also supported by previous research findings (Black, 1988; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Aryee & Stone, 1996) that showed that experienced role ambiguity and role conflict tend to increase uncertainty and inhibit the work role adjustment of foreign workers. Since the job characteristics in the hospitality industry are heavily involved with work and life imbalances, this study assumed

that the nature of the job would also influence general living adjustment in a foreign country. However, according to the findings migrant workers' perceived job characteristics in the hospitality industry had no effect on the 'non-work adjustment' aspect, but did on the 'work adjustment' aspect of cross-cultural adjustment. Therefore, although migrant workers experience unfavourable work environments, the major effects on the nature of work would be only on work adjustment while adapting to a new culture.

Work attachment and CCA

Hypothesis 2a: Work attachment has no effect on non-work adjustment

Hypothesis 2b: Work attachment has a positive effect on work adjustment

Previous research had highlighted the relationship between work-related motivations with job satisfaction. This research predicted that the 'work attachment' of migrant workers would be associated with the level of 'work adjustment' aspect of CCA. However, according to the finding, migrant hotel workers' 'work attachment' had a significant and positive relationship with the 'non-work adjustment' ($\beta = 0.23, p = 0.00$), indicating that migrant hotel workers with a strong work attachments tend to adjust better to general living in a foreign country, therefore, *Hypothesis 2a* is not supported. According to the previous research on CCA, the 'work attachment' tends to reduce foreign workers' work related uncertainties, which results in improving the 'work adjustment' role of CCA, yet 'work attachment' and 'non-work adjustment' had no such relationship. Unlike previous research findings, this study discovered a possibility that 'work attachment' can also predict the 'general living adjustment' aspect of foreign workers experiences.

This study also revealed that ‘work attachment’ significantly and positively influences the ‘work adjustment’ of migrant hotel workers ($\beta = 0.33$, $p = 0.00$). In addition, the association between ‘work attachment’ and ‘work adjustment’ showed the greatest differences among all findings. Therefore, this finding is strongly supported in line with previous research findings - employees’ intrinsic motivation improves job satisfaction (Herzberg, 1966).

According to the findings, there is also a relationship between ‘work attachment’ and overall ‘cross-cultural adjustment’ of migrant hotel workers in a foreign country. The more satisfied migrant workers are with their jobs, the more culturally adjusted they are. It has been suggested that providing job training, empowerment and rewards can enhance employees' job satisfaction and attachment (Sparrowe, 1994; Babakus et al., 2008; Chiang et al., 2014).

Work discretion and CCA

Hypotheses 3a and 3b were eliminated due to the findings on these criteria being of statistically low significance.

Work benefit and CCA

Hypothesis 4a: Work benefit has no effect on non-work adjustment

Hypothesis 4b: Work benefit has a positive effect on work adjustment

Although the ‘work benefit’ factor of employment experience had little effect on both non-work adjustment and work adjustment, the factor was not statistically significant at the level of $p < 0.05$. Therefore, the results of a linear multiple regression did not support *Hypothesis 4a* ($\beta = -0.03$, $p = 0.53$) or *Hypothesis 4b* ($\beta = 0.02$, $p = 0.67$) indicating that ‘work benefit’ does not have any significant statistical impact on the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers. As

Lundberg and colleagues (2009) mentioned in their research, the ‘work benefit’ aspect is not a priority for seasonal workers or migrant workers, but meeting more people to have interactions and expanding knowledge about the host culture is essential.

Workplace socialisation and CCA

Hypothesis 5a: Workplace socialisation has a positive effect on non-work adjustment

Hypothesis 5b: Workplace socialisation has a positive effect on work adjustment

A linear multiple regression further revealed that ‘workplace socialisation’ is positively associated with the ‘non-work adjustment’ of migrant workers ($\beta = 0.17$, $p = 0.00$). Furthermore, this element of employment experience contributes at a statistically significant level towards the ‘non-work adjustment’ of CCA.

Regarding the ‘workplace socialisation’ of migrant workers, positive ‘workplace socialisation’ impacts on the ‘non-work adjustment’ rather than the work adjustment of migrant workers in the hospitality industry. This finding is similar to previous research on the CCA in expatriate studies. Concerning the acculturation perspective, Ward and Searle (1991) agree that individuals’ culture shock stage during cultural transitions could be mediated by frequent socialisation and interactions with people.

In contrast, the ‘workplace socialisation’ did not indicate any significant association with work adjustment ($\beta = 0.6$, $p = 0.20$). There was no significant relationship between ‘workplace socialisation’ and ‘work adjustment’. Therefore, Hypothesis 5b is deemed to be rejected.

Although previous research has highlighted that organisational socialisation is an important factor, especially for newcomers' work adjustment and assimilation processes (Bauer et al., 2007; Morrison, 2002), this research outcome revealed rather a different outcome. It can be estimated that majority of participants in this study were temporary migrants, thus foreign workers' different situations should have brought somewhat different results when compared to the previous literature on expatriates and CCA study. However, the findings of this study support the idea that temporary migrant workers in the hospitality industry tend to overcome their feeling of uncertainty while interacting with host and home nationals (Lundberg et al., 2009). It seems that migrant workers in the industry gain not only financial benefits but also cross-cultural connections through work experience.

Interactions with home nationals and CCA

Hypothesis 6a: Interaction with home nationals has a positive effect on non-work adjustment

Hypothesis 6b: Interaction with home nationals has no effects on work adjustment

The results indicate that the 'interactions with home nationals' factor has a significant level of association with only 'non-work adjustment' ($\beta = 0.10$, $p = 0.04$). However, in comparison with other associated factors such as 'work attachment' ($\beta = 0.23$), 'workplace socialisation' ($\beta = 0.17$), and 'nature of work' ($\beta = -0.15$), this factor contributed the least towards CCA. Despite the low effects on 'non-work adjustment', the statistical results served *Hypothesis 6a*. Moreover, as anticipated, 'interactions with home nationals' had no associations with the 'work adjustment' of migrant workers ($\beta = 0.04$, $p = 0.38$). Also, previous research has highlighted that 'interactions with home nationals' does not support work related aspects, but support non-work elements. Finally, having interactions with home country colleagues tends to assist in negotiating day-to-day life, which is important for migrant workers' survival, especially in new

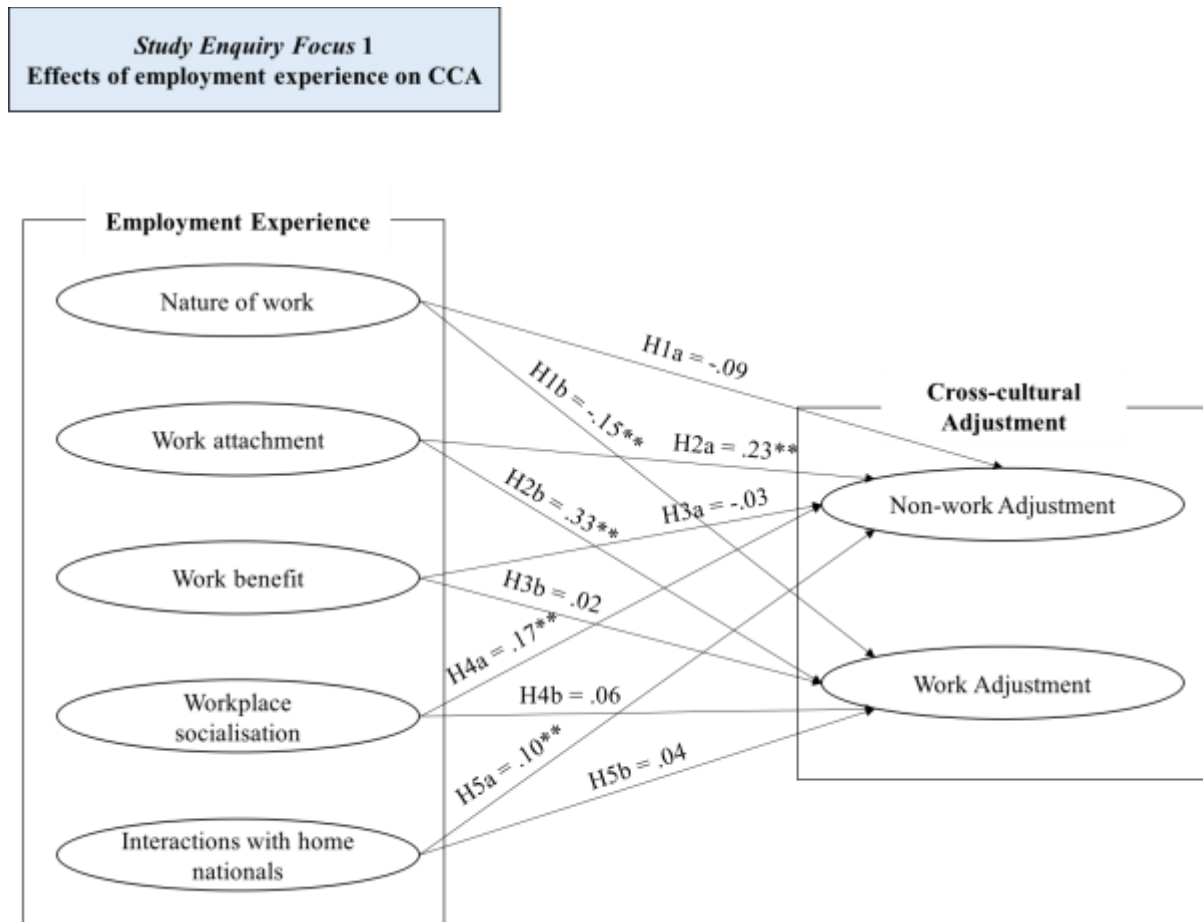
environments and cultures (Kim, 2001; Janta et al., 2011b). It also tends to help emotional well-being (Janta et al., 2011b).

Interactions with host nationals and CCA

Hypothesis 7a and 7b were eliminated due to the findings on these criteria being of statistically low significance.

Figure 6.1 shows the final study outcomes indicating significant associations² between employment experience and CCA factors. A total of seven of the hypotheses were accepted, while three hypotheses were deemed to be rejected. Therefore, a total of five associations have been finally confirmed between employment experience in the hospitality industry and CCA.

² ** indicates significant association at Figure 6.1

Figure 6.1 Summary of *Study Enquiry Focus 1*

Summary of Study Enquiry Focus 1

Overall, the current study discovered that migrant hotel workers' perceived employment experience is associated with their cross-cultural adjustment. Four employment experience factors (nature of work, work attachment, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals) explain its significant associations with the 'non-work adjustment' and 'work adjustment' aspects of CCA. Although previous research (Black, 1988) has highlighted that foreign workers' perceived work-related factors tend to have strong associations with the 'work adjustment' aspect of CCA, this study explains that work-related factors can also affect the 'non-work adjustment' aspect of cross-cultural adjustment. This finding can be explained by understanding the type of foreign workers selected for this study. Since this study project has focused on foreign workers who are low-skilled workers, self-initiated expatriates, and temporary migrants, the research outcomes may be quite different to earlier research findings.

However, this study's findings have added a value to certain types of migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment via their employment experience in a foreign country. For these migrant workers, significant employment experience factors when adjusting to a foreign culture can be work related factors such as 'nature of work' and 'work attachment', and interactions with work-people factors such as 'workplace socialisation' and 'interactions with home nationals'. Among these factors, interactions with work-people factors showed a great association with the 'non-work adjustment' aspect of CCA. In fact, this relationship was well anticipated and extensively explained in Chapter 3. Nevertheless, the association between 'workplace attachment' and 'non-work adjustment' should be further highlighted. Interestingly, individual migrant workers' strong 'work attachment' in the hospitality industry showed a positive relationship with their general living adjustment in a foreign nation.

Study Enquiry Focus 2

For the second *Study Enquiry Focus*, a total of three hypotheses were created: *if employment experience could predict the workers' cross-cultural adjustment, and, would the association be similar in Darwin and Beppu's context?* To test these proposed hypotheses, the study adopted a multiple linear regression analysis as well as the T-test. According to the findings, a dissimilarity was observed between Darwin and Beppu for the impact of particular variables on CCA. More detailed information and each hypothesis are presented below.

Darwin versus Beppu

Hypothesis 8a: Migrant workers in Darwin will have a greater association between hospitality employment experience and cross-cultural adjustment than migrant workers in Beppu

A multiple linear regression test analysed whether the employment experience of migrant workers significantly predicted their CCA. The impact was further distinguished by each destination, Darwin and Beppu. The findings indicated that there are considerable differences between the workers in Darwin and Beppu. Each factor *mean score difference* indicates that (see Tables 5.12 and 5.13) that each factor showed significant mean difference between Darwin and Beppu. Particularly, the 'work adjustment' and 'work attachment' factors showed the greatest differences. Migrant workers in Darwin had higher mean scores in on the 'work adjustment' and 'work attachment' factors than workers in Beppu.

The association between employment experience in the hospitality industry and the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers in Darwin were quite similar to those proposed by the model (*Study Enquiry Focus 1*). In particular, four employment experience factors (nature of

work, work attachment, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals) could predict the CCA of migrant workers in Darwin. On the other hand, among the migrant workers in Beppu, only the ‘work attachment’ factor could predict CCA. Therefore, the association between employment experience and CCA of migrant workers in Darwin was greater than for their counterparts in Beppu. Consequently, *Hypothesis 8c* is well supported.

In addition, two interesting outcomes were highlighted throughout the analysis. First of all, the ‘nature of work’ factor had a positive relationship with the ‘non-work adjustment’ of migrant workers in Darwin. Since the ‘nature of work’ in the hospitality sector tends to have a great impact on a worker’s life outside work, this outcome was anticipated. Secondly, the origin of the association between ‘work attachment’ and ‘non-work adjustment’ was clearly discovered only among migrant workers in Beppu. It seems that the CCA of migrant workers in Beppu feel a greater impact from their perceived work experiences than migrant workers in Darwin. This positive relationship between ‘work attachment’ and ‘non-work adjustment’ can explain migrant workers’ perceived job satisfaction and general living. For instance, negative job attachment for migrant workers could further impact on the ‘non-work adjustment’ of CCA. Such negative employment experiences of chronic exhaustion, loss of social status and long hours of labour work, in addition to attending school, may cause an adverse impact on migrants’ general living adjustment (Liu-Farrer, 2011). In contrast, migrant workers’ positive experience could cause practical effects on general living adjustments such as learning the host language and cultural skills (Liu-Farrer, 2011).

Since the T-test makes comparisons between two groups, this can be further examined while exploring the T-test outcomes between the two groups in *Study Enquiry Focus 3*.

Hypothesis 8b: Migrant workers in Darwin have better cross-cultural adjustment than migrant workers in Beppu

The findings revealed that both the factors of CCA (non-work adjustment, work adjustment) showed significantly different outcomes between Darwin and Beppu. Specifically, migrant workers in Darwin reported significantly higher levels of ‘non-work adjustment’ [$t(403) = 2.94, p = .00$] as well as ‘work adjustment’ [$t(403) = 6.36, p = .00$] than migrant workers in Beppu, indicating that migrant workers in Darwin have adjusted better to the host country in comparison with migrant workers in Beppu. As a result, *hypothesis 8a* is firmly supported by the study findings.

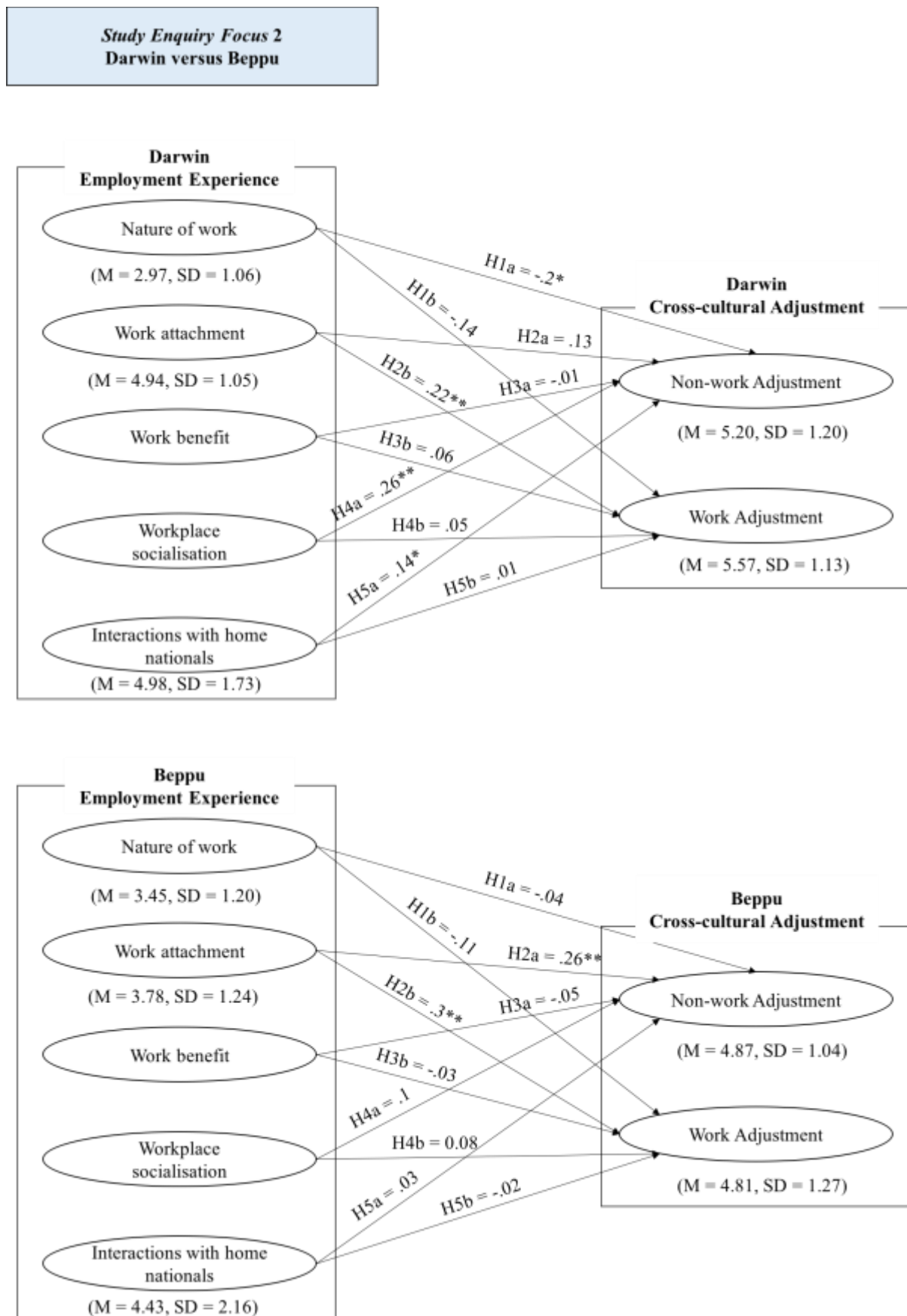
Hypothesis 8c: Migrant workers in Beppu have poorer hospitality employment experience than migrant workers in Darwin

The T-test results presented distinct differences in employment experience between the two research destinations. Three factors, ‘nature of work’ [$t(403) = -4.26, p = .00$], ‘work attachment’ [$t(403) = 10.15, p = .00$], and ‘interactions with home nationals’ [$t(403) = 2.86, p = .00$], indicated greatly different degrees of experience between Darwin and Beppu. Interestingly, only the ‘nature of work’ of the migrant workers in Beppu perceived a stronger level of experience than the workers in Darwin. On the other hand, ‘work attachment’ and ‘interactions with home nationals’ showed higher levels of experience among migrant workers in Darwin than workers in Beppu. As a result, *hypothesis 8b* is only partially supported by the outcomes.

Summary of Study Enquiry Focus 2

Overall, the *Study Enquiry Focus 2: if employment experience could predict the workers' cross-cultural adjustment, and, would the association be similar in the Darwin and Beppu's contexts?* was successfully answered by using a multiple linear analysis and T-test. As the study results indicated, the associations³ between employment experience in the hospitality industry and cross-cultural adjustment appeared to be dissimilar between workers in Darwin and Beppu (see Figure 6.2). According to the employment experience factor differences between the two groups, only 'nature of work', 'work attachment', and 'interactions with home nationals' showed significant differences. The workers in Beppu had lower mean scores in every factor except 'nature of work' than the workers in Darwin. Also, the association between employment experience and CCA of migrant workers in Beppu was weak. Interestingly, the association between employment experience and CCA of migrant workers in Darwin remained similar to the original model (*Study Enquiry Focus 1*). This finding can be explained using various influential factors. One factor could be an individual workers' different visa categories which varies their exposure to opportunities in a foreign country. In fact, the majority of research participants in Beppu held international student visas, while participants in Darwin were well mixed with various visa categories. Therefore, *Study Enquiry Focus 3* was examined to uncover any possible influences from the different visa categories being held by migrant workers.

³ * or ** indicates significant association at Figure 6.2

Figure 6.2 Summary of *Study Enquiry Focus 2*

Study Enquiry Focus 3

A total of six hypotheses were formed to explore Study Enquiry Focus 3: Would the type of visas influence employment experience as well as cross-cultural adjustment? If so, which type of visa migrants would have the lowest cross-cultural adjustment and negative experience among hospitality employees? And how does the outcome like in Darwin and Beppu?

A one-way ANOVA between groups was conducted to explore the effects of visa category on cross-cultural adjustment factors (non-work adjustment, work-adjustment) and employment experience factors (nature of work, work attachment, work benefit, workplace socialisation, and interactions with home nationals). This study discovered that there are significant effects from visa category on both the cross-cultural adjustment and employment experience of migrant workers. Each hypothesis is explained in detail with associated findings below.

Overall CCA and employment experience by visa category

Hypothesis 9a: Migrant workers with temporary visas (international student, working and holiday maker) experience lower cross-cultural adjustment than workers with long-term or professional visas (expatriate, skilled immigrant, PR immigrant)

For *hypothesis 9a*, the data revealed that the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers had significant distinctions depending on the workers' visa category. Firstly, a level of non-work adjustment of CCA can be explained by different visa categories [$F(4, 200) = 7.76, p = .00$]. Specifically, workers with skilled migrant and permanent migrant visas had a greater level of 'non-work adjustment' in a foreign nation than workers with 'international student', and 'working and holidaymaker' visas. Also, the work adjustment of CCA was significantly

different by visa category [$F(4, 200) = 15.97, p = .00$]. Similarly, the group of workers with long-term visas experienced better work adjustment patterns than workers with temporary visas. Moreover, the level of ‘work adjustment’ was more variable depending on visa category in comparison with ‘non-work adjustment’.

It is evident that workers with temporary visa such as ‘international students’, ‘working and holiday-makers’ tend to experience less cross-cultural adjustment in a foreign culture than other groups of migrant workers. Specifically, a Post-hoc tests further revealed that permanent migrant visa holders and international student visa holders showed the biggest gaps in non-work adjustment and work adjustment. Therefore, in accordance with the findings, *hypothesis 9a* is strongly supported: International students have lower cross-cultural adjustment than other visa categories.

Overall, it is confirmed that migrant workers with a visa which has less restrictions and longer duration of stay in a foreign country has a greater level of cross-cultural adjustment than workers with a visa category with more restrictions and shorter duration of stay.

Hypothesis 9b: Migrant workers with temporary visas (international student, working and holiday maker) have more negative employment experiences in the hospitality industry than workers with long-term or professional visas (expatriate, skilled immigrant, PR immigrant)

Regarding ‘employment experience’ in the hospitality industry, the results indicated that only two out of five factors were statistically significant in terms of by visa category: ‘Work attachment’ and ‘nature of work’. In fact, greater variance showed up on ‘work attachment’ than ‘nature of work’. On the other hand, the three factors of ‘work benefit’, ‘workplace

socialisation', and 'interactions with home nationals' did not show great differences between visa categories.

Firstly, the 'nature of work' factor had noticeable variances between the visa category [$F(4, 200) = 8.67, p = .00$]. For instance, workers with temporary visas had a greater mean score among all visa categories in respect of the 'nature of work' factor, indicating that temporary visa holders tend to have a better perception of the 'nature of hospitality work' than long-term visa holders. In contrast, although work attachment also indicated a significant level of variance by visa category [$F(4, 200) = 13.79, p = .00$], the outcome was quite opposite to the 'nature of work' factor. The group of long-term visa holders had a better level of work attachment than temporary visa holders. Therefore, *Hypothesis 9b* is partially supported.

By Visa Category – Darwin

CCA and employment experience by different visa category in Darwin

Hypothesis 9c-1: 'Cross-cultural adjustment' of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday-maker) is significantly different than long-term visa holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Darwin

According to the results, 'cross-cultural adjustment' was significantly different between the five visa categories in Darwin. Especially, temporary visa holders had less CCA than long-term visa holders. Therefore, *Hypothesis 9c-1* is successfully supported.

Specifically, the gap between ‘international student’ and ‘permanent migrant’ was noticeable. Therefore, depending on visa category, cross-cultural adjustment can vary. Particularly, new migrants such as international students tend to have the lowest level of CCA.

Hypothesis 9c-2: ‘Employment experience’ in the hospitality industry of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly different than long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Darwin

Among the five factors of ‘employment experience’ in the hospitality industry, only the ‘nature of work’ factor indicated significant gaps between the visa categories. The results show that ‘international student’ visa holders have more positive opinions on the ‘nature of work’ in the sector than ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders. Thus, the hypothesis is partially supported.

To summarise, the findings of CCA and employment experience by visa category among migrant workers in Darwin overlap in the total outcome: Temporary migrant visa holders have less CCA but better ‘nature of work’ experiences.

By Visa Category – Beppu

CCA and employment experience by different visa category in Beppu

Hypothesis 9d-1: ‘Cross-cultural adjustment’ of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday-maker) is significantly different than long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Beppu

In Beppu, statistical significance in CCA between visa categories did not appear despite the gaps existing between the groups. Therefore, *Hypothesis 9d-1* is not supported. However, although it did not show statistical significance, the trend was very similar to the outcome from Darwin: temporary migrants had lower CCA level than long-term migrants.

Hypothesis 9d-2: ‘Employment experience’ in the hospitality industry of temporary visa holders (international student, working and holiday maker) is significantly lower than long-term visas holders (skilled immigrant, PR immigrant) in Beppu.

Only the ‘interactions with home nationals’ had significant gaps between the different visa categories, especially contributing to the gaps between ‘international student’, ‘expatriate’, and ‘permanent migrant’ visa holders. In fact, ‘international student’ had the most positive experience among the groups. This hypothesis is therefore partially supported.

Summary of Study Enquiry Focus 3

This part of the Study Enquiry Focus was built to discover whether migrant workers’ ‘cross-cultural adjustment’ and ‘employment experience’ may emerge differently between different visa category holders. Firstly, the study analysed CCA and employment experience by visa category. Later, the study finding was further analysed by research destination. Among the proposed six research hypotheses, three hypotheses were strongly supported, while the other three hypotheses were partially supported.

According to the findings on CCA and employment experience by visa category, temporary visa holders had significantly lower levels of ‘work adjustment’ and ‘non-work adjustment’

than long-term visa holders. Regarding employment experience, the gaps between visa categories were significant in the ‘nature of work’ and ‘work attachment’ factors. Temporary visa holders tend to have less ‘work attachment’ and positive opinions regarding ‘nature of work’ in the hospitality industry. On the other hand, long-term visa holders have stronger ‘work attachment’ but their perceived ‘nature of work’ is negative. Also, since the immigration policy is quite different between each research destination (Darwin, Beppu), further analysis on each destination by visa category was conducted.

According to the findings, the analysis by visa category in Darwin had similar results to the overall analysis, but the analysis within participants in Japan had slightly different outcomes. Temporary migrant workers in both Darwin and Beppu had significantly lower CCA than long-term migrant workers. In terms of employment experience, temporary visa holders’ perceived ‘nature of work’ in the hospitality industry was the most encouraging, showing statistically significant differences between the visa categories. On the other hand, among the migrant workers in Beppu, only the ‘interactions with home national’ factor showed statistically significant differences between the visa groups. Temporary visa holders in Beppu had a higher level of ‘interactions with home nationals’ than long-term visa holders. In general, it seems that temporary migrants tend to have less CCA regardless of participants’ location, but individual’s employment experiences differs by location.

Overall, the findings on *Study Enquiry Focus 3* can be interpreted as temporary visa holders tending to have less cross-cultural adjustment than long-term visa holders. This was true of both Darwin and Beppu. However, in terms of employment experience, temporary migrants appeared rather different depending on the participant’s location. Temporary visa holders had a better level at the ‘nature of work’ in the hospitality sector as well as ‘workplace interactions’

compared to long-term visa holders. In contrast, long-term visa holders had the highest level of ‘work attachment’ while temporary visa holders had the least. This shows that temporary visa holders are less attached to their current job, but they tend to be satisfied with making contact with people in the workplace. In contrast, long-term visa holders showed a significant level of ‘job attachment’. Besides, job characteristics can influence individual migrant workers’ perceived employment experience. Since the job characteristics of the hospitality industry offer a great level of workplace interaction opportunities compared to other sectors, newly entered migrants tend to receive benefits through their employment experience in this industry.

Chapter Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the current study. It was able to highlight the fact that, in accordance with the current study goals, migrant workers’ employment experiences can predict their cross-cultural adjustment. The work attachment of migrant workers indicated greater and positive associations with overall CCA. Also, workplace socialisation and interactions with home nationals had positive impacts on non-work adjustment. In contrast, the nature of work in the hospitality industry negatively influenced the work adjustment of migrant workers. This outcome is similarly reflected among migrant workers in Darwin, but the outcome with migrants in Beppu was somewhat different. This variance between Darwin and Beppu could be explained by understanding the workers’ various visa categories. In general, temporary visa holders had a lower level of CCA and work attachment than long-term visa holders. On the other hand, temporary visa holders tended to have more positive experience with on job characteristics than long-term visa holders. Between the visa categories as analysed by research destination, the results appeared somewhat different only with perceived employment experience; not with CCA. Temporary migrant visa holders such as ‘international

student' and 'working holiday-maker' visa holders had significantly lower levels of CCA. In Darwin, temporary and long-term visa holders had significant gaps only in the 'nature of work' factor: Temporary visa holders had more positive opinions of their employment experience. Meanwhile, in Beppu, only temporary visa holders' experience of 'interactions with home nationals' was significantly higher than for long-term visa holders. More information in relation to the implications of these findings for future research and practice will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 7. CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The goal of this study was to predict the cross-cultural adjustment of migrant workers via various employment experiences in the hospitality industry. According to the results of linear multiple regression, T-test and ANOVA analyses, this study answered the three research enquiry areas through 19 hypotheses. A total of 11 hypotheses were successfully supported, four hypotheses were deemed to be rejected, and four hypotheses were untested due to low statistical significance. However, it is certain that the main idea for this research proved to be a potential research area. This research uncovered a possible association between perceived employment experience and the cross-cultural adjustments of migrant workers. Thus, it is believed that research on temporary migrant workers and their cultural adjustment in a foreign nation should receive more attention than previously. Consequently, this chapter recaps upon the position of the current study as well as its highlights. Furthermore, its implications in the area where it would make a real difference will be presented. Finally, study limitations and future research directions will also be suggested.

Why This Study Matters

The current study attempted to discover an association between individual foreign workers' perceived employment experiences and their cross-cultural adjustment. It is certain that cultural knowledge greatly matters when developing cross-cultural adjustment in a new cultural environment. However, in many cases, people tend to explore and assimilate to a new culture via direct experience, without acquiring the background cultural knowledge. Especially, low-

skilled migrant workers tend to be exposed to a new working environment even before adapting to the host culture. In this case, the nature of the working environment and interacting with people on a daily basis could be influential factors when adjusting to a new culture. In this perspective, this study discovered a strong ability to foresee migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment through on-the-job experience. Therefore, this study claims that understanding perceived employment experience is also a critical aspect when considering foreign workers' cross-cultural adjustment. Moreover, the distinction was evident especially with temporary migrant workers but not with long-term migrants. This explains the fact that lower-skilled workers with temporary visas tend to be less adjusted to a new culture than skilled workers with a permanent visa. However, a considerable amount of research on CCA has focused only on organisational expatriates who are often provided with a certain level of cross-cultural training and job support during overseas assignments. Therefore, this study attempted to uncover a future possible research area: Low-skilled migrant workers' perceived employment experience and their CCA. Furthermore, this study also made a comparison between two research destinations, Darwin (Australia) and Beppu (Japan). Since Australia is known as a traditional immigration destination and Japan as a late comer immigration destination, making a comparison study between these two nations was desirable. The main motivation for selecting Darwin and Beppu for the current study destinations was its comparable characteristics. Those major similarities are including located in regional area, have similar population sizes, promote tourism as part of their economic strategy, much in need of new labour migrants. Although these two destinations have similar purpose for inviting migrant workers, the implications of their immigration policies appear to be quite different. Therefore, this cross-national comparison study may assist us to understand how, when provided with cross-cultural adjustment opportunities to migrant workers, state immigration policies would influence the

creation of a positive perceived employment experience. This information will be valuable especially for enhancing future migration policies and practices.

What are the problems for Migrant Workers in the Hospitality Industry?

Although there are growing numbers of foreign workers in the hospitality industry, the majority tend to migrate with limited cross-cultural knowledge, and have no support in settling in a new environment. Thus, this type of worker is often exposed to the gruelling demands from the industry while, at the same time, must adapt to a new culture. The hospitality industry is one of the major labour-intensive sectors which requires cheap foreign workers. Hence, the offered easy entry to the sector becomes an opportunity for low-skilled migrants to take part in the new society. But, despite the growing number of foreign workers in the industry, it ignores the new phase of landscape change. Therefore, more attention should be paid to foreign workers' assimilation to a new culture as well as to a new work environment.

Past research had highlighted that the better the foreign workers adapt to work adjustment regarding cross-cultural adjustment, the more satisfied they are with their job (Aryee & Stone, 1996). However, according to this study's findings, the nature of work in the hospitality industry has a negative impact on migrant workers' work adjustment. This offers the insight that, depending on job characteristics, foreign workers struggle to adapt to a new culture. The findings also indicated that temporary migrant workers in the hospitality industry are more exposed to this problem in comparison to long-term migrant workers. Previous research done by Dustmann (1997) highlights that migrants' labour market behaviour in a host country is also determined by their return plans: Temporary versus permanent migration.

Major Findings

This study has concentrated on three *study enquires areas*. First of all, it discovered that perceived employment experience can anticipate migrant workers' cross-cultural adjustment. Unlike previous research findings on cross-cultural adjustment, this study added the possibility that certain work-related factors can also be associated with 'non-work adjustment', factors which are especially related to workplace socialisation with host and home nationals and workers' job attachment. Since this research put its focus on migrant workers in the hospitality sector, the research outcome should bear a close relationship with this type of migrant workers. In the research conducted by Black (1988), the model was applied to organizational expatriates, thus work-related employment experience factors have strong relationships with 'work adjustment' of CCA.

Among the migrant workers in Darwin, workplace socialisation factors had a great positive influence on their 'non-work adjustment', but the 'nature of work' had a significantly negative impact. According to the findings on employment experience by visa category, long-term visa holders tend to have negative experiences from the job characteristics of the hospitality sector. Therefore, it can be assumed that long-term visa holder's employment experience in the sector may impact negatively on their general living adjustment in the host country. On the other hand, among the migrant workers in Beppu, only the 'work attachment' factor was associated with migrant workers, 'work adjustment' and 'non-work adjustment'. Both relationships indicated positive associations. The association between 'work attachment' and 'non-work adjustment' was not anticipated among the study hypotheses. However, it is an important finding in understanding the workers in Beppu.

In previous research, low-skilled category migrants such as international students and trainees in Japan tend to have host country living experiences that is highly impacted by their part-time job experience (Liu-Farrer, 2011). This suggests that perceived employment experience for workers in Beppu seem to be more important influence for overall cross-cultural adjustment than migrant workers in Darwin. In addition, temporary visa holders (international students) in Beppu had positive levels of ‘interactions with home nationals’ at the workplace. This could be their motivation to join the hospitality industry apart from gaining economic benefits.

When analysing CCA by visa category, long-term migrant workers tend to have stronger CCA than temporary migrant workers regardless of workers’ destinations. This finding supports the idea that immigration status can be one of the factors that influence migrants’ settlement outcomes (Cobb-Clark & Khoo, 2006). In contrast, an individuals’ perceived employment experience by visa category did not follow such a trend. Migrant workers in Darwin and Beppu showed rather distinctive outcomes for their employment experiences in the hospitality sector. In Darwin, the gap between temporary visa holders and long-term visa holders was the greatest in terms of the ‘nature of work’ only. Whereas, in Beppu, the ‘interactions with home nationals’ factor showed the biggest gap between groups. These gaps between temporary visa and long-term visa groups in Darwin and Beppu showed slightly different outcomes.

Contributions to Existing Theory

The cross-cultural adjustment model by Black (1988) was adopted in this study. The CCA with its antecedents within the hospitality industry has been explored for the first time in this study. In agreement with the study findings, it can be highlighted that individual foreign workers’ CCA can be predicted from various aspects, not only via individuals’ cultural knowledge

before arrival, but also via experience in a foreign nation (Armstrong & Li, 2017). Perceived job characteristics towards CCA are examined for the first time in this study. The current study findings added value to the original model's perceived job characteristics at the level of developing a means of prediction for CCA. Therefore, the CCA model can be utilised accurately for understanding foreign workers' intentions of travel, their visa category, and their choice of industry.

This study has highlighted that social interactions at a workplace have significantly associated with the 'non-work adjustment' of foreign workers. Although previous research has emphasised that work-related factors would only be associated with 'work adjustment', workplace socialisation with home and host nationals can influence more than work-related cross-cultural adjustment. In addition, the CCA model outcome can be expected to be different, depending on participants' occupations. Depending on job characteristics, an individual's CCA can be slightly different. Finally, the three facets of CCA model were not fully explained in this study context, but two facets (work and non-work adjustment) appear. Thus, the Black's (1988) CCA model could be slightly modified depending on the research context, which should be explored more in future studies.

Implications to Academia

A significant amount of research has focused on the successful cultural adjustment of foreign workers based on their cultural knowledge and/or personality traits (Galiguuri, 2000; Ryder et al., 2000; Johnson et al., 2003; Huang & Lawler, 2005; Peltokorpi & Froese, 2012). On the other hand, Black (1988) laid his research focus on the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates and their experiences during international assignments, which was assumed to be a key factor

in successful completion. Since globalisation has lowered borders between nations, job opportunities have become available to low-skilled as well as professional workers. This study showed that soon the populations of low-skilled migrant workers will exceed professional migrant workers in host nations. However, a great portion of academic research on foreign workers and their cultural adaptation has focused on organisational expatriates. Understanding is needed on how low-skilled and temporary migrants might foster job equality between migrants and host nationals, their implied cultural adaptations, and their quality of life.

The findings from this study have raised the possibility of considering the job characteristics and perceived work experience as an impact factor for foreign workers' overall cultural adaptation apart from attained cultural knowledge. Therefore, the present study's outcomes can add value to studies concerning temporary migrants regarding perceived employment experience and their development of cultural assimilation in a host nation. This will, in turn, benefit host nations by plugging the void in the labour markets with an engaged workforce who would contribute for the benefit of the host nation's economy, societal enhancement, political stability and cultural harmony.

Implications to Practice

The implications to the present study's findings can be translated into macro-government, meso-organisation, and micro-individual levels. Firstly, the study's findings can be implicit for immigration policy-making resources, especially for temporary migrant workers and their limited capability in opportunities due to visa category. Also, the findings can be utilised for job design, especially for migrant workers, to escalate those workers' experience that would positively influence work outcomes. For instance, the findings indicate that migrant workers

tend to assimilate better to a new host culture when they have more interactions with new people and a strong work attachment, but not so much with work benefits. Consequently, employers with migrant employees would consider creating a workplace with more interactions and encouragement. Moreover, at an individual level, an improved workplace experience for migrant workers would also provide a real chance to assimilate with host societies that may result in improving the quality of life, for both migrants and hosts, while living in a foreign environment.

Limitation and Future Research Directions

Although this study completed cross-national research between Darwin in Australia and Beppu in Japan, the differences in national cultures between the two destinations were not considered. However, according to research by Hofstede and Hofstede (2001), national understanding of differences when studying cross-cultural studies has been a critical aspect of such interactions. Also, since this study was an exploratory study searching a possible association between perceived employment experience and cultural adjustment, multiple levels of theory explanation were not applied. However, this research has confirmed that foreign workers' perceived employment experience could explain their level of cultural adaptation in a foreign nation. Therefore, future researchers are recommended to consider applying a complex theory-based analysis such as experience and culture learning theory by also adding knowledge of national culture differences as a variable.

Finally, the sample collection in Japan was not distributed well. The majority of samples were collected among international students. Although the author tried to have access to various types of migrant workers than international students, there was a very limited number of long-

term migrant workers in the hotels in Beppu. Therefore, future research is recommended to examine various types of migrant workers to have more accurate research outcomes.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I – Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University guideline of ethical conduct in research involving human subjects

Researcher:

In Young (Kate) Yoo is conducting this research as part of her Doctoral research at Ritsumeikan Asia Pacific University in Japan under the research supervisor, Prof. A. Mani.

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What is the purpose of this research?

Title: *Labouring to learn: Employment Experience and Cross-cultural Adjustment of Migrant Workers*

This research aims to discover migrants' cultural adjustment, behaviour and their relationship with perceived employment experience and individual differences in new cultural environments. The research findings will help to understand why some migrant workers adjust better than others depending on factors influenced by employment experience. Furthermore, the results will be compared between migrants in Australia and Japan in order to discover possible cultural impacts when adjusting to a new culture.

What is involved if you agree to participate in the research?

- Your participation is VOLUNTARY, and participating in this research implies your consent.
- If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to answer questions about your experience and behaviours such as “working in hotels” and “socialising with colleagues”. The survey will take no more than 15 minutes for you to complete.
- During the survey, you are free to withdraw at any point before the survey has been completed.
- You must be an international student or working holiday-maker or migrant who is not currently living in your home country, and who is currently working in the hospitality industry.
- If you are below 18 years of age, you cannot participate in this survey.

Privacy and Confidentiality

- I cannot personally identify you or match your survey responses with a name or address. This survey is completely anonymous, and you are not asked to put your name anywhere on the survey.

What happens to the information that you provide?

- I will keep your completed survey for at least five years after publication of my results.
- The information you provide may be submitted for publication in a scientific journal or presented at scientific conferences.

We sincerely appreciate your consideration on participation in this research.

In Young (Kate) Yoo and Prof. A. Mani

APPENDIX II – Questionnaire English (Darwin Version)

< 'Work Motivation' WM_DW_2016 >

Please CIRCLE only ONE answer. If you choose 'Other', describe in below space.

1. What was your primary motivation to work in the hotel industry?

- ☐ For Career
 ☐ For Financial reason
 ☐ For Experience (culture/ language)
 ☐ For Visa requirements
 ☐ Other ()

2. Which department are you currently working in?

- ☐ Front Office
 ☐ Food & Beverage
 ☐ Conference & Events
 ☐ House Keeping
 ☐ Kitchen
 ☐ Other ()

3. What is your position in the hotel?

- ☐ Team Member
 ☐ Team Leader
 ☐ Supervisor
 ☐ Assistant or Duty Manager
 ☐ Manager
 ☐ Other ()

4. What is your employment type?

- ☐ Full-time
 ☐ Part-time
 ☐ Casual
 ☐ Internship

5. How long have you been working in the hotel industry?

- ☐ Less than 1 year
 ☐ 1 ~2 years
 ☐ 2 ~ 3 years
 ☐ 3 ~ 4 years
 ☐ More than 4 years

6. How many different nationality employees work in your department at work?

- ☐ 1 ~ 2 different nationalities
 ☐ 3 ~ 4 different nationalities
 ☐ 5 ~ 6 different nationalities
 ☐ 7 and Above different nationalities

< 'Social Contact Behaviour' SCB_DW_2016 >

Please indicate how often do you perform the following behaviours at your current workplace in Darwin. And fill in ONE CIRCLE on each question. (1 = never; 7 = daily or almost daily).

NO.	Questions	Never	2 or 3 times a year	Once a month	2 or 3 times a month	Once a week	2 or 3 times a week	Daily or almost daily
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	How often do you speak the host language (English) at work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	How often do you speak your own language at work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	How often do you interact with Australian customers at work?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	How often do you socialize with colleagues who are Australians (born in Australia)?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	How often do you socialize with colleagues who are foreign to you but not born in Australia?	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	How often do you socialize with colleagues from your own country? (If you don't have co-nationality colleagues, please choose NEVER.)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

< 'Cultural Adjustment' CA_DW_2016 >

Please indicate how UNADJUSTED or ADJUSTED you are to the following items in Darwin, Australia. And fill in ONE CIRCLE on each item. (1 = not adjusted at all; 7 = completely adjusted).

NO.	Items	Not adjusted at all	Not very adjusted	Slightly not adjusted	Neutral	Slightly adjusted	Very adjusted	Completely adjusted
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The below items are to measure your General Living Adjustment in Darwin, Australia.								
1	Living conditions in general	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Housing conditions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Food	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Shopping	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Cost of living	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Health care facilities	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Socializing (hanging out) with Australians (*Australians = people who were born in Australia)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The below items are to measure your Interaction Adjustment with Australians in Darwin, Australia.								
9	Interacting with Australians on a day-to-day basis (work + outside)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Interacting with Australians outside of work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Speaking (talking) with Australians	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The below items are to measure your Work Adjustment in Darwin, Australia.								
12	Specific job responsibilities at work place	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Performance standards and expectations at work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Supervisory responsibilities at work *Supervisory responsibilities = team leader, supervisor or manager	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

< 'Working in the hospitality industry' WHI_DW_2016 >

Please indicate how much do you DISAGREE or AGREE based on your working experience in hotels in general. And fill in ONE CIRCLE on each statement. (1 = strongly disagree; 7 = strongly agree).

NO.	Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat disagree	Neither agree nore disagree	Agree somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I find jobs in the hotel industry interesting	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Most jobs in the hotel industry are low skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Jobs in hotels are stressful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Working hours are too long in the hotel industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Family (personal) life is negatively affected due to the nature of the work	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	There is always something new to learn each day in hotel jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Working hours are not suitable for a regular life in the hotel industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	It is very difficult to find a stable job in hotels due to seasonality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Working in a hotel is a respected occupation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I talk to my relatives and friends with pride about my job in the hotel industry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I think that those working in the hotel industry are not valued in society	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I think the pay is low for most hotels jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Considering the long hours worked pay should be higher	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The level of fringe benefits (employee benefits) is low	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Working conditions are generally good	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The working environment is not very clean	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Managers (supervisors) do not reward employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Managers (supervisors) behave respectfully towards employees	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Managers (supervisors) allow staff to make decisions	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I see my career in the hotel industry (permanent job)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

< 'Demographic Information' DI_DW_2016>

Finally, we would like to ask you some questions about yourself. You will never be personally identified in this research project or in any presentation or publication. Please CIRCLE only ONE answer on each question. If you choose 'Other', please describe.

1. Which of the following best describes your current situation?

- ☐ **International Student**
☐ **Working and Holiday Maker** (currently holding 'working & holiday visa')
☐ **Expatriate** - I live in Australia only for a job but will RETURN to my country sometime later.
☐ **Immigrant** - I live in Australia, and may stay for more than two years or will apply for permanent residence.
☐ **PR Immigrant** - I live in Australia as a permanent resident or Australian citizen.

2. In which country were you born (country of origin)? _____

3. What is your age?

- ☐ 18 ~ 25 ☐ 26 ~ 30 ☐ 31 ~ 35 ☐ 36 ~ 40 ☐ 41 and Above 4.

Gender

- ☐ Female ☐ Male

5. What is your nationality? _____

6. Have you ever been to other foreign countries before Australia?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

7. How long have you been in Australia?

_____ Years and _____ months

8. What is your first (own) language? _____

9. If you speak English, how would you describe your overall English proficiency level?

- ☐ Poor ☐ Below Average ☐ Average ☐ Above Average ☐ Excellent ☐ Native Speaker

10. What other foreign languages do you speak? _____

11. Do you have **hotel/ tourism/ conference & events/ cookery** related study background?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

12. What is your highest completed qualification?

- ☐ Secondary/
High school ☐ Diploma/
College ☐ Bachelor's
degree ☐ Masters'/ or
PhD ☐ Other
()

13. Are you planning to live in Australia permanently?

- ☐ Yes ☐ No

APPENDIX III – Questionnaire English and Japanese (Beppu Version)

Please CIRCLE only ONE answer. If you choose 'Other', please describe.

答えは一つだけ選択してください。もし「その他」を選択する時は記入してください。

1. What was your primary motivation to work in the hotel industry?

ホテル業界で働くようになった動機は何ですか。

- | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A For Career
(キャリア) | <input type="radio"/> B For Financial
reason
金銭的理由 | <input type="radio"/> C For Experience
(culture/ language)
経験 - 文化、言語 | <input type="radio"/> D For Visa
requirements
ビザのため | <input type="radio"/> E Other
- その他
() |
|--|--|---|---|---|

2. Which department are you currently working in? どんな部署で勤務していますか。

- | | | | | | |
|--|--|---|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A Front Office
フロントオフィス | <input type="radio"/> B Food & Beverage
フード&ビバレッジ | <input type="radio"/> C Conference
& Events
宴会部 | <input type="radio"/> D House Keeping
ハウスキーピング | <input type="radio"/> E Kitchen
調理 | <input type="radio"/> F Other
- その他
() |
|--|--|---|---|---------------------------------------|---|

*Front Office: working as a receptionist or a concierge who provide hotel information and rooms to hotel guests

*Food & Beverage: working as a waiter or bartender at a restaurant or a café

*Conference & Events: working as a waiter or a waitress who prepares functions and serves guests during the functions

*House Keeping: working as a housekeeper who cleans bed rooms and public areas

*Kitchen: working as a chef or a kitchen helper

3. What is your position in the hotel? 職位は何ですか。

- | | | | | | |
|--|--|--|---|---------------------------------------|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A Team
Member
社員 | <input type="radio"/> B Team
Leader
主任 | <input type="radio"/> C Supervisor
係長 | <input type="radio"/> D Assistant or Duty
Manager
アシスタントマネジャー | <input type="radio"/> E Manager
課長 | <input type="radio"/> F Other
- その他
() |
|--|--|--|---|---------------------------------------|---|

*Team Member: entry level at a department (receptionist, waiter, waitress, bartender or housekeeper)

*Team Leader: a position which has responsibility to train new staffs

*Supervisor: a position which has a responsibility of leading a group of staffs and team leaders

*Assistant or Duty Manager: above Supervisor position and mid-management level

*Manager: working as a department head

4. What type of employee are you? 職業のタイプを教えてください。

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A Full-time Worker 正社員 | <input type="radio"/> B Part-time Worker 契約社員 |
|--|---|

5. How long have you been working in the hotel industry?

ホテル業界でどのくらい働いていますか。

- | | | | | |
|--|---|---|---|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A Less than 1 year
1年以下 | <input type="radio"/> B 1 ~ 2 years
1 ~ 2年 | <input type="radio"/> C 2 ~ 3 years
2 ~ 3年 | <input type="radio"/> D 3 ~ 4 years
3 ~ 4年 | <input type="radio"/> E More than 4 years
4年以上 |
|--|---|---|---|---|

6. How many different nationality employees work in your department at work?

現在、一緒に働いてる職員の文化 (背景) の多様性に関して教えてください。

- | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A 1 ~ 2
different nationalities
1 ~ 2 カ国の職員 | <input type="radio"/> B 3 ~ 4
different nationalities
3 ~ 4 カ国の職員 | <input type="radio"/> C 5 ~ 6
different nationalities
5 ~ 6 カ国の職員 | <input type="radio"/> D 7 and Above different
nationalities
7 カ国以上の職員 |
|---|---|---|---|

Please indicate how often do you perform the following behaviours at your current workplace in Beppu. And fill in ONE CIRCLE on each question. (1 = never; 7 = daily or almost daily).

以下の状況をどのぐらい経験しているか教えてください。（ 1 = 全く経験なし ; 7 = 毎日経験する ）

NO.	Questions (質問)	Never ぜんぜん	2 or 3 times a year 年に 2 ~ 3 回	Once a month 月に 1 回	2 or 3 times a month 月に 2 ~ 3 回	Once a week 週に 1 回	2 or 3 times a week 週に 2 ~ 3 回	Daily or almost daily 毎日
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	How often do you speak Japanese at your work place? 現在、働いてるホテルでどのぐらい日本語でコミュニケーションしていますか。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	How often do you speak own language at your work place? 現在、働いてるホテルでどのぐらい母国語でコミュニケーションしていますか。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	How often do you socialize with work friends who are Japanese? 現在、働いてるホテルの現地の日本人とどのぐらいプライベートタイムを過ごしていますか。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	How often do you socialize with work friends who are foreigner to you but not Japanese? 現在、働いてるホテルの外国人とどのぐらいプライベートタイムを過ごしていますか。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	How often do you socialize with work friends from your own country? 現在、働いてるとホテルで自分と同じ国の人とどのぐらいプライベートタイムを過ごしていますか。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Please indicate how UNADJUSTED or ADJUSTED you are to the following items in Beppu, Japan. And fill in ONE CIRCLE on each items. (1 = not adjusted at all ; 7 = completely adjusted)

現在、居住している所で以下の環境にどのくらい適応しているか教えてください

(1 = ぜんぜん適応してない; 7 = 完璧に適応している)

NO.	Questions (質問)	Not adjusted at all ぜんぜん適応して ない	Not very adjusted あまり適応して ない	Slightly not adjusted ちょっと適応して ない	Neutral 普通	Slightly adjusted ちょっと適応して いる	Very adjusted とても適応して いる	Completely adjusted 完璧に適応して いる
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	Living conditions in general (全体的に住む環境)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Housing conditions (居住環境)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Food (食べ物)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Shopping (ショッピング)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Cost of living (生活費用)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	Entertainment/ recreation facilities and opportunities (エンターテインメント施設の利用機会)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Health care facilities (健康管理施設の利用機会)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	Socializing with people who are Japanese (日本人の仲間と付き合うこと)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Interacting with Japanese friends on a day-to-day basis (日常生活で日本人の友人との交流)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	Interacting with Japanese friends outside of work (職場以外の日本人の友人との交流)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	Speaking with Japanese friends (日本人の友人とのコミュニケーション)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	Specific job responsibilities (会社での特定な責任感)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Performance standards and expectations (会社での職務履行に関する基準と期待感)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	Supervisory responsibilities (会社でのリーダーとしての責任感)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

How much do you agree or disagree with each statement? (1 = Strongly Disagree ; 7 = Strongly Agree) (どのくらい同意するか教えてください) (1 = 強く同意しない ; 7 = 強く同意する)

NO.	Statements (文章)	Strongly Disagree 強く同意しない	Disagree 同意しない	Somewhat disagree やや同意しない	Neither agree nor disagree 中立	Agree somewhat やや同意する	Agree 同意する	Strongly Agree 強く同意する
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1	I find jobs in the hotel industry interesting (ホテル業界で働くことは面白いことである。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	Most jobs in the hotel industry are low skilled (ホテルのほとんどは低い能力と技術を要求する。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3	Jobs in hotels are stressful in general (ホテルの仕事は精神的なストレスを与える。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4	Working hours are too long in the hotel industry (ホテルの仕事は勤務時間が長すぎる。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5	Family (personal) life is negatively affected due to the nature of the work (仕事の特徴としてホテルの仕事は私の家族の生活に悪い影響を与える。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6	There is always something new to learn each day in hotel jobs (仕事の特徴としてホテルの仕事は私の家族の生活に悪い影響を与える。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7	Working hours are not suitable for a regular life in the hotel industry (ホテルで働く時間は日常生活を保つことには適切ではない。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8	It is very difficult to find a stable job in hotels due to seasonality (ホテル営業は季節性があるため、ホテル業界は安定的な仕事を探すことが難しいことである。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9	Working in a hotel is a respected occupation (ホテルで働くのは尊敬される職業である)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10	I talk to my relatives and friends with pride about my job in the hotel industry ホテル業界で働くことは親戚や友達に自慢しながら話せる仕事だ。	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11	I think that those working in the hotel industry are not valued in society (ホテル業界で働いている人々は社会で認められないと思う。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12	I think the pay is low for most hotel jobs (ホテル業界の賃金は比較的に低いことである。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13	Considering the long hours worked pay should be higher (働く時間を考え、賃金が高くなるべきだと思う。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14	The level of fringe benefits (employee benefits) is low (ホテルは職員に対する福利個性が悪い。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15	Working conditions are generally good (ホテルは職員に対する福利個性が悪い。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16	The working environment is not very clean (働くところの環境がきれいではない。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17	Managers (supervisors) do not reward employees (上司は部下の成果を無視する。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18	Managers (supervisors) behave respectfully towards employees (上司は部下を尊敬する。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19	Managers (supervisors) allow staff to make decisions (上司は部下に決定権を与える。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20	I see my career in the hotel industry (permanent job in the future) (ホテルで働くことをキャリアにしたい。)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Finally, we would like to ask you some questions about yourself. You will never be personally identified in this research project or in any presentation or publication.

最後にあなたに関する質問をします。ここで答えた内容は全てリサーチ以外には使用されません。
Please CIRCLE only ONE answer on each question. If you choose 'Other', please describe.

1. Which of the following best describes your current situation? 以下の答えにあなたの状況に一番近いものを選んでください。

A International Student 留学生

B Working and Holiday Maker ワーキングホリデー (currently holding 'working & holiday visa')

C Expatriate –海外駐在者

I live in Japan only for a job but will RETURN to my country sometime later.

現在仕事のために日本に住んでいるがいつか自分の国に帰る予定だ。

D Immigrant –移民者

I live in Japan, and may stay for more than two years or will apply for permanent residence.

現在日本に住んでおり、約2年間もっと住む予定だ。または、日本に継続的に住む機会を探すつもりだ。

E PR Immigrant - I live in Japan as a permanent resident or Japanese citizen.

現在日本で永住民または、日本の市民として住んでいる一長期移民者

2. In which country were you born (country of origin)? あなたはどんな国で生まれましたか。

3. What is your age? 年齢はいくつですか。

A 18 ~ 25

B 26 ~ 30

C 31 ~ 35

D 36 ~ 40

E 41 and Above

41 歳以上

4. Gender? 性別は何ですか。

A Female 女性

B Male 男性

5. What is your nationality? 現在あなたの国籍を教えてください。 - 英語で書いてください。

6. Have you ever been to other foreign countries before Japan?

日本に来る前に他の国に行った(旅行を含め)経験がありますか。

A Yes はい

B No いいえ

7. How long have you been in Japan? 日本でどのくらい住んでいますか。

Years 年

months 月

8. What is your first (own) language? あなたの母国語に関して教えてください。英語で書いてください。

9. If you speak Japanese, how would you describe your overall Japanese proficiency level?

もしあなたが英語ができれば、どのぐらいの実力だと思いますか。

- | | | | | | |
|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---|---|--|
| <input type="radio"/> A Poor
悪い | <input type="radio"/> B Below Average
普通よりちょっと悪い | <input type="radio"/> C Average
普通 | <input type="radio"/> D Above Average
普通よりちょっと上手 | <input type="radio"/> E Excellent
上手 | <input type="radio"/> F Native Speaker
完璧 |
|------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|---|---|--|

*Poor: not speaking Japanese at all ~ elementary level

10. What other foreign languages do you speak?

日本語以外に使える言語がありますか。

11. Do you have **hotel/ tourism/ conference & events/ cookery** related study background?

ホテル、観光、国際イベント、調理に関する学歴がありますか。

- ☐ A Yes はい ☐ B No いいえ

12. What is your highest completed qualification? あなたの最終学歴を教えてください。

- | | | | | |
|--|---|--|--|---|
| <input type="radio"/> A Secondary/ High school
高等学校 | <input type="radio"/> B Diploma/ College
専門大学校 | <input type="radio"/> C Bachelor's degree
大学校 | <input type="radio"/> D Masters'/ or Ph.D
マスター、博士 | <input type="radio"/> E Other
() |
|--|---|--|--|---|

13. Are you planning to live in Japan permanently? あなたは日本で継続的に住む予定ですか。

- ☐ A Yes はい ☐ B No いいえ

APPENDIX IV – Respondents’ Country of Origin

Area	Nation	AU	%	JP	%	Total	%
Pacific	Australia						
	NZ	1	0.58			1	0.27
	Fiji			3	1.49	3	0.80
East Asia	Korea	6	3.47	7	3.47	13	3.47
	Japan	3	1.73		0.00	3	0.80
	China	5	2.89	11	5.45	16	4.27
Southeast Asia	Philippines	28	16.18	1	0.50	29	7.73
	Indonesia	6	3.47	38	18.81	44	11.73
	Vietnam		0.00	52	25.74	52	13.87
	Thai		0.00	9	4.46	9	2.40
	Laos		0.00		0.00	0	0.00
	Singapore		0.00	3	1.49	3	0.80
	Cambodia	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Malaysia	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Myanmar		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
South Asia	India	38	21.97	5	2.48	43	11.47
	Sri Lanka	26	15.03	20	9.90	46	12.27
	Nepal		0.00	5	2.48	5	1.33
	Bangladesh	1	0.58	14	6.93	15	4.00
	Pakistan	2	1.16	1	0.50	3	0.80
	Afghanistan	1	0.58	1	0.50	2	0.53
Middle East	Saudi Arabia		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
Central Asia	Uzbekistan		0.00	11	5.45	11	2.93
	Tajikistan		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Slovakian		0.00		0.00	0	0.00
	Mongolia		0.00	2	0.99	2	0.53
	Kazakhstan		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
Africa	Uganda		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Kenyan	2	1.16	1	0.50	3	0.80
	South Africa	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	Zimbabwe	4	2.31		0.00	4	1.07
	Angola	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Malawi	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Uganda	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Liberia	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Mauritius	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Ghana	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
Europe	Italy	8	4.62		0.00	8	2.13
	Spain	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	Hungary		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Germany	6	3.47	1	0.50	7	1.87
	France	7	4.05		0.00	7	1.87
	England	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	Russia	1	0.58	1	0.50	2	0.53
	Austria	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	UK	3	1.73		0.00	3	0.80
	Ireland	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	Slovakia	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Sweden		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Poland		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Finland		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Nigeria		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
America	Canada	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	USA		0.00	4	1.98	4	1.07
	Mexico		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Estonia		0.00	1	0.50	1	0.27
	Brazil	2	1.16		0.00	2	0.53
	Puerto Rico	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
	Columbia	1	0.58		0.00	1	0.27
Total		173	100.00	202	100.00	375	100.00