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CROSS-CULTURAL ADAPTATION
OF CROATIAN EXPATRIATES

This study attempts to distinguish psychological and sociocultural forms of adjustment during the process of cross-cultural transitions. It will show how culture shock is influenced by personality of Croatian expatriates, what the influential factors are and how is going socio- and psychocultural adjustment on the new culture. Results from empirical data indicate that there are clear differences between some of demographic factors and cross-cultural adaptation. Gender shows significant difference in a relation to critical thinking which is a part of psychological adjustment. Education level shows differences among socio-cultural adaptation overall score, behavioral adaptation, openness and critical thinking. Monthly income has an impact on flexibility. Length of stay shows differences in a relation to emotional regulation and critical thinking. On the other hand cognitive adaptation correlates with critical thinking.

Keywords: Cultural adaptation, socio-cultural adaptation, psychological adjustment, Croatian expatriates

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1. Introduction

Business, studying or just sightseeing are some of the reasons why people travel. However, it is certain that they have become much more interested in other countries than before. Some people look forward to the things which they can experience abroad, and others think it is just a part of their job. On the other hand, not so many people know there is a possibility to get exposed to culture shock which can happen to anybody. The shock may even continue as Reverse culture shock after coming back home. The influence is much harder than people think and they sometimes become sick because of it. Most people may feel culture shock in both good ways and bad ways. There are many factors which cause culture shock. Of all of them however, demographic factors and personality could be greatly related to the degree that people feel culture shock. Culture shock is a profoundly personal experience. It does not affect all people in the same way or even the same person in the same way when it reoccurs. Culture shock happens inside each individual who encounters unfamiliar events and unexpected circumstances (Pedersen, 1995). Compared to host national counterparts, expatriate's experience added difficulty in that they must cope with other forms of stress. This difficulty includes culture shock, language difficulties, adjustment to unfamiliar social norms, eating habits, customs and values, differences in education systems, isolation and loneliness, homesickness, and a loss of established social networks (Furnham & Tresize, 1983). On the other hand, willingness to learn about another culture, establishing relationships, opportunities to learn foreign language, and sharing common interests are viewed as stimulators (Heikinheimo & Shute, 1986).

International human resource experts agree it is imperative for multinational companies (MNCs) to attract, select, develop, and retain employees who can live and work effectively outside of their own national borders. These employees, who are sent from a parent company to live and work in another country for a period ranging from two to several years, are colloquially referred to as "expatriates." (Caligiuri, 2000).

Edstrom and Galbraith identify three general company motives for making international transfers. The first is to fill position, which mainly concerns the transfer of technical knowledge to developing countries, where qualified local nationals are not available. The second major motive is management development. The transfer gives the manager international experience and develops him or her for future important tasks in subsidiaries abroad or with the parent company. For the third reason for international transfers, the final goal is not individual development but organisation development, that is transfers are used to change or maintain the structure and decision processes of the organisation. In this case, international transfers are used as a coordination and control strategy. This strategy consists of

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two elements: socialisation of both expatriate and local managers into the corporate culture and the creation of a verbal information network that provides links between subsidiaries and headquarters (Edstrom & Galbraith, 1977).

In the course of the globalization of the economy and the increasing cross-border integration of the worldwide activities of global players, the importance of global assignments has grown tremendously in recent years. During the past decade and a half, so-called expatriates have elicited investigation by scholars in disciplines including economics, economic sociology, organization studies, and strategic management. The context of these investigations has been the changing strategies of multinational enterprises to operate increasingly as transnational firms, with enhanced emphasis on a tripartite orientation toward global integration, national responsiveness and worldwide innovation and learning (Bartlett & Beamish, 2011). Expatriates play an important role in at least two respects in these strategies for transnationalization. On the one hand, expatriates are largely instrumental in implementing global programs, distributing best practices, and aligning the organizational cultures as well as attendant operational functions of the headquarters and subsidiary locations (Black, Gregersen , & Mendenhall, 1992). On the other hand, expatriates function as cross-border ambassadors expected to acquire intensive knowledge facilitating intra-organizational understanding of the cultural diversity within the MNC and the changing business conditions requiring both global awareness and local sensitivity (Berthoin Antal, 2001, p. 62). Thus, expatriates have emerged as 'boundary spanners' (Au & Fukuda, 2002) and 'culture carriers' (Björkman & Lu, 2001) in TNCs.

The Importance of Expatriates in Organizations (Chew, 2004):

- New Markets

Expatriates are responsible for transferring new technologies and penetrating new markets in foreign subsidiaries. Organizations opening a new production facility or branches in a foreign country will send an expatriate to facilitate entry into the new markets. PCNs are commonly sent out to initiate operations in fresh markets in countries with no qualified people to carry out the firm's mandate. These PCNs render their expertise in the vital global market within the new markets. Mostly, a firm will send a team of expatriates to work together effectively and penetrate the new market.

- Secure Headquarters Control

Companies may want to exercise control over foreign subsidiaries by integrating the headquarters' culture in foreign operations. This might be achieved by sending PCNs who have been with the company for some time. These expatriates have to promote a variety of inter-organizational skills and interpersonal skills, commonly used in the headquarters, to different employees in the subsidiaries. Most organizations with operations in foreign countries are quite successful and use expatriates to oversee financial and administrative functions.

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- Management Development

Expatriates have the opportunity to learn the foreign environment and culture during foreign assignments. This international experience and expansive knowledge gained by expatriates can be used to develop products that suit a specific culture, ensuring the firm remains competitive in the global market. The PCNs may be sent to foreign subsidiaries before they are promoted, so that they can learn the skills and knowledge to operate within a diverse environment. This foreign exposure helps expatriates develop international management competencies.

- Organizational Development

Expatriates are sent to foreign countries where they can locate valuable resources and expertise, learn best practices and transfer all these assets to the company operations in the host country. Expatriates may gain expertise from different cultures, providing the company with learning opportunity from a diverse staff. Expatriates help the organization in forming international networks, creating a global market for products. They also promote decentralization of the organization by taking control of the various foreign operations.

2. Literature review

One of the most challenging tasks for any company operating internationally is to manage its expatriates. The statistics showing their efficiency on that matter are not encouraging. For example, the failure of U.S. expatriates (the percentage who return prematurely, without completing their assignment) is to be in the 20 – 40% range. In Japan, the failure rate is less than 5% for their expatriates. One of the reasons for the difference is that Japanese expatriates receive far more orientation and language instruction than U.S. expatriates do (Treven, 2001, p. 185).

In international companies, it is important to understand the reasons behind expatriates' high failure rates so that preventive measures can be taken. Six factors account for most failures, although their relative importance varies by firm (Gomez-Mejia, Balkin, & Cardy R.L., 1995, p. 1987). These are: career blockage, culture shock, lack of cross-cultural training, an overemphasis on technical qualifications, a tendency to use international assignments as a way to get rid of problem employees, and family problems (Treven, 2001, p. 186).

After the expatriate completes his assignment and returns home, he must adjust in the same way as when going abroad. The work, people, and general environment are no longer familiar. The expatriate and his company are usually unprepared to deal with this situation. The disorientation experienced by a returning expatriate is known as reverse culture shock. The expatriate gains valuable infor-

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mation and experience from an international assignment, but for many organizations this is lost because of the failure to manage expatriate reentry successfully. By one estimate, about 25 % of returning expatriates leave the company within a year after returning (Black, Gregersen , & Mendenhall, 1992).

The choice of employee for an international assignment is a critical decision. Since most expatriates work under minimal supervision in a distant location, mistakes in selection are likely to go unnoticed until it is too late. To choose the best employee for the job, management should (Treven, 2001):

- emphasize cultural sensivity as a selection criterion
- establish a selection board of expatriates
- required previous international experience
- explore the possibility of hiring foreign-born employees who can serve as "expatriates" at a future date
- screen candidates' spouses and families

A successful expatriate must be able to both do the job and handle a new cultural environment. Hence, the expatriate must do his job competently, learn to live comfortably in a new culture, and ensure that his family adapts as well.

2.1. Cultural shock

Cultural (or culture) shock is a multifaceted experience resulting from numerous stressors occurring in contact with a different culture (Winkelman, 1994, p. 122). The term culture shock, first introduced by the anthropologist Kalervo Oberg, is defined as "the anxiety that results from losing all the familiar signs and symbols of social intercourses which include words, gestures, facial expressions, customs, or norms acquired unconsciously in the course of growing up" (Oberg, 1960). From a theoretical perspective, culture shock is described as "the stress induced by all the behavioral expectation differences and the accompanying uncertainty with which the individual must cope" (Ling & Lei, 2014, p. 24). Cultural shock reactions may provoke psychological crises or social dysfunctions when reactions to cultural differences impede performance. Because our society is becoming increasingly multicultural (Winkelman, 1994, p. 121; Schwartz & Exter, 1989), we all experience varying degrees of cultural shock in unfamiliar cultural or subcultural settings (Winkelman, 1994, p. 121; Merta, Stringham & Poterotto, 1988).

Adler (1975) described a five-stage model of culture shock that broadly followed a U-curve which was couched in more neutral rather than negative terms. His model considered participant's emotions, perceptions and behaviors. The strength of Adler's model lies in its very useful interpretations of these emotions

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and behaviors. The stages are the honeymoon or tourist phase, the crises or culture shock phase, the adjustment, reorientation, and gradual recovery phase, the adaptation, resolution, or acculturation phase and the reciprocal interdependence stage. These phases are both sequential and cyclical. The shift from crises to adjustment and adaptation can repeat as one encounters new crises, requiring additional adjustments. The stages effectively mirror the U-curve and W-curve stages whereby adjustment moves from a higher, more adequate level through to a lower, less adequate level and toward a return to a higher more adequate level of coping in the new culture (Adler, 1975, p. 17). On the whole, culture shock can be described as the anxiety or stress an expatriate feels immediately due to the unfamiliarity of social practice in the host country. A big challenge faced by expatriates is that those who are inadequately informed of the host country's culture or unaware of cultural difference are most likely to fail in the international business. Culture shock may occur at various levels such as an explosion of anger, frustration, depression, and homesickness (Black & Gregersen, 1999). Adaptation to the local culture, through understanding and accommodation, not necessarily assimilation, is necessary to deal with the culture shock (Winkelman, Cultural shock and adaptation, 1994).

2.2. *Cross-Cultural Adaptation*

Adaptation refers to the process of adjustment to the existing conditions in the environment (Castro, 2003). Intercultural adjustment and adaptation are concerns for many who deal with the stress of living in a new and different culture, and adapting to a new culture can have both positive and negative consequences. On one hand the negative consequences of poor adjustment include psychological and psychosomatic concerns; early return to one's home country; emotional distress; communication; culture shock; depression, anxiety, diminished school and work performance, and difficulties in interpersonal relationships. On the other hand, positive consequences include gains in language competence; self-esteem, awareness, and health; self-confidence, positive mood, interpersonal relationships, and stress reduction (Matsumoto D., LeRoux, Bernhard, & Gray, 2004, p. 282). Cross-cultural adaptation is a process of acclimatizing to the demand of a new cultural environment, which means both changing perspectives and reconciling beliefs to the host culture. It is more about sensitivity, understanding, reaction and anticipation. In general, there are four broad streams on the cross-cultural adaptation process. The most dominant over the last 30 years has been the U-curve theory of cultural adaptation that regards the starting point for an expatriate as being on a honeymoon high, followed by a bottoming out resulting from cultural maladjustment and finally a climb up and out to cultural acceptance and adapta-

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tion (Ling & Lei, 2014, p.24; Lysgaar, 1955). Adaptation refers to the process of adjustment to the existing conditions in the environment. Within the framework of acculturation research, adaptation is commonly referred to as the level of "fit" between the acculturating individual and the mainstream cultural environment, and it is an ongoing process. Therefore, adaptation can be understood as the continuing psychological and behavioral outcomes of acculturation processes (Sumer, 2009). While acknowledging the pragmatic demands for the assessment of specific task performances such as job productivity or academic success, Ward and colleagues have maintained that adjustment or adaptation during cross-cultural transitions can be broadly divided into two categories: psychological and socio-cultural (Ward & Kennedy, 1993, p.131; Searle & Ward, 1990; Stone Feinstein & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, in press; Ward & Searle, 1991). The theorizing by Ward and associates on psychological and socio-cultural adaptation has borrowed heavily from two divergent traditions in the "culture shock" field. The first derives from research on psychology of adjustment. It is underpinned by the work of Lazarus and Folkman (1984) on stress and coping, and is exemplified by the research of Berry and colleagues on acculturation and adaptation (e.g. Berry & Kim, 1988; Chataway & Berry, 1989). The second tradition is based on Argyle's (1980) social skills model which has been popularized by Furnham and Bochner (1986) in their culture learning approach to cross-cultural transition (Ward & Kennedy, 1993, p. 131). Psychological adaptation can be understood within a stress and coping model and refers to feelings of well-being or satisfaction with transitions, although it is commonly evaluated through negative affect, using measures of depression or mood disturbance. Socio-cultural adaptation can be understood within the social learning paradigm and refers to how well an acculturating individual is able to manage day to day life in the new cultural context. Psychological adaptation and socio-cultural adaptation are inter-related but conceptually and empirically distinct. The former is predicted by personality variables, life changes and social support; the latter, by cultural distance, cultural identity, language ability, and cultural knowledge (Brisset, Safdarb, Lewisb, & Sabatier, 2010). The relationship between psychological and socio-cultural dimensions of adaptation can also be examined through intergroup comparisons. On this count it has been argued that while the two adjustment domains are interrelated, the magnitude of the relationship varies, depending on characteristics of the sojourning group and the host culture. More specifically, it has been suggested that the association between psychological and socio-cultural adaptation fluctuates in accordance with the sojourning group's need, capacity, or opportunity for integration into the host culture; that is, the more reliance on the host culture as the primary environment for interaction and support, the stronger the relationship between the two forms of adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1993, p. 134).

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2.2.1. Socio-cultural adaptation

Socio-cultural adaptation is defined "in terms of behavioral competence" and is "strongly influenced by factors underpinning culture learning and social skills acquisition" (Wilson, 2011, p.4; Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Socio-cultural adjustment, defined in terms of social and behavioral competence is affected by culture-specific factors, such as length of residence in the host culture, interactions with host nationals, cultural distance and language fluency. Successful socio-cultural outcomes are determined by greater amount of contact with own community, greater cultural similarity and improved language knowledge of the receiving society. Socio-cultural difficulties in migrant populations have been linked to a cultural incongruity and less interaction and identification with host nationals (Ward & Kennedy, 1993). Socio-cultural adaptation refers to the ability to "fit in" the new cultural environment and to negotiate interactions with members of the new culture effectively. It incorporates communication and social interaction skills, and it is characterized by the development of adequate social and cultural skills to handle daily social situations and demands of the mainstream cultural context. Most common measures of socio-cultural adaptation have examined the level of difficulty experienced in performing daily tasks such as understanding the local language, making friends, participating in social activities, or managing school or work related issues (Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999). Socio-cultural adaptation involves an understanding of the new culture's norms and values. Masgoret & Ward (2006) note that socio-cultural adaptation does not necessitate international students to accept a new set of norms and values of the new culture, but it requires them to be aware of value differences and be prepared to effectively deal with them.

2.2.2. Psychological adjustment

Psychological adaptation refers to a positive sense of identity, life satisfaction, psychological well-being, and "good" mental health (Castro, 2003). Literature shows that the most common measures of psychological adaptation have been self-esteem and psychological adjustment reflected in measures of anxiety, depression, and psychosomatic symptoms (Summer, 2009, p.47; Ryder, Alden, & Paulhus, 2000). Research by Ward and colleagues has demonstrated that psychological adjustment, defined in terms of depression or more global mood disturbance, is affected by personality factors, life changes, and social support. Both locus of control and extraversion have been linked to psychological well-being in sojourners; however, while an internal locus of control has been consistently associated with psychological adaptation (Ward & Kennedy, p.131, 1993; in press), the effects

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of extraversion on mood disturbance have varied over cultural context (Ward & Kennedy, p.131; Armes & Ward, 1989; Searle & Ward, 1990), suggesting culture-specific as well as culture-general patterns of adaptation. As expected, a low incidence of life changes facilitates psychological adjustment, and adequate social support is essential for psychological well-being (Ward & Kennedy, p.131; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992a; in press).

3. Methodology

As it was used questionnaire in a form consisting three different parts, first one was about Socio demographic characteristics of research population. It was designed to get information about some background data. This part contains eight questions. There are six questions related to our inclusion criteria: sex, age, country of origin, duration of stay abroad, host country, marriage status and two additional questions: level of education, average total income monthly.

Second one is the measurement of psychological adaptation (The Intercultural Adjustment Potential Scale). This one was developed to measure individual differences in four constructs which considered necessary for intercultural adjustment (Markova, 2006, p. 17; Matsumoto et al., 2001): 1) emotion regulation (ER) – the ability to monitor and manage one's emotional experiences and expressions, and to channel their energies in constructive ways; 2) openness (OP) - the ability to encounter new experiences, emotions, and thoughts; 3) flexibility (FL) - the ability to assimilate new experiences, schemas, and ways of thinking into one's own; 4) critical thinking (CT) - the ability to think outside the box in creative and autonomous ways. The ICAPS-55 consists of 55 items asking about various aspects of individuals with a scale of 0 (completely disagree) to 7 (completely agree).

The ICAPS-55 was developed over a six-year period involving 19 studies that have established its scientific reliability and validity, involving well over a total of 2,500 participants. Research on the ICAPS-55 has shown that it can predict intercultural adjustment for immigrants and sojourners from a variety of different cultural groups. Research has also demonstrated convincingly that the ICAPS-55 can also reliably predict adjustment within one's own culture to everyday life. To date, research has amply demonstrated the following psychometric properties of the ICAPS-55: temporal, internal, and parallel forms reliability (Japanese, English, and Spanish), content, convergent, divergent, incremental, concurrent predictive and external validity. Alphas for each constructs were: 0,82 (ER); 0,52 (OP); 0,72 (FL); 0,48 (CO); and 0,69 (ICAPS Total). The ICAPS-55 is unique in that it does not focus on culture-specific knowledge or information. Instead it focuses on the psychological skills that are theoretically considered to be important in manag-

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ing intercultural conflict and stress that are inevitable during a sojourn (Markova, 2006, p.18; Matsumoto et al., 2001). Individuals with higher ICAPS scores had less stress and anxiety at work, home, during their leisure time, and in general; exhibited stress less cognitively, behaviorally, or somatically; and had less depression. They also had significantly higher adjustment and language scores. These results replicated the findings reported previously by Matsumoto et al. (2001) and extend those findings to a non-student sample (Matsumoto, et al., 2003, p. 547).

Third and the last one was the measurement of socio-cultural adaptation (The Socio-cultural Adjustment Scale). This one is concerned with the skills that are required to manage everyday social situations in a new cultural context. The development of the SCAS was based on Furnham and Bochner's (Furnham and Bochner, 1982) work. The instrument was originally developed as an assessment of intercultural competence with emphasis on behavioral domains. The most recent version of the SCAS (with 29 items) has explored the addition of more cognitive domains. The scale includes items that ask sojourners about difficulties they experienced in meeting the needs and demands of daily life, having meaningful interactions with hosts, understanding host cultures' values, and communicative behavior. The SCAS requires respondents to indicate the amount of difficulty experienced in a number of areas by using a five-point scale (from no difficulty to extreme difficulty). The SCAS is a flexible instrument and can be easily modified according to the characteristics of the sojourning sample and has consistently proven reliable and valid (Searle and Ward, 1990; Ward and Kennedy, 1993). Scores obtained from the scale indicated the respondents' perceptions when facing difficulties understanding international values and cultures. Sample items included statements such as "Understanding jokes and humors," and "Dealing with people staring at you." The 29-item scale contains two main parts which can be calculated separately. One part measures participants' Behavioral- Adaptation Difficulty with 22 items (items 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16, 17, 19, 20, 21, 22, 24, 25, 27, and 28), and the other part assess the Cognitive-Adaptation Difficulty with 7 items (items 5, 8, 10, 18, 23, 26, and 29). Average scores of the 29 items were used to measure the overall socio-cultural adaptation level. Higher values obtained in the scale indicated greater difficulty in socio-cultural adaptation.

Subjects were limited to all expatriates (both undergraduates and graduates) who are coming from Croatia and have spent minimum 12 months abroad. An email containing a website link to the online questionnaire was distributed to all Croatian expatriates. The survey's purpose, procedure, benefit, potential risk, and the researcher's contact information were included in the email. Each participant was allowed to complete the online questionnaire within two weeks via the website link attached in the email. Participation in the study was absolutely voluntary and anonymous. A total of 34 Croatian expatriates participated in the online survey.

The inclusion criteria will be used to achieve maximum homogeneity of the samples and to avoid the influence of those factors which are not in the focus of the

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study. Using these criteria will provide the comparability of the samples: Participants must be expatriates who are coming from Croatia, participants must be abroad minimum 12 months and participants, reason for being abroad must be entirely a job.

4. Findings and discussion

Survey was sent to 40 Croatian expatriates and 34 of them, including 19 (56%) males and 15 (44%) females, who ranged in age from 22 to 55 years (M = 27.88 years) completed the questionnaire. By marital status 27 (79%) of the participants were single, 6(18%) were married and one (3%) was divorced. Of the married subjects (N = 6), half reported their spouse lived abroad with them. The average length of stay abroad was 26 months.

Table 1:

SAMPLE CHARACTERISTICS (NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS)

	Croatian Expatriates (N=34)	
Gender	Male	19
	Female	15
Age	20-25	17
	26-30	10
	31-40	5
	41<	2
Length of stay abroad (in months)	12	15
	13-18	7
	19-24	3
	25-36	3
	37<	6
Marital status	Single	27
	Married	6
	Divorced	1
Average monthly income	0-1000	6
	1001-2000	16
	2001-3000	7
	3001-5000	5
	5000<	0

Source: Authors.

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Demographic items such as age, gender, marital status, family companion, and length of stay, were used as points of comparison when measuring participants socio-cultural adaptation and psychological adaptation. Subscales for each variable measurement were used in the correlation tests to precisely display their relationships with each demographic item.

Table *2*:

DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS BETWEEN MALES AND FEMALES WITHIN SOCIO-CULTURAL AND PSHYCHOLOGICAL ADJUSTMENT

Your sex		SCAS_uk	Behavioral	Cognitive	ISCAP_uk	ER	OP	FL	CR
male	Mean	62,68	46,63	16,05	209,68	32,53	23,95	25,63	22,58
	N	19	19	19	19	19	19	19	19
	Std. Deviation	25,656	20,908	5,602	22,408	4,599	5,864	4,387	6,140
female	Mean	58,20	43,00	15,20	221,27	34,27	25,20	25,47	27,53
	N	15	15	15	15	15	15	15	15
	Std. Deviation	17,473	13,748	4,539	25,104	4,920	4,263	6,278	4,155
Total	Mean	60,71	45,03	15,68	214,79	33,29	24,50	25,56	24,76
	N	34	34	34	34	34	34	34	34
	Std. Deviation	22,219	17,943	5,103	23,986	4,752	5,183	5,218	5,842

The table above shows means and std. deviations between males and females that have participated in this research. As it can be read from the table, difference according to means is in socio-cultural adaptation overall score, behavioral adaptation, psychological adjustment and critical thinking. Higher mean value in socio-cultural adaptation overall score shows more difficult adaptation. The results indicate that male's socio-cultural adaptation is more difficult than female's (M male=62.68; M female=58.20). According to that, male's behavioral adaptation is also more difficult than female's adaptation (M male=46.63; M female=43.00). Cognitive adaptation is similar (M male=16.05; M female=15.20).

The table ANOVA was conducted to examine whether some of the demographic variables affect extracted socio-cultural or psychological adaptation types. The Table 2 shows statistically significant difference (p<0.012) between demographic factor gender (male, female) and CT (critical thinking) at the 95% confidence level. CT shows the ability to think outside the box in creative and autonomous ways and it is part of psychological adaptation. According to that it can be concluded that males and females ability to think is significantly

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different. Other factors don't show significant differences within sex of population.

Table 3:

ANOVA-TESTING DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR GENDER AND CR (CRITICAL THINKING) AT THE 95% CONFIDENCE LEVEL

CT	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	205,753	1	205,753	7,154	,012
Within Groups	920,365	32	28,761		
Total	1126,118	33			

Source: Authors

The next table shows statistically significant difference between demographic factor education (undergraduate and postgraduate) and SCAS overall score ($p < 0.006$), behavioral adaptation ($p < 0.006$), cognitive adaptation ($p < 0.022$), openness ($p < 0.024$) and critical thinking ($p < 0.020$) at the 95% confidence level.

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Table 4:

ANOVA-TESTING DIFFERENCE BETWEEN DEMOGRAPHIC FACTOR EDUCATION (UNDERGRADUATE AND POSTGRADUATE) AND SCAS OVERALL SCORE, BEHAVIORAL ADAPTATION, COGNITIVE ADAPTATION, OPENNESS AND CRITICAL THINKING AT THE 95% CONFIDENCE LEVEL

Education		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
SCAS_uk	Between Groups	3486,279	1	3486,279	8,712	,006
	Within Groups	12804,780	32	400,149		
	Total	16291,059	33			
Behavioral	Between Groups	2266,054	1	2266,054	8,675	,006
	Within Groups	8358,917	32	261,216		
	Total	10624,971	33			
Cognitive	Between Groups	130,911	1	130,911	5,750	,022
	Within Groups	728,530	32	22,767		
	Total	859,441	33			
ISCAP_uk	Between Groups	942,119	1	942,119	1,671	,205
	Within Groups	18043,439	32	563,857		
	Total	18985,559	33			
ER	Between Groups	5,392	1	5,392	,233	,632
	Within Groups	739,667	32	23,115		
	Total	745,059	33			
OP	Between Groups	131,879	1	131,879	5,592	,024
	Within Groups	754,621	32	23,582		
	Total	886,500	33			
FL	Between Groups	,216	1	,216	,008	,931
	Within Groups	898,167	32	28,068		
	Total	898,382	33			
CT	Between Groups	177,996	1	177,996	6,008	,020
	Within Groups	948,121	32	29,629		
	Total	1126,118	33			

Source: Authors.

The SCAS (socio-cultural adjustment scale) has 2 parts, behavioral adaptation and cognitive adaptation. Both of them (including SCAS overall score) show statistically significant difference between undergraduate and postgraduate Croatian expatriates. The SCAS is focused on the skills that are required to

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manage everyday social situations in new cultural context. Participants, who obtain undergraduate degree, have more difficulty to manage everyday social situations in new cultural context. The opposite of that are participants who obtain graduate degree. They have less difficulty to manage everyday social situations in new cultural context. OP (openness) and CT (critical thinking) show the same result as SCAS. OP presents the ability to encounter new experiences, emotions and thoughts. According to the research from this paper, participants who obtain graduate degree, have higher ability to encounter new experiences, emotions and thoughts. Unlike that, participants who obtain undergraduate degree, have lower ability to encounter new experiences, emotions and thoughts. CT (critical thinking) shows the ability to think outside the box in creative and autonomous ways and it is part of psychological adaptation. Participants, who obtain undergraduate degree, show lower ability to think outside the box in creative and autonomous ways. On the other hand, participants who obtain graduate degree, show higher ability to think outside the box in creative and autonomous ways.

Table 5:

ANOVA-TESTING DIFFERENCE BETWEEN AVERAGE MONTHLY INCOME AND FL (FLEXIBILITY) AT THE 95% CONFIDENCE LEVEL

Income	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	274,868	3	91,623	4,408	,011
Within Groups	623,514	30	20,784		
Total	898,382	33			

Source: Authors.

In the above table can be read statistically significant difference (p<0.011) between average monthly income and FL (flexibility) at the 95% confidence level. FL is a part of psychological adjustment and it shows the ability to assimilate new experiences, schemas, and ways of thinking into one's own. FL is statistically different between expatriates who earn different amount of money (monthly income). Participants, with greater amount of monthly income, show higher ability to assimilate new experiences, schemas, and ways of thinking into one's own. As opposite of that, participants with greater amount of monthly income, show lower ability to assimilate new experiences, schemas, and ways of thinking into one's own. The other demographic factors, such as the length of stay, marital status and age of population do not show statistically significant differences in socio-cultural and psychological adaptation of population.

Table 6:

TESTING DIFFERENCE BETWEEN LENGTH OF STAY
AND EMOTION REGULATION (ER)

Length of stay (between 1st and 2nd group) 1st group – 12 months 2nd group – 13-18 months		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means	
	F	Sig.	t	df	
ER	Equal variances assumed	5,528	,029	-,595	20
	Equal variances not assumed			-,761	19,960

Source: Authors.

The results in table above indicates that length of stay significantly affected emotion regulation (ER), (p<0.029). Test was made between 2 groups of population (1st who stayed abroad 12 months and 2nd who stayed abroad in the period from 13 to 18 months). ER shows the ability to monitor and manage one's emotional experiences and expressions, and to channel their energies in constructive ways. Expatriates who stayed abroad 12 months have different ER then expatriates who stayed in the period from 13 to 18 months.

The other groups of length of stay (In the 3rd group is population who stayed abroad between 19 and 24 months; 4th group between 25 and 36 months) do not show significantly differences.

In the table below it can be read significant correlation at the 0.01 level between Cognitive adaptation and critical thinking. Cognitive adaptation as a part of socio-cultural adaptation measures participants' cognitive adaptation difficulty.

Table 7:

TESTING CORRELATION BETWEEN COGNITIVE ADAPTATION
AND CT (CRITICAL THINKING)

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		CR	**Cognitive**
CT	Pearson Correlation	1	-,483**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		,004
	N	34	34
Cognitive	Pearson Correlation	-,483**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	,004	
	N	34	34

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

This part of paper included the findings for the relationship between socio-demographic factors of Croatian expatriates (e.g., gender, age, monthly income, length of stay, marrital status and education) and cross-cultural adaptation (e.g., socio-cultural and psychological adjustment) for the sample of 34 participants. Next chapter will present conclusion, limitations and future direction.

5. Conclusion

Although the entire research procedure has been carefully planned to fulfill the purpose of the study and avoid inaccuracies if any, the research methodology has however faced the following constraints and limitations: The findings from the small sample (34 Croatian expatriates) may be difficult to be generalized over larger populations. The set of questionnaire was created in English and respondents were tested in English language, which is not their mother language. In the research was used self-fulfilling questionnaire and "Likert" type scale. According to that, subjectivity may have impact on respondents. This research showed what is culture shock and shows that to adjust it is important to make a life in other countries more comfortable and enjoyable. As it is presented in this paper, culture shock can happen to anybody who goes abroad and the degree depends on each person. Although there are many elements that cause culture shock, demographic factors such as gender, age, marital status, length of stay, education level and monthly income are interesting to investigate because it is very different from person to person and may be strongly related with ways to deal with culture shock. It should be understood that demographic factors could be in a relationship with culture shock that could be experienced in host country in the future. Experiencing new cultures is wonderful to broaden peoples' view and thinking in the world. It should not be missed the great chance to develop themselves when threatened by the anxiety or conflict of culture shock. It can be seen much more aspects of the host country to overcome culture shock.

This study examined the socio-cultural adaptation and psychological adjustment of Croatian expatriates and, as a result of this study, there are several opportunities for further research. These areas for future study include: conducting a longitudinal study to examine the findings over time; expanding the study to include more Croatian expatriates; including language ability before going abroad and previously experience of living abroad.

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MEĐUKULTUROLOŠKA ADAPTACIJA HRVATSKIH EKSPATRIJATA

Sažetak

Cilj istraživanja je identificirati psihološke i socio-kulturološke oblike prilagodbe u procesu među-kulturološke tranzicije. Utvrdit će se kako je kulturološki šok uvjetovan osobnošću hrvatskih ekspatrijata, koji su faktori utjecaja i kako se odvija proces socijalne i psihološke prilagodbe novog kulturi. Rezultati empirijskog istraživanja potvrđuju značajne razlike između demografskih obilježja i među-kulturološke adaptacije. Identificirane su razlike između muškaraca i žena za kritičko razmišljanje što predstavlja dio psihološke prilagodbe. Stupanj obrazovanja također utječe na ukupno socio-kulturološku adaptaciju, adaptaciju ponašanja, otvorenost i kritičko razmišljanje. Primanja su također povezana s fleksibilnošću. Vrijeme boravka je povezano s emocionalnom regulacijom i kritičkim razmišljanjem, a kognitivna adaptacija korelira s kritičnim razmišljanjem.

Ključne riječi: kulturološka adaptacija, socio-kulturološka adaptacija, psihološka prilagodba, hrvatski ekspatrijati