

Copyright is owned by the Author of the thesis. Permission is given for a copy to be downloaded by an individual for the purpose of research and private study only. The thesis may not be reproduced elsewhere without the permission of the Author.

**The Motivation to Migrate, Acculturation, and Finding
Employment: The case for African Migrants in New Zealand.**

**A thesis presented in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the
degree of
a Master of Arts
in
Psychology**

**at Massey University, Palmerston North
New Zealand.**

Martine Marie-Gloria Udahemuka

2008

Abstract

The present study tested a model whereby Psychological Acculturation mediated the relationship between the Psychological Motives to Migrate and the Employment Outcome of African migrants in New Zealand. These concepts had not been previously studied together. Job search strategies, interview behaviours, qualifications and duration of time in the host country are principally known as predictors of employment outcome; therefore, their impacts were also taken into consideration. One hundred and five African migrants completed a questionnaire, which included a number of reliable measures used to assess the concepts of: (a) Psychological Motives to Migrate (Tharmaseelan, 2005), (b) Psychological Acculturation preferences (Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999) and (c) Employment Outcome (Mace, 2004; Tharmaseelan, 2005). Job search strategies and interview behaviours were assessed with Mace's (2004) measures. Multivariate analyses showed that over and above demographic migration categories (economic, family, humanitarian, student and visitor), psychological motives to migrate (financial betterment, family building, exploration and escaping) predicted acculturation preferences. Specifically, voluntary migrants (those motivated by 'family building' and 'exploration') preferred to adapt to New Zealand culture, while less voluntary migrants (those motivated by 'escaping') had a higher preference to maintain their culture of origin. Acculturation preferences were not found to mediate the relationship between motives to migrate and employment outcome. The predicted

links to employment outcome were not supported. Duration of time in New Zealand was correlated with acculturation preferences. Implications of the findings point to the fundamentality of assessing reasons to migrate from a psychological perspective, and also provide important linkages between motivational theory and acculturation theory. The implication must however be interpreted cautiously as per the limitations of the study. It was recommended that future researchers test the same model with improved measures and with a larger sample. In addition, future researchers could assess and compare the acculturation preferences and employment experiences of the 1.5 generation and their adult parents.

Acknowledgements

There are a number of people that I would sincerely like to thank for helping me; in one way or another, see this thesis to completion. First of all, I would like to extend my gratitude to my supervisors Professor Stuart Carr and Dr. Regina Pernice for their guidance during my thesis journey. Stuart, I have finished hammering, I hope a worthy piece has emerged. Thank you for your wise counsel and all your continuous efforts to make my work the best it can be. Regina, you have been a great support for me, you gave me your continued help selflessly, and I thank you for your invaluable and thoughtful guidance. Most importantly, I want to thank you for the faith you have in me.

I would also like to thank my family, mum, you are my superwoman, dad, thank you for that time you took off work so that I can concentrate on my studies, Marie, thank you for staying up with me and helping me in the wee hours of the morning in the postgraduate room, Pamela, you have always saved me when I was doing things at the last minute, Ange, thank you for helping me with some of the typing, Alain and Grandma, thank you for putting up with my unpredictable moods. Thank you all for giving me time out, and putting up with me when the thesis was getting me down and I was taking it out on you.

I would like to thank my best friend, Tutsi, for helping me out with anything I required of him, in my undergraduate studies and during the thesis year. More importantly, I thank you for believing in me, never giving up on me, not letting me

quit, and truly being my inspiration. I was determined to make you proud, I hope I have achieved that.

Thank you to all my friends, who genuinely ever asked me how my thesis was going, and who were reciprocated with disgruntled mumbles and yet kept on asking anyway. Special thanks to my fellow postgraduate friends, we made a great team and I thank you for your support. Let's get together and brainstorm for our PhD topic on what we did best (you know what it is). I would especially like to thank Kanch, I am not sure that I would have been able to carry on without you to whinge with, you have been a great support.

Lastly, but not least, I want to thank all the people who completed my questionnaire and a very special thank you to all of those who distributed my questionnaires to their family and friends. I am humbled by your kindness.

I would also like to express my gratitude to the Massey University Human Ethics committee, who approved my research.

“Stay Hungry. Stay Foolish”
- Whole Earth Catalog, Stewart Brand (1974) -

Dedication

To my late grandma, Mama Wacu – you left us who love you too early, but you have left a mark in my heart and in my life. To you I dedicate this thesis. From you, I have learnt that life is nothing without commitment and determination but most important of all, through you I have learnt the power of prayer and positive thought.

Ndagukunda kandi ndagukumbuye Mama Wacu.

Nyirabahinde Pulcherie

Rest in Peace

September, 1925 - November, 2007

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
Acknowledgements	iv
Dedication.....	vi
Table of Contents.....	vii
List of Tables.....	ix
List of Figures	x
Chapter 1: Introduction.....	1
New Zealand.....	2
African Migrants	3
Significance of the Present Research	5
Employment Outcome.....	6
Acculturation	11
Motivation to Migrate	19
Other Variables of interest	27
Hypotheses	31
Chapter 2: Method	32
Participants	32
Materials.....	33
Employment Outcome measure	33
Psychological Acculturation Index.....	34
Psychological Motivation to Migrate measure.....	35
Job Search Strategies Inventory	35
Job Interview Behaviour measure	36
Demographics.....	37
Procedure.....	37
Ethical Consideration	40
Chapter 3: Results	42
3.1 Preliminary analyses.....	42
Data screening	42
3.2. Data Reduction and Psychometric Properties	43
Demographic Migration Category.....	43
Employment Outcome.....	44
Psychological Acculturation Index.....	46
Job Interview Behaviour measure	51
3.3 Main Analysis.....	55
3.3.1 Demographic Migration Category and Psychological Acculturation	56
3.3.2 Psychological Motives to Migrate and Psychological Acculturation	60
3.3.3 Mediation testing.....	64
3.3.3.1 Do Psychological Motives to Migrate also predict Employment Outcome?.....	64

3.3.4 Does Psychological Acculturation predict Employment Outcome?	65
Post-hoc	68
Chapter 4: Discussion	70
Summary of the findings	71
Limitations of the study.....	78
Implications of the findings.....	80
Future Research directions	80
Conclusion.....	81
References	83
Appendix A.....	94
Information Sheet and Questionnaire for African Migrants in New Zealand.....	94
Appendix B.....	104
Factor Analysis Results– Acculturation Index.....	104
Appendix C.....	106
Factor Analysis Results – Psychological Motives to Migrate measure	106
Appendix D.....	108
Factor Analysis Results– Job Interview behaviour measure.....	108
Appendix E.....	109
Mancova Results– Demographic Migration Category and Acculturation	109
Appendix F	110
Ancova Results – Demographic Migration Category and Employment Outcome	110

List of Tables

Table 3.1. Psychological Acculturation Index Rotated Component Matrix ^a	48
Table 3.2. Psychological Motives to Migrate measure Rotated Component Matrix	50
Table 3.3. Job Interview Behaviour measure Rotated Component Matrix	52
Table 3.4. Means, Standard Deviations and Bivariate correlation coefficients of key variables (N=92-105).....	54
Table 3.5. Frequency of Migrants in Acculturation Style groups based on Migration Category.....	57
Table 3.6. Means and Standard error of Acculturation scores among Demographic Migration Category...	58
Table 3.7. Regression Analysis with 'adapt to New Zealand culture' as dependent variable (N=88)	63
Table 3.8. Regression Analysis with 'maintain culture of origin' as dependent variable (N=89)	63
Table 3.9. Corrected Means and Standard error of Employment scores among Acculturation Styles ...	66
Table 3.10. Regression Analysis with Employment Outcome as the dependent variable (N=88).....	67
Table 3.11. Corrected Means and Standard error of Employment Outcome scores among Demographic Migration Category ^(a)	68

List of Figures

<i>Figure 1.1.</i> An explorative model of the Reasons to migrate, Acculturation process and Employment Outcome for African Migrants in New Zealand.....	6
<i>Figure 1.2.</i> Quadri-Modal Acculturation Model adopted from Berry (1997)	13
<i>Figure 1.3.</i> Model to be tested with predicted relationships including the principal predictors of finding employment.	30
<i>Figure 3.1.</i> Scatter plot of average scores on the Acculturation components.....	49
<i>Figure 3.2.</i> Model with predicted relationships	55
<i>Figure 3.3.</i> Resultant model with marginal and significant relationships.	69

Chapter 1: Introduction

Human migration has been defined as “the process of going from one country, region or place of residence to settle in another” (Bhugra & Becker, 2005, p.18). Yet, this definition does not capture that what motivates people to migrate varies from one individual to the next. International migration is motivated by many factors usually driven by either economic needs or social reasons (Knipscheer & Kleber, 2007). In particular, some migrants freely choose to leave their home country in pursuit of achieving specific goals, while others have little choice and may be forced to leave their country for a number of varying reasons such as escaping from war violence (Kunz, 1973; Ward, Bochner & Furnham, 2001). It has been argued that the degree of choice of whether or not to migrate play an important part in the migrants’ negotiation of cultural mores (Horgan, 2000; Porter, 2006). In addition, this negotiation process has been found to be related to finding suitable employment (Mace, Atkins, Fletcher & Carr, 2005; Nekby & Rudin, 2007; Ward et al., 2001).

The present study will explore the role that the motivations to migrate have on migrants’ subsequent settlement into life (acculturation) and work (employment outcome), in one particular setting, New Zealand, and from one particular continent, Africa.

New Zealand

Over the last two decades, New Zealand immigration policies have undergone a number of significant changes. Up until 1986, the policies favoured migrants of European origin, particularly, those from Great Britain (Sang & Ward, 2006). A review in 1986 resulted in major changes in practices, shifting the emphasis from selecting migrants based on national and ethnic origin, to focusing on personal merits (Winkelmann & Winkelmann, 1998). Furthermore in 1991, the points system was introduced to allow migrants to live in New Zealand once they met specific criteria based on age, skills, education and capital (Beaglehole, 2007). Four years later, the points system was adjusted to include a pass mark scheme under the general skill category. This change meant that New Zealand could put a restriction on how many migrants it would receive, by introducing an annual quota. More recently in 2003, the skilled migrant category was introduced to attract migrants with skills that are pertinent to areas of skill shortage in New Zealand occupations (Beaglehole, 2007). These changes have resulted in a migration population increasingly characterised by skilled migrants who choose to come to New Zealand (Winkelmann, 2001).

The shortage of skilled labour is a result of increased emigration, i.e. the loss of many skilled and often young citizens moving ashore, resulting in what is termed 'brain drain' (Bushnell & Choy, 2001). To address the situation, the immigration policy changes aimed to increase human capital by encouraging entry to migrants who would make the highest contribution to the economic stance of New Zealand (New Zealand Immigration Service, 1997). However, evidence shows that the

supply of migrants' skills is in fact under utilised in New Zealand as many migrants find it difficult to secure appropriate employment, thus creating a case of 'brain waste' (Coates & Carr, 2005; Mahroum, 2000). This resulting situation is referred to as 'underemployment' in the mainstream industrial psychological literature (Lock, 1992). Although New Zealand has a pool of highly skilled migrants, migrants are often unemployed or underemployed. This may be due to an ethnically diversified migrant population and different migration pathways.

In terms of pathways and migration mobility, a distinction can be made between economic and social migrants, with the latter having two streams, one being humanitarian and the other being family reunification (Winkelmann, 2001, p.5). A large number of African migrants in New Zealand came under the economic category, indicating some element of choice in their migration, compared with a considerable proportion of Africans, who were granted New Zealand residency based on social considerations (Walrond, 2007). Under the humanitarian category, New Zealand accepts an annual quota of 750 people who are classified as refugees by the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (Beaglehole, 2007). To the researcher's knowledge, the distinction between the migration outcomes of the economic and social related pathways has not yet been empirically linked to the management of cultural mores, and thereby, to important migration outcomes such as finding jobs, so research in this area is warranted.

African Migrants

By 2003, African migrants came from at least forty-four countries and these migrants included a mixture of those who came under economic and social migration

categories including asylum seekers (Walrond, 2007). For example, a number of South Africans and Zimbabweans entered New Zealand under the skilled migrant category due to the economic instability in both nations. Also the wars in Somalia, Sudan, Burundi and the genocide in Rwanda, predominantly between the years of 1991 and 2002 saw New Zealand accept a substantial number of refugees from these countries under the humanitarian and family reunification migration categories. A smaller number of the African migrants include those who came as students or visitors and ended up staying here permanently (Merwood, 2007). The point is that the African migrant population in New Zealand encompasses individuals whose migration experiences differed in terms of 'free' choice in migration and migration destination.

The main difference between voluntary immigrants and other migrants including refugees, asylum seekers and family quota refugees is in their motivation to migrate. According to Kunz's (1973) push-pull theory, the former are freely pulled towards the host country, perhaps in search of better job opportunities and lifestyle, and the latter are less freely pushed out of their country of origin due to being dissatisfied with the conditions, often as a result of unemployment or political upheaval (Knipscheer & Kleber, 2007; Kunz, 1973). More importantly, these differing motivations may to a degree play a part in the way the migrants manage the ongoing intercultural contact post migration and may further have an impact on their experiences of finding employment in the host society. These are the proposed links to be explored in the present research depicted in Figure 1.1.

In the last decade, a few New Zealand studies have looked at settlement experiences of African migrants including refugees (Chile, 1999, Guerin, Diiriye & Guerin, 2004;

Guerin, Guerin, Diiriye & Abdi, 2004). Evidence from these studies indicate that generally, African migrants face significant difficulties during the settlement process. From interview and survey data, these researchers found that common obstacles to successful settlement were related to not having access to housing, education, adequate health services and to employment. In fact, it has been argued in research in New Zealand and abroad that the difficulty in finding employment is the single most important hindrance to successful integration of migrants in their new societies (Butcher, Spoonley & Trlin, 2006; Feeney, 2000). Recent reports suggest that although New Zealand as a whole is heading towards full employment, the rate of employment among the migrant groups in New Zealand is at a staggering low mark (Podsiadlowski, 2005). According to Nam and Ward (2006) “the unemployment rate of New Zealanders of African ethnicity is 18% which is 3 times more than that of the New Zealand Europeans” (p.29).

Significance of the Present Research

Evidently, the New Zealand population now comprises of a remarkable increase in the number of migrants from Africa who now call New Zealand ‘home’. This population includes individuals who are highly skilled as well as low skilled. Ironically, a great number of African migrants including the highly skilled are continuously being marginalised in the New Zealand labour market, especially in terms of finding suitable employment (Chile, 1999; De Souza, 2006; Guerin et al., 2004a).

Generally, previous New Zealand studies have focused on identifying the common barriers the migrants face in their quest to finding employment and on examining the significant psychological effects of unemployment or underemployment (Guerin et al., 2004b; Pernice, Trlin, Henderson & North, 2000; Price, 1992). Relatively less attention

has been given to the understanding of the psychological factors predictive of finding employment for African migrants. While there is research which indicates that acculturation is related to labour market experiences in the host country (for example, Berry, 1997; Mace et al., 2005; Tharmaseelan, 2005), and there is evidence that reasons to migrate are linked to acculturation (Horgan, 2000; Porter, 2006), no available research has yet combined the two concepts in relation to finding employment for African migrants. From Figure 1.1., the present study will endeavour to fill this gap in research by investigating the links among the concepts of the psychological motives to migrate, acculturation and finding employment as conceptualised in the model to be tested.

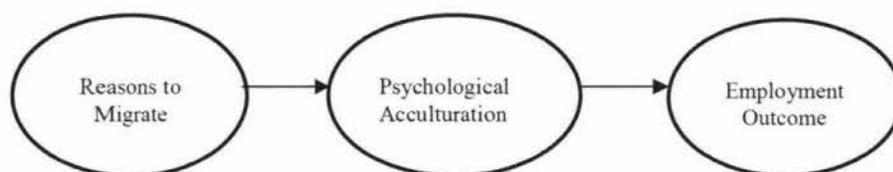


Figure 1.1. An explorative model of the Reasons to migrate, Acculturation process and Employment Outcome for African Migrants in New Zealand

Employment Outcome

In the psychological field, employment outcome ranges from unemployment to full employment. In the present research, full employment is referred to as being employed in a job that requires the use of one's qualifications and training, while underemployment is having a job that is not in line with qualifications and training, and lastly unemployment refers to having no job. These employment outcomes have a number of implications for migrants.

Finding suitable employment provides numerous benefits to the migrants, including providing an income, facilitating participation in the host community, providing a sense

of social status, and meeting their own and their families' expectations. The benefits of employment may not only provide economic gains for both the migrant and the receiving society, but may also be related to better psychological adjustment of the migrants. For example, Vinokurov, Birman and Trickett (2000) found that fully employed migrants in the United States had higher life satisfaction than the unemployed or the underemployed. Along the same lines, two studies conducted on New Zealand migrants provided evidence that having suitable employment was related to higher job satisfaction (Mace et al, 2005; Tharmaseelan, 2005).

Underemployment and unemployment outcomes have been shown to present detrimental consequences for the settlement of migrants in the host country (Lin, Tazuma & Masuda, 1979; Pernice et al., 2000; Tharmaseelan, 2005). Close to New Zealand, general survey literature on migrant work in Australia has linked these outcomes to poor physical health and psychological problems amongst refugee and migrant populations (Winefield, Winefield, Tiggermann & Goldney, 1991). Likewise, Aycan and Berry (1996) suggest that unemployed immigrants experience adaptation difficulties as employment not only provides the migrants with a source of income but also with status and identity, which together would enable immigrants to participate socially in the host community. Considering the benefits of having employment for migrants, assessing the psychological factors that facilitate positive labour market outcomes seems like an important endeavour for migrant research, which is the focus of the present study.

A range of New Zealand government statistical data has indicated that migrants in general find it hard to secure jobs (Basnayake, 1999; Department of Labour, 2004) and a number of common factors that hinder successful job attainment for migrants have been identified from the government data and from other migration research evidence

(Coates, 2003; Guerin et al., 2004a; Oliver, 2000). The researchers were generally in agreement that common barriers were related to a lack of language proficiency, lack of officially recognised qualifications, difficulties in transferring qualifications, lack of local labour market experience, employer discrimination and selection biases.

On behalf of the Equal Employment Opportunity Trust, Basnayake (1999) carried out a study on the employment experiences of Sri Lankan migrants in New Zealand and found that despite the majority being highly qualified and being fluent in English, these migrants still found themselves in jobs that were not in line with their qualifications and experiences. The researcher found that 60% of the respondents were employed in the profession they were qualified in, however, more than half of them were in positions with lower status than what they held back home. The respondents attributed these experiences to the lack of New Zealand experience preferred by many employers; lack of understanding of foreign job applicants by New Zealand employers and difficulties with verifying accreditations (Basnayake, 1999). Similarly, in a survey involving interviews with focus groups in Auckland, Wellington and Christchurch, data gathered by the Department of Internal Affairs (1996) showed that skilled migrants especially from diverse ethnic minority backgrounds faced considerable barriers in gaining employment. The research indicated that the difficulties were more pronounced for visible minorities and migrants from non-English speaking backgrounds. These characteristics are likely to be the case for some of the participants in the present study.

Guerin et al., (2004a) conducted a study with 86 Somali migrants on the barriers to finding employment in New Zealand. From the interviews, the researchers found that many of the participants were used to working in Somali conditions which involved trading in informal markets with very few rules on how to run businesses. Most of their

previous employment required them to know how to speak Somali, Arabic and in some instances, Swahili. Evidently, one can understand how these employment backgrounds might not transfer well into the New Zealand employment context hence resulting in difficulties in the job search process of these migrants. These results however, can not be generalised to other migrant populations.

Although these studies have identified common barriers, the information may be biased as it has been gathered from one perspective i.e. the job seekers'. There is however some New Zealand research that was carried out from the employment community's perspective to identify the barriers to securing employment (Coates, 2003; North, 2002).

North (2002) conducted a postal survey with 246 Auckland and Wellington based employers including those who had previously or were at the time employing migrants and those who had not employed migrants. Many of the respondents agreed that the main benefit of employing migrants was a 'means for ensuring that the workplace reflected the community served'. However, a number of them also acknowledged that they were reluctant to employ migrants due to communication barriers, lack of cultural and organisational fit and the lack of New Zealand work experience. Some of the employers who commented that they were reluctant to hire migrants who did not have New Zealand experience, however, they appreciated that this created a catch 22 situation where some migrants would be denied jobs of lower status as they were over qualified.

In parallel, Coates (2003) carried out a quantitative study with 80 participants who had at least 10 years experience in recruitment and personnel selection. In a scenario format, these participants were to estimate their preferences on selecting job candidates for certain occupations. Scenario candidates were presented as being from a number of different countries but who were otherwise equally presented in terms of skills,

qualifications, English ability and costs to employ. The researcher found that there were significant biases operating for and against different candidates based on their country of origin. Candidates from countries perceived to be similar to New Zealand were preferred over those candidates from less similar countries. New Zealand candidates were given the highest ranking in terms of preference, followed by candidates from Australia, Great Britain, South Africa, India, China and the least preference was given to Pacific Islanders. From the evidence from both the employers' and the migrants' perspectives, the point remains that the migrants are still underemployed, if employed at all.

As the review above indicates, despite being highly skilled, many migrants are often underemployed. Moreover, it is important to acknowledge that on average the voluntary migrants might be more skilled than the refugees, as the latter may have spent years in exile without any educational opportunities. Even for those skilled refugees, their circumstances may sometimes make it even more difficult to secure employment. Many would have temporarily been in exile or would have lived in refugee camps for a period of time before being accepted to New Zealand. Therefore they may not be able to provide evidence of their qualifications gained prior to fleeing, as they may have left appropriate documentations in their home country and may have no means or avenues of accessing them (Parsons, 2005). Clearly, therefore, the qualification variable might be an important factor to take into consideration when assessing different employment outcomes of the voluntary and non-voluntary migrants.

Evidently, a number of barriers exist for migrants who are trying to gain access to the labour market but the factors of successful employment outcome are still under-researched in the psychological literature. The point of view of the migrant vis-à-vis

employment has been neglected, and even more so among migrants from Africa especially in investigating the factors predictive of employment success such as acculturation.

Acculturation

It may be likely that the most extensively theorised psychological phenomenon in global mobility generally is acculturation (for example, Berry, 1990; Berry, Kim, Power, Young, & Bujai, 1989; Berry, 2006; Nesdale & Mak, 2000). In the psychological field, acculturation has been shown to have a direct link with important migration outcomes such as psychological and social cultural outcomes (Berry, 2001; Mace et al, 2005; Sam, Vedder, Ward & Horenczyk, 2006; Tharmaseelan, 2005) while other researchers have shown the concept to be an important mediator or moderator between factors such as age, gender, duration in host country and acculturation outcomes (Chun, Organista & Marin, 2002; Ourasse & van de Vijver, 2005). From Figure 1.1, the model proposes the testing of a mediating role of acculturation between the relationship of the motives to migrate and employment outcome.

Baubock (1996) suggests that migration is a “major force accelerating social and cultural change” (p. 9) and given the increase in migration today, it seems essential to examine the personal and social changes that occur when migrants transit from one culture to another. The cultural norms, to which individuals adhere to, are contextual, thus are defined and determined by the cultural context or environment within which the individuals have been living in (Hofstede, 1980). If successful settlement is to happen, the new migrants need to negotiate the cultural maze of the new environment they find themselves in. Cultural differences may be evident

through for example, the language spoken, food eaten, customary practices and everyday mannerism (Hofstede, 1980). Acculturation happens when new migrants have had to learn new ways of behaving in a culturally distant host society, for example learning a new language, new ways of finding a job, even new ways of expressing themselves (Berry, 1997). Furthermore, Graves (1967) proposed that this process of cultural change may be experienced on an individual level; therefore it should be termed psychological acculturation.

Berry (2005) defined psychological acculturation as “a dual process of cultural and psychological change that takes place as a result of contact between two or more cultural groups and individual members” (p. 698). Early social researchers (for example, Gordon, 1964; Graves, 1967) assumed acculturation to be a linear process, i.e. going from the culture of origin to the host culture towards assimilation which at that time was believed to be the ultimate consequence of migrants’ interaction with the host (dominant) cultural group. However, Berry (1980, 1984, 1986), proposed a bidimensional model of acculturation suggesting that culture manifests itself in two domains of one’s life i.e the private and the public domains. This perspective allows individuals to assume different cultural identities at any one time, and that identification with one culture does not necessarily mean non-identification with the other.

From there, Berry (1990, 1997) proposed the influential Quadri-Modal Acculturation Model based on two issues that he believed were fundamental to the acculturation process of the intercultural contact for migrants: (1) the maintenance of their culture of origin and (2) the maintenance of relationships with members of the host society.

Berry (1986) held that understanding the migrant's position on these basic issues would allow one to understand how the migrants prefer to behave in response to the ongoing intercultural contact with the host society. Four acculturation styles can result from this interaction and may be derived from the answers to two questions based on the fundamental issues as illustrated in Figure 1.2.

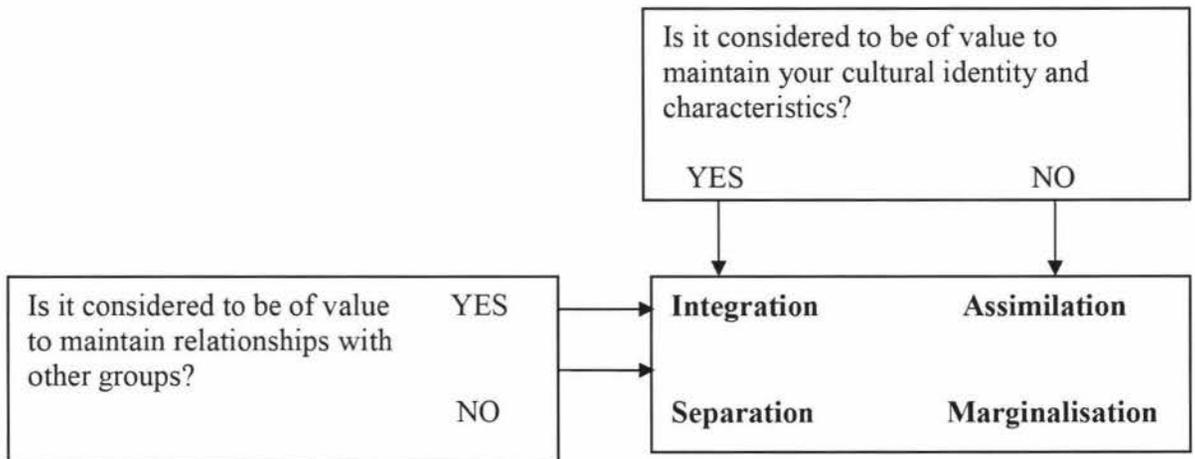


Figure 1.2. Quadri-Modal Acculturation Model adopted from Berry (1997)

From Figure 1.2, a specific individual style is derived from a combination of the yes and no answers to the two questions, to determine whether the migrants prefer Integration, Assimilation, Separation or Marginalisation styles. The integration style is assumed when individuals maintain their culture of origin and adapt to the culture of the host society, assimilation is the full adaptation to the host society's culture and rejecting the culture of origin, separationists reject the mainstream culture of the host society and maintain only their culture of origin and marginalisation refers to the rejection of both cultures (Berry, 1980).

An alternative method of operationalising acculturation preferences styles is the use of an Acculturation index. Generally, measures of acculturation strategies employ an index to assess preferences of behaviour in a number of public and private life

domains (e.g. language use, food, dress and religion) using two similar or identical statements for example, I prefer to dress like they do in my home country and I prefer to dress like they do in my host country. This type of index has received support for its use as it makes use of the two independent subscales to represent the culture of origin and the host culture dimensions, and in turn, using the scores on the two dimensions, and usually with the median splits method, individuals can be categorised into one of the four acculturation styles (Sang & Ward, 2006; Ward & Kennedy, 1994).

The psychological acculturation theory proposes that when cross cultural interaction takes place, individuals may choose one of the four styles and this style may play an important role in the migrants' resettlement process (Berry, 1987, 2001, 2006). In support of Berry's conceptualisation, a number of study findings suggest that on average migrants prefer the integration style, followed by the assimilation style (Ward et al., 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1994). Moreover, research on the migrants' acculturation outcomes provided consistent evidence that preferences for integration and separation were related to more positive adjustment outcomes while assimilation and marginalisation were associated with negative psychological adjustment (Berry, 2005; Berry & Annis, 1974; Berry, Kim, Minde, & Mok, 1987; Ward, 2006). Furthermore, compared to the other styles, integration has been shown to be a better predictor of positive outcomes, including social adjustment, greater life satisfaction and reduced psychological and sociocultural adaptation problems (Berry, 2007).

Although there is research supporting Berry's ideas, according to Bourhis, Moise, Perreault and Senecal (1997) and Rudmin (2003), a conceptual drawback of Berry's

model is that it fails to take into account the acculturation preferences of both the migrants' and the members of the host society. Bourhis et al., (1997) proposed the concept of acculturation 'fit' based on the belief that acculturation preference may often be different to actual acculturation behaviours due to matters outside the individual migrant's control.

The importance of taking both views into consideration is that the lack of 'fit' or dissonance between how the host society as a whole thinks the migrants should adjust, and how the migrants themselves think they should adjust, can result in conflicting and problematic adjustment issues (Bourhis et al., 1997; Zagefka & Brown, 2002). For example, the acculturation preferences or attitudes of the host society are often reflected through policies governing migrant issues and may differ from the acculturation preferences of the migrants themselves thus driving the process of cultural change. However, as it is the first time the model in Figure 1.1 is being tested for African migrants in New Zealand, the need to focus on the migrants' perspective seems paramount; therefore the assessment of 'fit' is deemed beyond the scope of the present study.

In addition, there are researchers who have argued that a shortcoming of operationally defining psychological acculturation using the four acculturation styles via reducing multiple psychological times down to four categories implies a possible loss of information in the process (Sang and Ward, 2006; Ward, 1999). These researchers have argued that the use of scores on each of the two subscales in the acculturation index may be better predictors of acculturation outcomes than the four

strategies, especially if there is reason to believe that the index is measuring two independent dimensions.

Consequently, the advantage of using the acculturation index is that it allows the researcher to either use the subscale scores independently or combine them to come up with the four styles (Arends-Tóth & van de Vijver, 2006). Support for using the index subscales is evident in recent studies that have assessed acculturation levels based on scores of the two dimensions separately (Battu, Mwale & Zenou, 2003; Mace et al., 2005; Nekby & Rodin, 2007; Ourasse & van de Vijver, 2005; Tharmaseelan, 2005; Vinokurov et al. 2000). There is some inconsistency in the evidence among these researchers of whether both dimensions are important for settlement or whether adapting to the host culture is important regardless of the levels at which one prefers to maintain the culture of origin.

For example, Ourasse and van de Vijver (2005) found that strong adaptation to the host culture is related to better adjustment outcomes regardless of the level of the culture of origin maintenance. The researchers investigated the acculturation outcomes of second generation Moroccans in the Netherlands ($N=155$) in terms of their attitudes towards their culture of origin and the culture of the host society and tested the mediating/moderating relationship between demographic variables (age, length of time in host society, and gender) and acculturation outcomes (work success and school success). The researchers found that adaptation to the host culture was positively related to how well the individual was performing at work and at school but found that the maintenance of the culture of origin was only related to school success.

In their study on the consequences of cultural identification for student immigrants in Sweden, Nekby and Rodin (2007) found that identification with the host culture was essential but not so much for the identification with the culture of origin for positive labour market outcomes. Similarly, Vinokurov et al. (2000) conducted a study on refugees from the former Soviet Union who have migrated to the United States on work outcomes and acculturation. The researchers found that employment was positively related to American acculturation whilst Russian acculturation was not related to work status, as it did not hinder or facilitate access to employment. On the contrary, other researchers have provided evidence that identification with the host culture may be the best predictor of employment and that maintaining the culture of origin is related to unfavourable adjustment consequences. For example, Battu et al. (2003) found that migrants in Great Britain who did not strongly agree with identification with being 'British' were less likely to be employed than those who did.

The above reviewed studies, although they provide important information on the acculturation outcomes of varied migrant samples, their findings may not be readily generalised to all migrant populations and to all contexts beyond the United States, the Netherlands and Britain. Two readily available migrant research findings from New Zealand are by Mace et al. (2005) and Tharmaseelan (2005) who among other variables assessed acculturation outcomes and the consequences of migration motives, which the present research endeavours to expand on.

Mace et al. (2004) conducted a study on psychosocial correlates of finding employment for seventy migrants (migrants and students) in the Auckland area. Specific to her acculturation hypothesis using the two acculturation dimensions, they found that adapting to New Zealand culture was a predictor of finding a job that closely matched one's qualification and was also positively related to employment related well-being. In a similar study, Tharmaseelan (2005) carried out a quantitative study with 221 Sri Lankan migrants to assess their career related outcomes in New Zealand. The researcher found that although adaptation to the New Zealand culture was neither related to job level nor to subjective career success, it was positively associated with overall career satisfaction in New Zealand.

A major drawback in Mace et al. (2005) study is that she generalises her findings to highly skilled migrants, even though close to 50% of her participants were students who may not necessarily fit that criteria. Furthermore, both Mace et al. and Tharmaseelan's participants were based in the Auckland area, and migrants in a metropolitan area might have different experiences compared to migrants in other areas. From Figure 1.1, as the link depicted between psychological acculturation and employment outcome indicates, the present research will extend on these two studies by investigating the acculturation outcomes of African migrants from different areas of New Zealand.

Considering the arguments above, in the present research, acculturation preferences will be assessed using an index with two independent dimensions specifically assessing preference levels of maintaining one's culture of origin and preference of adapting to New Zealand culture. However, in the present research, both operational

definitions of psychological acculturation (dimensions and acculturation style) will be used to assess their application to the study participants.

As the above review suggests and to the researcher's knowledge, there has not been any empirical evidence on acculturation outcomes for African migrant populations in New Zealand. Due to the likely presence of a cultural distance between these migrants and the New Zealand mainstream culture, it seems of considerable importance to explore how these migrants adjust once they are in New Zealand, especially in terms of employment outcomes. Acculturation preferences may be related to important background factors, such as the reasons for migration (Horgan, 2000; Kunz, 1973; Petersen, 1958).

Motivation to Migrate

Given that acculturation is an important factor for certain migration outcomes such as finding employment, it is important to examine the factors that lead or are related to specific acculturation preferences. Some have found for example that the reasons to migrate have a link with acculturation (Horgan, 2000; Knipscheer, De Jong, Kleber & Lampty, 2000; Porter, 2006).

Literature in the migration field proposes two main factors that are generally evident in the reasons that lead migrants to leave their country of origin, namely, pull and push factors (Kunz, 1973, Ward et al., 2001). Kunz (1973) proposed a kinetic model of migration in order to distinguish the causes of migration between refugees and other kind of migrants, namely push-pressure-pull model. Kunz suggested that the motivations for migration are either a result of being pushed out of one's country or

being pulled towards another country but also stressed that the pressure to migrate exerted on either group may differ. Hence, his main focus was on distinguishing between the types of refugees and the kinetics or mobility of their migration.

Kunz (1973) proposed that there are anticipatory and acute refugees. The former are those who before things get out of hand in their country of residence start preparing to flee in order to escape from the forthcoming violence. People in this group are often influential people and have access to superior information and to outside help in one way or another (Kunz, 1973). On the other hand, acute refugees are those who leave almost abruptly without having anticipated the situation and therefore do not have time to prepare. However, Kunz's discussion presents little information on the motivations of those migrants who have some voluntariness in their migration.

Since Kunz's (1973) theorisation, there has been a change in the migrant landscape, in terms of more migrants voluntarily moving from one country of abode to another. In terms of the differences between voluntary immigrants and refugees, Ward et al. (2001) propose that voluntary immigrants are pulled or attracted towards the new country in pursuit of personal, familial, social, financial and political goals and voluntarily choose to resettle in a new country. Refugees are those who have been 'pushed' out of their home country due to threats to their lives, unliveable conditions due to famine, war, violence and conflict (Ward et al. 2001).

Knipscheer et al., (2000) assessed motivations to migrate; in terms of push and pull; and their acculturation consequences. The researchers found that Ghanaian migrants in the Netherlands who were pulled towards the host country were more adapted to

the Netherlands, compared to the migrants who had been pushed out of Ghana for varied reasons. It however, seems rather crude to reduce the possible range of psychological reasons down to just two factors. One may argue that for migration to happen, both factors have to be present. One of the factors however, might present a stronger impact on the final decision under different circumstances. For example, take an individual from Rwanda whose reasons to leave his or her country of origin would be due to ethnic conflict, crimes, political unrest, and therefore the decision to migrate would have been based on reasons of safety, lifestyle, and the opportunity to improve his or her financial status. Although both pull and push factors might have been present, it might have been that if those push factors had not been evident; the factors in the other country would not have presented enough of a pull or attraction for the individual to leave the country of origin. Hence, the presence of the push factor would have acted as a dominant force in their decision to migrate.

A notable example of the presence of both factors is Pernice et al.'s (2000) study, which compared the mental health and employment status of Indian, People's Republic of China and South African migrants. Based on questionnaire and interview data, these researchers found no differences in mental health levels among the three groups, even though the South African participants were more likely to be in employment. They explained this finding on the basis of Kunz's (1973) theory – that what motivates people to migrate, is different and may therefore explain the differences in specific outcomes. Furthermore, they noted that while South Africans reported that they migrated to New Zealand as its culture and lifestyle were attractive, the push force reason of leaving South Africa due to political instability,

violence and crime superseded the pull forces and “do not appear to have as much weight in their decision to migrate as the ‘push’ forces” (p. 27).

Similarly, in his research on international nurse migration, Kline (2003) describes that push or pull forces tend to exist together for migration to occur. He found that for most of the nurses (mostly from Africa), both these factors were evident, however, for those who decided to migrate, the push factor was more evident in the reason to make the move. Consequently, abstracting the motivation to migration into either push or pull may not reflect the underlying diversity of psychological motivations to migrate.

An important study by Horgan (2000) showed that reasons to migrate were related to acculturation styles as the link in Figure 1.1. proposes. Horgan quantitatively examined the differences between demographic migration categories (refugees and international students) in Ireland and their acculturation style preferences. Refugees were more likely to be integrationists, which is a preference to maintain the culture of origin and to adapt to the host culture, while there was a tendency by international students to want to assimilate, which refers to high preference to adapt to the host culture.

Horgan (2000) explained that it may be that the refugees seek to hold on to their culture as much as they can since they did not ‘choose’ to leave their country but at the same time they realise that since their migration is likely to be a permanent move, they would benefit by learning and adapting to the culture of the host country. On the other hand, the international students knowing that their stay in Ireland would be

temporary and that they would go back to their home country, they desired to absorb and learn as much of the Irish culture as they can in that period, hence the reason for choosing assimilation as an acculturation style. Horgan's study provides important knowledge to migration research with regards to the differences in the way migrants negotiate the ongoing intercultural contact in the new society depending on the reasons for migration. Based on Horgan's (2000) finding, it is predicted that for the present sample, there will be a link between demographic migration categories and acculturation.

An important limitation of Horgan's (2000) study also acknowledged by the researcher herself, is that the comparison in her study was between heterogeneous groups, as the refugees were all from Africa, whilst the international students were predominantly from Europe, with only two Somalis and one Argentinean in the international students category. These sub-samples of participants are quite likely to differ in their cultural values in the first instance; therefore comparing their acculturation preferences may have been problematic. One may question whether the findings are not actually a result of the comparison of the acculturation preferences between Africans and European migrants. As proposed, the current study aims to expand on this idea by comparing a large sample of respondents from the same continent who would be more likely to have more or less of a similar culture. However, one must still acknowledge that there are also significant cultural differences amongst African countries.

Another considerable limitation of Horgan's (2000) study though is that it failed to acknowledge that measures of motivation to migrate such as migration status based

on official government categories may not necessarily capture the psychological motives, which led to individuals' decision to migrate. For example, the government migration regulations of defining a refugee, amongst other things, as someone who is temporarily in exile (temporarily living outside his/her country of origin) puts pressure on an individual, who may want to migrate for reasons of political conflict or war but who is still residing in the country of origin, to try and find other avenues of entering into a country, perhaps as a skilled migrant or on a visitor or student visa.

Conversely, Porter (2006) carried out a qualitative investigation on the acculturation preferences of South Africans in New Zealand, and found that those who preferred to assimilate were more likely to have migrated for reasons of escaping from war and crime, whilst those who were integrationists migrated for reasons of wanting to provide an education for their children and employment opportunities and to some extent were escaping from crimes. There does not seem to be a clear distinction about what motivates groups, as some of the reasons overlap in the acculturation preferences. Clearly, more research is needed to clarify the relationship between motives and acculturation preferences with other migrant populations. In addition, the contradiction with Horgan's study may be due to inadequacy in measuring a factor which is implicitly motivational i.e. reasons to migrate, using government categories. From Figure 1.3, the present study seeks to make the motivational reasons to migrate explicit by assessing them objectively with a reliable psychological measure.

A number of studies have investigated migration motives in terms of a variety of psychological reasons (Carr, Inkson & Thorn, 2004; Jackson; Carr, Edwards, Thorn,

Allfree, Hooks, et al., 2005; Tharmaseelan, 2005). Carr et al., (2004) factor analysed the reasons that contributed to business expatriates' decisions to stay abroad or to come back to New Zealand and identified political, family, economic, culture, lifestyle and career advancement as the main factors. Similarly in her study on Sri Lankan migrants in New Zealand, Tharmaseelan (2005) found similar reasons for migrating to those of Carr et al., (2004). The author had hypothesised that the reasons identified would predict important migration outcomes such as labour market outcomes, although this hypothesis was not supported.

Although most of the work has been on business expatriates and on skilled migrants and can not be generalised to other groups, there seems to be a dearth of research on migrants' motives to migrate, therefore this evidence can be useful in providing empirical evidence on common sets of psychological motivations that attract or repulse individuals towards moving to a new country. A number of studies in this field have gone beyond identified the reasons people move, but have also investigated the impact motivations to migrate have on important migration outcomes such as acculturation and labour market outcomes (Biffel, 2002; Cobb-Clark, 2000; Horgan, 2000; Knipscheer, De Jong, Kleber & Lamptey, 2000; Tharmaseelan, 2005).

In terms of economic success, Biffel (2002) explored the reasons to migrate and income status for a group of Yugoslav and Turkish immigrants in a small Austrian town and found that motivation to migrate had a considerable effect on employment wages of the individuals. He found that those who came for success, for example,

for financial betterment, were likely to receive higher wages than individuals who came for political or family reasons. Similarly, Cobb-Clark (2000), in her study reviewed data from the Longitudinal Survey of immigrants in Australia to determine whether 'migration visa' was a predictor of labour market status for migrants in Australia, found that those migrants who came as refugees were more likely to have difficulties in finding employment than non-refugees. Interestingly, Cobb-Clark (2000) found that after 6 months of arriving in Australia, labour force participation was related to visa category, but only for women. This finding may possibly be due to other factors such as gender stereotypes, reportedly linked to employer bias.

There seems to be a gap in the migration motivation area, as an evaluation of the relevant literature suggests that most of the work done on this concept has generally been theoretical rather than empirically based. The focus seems to have been that of describing the different motives to migrate and actual research evidence seems to be lacking in this area.

As the literature review in the migration area suggests, the reasons to migrate tend to impact on how a migrant settles in a new environment which is often culturally different to the migrant's own culture. When people move from their culture of origin into another culture for economic, family, political, or lifestyle reasons, changes to their cultural behaviours might be expected to occur (Winter, 2000). To the researcher's knowledge, no study has investigated the psychological motives to migrate of African migrants choose to come to New Zealand and how that is related to their acculturation preferences and how that in turn is related to employment

outcomes. Figure 1.1 proposes that these factors will be linked, and the purpose of this study is to test these links for African migrants in New Zealand.

Other Variables of Interest

Although the main focus of the study is to investigate the links amongst migration motivation, acculturation and employment outcome, as illustrated in Figure 1.1, it is important that the explanatory power of other well known predictors be taken into account namely: Duration of time in New Zealand, job search behaviours, and Qualification.

Conceptually, the length of time a migrant has been in a host country is an important predictor of both acculturation and employment outcome. One can rationalise that the longer individuals has been exposed to a culture and as they become familiar with the ways of the host culture, the more they are likely to learn alternative ways of behaving in the host society. For example, Tharmaseelan (2005) provides empirical evidence on this notion as she found a positive relationship between the length of time in New Zealand and employment outcome for a sample of Sri Lankan migrants.

In addition, job search behaviours have consistently been shown to be salient predictors of finding employment for migrant populations (Mace et al., 2005; Schmit, Amel & Ryan, 1993; Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001). Schmit et al., (1993) and Mace et al. (2005) distinguish between two types of job search behaviours, pre-interview and interview behaviours; and argue that they each have a role to play in finding a job.

Pre-interview behaviours are specifically related to finding employment such as finding out about job openings, making relevant contacts, and sending job applications in order to get a job interview. Interview behaviours require one to present relevant knowledge, skills, abilities and personal characteristics in a competent manner to a potential employer (Schmit et al., 1993).

There is a common trend in the job search literature that the more avenues a job seeker uses to find a job, the more likely he or she is to find employment (Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001; Mace et al. 2005; Wanberg, Kanfer & Rotundo, 1999). Additionally, the chances of finding a job are increased if the job seeker uses a combination of preparatory and active behaviours (Blau, 1994; Kanfer et al., 2001, Mace et al., 2005). Thus, usage of a variety of preparatory and active job seeking strategies will be assessed in the present study.

A meta-analytic study by Kanfer et al., (2001) provided evidence that job search behaviours significantly and positively predicted employment outcomes for a range of populations including migrants. Mau and Kopischke (2001) looked at job search methods and job search outcomes of 9000 college graduates in the United States and found that job seekers who had used more job search methods were more likely to get a job interview than their counterparts. In her study of skilled migrants in New Zealand, Mace et al. (2005) found that the number of job search behaviours used was a strong predictor of finding a job that matched one's qualifications. Though, Mace et al. study cannot be readily generalised to the present sample as her respondents were predominantly of Asian backgrounds. Blau (1994) also found a positive relationship between job search behaviours and re-employment. However, this may

not necessarily generalise across all job seeker populations as the research was on college students and people who had just lost their jobs.

For those whose pre-interview behaviours get them a job interview, the importance of displaying the appropriate behaviours at the interview is even more paramount for their job success (Schmit et al., 1993). Appropriate behaviours are likely to be culture bound so it is important to assess whether African migrants are using behaviours that are positively regarded by a New Zealand employer.

Certain behaviours exhibited in job interviews have been found to be positively related to subsequent job attainment (Anderson, 1992). It is possible that these behaviours are culturally bound whereby what an African migrant might usually do in a job interview for example, arriving a little bit late, might be culturally inappropriate in a New Zealand interview setting. Different cultures place varying or differing degrees of importance on the same behaviours, however for a positive relationship to occur as found in the job interview literature, the interviewee should practice behaviours that are culturally favourable in New Zealand.

The validity for the job interview to predict job performance and the assessment of different interview formats have been the focus of much research (Anderson, 1992; Price, 1992). Other researchers have looked at how prejudices and stereotypes lead to unfair discrimination among participants. For example, physical attributes such as gender and ethnicity that are outside an individual's control have been linked to determine one's chances of getting a job or not getting a job. More importantly, there are behaviours that an individual may have control over, such as making eye

contact, having a firm handshake, dressing appropriately, arriving on time and asking appropriate questions (Anderson & Schackleton, 1990; Gatewood & Field, 1998).

From a factor analysis, Mace et al. (2005) found that interview behaviours were represented by two components i.e. 'relationship focused' and 'here is what I can do for you'. Mace et al. (2005) found that 'here is what I can do for you' behaviours were the strongest predictors of finding a job that matched one's qualifications in comparison to pre-interview behaviours, cognitive flexibility, and acculturation. In the present study, the behaviours that an individual may have control over will be assessed in terms of how often the job seeker normally behaves in a certain way (Figure 1.3).

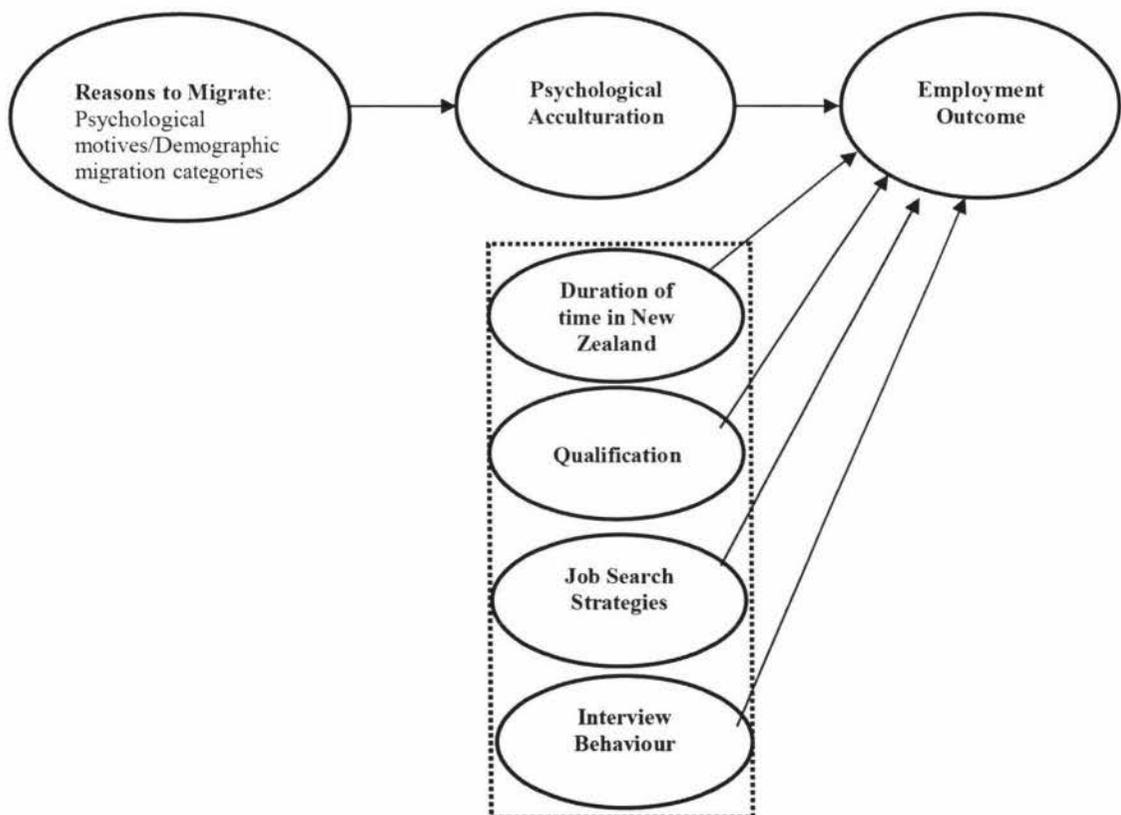


Figure 1.3. Model to be tested with predicted relationships including the principal predictors of finding employment.

Hypotheses

H₁: Voluntary related government migration categories (for example: economic, visitor and student) will be related to higher preference to adapt to New Zealand culture than less voluntary migration categories (for example, refugee and asylum seeker), which will be related to higher preference of maintaining the culture of origin, even when time in New Zealand is controlled for.

H₂: The psychological motives that are more voluntary will be related to higher preference to adapt to New Zealand culture, while those motives that are less voluntary will be related to higher preference to maintain one's own culture.

H₃: Acculturation preferences will mediate the relationship between psychological motives and employment outcome. The migrants whose psychological motives to migrate are more voluntary will have better employment outcome but only if those migrants prefer to adapt to New Zealand culture.

H₄: Preference to adapt to New Zealand culture will be positively related to employment outcome, even when job search strategies, interview behaviours, qualifications and duration of time in New Zealand are controlled for.

H₅: Preference to maintain own culture will be negatively related to employment outcome, even when job search strategies, interview behaviours, qualifications and duration of time in New Zealand are controlled for.

Chapter 2: Method

Participants

The population of interest was African migrants who permanently live in New Zealand and are eligible to work in New Zealand. A hundred and six questionnaires were returned out of a total of 330 yielding a response rate of 32.12%, of which 105 were usable. There was a fairly equal distribution amongst the respondents in terms of gender, with 46.70 % females and 52.90 % males and a wide range of ages from 18 to 59, ($M=34.75$, $SD= 10.59$). Four people did not specify their age or gender. The mode of duration of time in New Zealand was 6 years, shortest time was half a year and nineteen years was the longest any one migrant had been in New Zealand ($M=6.94$, $SD=3.37$). Forty-five percent of the migrants had at least a university degree, indicating a skilled sample. Reading English was also assessed to determine eligibility of participation in the study. Of 105 respondents, 82.7 % indicated that their reading English was excellent, while the rest said it was good. Based on these responses, all participants were assumed to have adequate reading English to complete the questionnaire.

The respondents originated from a diversity of twelve countries from many regions of the African continent. These countries were Zimbabwe ($n=36$), South Africa ($n=14$), Rwanda ($n=11$), Burundi ($n=10$), Kenya ($n=6$), Ghana ($n=4$), Zambia ($n=3$), Uganda ($n=3$), Somalia ($n=2$), Congo ($n=1$), Egypt ($n=1$) and Ethiopia ($n=1$). Three people did not answer the question.

Materials

A questionnaire for African Migrants in New Zealand is presented in full in Appendix A. Appropriate measures were identified from the relevant literature, and using a standard procedure, they were adapted to better suit the research purpose and population. Modification of the measures followed a standard procedure that required minor adjustments of items to make them as understandable and clear as possible. A five-point response scale was chosen to minimise response burden with the exception of employment outcome measure which had a three point scale (Dillman, 1978).

Employment Outcome measure

The present research's main focus was on the employment outcome of African migrants in New Zealand. Items 4 to 13 of the questionnaire (Appendix A) were used to get a general descriptive on the employment experiences of the respondents including items on employment contract, previous employment experiences and time spent looking for employment. Items 8 and 9 were specifically used to assess the employment outcome variable. These two items were used as they have been applied on migrant samples in New Zealand previously by Mace (2004, item 8) and item 9 was adapted from Tharmaseelan (2005). The items were:

Item 8: Does your job use your qualifications and training?

YES¹ SOMEWHAT² NO³

Item 9, which assessed the degree to which the participants' current employment was in line with their qualifications and training, had three response options:

a) In line with my qualifications and training¹

b) Below my qualifications and training²

c) Really below my qualifications and training³

The scores on both items summed to provide a score on a composite variable called Employment Outcome. The scores ranged from 0 to 6, with 0 representing the unemployed and higher scores indicating a better employment outcome (for details of the measure see Appendix A).

Psychological Acculturation Index

Acculturation was operationally measured in two ways. One was as a taxonomy i.e using two scores from the New Zealand culture and the Home culture subscales and the other form was as a typology which meant that individuals could be categorised in Berry's (1980) four acculturation styles. A two-statement measurement method representing two separate subscales, one representing attitudes towards the majority host culture and the other representing attitudes towards culture of origin was found to be superior than other methods indicating the use of an Index (Arends-Tóth & van de Vijver, 2006).

A readily available instrument that closely met the requirements was Mace's (2004) Acculturation Index, with which she used to measure the acculturation preferences of migrants in New Zealand. A number of items were reworded to accommodate language abilities of English speakers as a second language and the last 3 questions relating to how the migrants prefer to behave when searching for jobs in New Zealand were additional to the Mace's measure (Appendix A). A 30-item index resulted, with 15 items on the culture of origin subscale and 15 items on the New Zealand culture subscale. Respondents were asked to indicate how much of the time they prefer to keep practices from their own home culture and/or to adapt to practices

from the New Zealand culture in terms of the behaviours listed, from a choice of 1 (Never/Not relevant) to 5 (Always). Higher subscale scores on this index represented higher levels of identification with the culture represented in the subscale i.e. home culture or New Zealand culture. In addition, median splits were employed to categorise the migrants in corresponding acculturation styles.

Psychological Motivation to Migrate measure

The motivation to migrate variable was assessed using a measure adopted from Tharmaseelan (2005). She developed this measure based on literature review and informal discussions with subject matter experts, to assess the migration reasons of Sri Lankan migrants in New Zealand. Tharmaseelan performed a confirmatory factor analysis and found five factors: financial betterment, family building, escaping, exploration and career building. The instrument was reliable with all her components having Alpha levels above 0.75. The measure comprised 24 items assessing possible reasons that might motivate a person to migrate from one place to another (see Appendix A). For the present sample, the words 'my family' were added to all items to allow the younger generations, who might have come because their parents decided to come, to answer the questions as well, as they may have been less likely to have personally made the decision to migrate to New Zealand. The participants were asked to indicate how much each of the items influenced their reasons to migrate to New Zealand on a scale of 1 (Not at all/Not relevant) to 5 (Very much).

Job Search Strategies Inventory

The job search behaviour concept was measured with a 26-item Job Search Strategies Inventory adapted from Mace (2004). Mace (2004) developed this

inventory based on a literature review and derived a list of common strategies of searching for jobs in a New Zealand context. Mace (2004) used the inventory in a study of newcomers to New Zealand to “assess the utilisation of different behaviours that could be used to try and find a job” (p.41). The inventory items were altered to better suit the population under investigation (African migrants including voluntary and non voluntary). This included adding behaviours such as: talked to a refugee volunteer/sponsor, talked to immigration consultant, found out information about starting own business in New Zealand. Furthermore, some items that had been combined in Mace’s (2004) study were separated in the present study i.e. answered advertisements in the newspaper and answered advertisements in professional journals to allow the researcher to know whether the respondent used one or both strategies. Participants were instructed to place a tick next to the strategy that they had used during their search for employment (Appendix A). The scoring of the job search behaviour composite variable required adding the number of strategies ticked by the respondents with higher scores indicating a larger number of strategies being used.

Job Interview Behaviour measure

Interview behaviours were measured on a 19-item measure that was at the most part based on Mace’s Interview Behaviour Scale (2004), which she developed based on literature review on job interviews. Respondents were asked to circle a number from 1 to 5 that represented how often they would usually do the listed behaviours in an interview in New Zealand. A response of 1 represented never and 5 represented always. Higher scale scores on this measure represented a higher frequency of ‘favourable’ job interview behaviour (for details see Appendix A).

Demographics

In addition to the variables described above, the respondent's gender, age, country of origin, highest qualification, language, demographic migration category of entry to New Zealand and length of time in New Zealand were assessed (see Appendix A for items).

The questionnaire package included:

- An information sheet outlining details and procedures of the study, which also served as an invitation to participate.
- A 7-page questionnaire.
- Two envelopes – one freepost (addressed to the researcher) envelope in which to return the completed questionnaire. The second smaller envelope was supplied so that those participants who wished to receive a summary of the group results could supply their contact details on the tear off section of the information sheet in order to keep the questionnaire responses separate from the personal details. The smaller envelope was to be sealed and sent inside the larger envelope.

Procedure

Pilot study

A pilot study with 4 African migrants and 3 non-African migrants was run to assess the face validity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire. There were 4 males

and 3 females in this study with ages ranging from 24 to 70. In terms of qualifications, 1 person did not have any formal qualification, 1 had a trade qualification and the rest had university degrees or higher. English was a first language for only 1 person in the sample, and 2 of the participants reported their English reading level as 'good'. All participants had been in New Zealand for a minimum of 12 months. The pilot participants were given instructions to complete the questionnaire as if they were participants in the actual study and specific feedback (written or oral) was requested on the following:

- Language and clarity
- How understandable and clear the instructions were
- Time taken to complete the full questionnaire including reading the information sheet
- Layout, particularly in terms of the demographic questions positioned at the beginning of the questionnaire versus towards the end of the questionnaire.

Each section was reviewed and revised in light of the feedback from the pilot study. Some of the changes that were made included, having the demographic section towards the end, so that all information asked at the start was directly pertinent to the study purpose as detailed in the information sheet (Appendix A), and suggestions of rewording items to make them clearer were also given and the questionnaire was refined accordingly. After the revision of the questionnaire, the distribution of the questionnaires began.

The questionnaires were distributed using a snowballing sampling technique. A snowballing technique involves using the identified personal contacts (with their

consent) to identify and recruit more participants from their own networks (Langdridge, 2004; Porter, 2006).

The first stage involved identifying potential participants from the researcher's personal contacts and networks of people who fit the selection criteria and then giving them questionnaire packages either personally or by post. With verbal consent, willing participants supplied contact details of potential participants from their own network or were given extra questionnaire packages to distribute to their contacts.

Secondly, the researcher personally approached settlement services agencies and societies including the Manawatu African Society, the Auckland Refugee and Migrant Service and the Refugee and Migrant Service in Wellington. These communities or agencies were identified through personal networks, the yellow pages and Internet searches. Representatives of these societies were asked for their assistance to locate participants and to make the questionnaires available to their members as they saw fit. In total 45 questionnaire packages were distributed via these avenues.

In case the above step did not render enough participants needed for statistical power, a further thirty five participants were further identified and recruited through community-organised events throughout the year; these included for example, the annual soccer tournament, concerts, and other social functions that brought a number of Africans together. In addition, individuals were approached in the street in Palmerston North, where the researcher is based, and with verbal consent to give the

researcher a few minutes of their time, were asked if they are (1) African and (2) permanently or intending to permanently live in New Zealand. Then the researcher briefly explained the study and if they wished, gave them the questionnaire packages to take home. Three people were recruited this way, and extra questionnaires were handed out to them for their own networks if they verbally consented.

The data collection process took place from the end of July to mid October. Once questionnaires were returned by post, the data was entered and analysed with the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer programme in order to answer the research questions. After completion of the thesis, summaries of the findings were posted or emailed to those participants who requested them and in addition summaries were sent to those communities and ethnic centres that had assisted in the research.

Ethical Consideration

The proposed research and the questionnaire were subjected to a review by the Human Ethics Committee at Massey University and once approval was granted the process of data collection began. Upon this approval on 2nd of July 2007 (MUHECN 07/039) and prior to data collection, a pilot study was conducted. To adhere to ethical considerations, it was clearly explained to potential participants in the information sheet and letter of invitation that completing the questionnaire will indicate consent to participate in the research (Appendix A). Furthermore, the participants' rights were outlined in the information sheet and to maintain confidentiality of the individual responses, no names or contact details were required

on the questionnaires. Participants were advised that their information will be securely held at Massey University for a maximum of 5 years and then will be destroyed.

Chapter 3: Results

Respondent data were checked and screened for accuracy; coding, distribution, and compatibility with sampling requirements (see Appendix A). Data reduction was performed using exploratory factor analysis. Reliability of measures was analysed using Cronbach's Alpha. Bivariate correlations were used to explore potential relationships between variables. Prior to the main inferential analyses, appropriate assumption testing was conducted. The main analyses consisted of a combination of Analysis of Variance, Multiple Linear Regression techniques, Chi-square tests and Discriminant Function Analyses.

3.1 Preliminary analyses

Data screening

Questionnaires were checked to determine if the respondents all met the criteria for inclusion in the study. The criteria required the participants to be of African origin, to be permanently residing in New Zealand or wishing to be and having been in New Zealand for at least 6 months, to be above 18 years old and working, looking for permanent work or to have previously worked in New Zealand (Appendix A). Questionnaire responses were screened for missing values or response errors. As a threshold decided by the researcher, questionnaires with less than 25% completed responses were excluded from any further analyses. Also, while screening the questionnaire responses, it was identified that item 15 on the Acculturation Index had been wrongly worded (Appendix A); therefore this item was removed from any further analyses.

The remaining questionnaire responses were processed using the Statistics Package for Social Sciences software (SPSS version 14). To accommodate missing values, in most cases variables were excluded pairwise. Pallant (2007) argues that in the case of a relatively small sample size and in the interest of statistical power; pairwise deletion is the appropriate missing value analysis, as it retains the most number of participants as possible.

3.2. Data Reduction and Psychometric Properties

Demographic Migration Category

Respondents came to New Zealand under the category: Skilled Migrant ($n=42$), Visitor ($n=16$), Students ($n=6$), Family Reunification ($n=11$), Family Quota ($n=11$), Refugee ($n=11$), Asylum Seeker ($n=2$) and Business ($n=1$). The visitor and student categories were included on the questionnaire as options, as some migrants who now live or intend to live in New Zealand permanently, might have first entered New Zealand under one of the two visa categories.

From Figure 3.2, the skilled migrants and business categories were combined to form the Economic group ($n=43$), those who came as refugees, asylum seekers and under the family quota were grouped into the Humanitarian category ($n=24$) and lastly, the student and visitor groups were combined in a group named 'Other' represented by 22 participants. For practicality, the family reunification category was labelled 'Family' ($n=11$). The answers were coded on a nominal scale

Employment Outcome

As was observed from the participants section, many of the respondents were highly skilled. Had most of the participants found employment? Ninety three participants were employed. Twelve respondents were unemployed, and of these, three reported that they were not looking for a job but had previously worked in New Zealand. Based on the second item of the measure (i.e. describe current employment in relation to qualifications and training), 62 respondents said their employment was in line with their qualifications and training; 21 of the employed said that their jobs were below their qualifications and training and 8 said their jobs were really below their qualifications and training, hence they were underemployed and very underemployed, respectively.

The two items used to assess Employment Outcome had a Pearson's correlation coefficient of $r = .68$ (2-tailed, $p < .0001$). Employment Outcome was determined by a summation of the two items, with the answers on a scale ranging from 0 for the unemployed to 6 indicating full employment i.e. a job that was in line with qualifications and training. Most of the employed participants ($n=62/93$) had scores in the upper range of the scale, ($M=5.16$, $SD=1.19$).

Overall, therefore, most of the migrants were employed in a job that was commensurate with their qualifications and training. The outcome may also be attributable to the fact that many of the migrants reported to have been here for at least 6 years. Presumably as time residing in New Zealand increases, the more familiar the migrants become with the New Zealand culture (for example, in terms of looking for employment in the New Zealand context), essentially resulting in finding

appropriate employment. The possibility will be explored with bivariate correlation analysis.

Factor Analysis

Exploratory factor analysis was chosen over confirmatory factor analysis because there was no previous research that had factor analysed the variables in question for the present novel sample. Exploratory factor analysis is a method of data reduction and summarisation, which allows the data to be described using a smaller set of components than the original variables (Hair, Anderson, Tatham & Black, 1998). Principal Component Analysis was chosen as the appropriate technique to provide the clearest solution with interpretable dimensions, which explained the optimal amount of variance (Pallant, 2007). As required for a factor analysis, all the measures had sample sizes greater than one hundred and the measure of sampling adequacy, Kaiser-Meyer-Okin (KMO) were greater than .6 and the Bartlett's test of sphericity were large and significant (Pallant, 2007). To obtain a simple structure, the measures were subjected to a Varimax, orthogonal rotation.

When deciding whether a factor analysis is appropriate, a standard procedure was used to decide on a final factor solution. All items were included in the analysis without forcing a number of components to extract, with the exception of the Acculturation Index. (Acculturation theory suggests the presence of two components; therefore, a two-forced factor solution was used for this particular Index). The communalities, the scree plot, total variance explained and component reliabilities were examined in order to determine the appropriateness of the

components that were extracted by default. Items with communalities less than .3 were noted.

Based on the scree plot, the researcher looked at how many components were above the 'elbow like bend' (Cattell, 1966) and in terms of the total variance explained, those factors that did not largely add any more explanation to the variance were noted (Hair et al., 1998). Each extracted component was subjected to reliability analysis in order to examine Cronbach's Alphas, to verify whether the deletion of some items would increase the internal reliability and also to examine whether their item-corrected total score was not less than .3. At this stage, the researcher also looked at items that may have emerged on wrong components. Items were then removed accordingly, and factor analysis was rerun and provisional checks repeated iteratively, until a clear and simple structure was evident, with high and low loadings on each component (Hair et al., 1998). Finally, internal reliability analyses were run for each resulting component using Cronbach's Alpha. For each individual participant, and for each internally reliable factor identified, a composite score was computed. The score was computed by averaging the individual scores on each factor. Averaging was chosen to keep all factor measures on the same, comparable measurement scale. A high score consistently denoted higher levels on the composite variables on consistent and relatively comparable scale ranges.

Psychological Acculturation Index

The measure of sampling adequacy revealed a KMO value of .72 and a large and significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (870, $df=253$, $p<.0001$), supporting the appropriateness of performing an exploratory factor analysis based on Principal

components that were extracted by default. Items with communalities less than .3 were noted.

Based on the scree plot, the researcher looked at how many components were above the 'elbow like bend' (Cattell, 1966) and in terms of the total variance explained, those factors that did not largely add any more explanation to the variance were noted (Hair et al., 1998). Each extracted component was subjected to reliability analysis in order to examine Cronbach's Alphas, to verify whether the deletion of some items would increase the internal reliability and also to examine whether their item-corrected total score was not less than .3. At this stage, the researcher also looked at items that may have emerged on wrong components. Items were then removed accordingly, and factor analysis was rerun and provisional checks repeated iteratively, until a clear and simple structure was evident, with high and low loadings on each component (Hair et al., 1998). Finally, internal reliability analyses were run for each resulting component using Cronbach's Alpha. For each individual participant, and for each internally reliable factor identified, a composite score was computed. The score was computed by averaging the individual scores on each factor. Averaging was chosen to keep all factor measures on the same, comparable measurement scale. A high score consistently denoted higher levels on the composite variables on consistent and relatively comparable scale ranges.

Psychological Acculturation Index

The measure of sampling adequacy revealed a KMO value of .72 and a large and significant Bartlett's test of sphericity (870, $df=253$, $p<.0001$), supporting the appropriateness of performing an exploratory factor analysis based on Principal

Component Analysis. To explore the possible presence of two components, one relating to maintenance of home culture and the other to adapting to host culture (Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999), a two-component extraction was extracted. From Table 3.1, the Principal Component Analysis solution of the Acculturation Index provided support for a two-component solution from which the proposed two components were evident.

From Table 3.1, the rotated solution revealed a number of high loadings and most items loaded highly on only one component. There were four exceptions (items 5, 6, 7, and 8) that loaded onto both components, with the first three loading negatively on the maintaining culture of origin component, so they were not included in subsequent analyses (Appendix B). Eleven home culture items highly loaded on maintain the culture of origin component and twelve NZ culture items loaded highly on adapt to New Zealand culture component. The Cronbach's Alphas were moderate at .79 for adapting to New Zealand culture and acceptable at .68 for the maintaining culture of origin components. Total scores were thereafter computed by averaging the component scores for each individual, such that a higher score indicated a higher preference of practicing the behaviour in question.

Table 3.1
Psychological Acculturation Index Rotated Component Matrix^a

Items	Adapt to New Zealand culture	Maintain culture of origin
Job opportunities (NZ)	.74	
Look for jobs (NZ)	.73	
Friends (NZ)	.72	
Recreational activities (NZ)	.71	
Job interviews (NZ)	.70	
Food (NZ)	.52	
Language at home (NZ)	.49	
Cultural events/activities (NZ)	.48	-.33
Identity (NZ)	.48	-.46
Clothing (NZ)	.47	
Religious beliefs (NZ)	.43	
Values (NZ)	.39	-.36
Identity (Home)		.68
Values (Home)		.65
Food (Home)		.64
Recreational activities (Home)		.63
Friends (Home)	.31	.61
Cultural events/activities (Home)		.58
Language used at home (Home)		.58
Language outside of home (Home)		.54
Job opportunities (Home)		.57
Clothing (Home)		.53
Beliefs (Home)		.46
Eigenvalues	4.99	4.07
Total variance (%)		39.41
Variance (%)	20.02	19.34

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. a. 2 Components extracted. Eigenvalues over 1 were extracted. Loadings < .3 were suppressed.

Two types of acculturation variables were retained in the present study, namely (a) composite scores on the acculturation components (New Zealand and culture of origin) and (b) acculturation styles. To code the acculturation style which individual respondents belonged to, a median split was used (Arends-Tóth & van de Vijver, 2006). From Figure 3.1, individual average scores on both acculturation components were almost evenly distributed indicating a close to normal distribution. A normal distribution is a requirement for the use of the median split method. Respondents

were categorised in an acculturation style depending on where their scores were in relation to the median on each component. Scores above the median on both components were categorised as Integrated, if the scores were above the median on the New Zealand culture component and below on the Home component, they were put in the Assimilated category; and Separated if the scores were above on the Home and below on the New Zealand culture component and finally, individual scores below the median on both components were categorised as Marginalised.

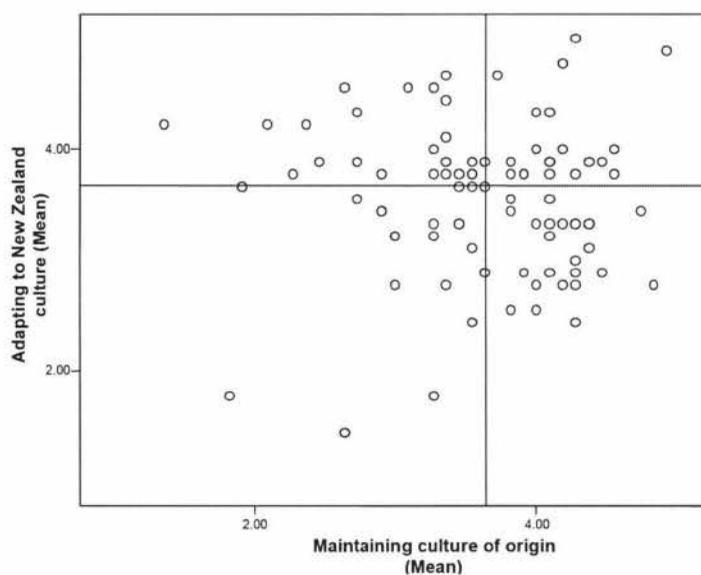


Figure 3.1. Scatter plot of average scores on the Acculturation components

Psychological Motives to Migrate measure

The 24-item measure had a Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value of .80 and Bartlett's test of sphericity (869.68, $df=105$, $p < .0001$). Seven items were removed based on details from the scree plot, communalities and reliability analyses (Appendix C). From Table 3.2, the final solution was a four-component solution, reasonably similar to

Tharmaseelan's (2005) finding. The solution provided in Table 3.2 has two items (quality of life & salary) that cross-loaded, however, as the loadings were both high and low on each component, it was decided to keep them, as a simple and interpretable structure was still evident. The first component in the final solution was labelled 'exploration' with 5 items highly loading on it, the second component was labelled 'family building' and was represented by 5 highly loading items, the third factor 'escaping' had 3 highly loading items and lastly, the fourth component named 'financial betterment' had 4 items. The Cronbach's Alphas for the components ranged from .80 to .91.

Table 3.2

Psychological Motives to Migrate measure Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Exploration	Family building	Escaping	Financial betterment
Seeing new things	.89			
Visiting places	.86			
Seeing the world	.85			
Visiting different countries	.84			
To live in different environment	.721			
To improve the children's life		.86		
For the children's education		.85		
Felt could learn something in NZ		.74		
Quality of life		.67		.33
Political situation			.84	
Victim of war			.83	
Ethnic conflict			.80	
Money				.85
Salary	.31			.77
Financial				.77
Variance (%)	24.95	18.12	15.34	14.96
Total variance (%)				73.40
Eigenvalues	5.40	2.70	1.67	1.23
Alphas	.91	.84	.82	.80

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 5 iterations. Eigenvalues over 1 were extracted. Loadings < .3 were suppressed.

Job Interview Behaviour measure

Responses to items 2, 7, 10, 12 & 17 were recoded so that higher scores on that behaviour indicated favourable interview behaviours in New Zealand (see Appendix A for the items). These items reflected 'negative interview behaviour', for example, item 17 was 'arrive a little bit late' and a '5' referred to 'always' arrive a little bit late for an interview, however, after reversing the scores, a 5 reflected 'never' arrive a little bit late for an interview, hence reflecting a favourable interview behaviour. The Job Interview Behaviour measure had a KMO value of .74 with a large and significant Bartlett's test (132, $df=15$ $p<.0001$). The initial run revealed an uninterpretable 7-component solution, which was then subjected to the item removal procedure as described previously. All the reversed items (2, 7, 10, 12 & 17) were removed as suggested by their low communalities (Appendix D), their negative loadings and their Alpha if item deleted and corrected item correlations statistics. The resulting solution was subjected to a Varimax rotation revealing a two component solution, namely the '*Confidence*' component, which had 'make eye contact', 'show confidence', 'focus on what I can do for the company' and 'arrive early or on time'; and the second factor had four items: 'focus on what I can do for the company', 'learn about the company', 'ask questions about the company' and 'arrive early or on time' loaded on a component thereafter labelled '*Professionalism*' (Table 3.3).

The resultant components are broadly different to those found by Mace (2004) perhaps because of the sample differences. An average of the item scores was

computed for each subscale with higher scores indicating higher frequency of displaying favourable interview behaviour (After Mace, 2004).

Table 3.3
Job Interview Behaviour measure Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Confidence	Professionalism
Make eye contact with interviewer	.84	
Show confidence	.82	
Focus on what I can do for company	.52	.42
Learn about the company		.83
Ask questions about the company/ job		.77
Arrive early or on time	.54	.59
Eigenvalues	2.62	1.18
Variance (%)	32.48	30.79
Total variance (%)		63.27
Alpha	.78	.81

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 3 iterations. Eigenvalues over 1 were extracted. Loadings < .3 were suppressed.

Potential Linkages Between Composite Variables in the Thesis Model

Bivariate Pearson correlations were run between the key predictors in Figure 3.2 and with the dependent variables: Psychological Acculturation and Employment Outcome. As proposed by Tabachnick and Fidell (2006), in order to maximise power and obtain the most sensible model possible, those variables that significantly correlated with the acculturation and employment outcome variables were controlled for in any subsequent analyses. As the bivariate correlations comprised multiple tests of associations, a Bonferroni correction was applied. The relationships that remained significant post the adjustment were those that were significant at the $p < .0045$ level ($.05/11$). Correlation coefficients are presented in Table 3.4.

From Table 3.4, duration time in New Zealand was negatively correlated with maintaining the culture of origin and positively correlated with adapting to New Zealand culture. The relationships denote that the longer one has been in New

Zealand, the less preference one has in maintaining the culture of origin and the more one wants to assimilate with New Zealand culture. In addition to correlation with Acculturation, duration of time in New Zealand was also marginally correlated with employment outcome ($r = .17, p = .08$). As was previously argued (p. 27), the emerged pattern implicates duration of time in New Zealand possibly as an important factor for the acculturation and finding employment of the present sample.

With regards to Psychological Motives to Migrate, escaping was negatively correlated with the other three components (Financial betterment, Family building and Exploration) indicating that migrants with high scores on the escaping component were likely to have migrated for the sole purpose of escaping with other factors playing a minimal part in the migration decision. An almost significant correlation shows that those motivated by exploration reasons may have been likely to want to adapt to New Zealand culture ($r = .19, p = .06$). It is surprising to note that contrary to predictions, neither qualification nor length of time in New Zealand was significantly correlated with employment outcome, suggesting other factors might have a role to play in the finding of jobs for the migrants.

Table 3.4
Means, Standard Deviations and Bivariate Correlation Coefficients of Key Variables (N=92-105)

	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.
1. Employment Outcome	1										
2. Maintain culture of origin		1									
3. Adapt to New Zealand culture			1								
4. Exploration			.193 ^a	1							
5. Family Building				.255**	1						
6. Escaping				-.368**	-.242*	1					
7. Financial betterment		.219*		.271**	.508**	-.265**	1				
8. Confidence in Interview								1			
9. Professionalism in Interview					.221*			.390**	1		
10. Number of job search strategies						.248*				1	
11. Highest level of qualification									.207*		1
12. Duration of time in NZ (years)	.171 ^b	-.317**	.280**		-.272**		-.360**				.252*
Mean	5.16	3.61	3.53	2.31	3.53	2.45	2.48	4.51	4.42	4.37	6.94
SD	1.99	.73	.69	1.24	1.26	1.44	1.29	.49	.64	1.63	3.37

* Correlation is significant at the .05 level (2-tailed). **Correlation is significant at the .01 level (2-tailed).

^ap=.06. ^bp=.08

3.3 Main Analysis

To reiterate, Figure 3.2 illustrates the model with the components from the factor analysis solutions and the relationships to be tested in the present study.

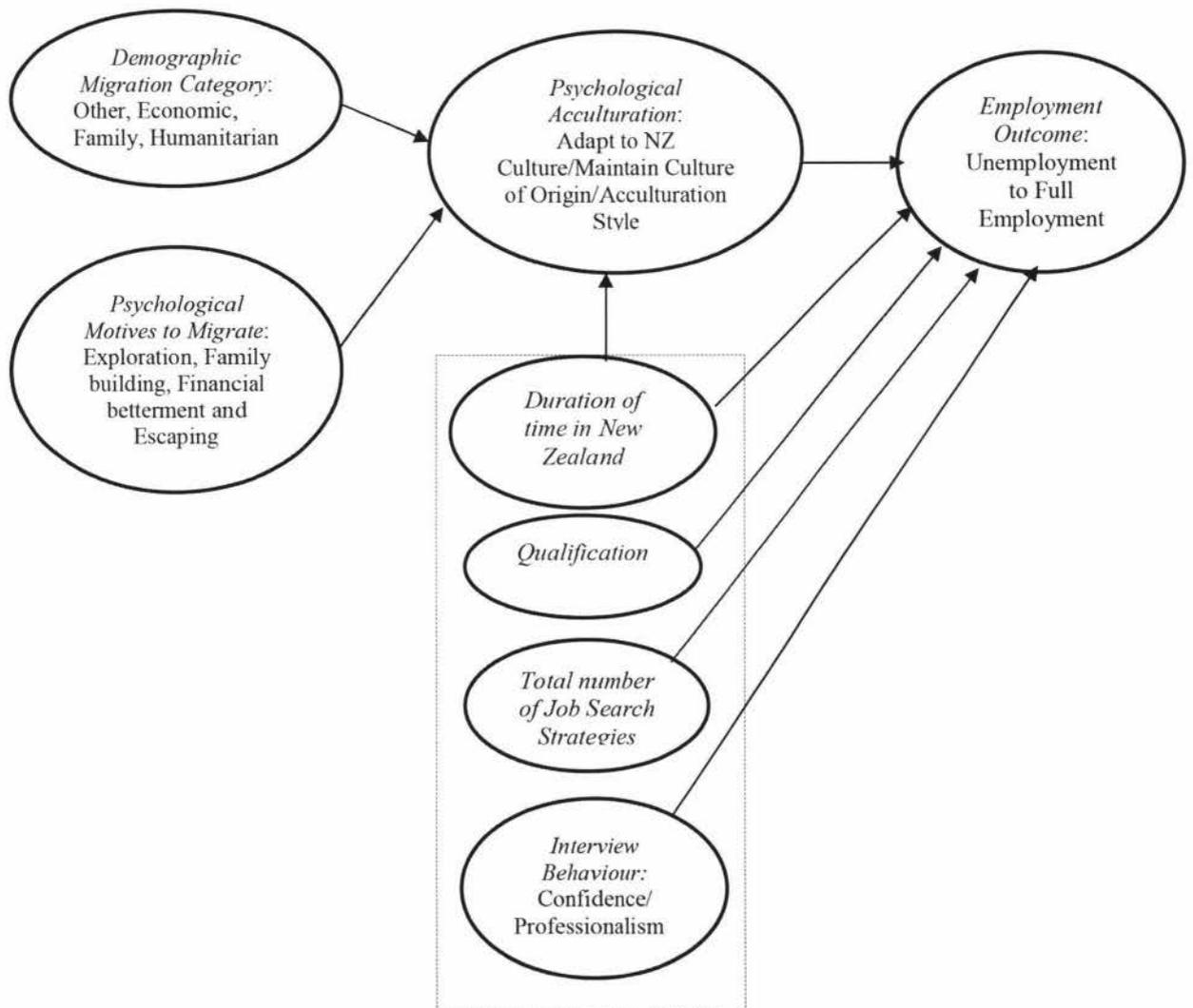


Figure 3.2. Model with predicted relationships

In the present study, psychological acculturation was operationally measured in two ways. On the one hand, acculturation preferences were coded as individual average scores per component on each of the two acculturation dimensions, i.e., Adapt to New Zealand culture and Maintain culture of origin. On the other hand, individuals

were also categorised as one of Berry's (1980) four Acculturation styles (Integrated, Assimilated, Separated or Marginalised), based on median splits along the mean individual scores on each of the two acculturation dimensions. Thus one operational definition of psychological acculturation (acculturation style) was more abstract than the other (dimension score).

3.3.1 Demographic Migration Category and Psychological Acculturation

First of all, to test a hypothesised link in Figure 3.2, between demographic migration category (independent variable) and acculturation style, a two by four contingency table between category and style was created. The hypothesis was based on Horgan's (2000) findings that refugees preferred an integration style compared to international students who preferred to assimilate (see review p. 22). In the present study, cell counts in the table of frequency between refugees and international students fell below the minimum of 5 required for inferential testing. To counter for the short fall, the demographic migration categories were collapsed into categories that would closely match Horgan's migrant sample. Two migration categories were created: the first group was the humanitarian migrants, while the second group consisted of students ($n=6$), visitors ($n=16$) and economic migrants ($n=43$) thereby labelled 'voluntary'. The collapsed contingencies are presented in Table 3.5.

From Table 3.5, the humanitarian migrants tended towards integration and separation; whereas the voluntary migrants tended towards separation and assimilation. The slight increase in frequency counts for integration and assimilation, among humanitarian versus voluntary migrants respectively, was consistent with Horgan's findings.

Table 3.5
Frequency of Migrants in Acculturation Style groups based on Migration Category

Acculturation Style	Humanitarian	Voluntary	Total
<i>Integrated</i>			
Observed	7	12	19
Expected	5.70	13.3	
<i>Assimilated</i>			
Observed	5	15	20
Expected	6.0	14	
<i>Separated</i>			
Observed	7	15	22
Expected	6.6	15.4	
<i>Marginalised</i>			
Observed	5	14	19
Expected	5.7	13.3	
Totals	24	56	80

From Figure 3.2, in order to test for any possible relationship between (a) migration category (other, humanitarian, family and economic) and (b) acculturation style (integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation), a Chi-square (χ^2) test of association was used (after Horgan, 2000). As might be expected, based on a small sample size (Table 3.5), the chi-square test did not reveal any evidence of association between migration category and acculturation style ($\chi^2 = .82$, $df=3$, ns, $N=88$).

From Figure 3.2, to test for any link between demographic migration category and the alternative operational definition for psychological acculturation (adapt to New Zealand culture/maintain culture of origin dimensions), a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Covariance (MANCOVA) was used. The four levels of the independent variable were Other ($n=20$), Economic ($n=34$), Family ($n=11$) and Humanitarian (23). There were two dependent variables: adapt to New Zealand culture and

maintain culture of origin. From Table 3.4, an association between duration of time in New Zealand and acculturation preferences was found, with Pearson's bivariate showing that the longer a migrant has resided in New Zealand, the more she or he prefers to adapt to New Zealand culture over a preference to retain their culture of origin. Time in New Zealand remained correlated at a Bonferroni adjusted probability value of $p = .03$ (with home culture component). Thus the duration of time in New Zealand variable was computed as a covariate in the MANCOVA.

From Table 3.6, once the means have been corrected for the effects of duration of time in New Zealand, it is noticeable that the categories likely to have been due to forced migration (Humanitarian and Family) on average had higher preferences to maintain their culture of origin compared with those likely to be voluntary migrants (Economic and Other). A similar trend was observed when the means were unadjusted (Appendix E).

Table 3.6
Means and Standard error of acculturation scores among migration categories^(a)

	Demographic Migration Category	Mean	Std. Error	N
Maintain Culture of origin	Humanitarian	3.85	.14	23
	Family	3.86	.20	11
	Economic	3.30	.12	34
	Other	3.71	.15	20
	Total			88
Adapt to NZ culture	Humanitarian	3.63	.15	23
	Family	3.39	.20	11
	Economic	3.44	.12	34
	Other	3.58	.16	20
	Total			88

(a) Means are corrected for duration of time in New Zealand

Preliminary analyses for running multiple analyses of covariance were run to check for normality, linearity, univariate and multivariate outliers, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices and multicollinearity. Box's M was not significant at

the .001 probability level recommended by Coakes and Steed (2007), which meant the assumption of homogeneity of covariance had not been violated (Box's $M=24.59$, $F [9, 14601.28]=2.59$, $p> .001$). The equality of variance was not violated for the adapt New Zealand culture component [Levene's test : ($F= .92$, $p< .43$)]. For the 'maintain culture of origin' variable, Levene's Test's probability value was less than .05 ($F=5.47$, $p> .001$), which indicated a violation of the assumption of equality of variance. However, MANCOVA is robust to the assumptions above as long as the test is not a repeated measure design thus supporting the use of a Mancova (Pallant, 2007).

The Mancova results showed that duration of time in New Zealand significantly predicted 20% of the variance in acculturation scores [$F (2, 82) =10.18$, $p< .0001$]. Once the effect of time in New Zealand was partialled out, the main effects of migration category were borderline significant [Pillai's Trace: $F (6,136) = 2.02$, $p=.07$, partial eta squared = .7]. A significant effect size might have been difficult to detect due to a relatively small sample size ($N=88$). Given that possibility and an almost significant main effect, it seemed reasonable to investigate the finding further. A significant univariate effect was observable for maintaining culture of origin [$F (3, 83) = 3.91$, $p< .05$, partial eta squared = .12].

Post hoc analyses were conducted to identify where the significant mean differences were. A Bonferroni test revealed that humanitarian migrants had higher preferences to maintain their culture of origin ($M=3.85$, $SD= .45$) than economic migrants ($M=3.30$, $SD= .87$). Hence, as predicted the migrants with perceived less choice (humanitarian) would have a tendency to want to integrate than those migrants likely to have more choice (economic).

Overall, in this New Zealand study, from Figure 3.2, there was no clear evidence of any link between acculturation style and demographic migration category. However, there was partial evidence that demographic migration category might have a link with the alternative acculturation operational definition (dimensions), specifically, the preference to maintaining culture of origin over that of adapting to New Zealand culture between the humanitarian and economic migrants.

3.3.2 Psychological Motives to Migrate and Psychological Acculturation

Figure 3.2 proposed a potential link between psychological motives to migrate (independent variable) and psychological acculturation (dependent variable). To test for the Acculturation style operational definition in Figure 3.2, a Discriminant Function Analysis (DFA) was performed. The DFA is an appropriate method to use if the independent variable is continuous and the dependent variable is categorical (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2000). Normality, homogeneity of variance-covariance and multicollinearity assumptions were verified and none had been violated. The number of discriminant functions to be computed should be $g-1$, where g is the number of dependent groups. Hence, three functions were computed since there were four groups of the dependent variable (acculturation style). The results were significant for duration of time in New Zealand [$F(2, 64) = 6.20, p < .01$]. The test revealed Wilks' Lambda values close to 1 for the psychological motives {Exploration (.99, $p = .91$); Family building (.99, $p = .61$); Escaping (.99, $p = .96$) and Financial betterment (.97, $p = .47$)} suggesting that group means were the same i.e. the psychological motives did not separate the groups hence did not predict acculturation styles.

With regards to the proposed link between Psychological Acculturation and Psychological Motives to Migrate, two hierarchical regressions were run, one for each acculturation dimension (adapt to New Zealand culture/maintain culture of origin). For both dependent variables, duration of time in New Zealand was controlled for in step 1, the psychological motives were entered as a block in step 2. The predictor variables were entered in the model as blocks because the researcher wanted to investigate how much variance as a measure, the psychological motives predicted one 'global' construct (i.e. motivation to migrate).

An inspection of the probability plots of the regression model showed that the normality assumption had not been violated (for both dimensions). Based on Pallant (2007), the assumption of multicollinearity had not been violated as Pearson bivariate correlations between the Acculturation components revealed a low and non-significant correlation coefficient ($r=0.11$, ns). According to Langdridge (2004), the use of a multiple regression analysis requires that the sample size equals or is greater than $50 + 8m$ (m is the number of predictor variables). There were four variables and at least 88 participants in the model in the present case. These data checks supported the use of a multiple regression analysis.

The first hierarchical regression was run with the dimension termed 'maintain culture of origin' in Figure 3.2 as the dependent variable. Duration of time in New Zealand significantly explained 10 % of the variance in the dependent variable [$F(1, 87) = 9.41, p < .01$]. Psychological motives predicted 7 % of the variance when duration of time in New Zealand was held constant, but the finding was not statistically

significant [F -change (4, 83) = 1.73, $p > .05$]. The whole model significantly predicted 16.7 % of the variance, [F (5, 83) = 3.33, $p = .009$].

The second regression was computed with the variable named “adapt to New Zealand culture” in Figure 3.2. Eight percent of the variance in levels of adapting to New Zealand culture was explained by the duration of time in New Zealand [F (1, 86) = 7.44, $p < .01$]. The psychological motives to migrate significantly explained an extra 12 % of variance over and above that explained by duration of time in New Zealand [ΔF (4, 82) = 3.06, sig. *change* $p < .05$]. The full model explained 20% variance, [F (5, 82) = 4.08, $p = .002$].

Hence, the psychological motives significantly explained some variance in psychological acculturation, specifically for the levels of adapting to New Zealand culture. Given that the predictive ability of the psychological motives as a group was ascertained, the hypothesis that psychological motives likely to be voluntary (for example, the motivation to explore) would be positively linked to acculturation was assessed. To test for the prediction, the unique contributions that each psychological motive (exploration, financial betterment, family building, and escaping) had on adapting to New Zealand culture were further explored. The predictor variables were entered in the model individually starting from the variable (based on literature) thought to have a weaker relationship with adapting to New Zealand i.e escaping, and ending with exploration motives as the variable was thought to have a greater link with the dependent variable. To control for it, duration of time in New Zealand was entered in the first step. The same procedure was performed for the ‘maintain culture of origin’ component.

Duration of time in New Zealand, Exploration and Family building components positively and uniquely contributed to the variance in the scores on the adapting to New Zealand culture component. From Table 3.7, the beta values show that with each standard deviation increase in each of the three significant predictors, there is a standard deviation increase in the preference to adapt to New Zealand culture.

Table 3.7
Regression Analysis with 'Adapt to New Zealand Culture' as Dependent Variable (N=88)

Predictor Variable	Beta	Sig.
Duration of Time in New Zealand	.283*	$p < .01$
Escaping	.168	$p > .05$
Family building	.284*	$p < .05$
Financial Betterment	-.182	$p > .05$
Exploration	.218*	$p < .05$
$F(5,82)=4.08$		$R^2 = .21$
		$p = .002$

From Table 3.8, the regression model with 'maintain culture of origin' revealed that escaping has a unique and significant contribution to the variance in the dependent variable. The result is logic since migrants who have moved to New Zealand due to a push force might want to retain elements of their own culture, since their migration may not have been of voluntary choice. Unlike their demographic migration category counterparts in Figure 3.2, the psychological motives to migrate predicted psychological acculturation.

Table 3.8
Regression Analysis with 'Maintain Culture of Origin' as Dependent Variable (N=89)

Predictor Variable	Beta	Sig.
Duration of Time in New Zealand	-.300*	$p < .01$
Exploration	.194	$p > .05$
Family building	.138	$p > .05$
Financial Betterment	-.032	$p > .05$
Escaping	.233*	$p < .05$
$F(5,82)=3.33$		$R^2 = .17$
		$p = .009$

3.3.3 Mediation testing

Looking back at Figure 3.2, a mediation link is proposed between psychological motives to migrate and Employment Outcome, through psychological acculturation. To test the mediation hypothesis, a four-step procedure articulated in Kenny (2008) which was he adapted from Baron and Kenny (1986) was followed.

The first step requires that the independent variable be significantly correlated with the outcome variable in a regression analysis. The second step requires establishing a correlation between the predictor variable and the mediator. Step three establishes if the mediator is related to the outcome variable by using the initial predictor and the mediator as independent variables. Lastly, to establish if the mediator completely mediates the predictor and outcome variable relationship, the fourth step requires that the path between the predictor variable and the outcome variable is zero when controlling for the mediator. The fulfilment of all four steps is an indication of a fully mediating relationship between the predictor and outcome variables, through the mediator. Partial mediation is indicated if all but the fourth steps are met (Kenny, 2008). Additionally, progression to the next steps requires fulfilment of the preceding steps. To test for the proposed mediation link, the first step required Employment Outcome to be regressed on Psychological Motives to migrate.

3.3.3.1 Do Psychological Motives to Migrate also predict Employment Outcome?

A multiple regression analysis was performed to determine whether psychological Motives to migrate directly predicted employment outcome. A visual inspection of the normal probability plot of regression standardised residuals showed that the

normality, outliers, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions had not been violated. Further, none of the bivariate correlation coefficients between the psychological motives components were above 0.7; therefore the assumption of multicollinearity had not been violated (Pallant, 2007).

The psychological motives explained 3.4 % of the variance in Employment Outcome but the result was not significant [$F(4, 95) = .846, p > .05, ns.$], thus did not indicate any presence of a mediation link. According to Kenny (2008), for any mediation to be evident, there must be a significant relationship between the initial criterion and the predictor variables. In the present case, a direct relationship between psychological Motives and Employment Outcome was not evident.

3.3.4 Does Psychological Acculturation predict Employment Outcome?

From Figure 3.2, it is possible that both measures of acculturation (acculturation dimensions and styles) may be linked to employment outcome. To test for the possibility, first a one-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed with the acculturation styles as the independent categorical variable, thereafter; the employment outcome variable was regressed on acculturation dimensions.

The ANCOVA was computed to assess whether there are any mean Employment Outcome differences amongst the four Acculturation style groups. The covariates were duration of time in New Zealand, qualification. Logically, the longer the time migrants have been in New Zealand, the more likely they are to have full employment. Qualification, which was coded on an ordinal scale ranging from 0 representing no qualification to 8 representing a PhD qualification, was also assumed to have a link with Employment Outcome (Figure 3.2). There were 20 participants

in the Integrated group, 21 in the Assimilated group, the Separated group had 27 participants and there were 20 participants in the Marginalised group. Table 3.9 shows adjusted means and standard errors for employment outcome amongst the acculturation styles. The pattern observed in the table (3.9) show that the integrated migrants have higher employment outcome than the rest of the acculturation groups. The particular pattern is not surprising as there is evidence that integration is a predictor of positive migration outcomes, including finding appropriate employment. However, it was surprising to note those in the marginalised group had the next highest employment outcome mean, since in the acculturation literature, marginalisation has been linked to negative outcomes, such as unemployment.

Table 3.9

Corrected Means and Standard error of Employment scores among Acculturation Styles ^(a)

Acculturation Style	Employment		N
	Outcome (Mean)	Standard Error	
Integrated	5.18	.44	20
Assimilated	4.45	.45	21
Separated	4.32	.39	27
Marginalised	4.71	.44	20
Total			88

(a) Means are corrected for duration of time in New Zealand and Qualification

Although the participant number in each cell group was less than the 30 recommended, this violation is deemed less problematic if group sizes are of or close to equal sizes (Pallant, 2007). All other assumptions were met. No significant group differences were found [$F(3, 82) = .683, p = .57, \text{partial eta square} = .24$]. The covariates (duration of time in New Zealand and qualification) were not significant [$F(1, 82) = 2.14, p = .15, \text{partial eta square} = .025$, and [$F(1, 82) = .86, p = .36, \text{partial eta square} = .10$, respectively]. On the whole, the acculturation taxonomy (both components) and

in particular, adaptation to New Zealand culture, show more validity than their counterparts (acculturation styles).

From Figure 3.2, a hierarchical regression analysis was run with the acculturation dimensions as independent variables and employment outcome as the dependent variable. The duration of time in New Zealand, qualification, job search strategies and job interview behaviours variables are principally known as predictors of finding a job for the general job seeking population hence to control for them, they were entered in the regression model in the first block. Acculturation dimensions were entered in the second block.

The whole model with all the variables entered explained 15.1 % variance and the model was borderline significant [$F(7, 79) = 2.01, p = .06$]. The acculturation dimensions did not predict any significant variance in employment outcome levels [ΔR -Square (.003); $\Delta F(2, 79) = .15, ns$]. The primary predictors significantly predicted 14.8 % of the variance [$F(5, 81) = 2.81, p < .05$]. Of all variables in the model, job search strategies uniquely predicted Employment Outcome. From Table 3.10, the negative beta coefficients indicated that the fewer the strategies used to find a job, the better the employment outcome (i.e more likely to be in full employment)

Table 3.10
Regression Analysis with Employment Outcome as the Dependent Variable (N=88)

Predictor Variable	Beta	<i>p</i>
Number of Job Search Strategies	-.250	$p < .05$
$F(7,79)=2.01$	$R^2 = .15$	$p = .06$

Post-hoc

Neither psychological motives nor acculturation significantly predicted Employment Outcome. It may be possible that for the present sample, demographic migration categories link directly to the employment outcomes of African migrants in New Zealand. ANCOVA assumptions were tested and no violations were identified. Levene's test was not significant, indicating no violation of the equality of variances for using the Mancova test. Qualification level and duration of time in Zealand were used as covariates.

The four demographic migration categories were the factor variables in the ANCOVA. There were 26 participants in the Humanitarian category, 12 in the Family category, 41 in the Economic one and 21 in the Other category. From Table 3.11, the adjusted employment outcome means were higher for the economic than the marginal means of the humanitarian and family categories. Thus, implying that the migration categories likely to have been voluntary were likely to be in full employed compared to their less voluntary counterparts.

Table 3.11

Corrected Means and Standard error of Employment Outcome scores among Demographic Migration Category^(a)

Demographic Migration Category	Employment Outcome (Mean)	Standard Error	N
Humanitarian	4.12	.39	25
Family	4.21	.57	12
Economic	5.10	.31	40
Other	4.75	.43	21
Total			88

(a)Means are corrected for duration of time in New Zealand and Qualification

The covariate did not have a statistically significant effect on the dependent variable (Employment Outcome). Duration of time in New Zealand predicted an effect size of partial eta squared of .04, and this effect was borderline significant [$F(1, 94)$

=3.74, $p=.06$]. The Qualification covariate did not predict any variance significantly [$F(1, 94) = .19, p>.05$]. Once the effect of the covariates had been partialled out, there were no significant main effects for migration category [partial eta squared = .05, $F(3, 94) = 1.47, p=.23$]

From Figure 3.3, the revised model illustrates the significant predictors of psychological acculturation and of employment outcome with corresponding beta weights (marginally significant links are also included).

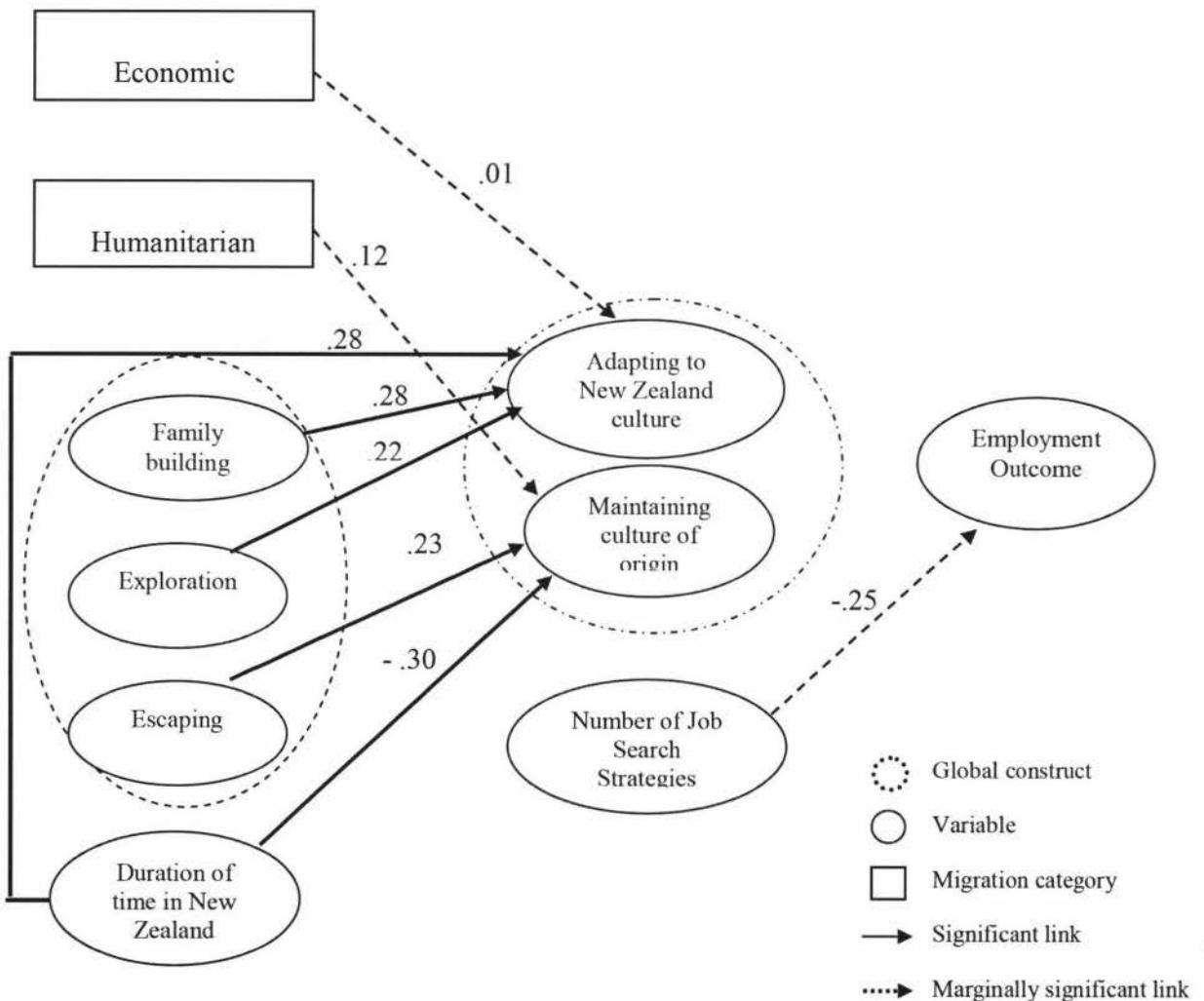


Figure 3.3. Resultant model with marginal and significant relationships.

Chapter 4: Discussion

The migration journey often presents a dynamic set of issues for many of the millions of migrants who cross international borders every year. One such issue is that of finding employment and is believed to be an important indicator of success at migration. Studies have argued that the process whereby the migrants manage the ongoing intercultural contact, otherwise known as acculturation, is an essential element in either facilitating or hindering specific important migration outcomes, such as that of labour market outcomes (Mace, 2004; Nekby & Rodin, 2007; Porter, 2006). Considering the importance of the acculturation process, it is fundamental to investigate which factors are associated with this process. There is evidence, which links the factors that lead migrants to move, to acculturation preferences (Horgan, 2000, Porter, 2006). However, these concepts have not been previously addressed together for African migrants residing in New Zealand.

Thus, the present study tested a model whereby acculturation mediated the relationship between psychological motives to migrate and finding employment for 105 African migrants. The study also assessed the impact primary predictors (Qualification, Job Search Strategies and Interview behaviours) have on Employment Outcome and the impact of duration of time in New Zealand on both the Employment Outcome and Psychological Acculturation. In order to test the study hypotheses, questionnaire data from the participants were analysed using the statistical package for the social sciences (SPSS). This chapter will first review and discuss the findings in relation to pertinent theory. Implications of the findings and

the limitations of the study will be outlined next, followed by possible directions and recommendations for future research.

Summary of the findings

The results indicate that the demographic migration categories do not significantly predict either acculturation preference or employment outcome. The psychological motives were found to be predictors of acculturation, with the motivation for exploration and family building predicting a preference to adapt to New Zealand culture, while the preference to maintain one's culture was uniquely predicted by a motivation to 'escape'. The predicted mediation link was not evident as there was no link observed between the psychological motives to migrate and employment outcome. Multiple regression models revealed that the number of job search strategies predicted the employment outcome above what was explained by acculturation or psychological motives to migrate. Posthoc analyses with demographic migration category as independent variable provided no further explanation of the predictors of employment outcome, when all the covariates were taken into account.

The first hypothesis predicted that demographic migration categories would predict psychological acculturation preferences. This hypothesis was based on Horgan's (2000) findings that refugees (forced) had a preference for integration compared to international students (voluntary) migrants who preferred to assimilate with the Irish culture. Contrary to predictions, acculturation was not predicted by the demographic migration categories, hence Horgan's findings were not replicated for the study

participants. This was the case even when the effect of time in New Zealand was taken into account.

A plausible explanation for this finding might be that official government categories of entry to New Zealand do not necessarily capture the underlying motivations that led migrants to come to New Zealand. While one can speculate on what the migrants' motives are, based on the demographic migration category under which they entered New Zealand, it may be possible that these categories are not that effective in explaining the core psychological motives that essentially lead people to leave their country.

For example, as a 'backdoor' strategy, some migrants might have opted to enter New Zealand with a visitor's visa or student visa as it may have been an easier option to get into New Zealand, but with the goal of applying for permanent residency once they were in New Zealand. This may be so, even though the primary motivation for the migrants to leave their country may have been related to ethnic conflicts or unsuitable living conditions. So for some migrants, the migration categories might serve as a means to an end, yet provide little information about the underlying reasons they migrated. Thus, leading to the hypothesis that the psychological motives to migrate may provide more information on the way African migrants handle the intercultural contact once they are in New Zealand than the demographic migration categories can tell us on their own.

The hypothesis that psychological motives to migrate would be linked to acculturation preferences was supported. This was the case even when the

contribution of duration of time in New Zealand on acculturation, was taken into account. Specifically, on the one hand, the migrants whose main motives to migrate were related to providing a better life for their family and the migrants whose motives were mainly for exploration reasons, showed assimilation tendencies (i.e. had high preferences to adapt to New Zealand culture). On the other hand, the migrants whose migration was motivated by escaping purposes preferred to maintain ties with their culture of origin. These findings make sense as the former groups of migrants, i.e. those who preferred to assimilate had elements of choice in their migration decision, and might have chosen to come to New Zealand as they were attracted to it, for its lifestyle for example, therefore would want to submerge in the lifestyle as much as they can. The latter group i.e. those migrants who moved for escaping reasons, conceptually are less likely to have had much voluntary choice in their decision, thus would want to hold on to their culture as much as they possibly could.

Although, Horgan (2000) assessed acculturation preferences based on migration status, the findings of the present study are partially parallel to her findings, as the difference between the groups that prefer to adapt to New Zealand culture and those who prefer to maintain their culture of origin seem to be embedded in the choice versus no choice assumption. In this regard, Horgan's refugees are likely to be equivalent to the present study's 'escaping' migrants; while Horgan's international students may be likened to the exploring migrants.

Moreover, the finding that the escaping migrants preferred to maintain the culture of origin while the more voluntary migrants preferred to adapt to New Zealand culture

can be related back to Kunz's (1973) conceptualization of the differences between anticipatory and acute migrants. The circumstances for those migrants who would have left their home to escape, might not have given them a chance to prepare for their migration journey and to get used to the idea of permanently leaving their country. Therefore, these acute refugees might want to hold onto elements of their culture for as long as they can. While the voluntary migrants, for example those motivated by opportunities to improve their family life, would have anticipated their migration hence were more prepared.

In their study, Ourasse & van de Vijver (2005) suggest that prior knowledge of the host society and fluency in host language have been linked to higher levels of acculturation with the culture of the host society. This may be the case for the migrants who were pulled by the want to explore New Zealand and for those who came to provide better opportunities for their family, in particular to their children. Based on Kunz's (1973) kinetic model, this group of migrants may be classified as anticipatory or voluntary migrants who might have chosen New Zealand for its similarity to their own culture, or if not, may at least have had time to research on the New Zealand lifestyle.

Overall, it is important to note that the acculturation dimensions (culture maintenance and culture adaptation) seem to provide more information than the abstracted acculturation styles. This is consistent with the arguments in the modern acculturation literature, that psychological acculturation should be assessed with two independent dimensions, as they tend to provide valid information subsequent underlying acculturation outcomes. For example, Zagefka and Brown (2002) found

that acculturation levels based on the separate dimensions for migrants in Germany separately predicted different migration outcomes.

The mediation hypothesis which a link between the psychological motives to migrate and employment outcome through acculturation was not supported. This is contrary to a number of previous studies that have found acculturation to mediate relationships between demographics and acculturation outcomes such as psychological and sociocultural outcomes (for example, Ourasse & van de Vijver, 2005; Ward et al., 2001). The present study did not reveal any relationship between psychological motives to migrate and employment outcome, proposing that other factors may have better explanatory power than the assumed predictors.

There was no support found for the fourth and fifth hypotheses, that preference to adapt to New Zealand culture will be related to high levels of employment outcomes and that the opposite would hold true to those who prefer to maintain ties with their culture. This finding is contrary to Mace et al. (2005) research results that higher adaptation to New Zealand culture was related to better chances of finding a job that matched one's qualifications for skilled newcomers to New Zealand. Thus, it may be plausible to regard employment outcome as a distal dependent variable, and to investigate variables that may mediate the relationship between acculturation and employment outcome.

Instead, a marginal significance was evident between the number of job search strategies and employment outcome. There was a negative relationship between the number of job search and getting employment, implying that the fewer methods one

uses to search for a job, the higher their chances of finding a job that is in line with one's qualification. This finding was contrary to the direction found by Mace et al. (2005). An explanation for this may be that if people are more focused and target their job search applications, they might be more efficient and likely to find a suitable job than if they cast a wide but non-specific net. Future research should endeavour to probe deeper into the antecedents of employment outcome, using a larger sample, which may increase power to detect significant effects between the key variables.

Another study of settlement outcomes of African migrants in New Zealand suggested that migrants who are of visible minority and those who speak English but with an accent are often marginalised in the labour market (Guerin et al., 2004b). This was the expected pattern for the present population under study as many people from Africa are visibly different and for many, English is not their first language.

Surprisingly, albeit positively encouraging, more than 50% of participants had employment that was in line with their qualifications and training. This is quite contrary to the expectations based on the employment statistics and other research in New Zealand, which suggests that migrants on average are underemployed, and are marginalised in the labour market. (Chile, 1999; Guerin et al., (2004b). These results suggest that perhaps other factors might have a role to play in migrants getting employment, for example, employer prejudice and discrimination, over and above just being an immigrant.

A possible explanation for the unexpected finding might be the fact that many of the respondents were from Zimbabwe and from South Africa (more than half the respondents were from these two countries). Both countries have a large European population; therefore the possibility that some of the respondents were of European descent and may speak fluent English should not be excluded.

With regards to South Africans, the literature on migrant employment in New Zealand suggests that South Africa is one of the preferred sources of migrant employees in New Zealand (Coates, 2003), the other sources include Europe and North America. Therefore, although other groups of migrants might find it rather difficult to find suitable employment, South Africans have been shown to be at an advantage in this arena (Coates, 2003; Pernice et al., 2000).

The Similarity-Attraction theory might lend another possible explanation as to why on average, the majority of the participants indicated that they were in full employment. This theory proposes that similar people are likely to be attracted to each other (Coates, 2003). For example, in her survey, Coates (2003) found that perceived similarity was positively correlated with preference, in terms of rankings of job applicants by New Zealand managers and employment recruitment specialists. Specifically, Coates (2003) found that because of their perceived similarity (for example, in culture), candidates from South Africa, together with Australia and Great Britain, were ranked more favourably than job candidates from less similar places such as China and Pacific nations, all else being equal. This preference might have to do with a perception (right or wrong), that people with similar backgrounds might

find it easier to adjust to the new workplace than those people who are more culturally distant.

Limitations of the study

The recruitment of participants in this study relied on convenience and snowballing sampling methods. Although, these techniques are believed to be the most effective in research on minority groups, ethnically or in population size, such as on migrants, they may fall short in terms of gathering a representative sample and may produce low response rates. The present study had 32.12 % response rate, and although it may seem low, given the circumstances of the research population however, it was an admirable statistic especially compared to other researchers who have conducted similar studies on similar populations. For example, Mace (2004) distributed 700 questionnaires and had a total response rate of 11% and Tharmaseelan (2005) distributed 800 questionnaires with a response rate of 26.25% These researchers suggested that studies of minority groups such as migrant populations usually yield very low response rates and there is often a reluctance to complete surveys due to “a fear of being identified and/or the research being shown to the government” (Mace, 2004, p.36). Fowler (2002) suggests response rate over 20% is acceptable; however, 105 participants may have not provided enough statistical power to detect the predicted relationships, therefore future studies should aim to test the model again with an increased sample size.

Another noteworthy limitation relating to the recruitment of participants lies within the selection criteria of participants. Initially, the researcher wished to investigate the employment experience of one specific group of African migrants, in terms of

ethnicity. However, as we are trained to be politically correct, especially when it comes to labelling people, it was difficult to come to a decision in terms of whether the present research criteria should have specifically stated for example; 'black', or indigenous Africans. In addition, it was believed that specifying one group, potential participants might have been wary of being identified, as the African community, especially the black African community, is very small in New Zealand therefore it may have been difficult to get an adequate number of participants to carry out the research. For these reasons, the decision was made to leave the selection criteria as 'African'. Such a decision might have resulted in gathering an ethnically diversified sample, for example that which included Africans of European descent. Hence, the situation may possibly explain why the predicted relationships between employment outcome and other variables were not supported.

Moreover, the importance of having valid and reliable measures cannot be stressed enough, as violations of these may present erroneous conclusions. A limitation of this study is the measurement of employment outcome, which may explain the lack of relationships between motives to migrate, acculturation and employment outcome. Although the two items used to assess the employment outcome were reasonably correlated, in retrospect, the employment outcome variable could have been measured more objectively to increase its validity. The measure that was used was adapted from Tharmaseelan's (2005) study on skilled Sri Lankan migrants in New Zealand, and there were no issues reported about this measure in her study. However, the present research population was African and they have varied qualifications. It was noted that as two out of the three items were about how in line the present employment was with qualifications, it was not relevant for the migrants without any

formal qualifications, whom for some left these questions unanswered. Therefore, a new measure of employment outcome would need to take into account different skill levels within the sample. Despite these limitations, several implications arise from the findings of the present study findings but should be interpreted with caution.

Implications of the findings

The finding that psychological motivations to migrate explain why some migrants might place high importance on maintaining their culture of origin, while others prefer to adapt to New Zealand culture provides a number of implications. Firstly, the present study has extended on Horgan's (2000) findings, by assessing reasons to migrate psychologically, rather than merely relying on the demographic migration categories, to explain an important migration phenomenon such as acculturation. Secondly, this finding provides information for groups who assist migrants during their settlement journey that it is important to understand the migration circumstances of individuals.

Furthermore, for present and future migrants, the present results indicate that job seeking strategies are essential in finding a job, especially a job which is in line with one's qualification and training. Migrants should familiarise themselves with the best methods and avenues to seek for jobs in the New Zealand labour market, so as not to waste personal resources such as money, time and to avoid disappointment.

Future Research directions

With improved measures and more participants, future researchers could test the model in Figure 1.1 on one specific group of Africans to account for the vast

diversity amongst African populations. Moreover, future studies could look at employment and acculturation experiences between generations to find out whether those who came as children have different experiences than their parents. The migrants who came as young children, generally referred to as the 1.5 generation (Danico, 2004, Ward, 2008), as they are not first because they did not choose to migrate and they are not second generation as they were born and spent a part of their lives in their home country. Danico (2004) has argued that the 1.5 generation may experience the acculturation process rather differently to their parents, and in turn, their acculturation outcomes may differ. It would be interesting to investigate whether as they enter the workforce (for example in terms of access to employment and quality of employment), they are treated as their kiwi counterparts, all other things being equal.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the present research aimed for a positive focus by assessing potential facilitators of finding employment for the African migrants, rather than focussing on barriers to finding employment. The study findings suggest that what motivates migrants to move is related to how they negotiate the intercultural contact. Specifically, the migrants assumed to have high levels of choice in their migration had assimilation tendencies compared to those with less choice who prefer to integrate. The study also implies that what is important for African migrants, is to use targeted job search methods when they are looking for jobs.

The findings need to be considered with caution due to sampling and measurement issues. As the New Zealand migration population is increasing, and even more so, more migrants are arriving from less traditional sources, such as Africa, more

research in the area of these migrants is warranted. Future research should especially focus on a specific group of African migrants to account for the huge diversity amongst the people of Africa. The present study expanded on Horgan's (2000) study by showing that applying a psychological focus to the study of migration is crucial in explaining important migration outcomes such as acculturation. In addition, the study provides important information to the knowledge in the migration field, as the study has linked two important migration phenomena, namely, motivational theory with acculturation theory for African migrants.

References

- Anderson, N. R. (1992). Eight decades of employment interview research: A retrospective meta-review and prospective commentary. *European Work and Organizational Psychologist*, 2(1), 1-32.
- Anderson, N., & Shackleton, V. (1990). Decision making in the graduate selection interview: A field study. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63, 63-76.
- Arends-Tóth, J. V., & van de Vijver, F. J. R. (2006). Assessment of psychological acculturation: Choices in designing an instrument. In D. L. Sam & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *Handbook of acculturation psychology* (pp. 142–160). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Aycan, Z., & Berry, J. W. (1996). Impact of employment-related experiences on immigrants' psychological well-being and adaptation to Canada. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, 28(3), 240-251.
- Basnayake, A. (1999) *Employment Experiences of Sri Lankan Migrants in New Zealand*, Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) Trust, Auckland.
- Battu, H., Mwale, M., & Zenou, Y. (2003). "Do Oppositional Identities Reduce Employment for Ethnic Minorities?". CEPR Discussion Paper No. 3819.
- Beaglehole, A. (21 September 2007). 'Refugees', *Te Ara – the Encyclopaedia of New Zealand*. Retrieved January 21, 2008, from <http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/NewZealanders/NewZealandPeoples/Refugees/en>
- Berry, J.W. (1980). Acculturation as varieties of adaptation. In a Padilla (Ed), *Acculturation: Theory, Models and Findings*. (pp.9 – 25). Boulder Westview
- Berry, J.W. (1984). Multicultural policy in Canada: A social psychological analysis. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Sciences*, 16(4), 353-370.

- Berry, J.W. (1986). Acculturation and psychological adaptation: A conceptual overview. In: J.W. Berry and R.C. Annis, Editors, *Ethnic psychology: Research and practice with immigrants, refugees, native peoples, ethnic groups and sojourners* (pp. 41–53). Amsterdam: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Berry, J.W. (1990). Psychology of acculturation. In J. Berman (Ed.), *Cross-cultural perspectives: Nebraska symposium on motivation* (pp. 201-234). Lincoln: University of Nebraska Press.
- Berry, J. W. (1997). Immigration acculturation and adaptation. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46(1), 5-68.
- Berry, J. W. (2001). A psychology of immigration. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(3), 615-631.
- Berry, J. W. (2005). Acculturation: Living successfully in two cultures. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(6), 697-712.
- Berry, J. W. (2006). Contexts of acculturation. In D. L. Sam & J. W. Berry (Eds.), *The Cambridge handbook of acculturation psychology* (pp. 27-42). New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Berry, J. W., & Annis, R. C. (1974). Acculturative Stress: The Role of Ecology, Culture and Differentiation. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 5(4), 382-406.
- Berry, J. W., Kim, U., Minde, T., & Mok, D. (1987). Comparative studies of acculturative stress. *International Migration Review*, 21(3), 491 - 511.
- Bhugra, D. & Becker, M. (2005). Migration, cultural bereavement and cultural identity. *World Psychiatry*, 4(1), 18–24.

- Biffl, G. (2002). *Labor Market Performance of Indigenous and Foreign Workers in Austria: An Insider-Outsider Analysis*. Unpublished manuscript.
- Blau, G. (1994). Testing a two-dimensional measure of job search behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 59, 288-312.
- Bourhis, R. Y., Moise, C. L., Perreault, S., & Senecal, S. (1997). Towards an Interactive Acculturation Model: A Social Psychological Approach. *International Journal of Psychology*, 32(6), 369-386.
- Bushnell, P., & Choy, W. K. (2001). "Go west young man, go west". *People and Place*, 9 (3), 66-83.
- Butcher, A., Spoonley, P., & Trlin, A. (2006). *Being Accepted: The Experience of Discrimination and Social Exclusion by Immigrants and Refugees in New Zealand*. Palmerston North: Massey University. Occasional Publication No. 13
- Carr, S. C., Inkson, K., & Thorn, K. (2004). *Talent flow and global careers: Reinterpreting "brain drain"*.
- Cattell, R.B. (1966). The scree test for the number of factors. *Multivariate Behavioral Research*, 1, 245-76.
- Chile, L. M. (1999). *Retraining and Professional Employment of Recent Migrants*. Paper presented at the AAIR UNITEC conference on Educators and Planners, Auckland.
- Chun, K. M., Organista, B. P., & Marin, G. (2002). *Acculturation: Advances in Theory, Measurement, and Applied Research*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

- Coakes, S. J., & Steed, L. G. (2007). *SPSS Analysis Without Anguish: Version 14 for Windows*. Queensland, Australia: John Wiley & Sons.
- Coates, K. M. (2003). *Selection Bias Operating against Skilled Candidates from Countries-of-Origin other than New Zealand*. Unpublished Master of Arts Thesis, Massey University, Albany.
- Coates, K. M., & Carr, S. C. (2005). Skilled immigrants and selection bias: a theory-based field study from New Zealand. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(5), 577 - 599.
- Cobb-Clark, D. A. (2000). Do selection criteria make a difference? Visa category and the labour market status of immigrants to Australia. *Economic Record*, 76(232), 15-31.
- Department of Internal Affairs (1996). *High Hopes: A Survey of Qualifications, Training, and Employment Issues for Recent Immigrants in New Zealand*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Department of Labour (2004). *Refugee Voices: A Journey Towards Resettlement*. Wellington, New Zealand.
- DeSouza, R. (2006). Even turned down for a petrol pump job. *Migrant News*, 3(26), 6.
- Dillman, D. A. (1978). *Mail and telephone surveys: The total design method*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.
- Feeney, A. (2000). Refugee Employment. *Journal of Local Economy*, 15(4), 343-349.
- Fowler, F.J. (2002). *Survey Research Methods* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

- Gatewood, R. D., & Field, H. S. (1998). *Human Resources Selection* (4th ed.). Fort Worth, TX: The Dryden Press.
- Gordon, M. (1964). *Assimilation in American life: The role of race, religion, and national origins*. New York: Oxford University Press.
- Graves, T. (1967). Psychological acculturation in a tri ethnic community. *South Western Journal of anthropology*, 23(4), 337-350
- Guerin, P. B., Diiriye, R. O., & Guerin, B. (April, 2004a). *Obstacles to employment for Somali: Negotiating new directions*. Paper given at the New Directions, New Settlers, New Challenges: Foundation for Research, Science and Technology end-users meeting. Wellington, New Zealand.
- Guerin, B., Guerin, P. B., & Diiriye, R. O., & Abdi, A. (2004b). Living in a Close Community: The everyday life of Somali refugees. *Journal of the Australian College of Community Psychologists*, 16, 7-17.
- Hair, J. F., Anderson, R. E., Tatham, R. L., & Black, W. C. (1998). *Multivariate Data Analysis* (5th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Hofstede, G. (1980). *Culture's consequences: International differences in work-related Values*. Beverly Hills CA: Sage.
- Hofstede, G. (2001). Culture's Consequences: Comparing Values, Behaviors, Institutions and Organizations across Nations. *Behaviour Research and Therapy*, 41(7), 861-862.
- Horenczyk, G. (1997). Immigrant's perception of host attitudes and their reconstruction of cultural groups. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 46(1), 34-38.
- Horgan, O. (2000). Seeking refuge in Ireland: Acculturation stress and perceived discrimination. In M. MacLachlan, & M. O'Connell, (Eds.), *Cultivating*

pluralism: Psychological, social and cultural perspectives on a changing Ireland (pp. 60-85). Dublin, Ireland: Oak Tree Press

- Jackson, D., Carr, S. C., Edwards, M., Thorn, K. J., Allfree, N., Hooks, J., et al. (2005). Exploring the Dynamics of New Zealand's Talent Flow. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology, 34*(2), 110-116.
- Kanfer, R., Wanberg, C.R., & Kantrowitz, T.M. (2001). Job search and employment: A personality motivational analysis and meta-analytic review. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 86*, 837-855.
- Kenny, D.A (2008). Mediation. Retrieved March 01, 2008, from <http://davidakenny.net/cm/mediate.htm>
- Kline, D. S. (2003). Push and pull factors in international nurse migration. *Journal of Nursing Scholarship, 35*(2), 107-111.
- Knipscheer, J. W., & Kleber, J. (2007). Acculturation and Mental Health Among Ghanaians in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Social Psychiatry, 53*(4), 369-383.
- Knipscheer, J. W., De Jong, E. E. M., Kleber, R. J., & Lamptey, E. (2000). Ghanaian migrants in The Netherlands: General health, acculturative stress and utilization of mental health care. *Journal of Community Psychology, 28*(4), 459-476.
- Kunz, E. F. (1973). The Refugee Flight: Kinetic Models and Forms of Displacement. *International Migration Review, 7*(2), 125-146.
- Langdridge, D. (2004). *Introduction to Research Methods and Data Analysis in Psychology*. Harlow: Pearson Education Limited.
- Lin, K. M., Tazuma, L., & Masuda, M. (1979). Adaptational problems of Vietnamese refugees, *36*, 955-961.

- Lock, R. D. (1992). *Job search: Career planning guide, book II* (2nd ed.). Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing Company.
- Mace, K.A. (2004). *Psycho-Social correlates of employment amongst skilled newcomers to New Zealand*. Unpublished master's thesis, Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand.
- Mace, K.A., Atkins, S., Fletcher, R., & Carr, S.C. (2005). Immigrant job hunting, labour market experiences and feelings about occupational satisfaction in New Zealand: An exploratory study. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, 34 (2), 97- 109.
- Mahroum, S. (2000). High skilled globetrotters: Mapping the international migration of human capital. *R & D Management*, 30, 23 - 32.
- Mau, W., & Kopischke, A. (2001). Job search methods, job search outcomes, and job satisfaction of college graduates: a comparison of race and sex. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 38(3), 141-149.
- Merwood, P. (2007). *International Students: Studying and staying on in New Zealand*. Wellington: Department of Labour.
- Nam, B., & Ward, R. (2006). *Refugee and Migrant Needs: an annotated bibliography of research and consultations*: Prepared for the RMS Refugee Resettlement.
- Nekby, L., & Rodin, M. (2007). *Acculturation Identity and Labor Market Outcomes*. IZA Discussion Paper No. 2826, Stockholm University.
- North, N.H. (2002). *Employers' attitudes and practices on the hiring of immigrants*. School of Nursing, The University of Auckland.

- O'Hare, N. (2004, August 28). *The Unfriendly Isles: Why do we make life so hard for our migrants and refugees?* New Zealand Listener (p. 14). Retrieved from <http://www.cartercenter.org/news/documents/doc1889.html> on the 5th March 2007.
- Oliver, P. (2000). *Employment for professional migrants to New Zealand. Barriers and opportunities*. Work and Income New Zealand.
- Ourasse, O.A., & van de Vijver, F.J.R. (2005). The role of demographic variables and acculturation attitudes in predicting sociocultural and psychological adaptation in Moroccans in the Netherlands. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, 29(3), 251 - 272.
- Pallant, J. (2007). *SPSS survival manual: a step by step guide to data analysis using SPSS for Windows (Version 15)* (3rd ed.). Crows Nest, N.S.W: Allen & Unwin.
- Parsons, L. (2005). *Refugee resettlement in New Zealand and Canada*. RMS Refugee Resettlement.
- Pernice, R., Trlin, A., Henderson, A., & North, N. (2000). Employment and Mental Health of Three Groups of Immigrants in New Zealand. *New Zealand Journal of Psychology*, 29(1), 24-29.
- Petersen, W. (1958). A General Typology of Migration. *Journal of sociology*, 23(3) 256-266.
- Podsiadlowski, A. (2006). *Facilitating Migrants' Entry and Integration Into the New Zealand Workplace*. Report on FRST – subcontract. 'Strangers in Town' project. Waikato University, New Zealand.
- Porter, S.A. (2006). *Highly Skilled South African Immigrants In New Zealand Zealand*. A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

degree of Master of Management in Management. Massey University, Auckland, New Zealand.

- Rudmin, F. W. (2003a). Critical history of the acculturation psychology of assimilation, separation, integration, and marginalization. *Review of General Psychology*, 7(1), 3 - 37.
- Sam, D., Vedder, P., Ward, C., & Horenczyk, G. (2006). Psychological and sociocultural adaptation. In J.W. Berry, J. Phinney, D. Sam & P. Vedder (Eds.), *Immigrant youth in cultural transition: Acculturation, identity, and adaptation across national contexts*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Sang, D. L., & Ward, C. (2006). Acculturation in Australia and New Zealand. In D. Sam & J. W. Berry (Eds.). *The Cambridge handbook of acculturation psychology* (pp. 253-272). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Shams, M., & Jackson, P. (1994). The Impact of Unemployment on the Psychological Well-being of British Asians. *Psychological Medicine*, 24(2), 347-355.
- Schmit, M.J., Amel, E.L., & Ryan, A.M. (1993). Self-reported assertive job-seeking behaviours of minimally educated job hunters. *Personnel Psychology*, 46, 105-124.
- Tabachnik, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2007). *Using multivariate statistics* (5th ed.) Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Tharmaseelan, N. (2005). *Careers in cross-cultural context: a study of Sri Lankan immigrants in New Zealand*. Unpublished Doctor of Philosophy, Massey University, Auckland.
- Vinokurov, A., Birman, D., & Trickett, E. J. (2000). Psychological and Acculturation correlates of work status among Soviet Jewish refugees in the U.S. *International Migration Review*, 34(2), 538-559.

- Wanberg, C. R., Kanfer, R., & Rotundo, M. (1999). Unemployed individuals: motives, job-search competencies, and job-search constraints as predictors of job seeking and reemployment. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 84*(6), 897-910.
- Ward, C. (1999) Models and Measurement of Acculturation. W.K. Lonner, D.L, Dinnel, D.K. Forgas, & S.Hays (Eds.), *Merging past, present and future* (pp. 221-230). Lisse, The Netherlands: Swets & Zeitlinger.
- Ward, C. (2006). Acculturation, identity and adaptation in dual heritage adolescents. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30*(2), 243-259.
- Ward, C. (2008). *The Experiences of Migrant Youth: A Generational Analysis*. Wellington: Department of Labour
- Ward, C., Bochner, S., & Furnham, A. (2001). *The psychology of culture shock* (2nd ed.). Hove: Routledge.
- Ward, C., & Kennedy, A. (1994). Acculturation Strategies, Psychological Adjustment and Sociocultural Competence during Cross-Cultural Transitions. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 18*(3), 329-343.
- Ward, C., & Rana-Deuba, A. (1999). Acculturation and Adaptation revisited. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 30*(4), 372-392.
- Walrond, C. (2007, September 21). 'Africans', *Te Ara - the Encyclopaedia of New Zealand*, updated. Retrieved March, 10, 2008, from <http://www.TeAra.govt.nz/NewZealanders/NewZealandPeoples/Africans/en>
- Winefield, A. H., Winefield, H. R., Tiggermann, M., & Goldney, R. D. (1991). A longitudinal study of psychological effects of unemployment and satisfactory employment in young adults. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 76*(3), 424 - 431.

- Winkelmann, R. (2001). Immigration policies and their impact: The case of New Zealand and Australia. In S. Djajić, *International migration: Trends, policies, and economic impact* (pp. 1-20). London: Routledge.
- Winkelmann, L., & Winkelmann, R. (1998). *Immigrants in New Zealand: A Study of their labour Market outcomes*. Wellington: Department of Labour.
- Zagefka, H., & Brown, R. (2002). The relationship between acculturation strategies, relative fit and inter-group relations: Immigrant majority relations in Germany. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 32, 171- 188.



Appendix A

Information Sheet and Questionnaire for African Migrants in New Zealand

ACCULTURATION AND JOB SEARCH STRATEGIES, EMPLOYMENT SUCCESS AND EMPLOYMENT RELATED SATISFACTION: THE EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE OF AFRICAN MIGRANTS IN NEW ZEALAND

Dear reader,

My name is Martine Udahemuka. I am originally from Rwanda and am now residing permanently in New Zealand. I am currently doing a Master's research thesis with Massey University and I need your help to complete the research. I ask you please to give me a few minutes of your time to read the following. This letter is an invitation to you to participate in my study.

My research will look at the strategies used to settle in New Zealand and job searching strategies that African migrants use to get employment in New Zealand. I am especially interested in this topic as I am an African migrant myself and from personal experiences, I believe that for most, getting a job is very important to help one settle in a new country. I am also aware of some of the difficulties that people like you and I may face or have faced when trying to find employment.

I am interested to hear about your unique experiences in trying to find appropriate work in New Zealand, whether you **currently have employment**, currently **looking for employment** or **have previously had employment** in New Zealand. I am hoping that the results of my study may provide suggestions and ideas on how to find jobs in New Zealand for migrants of today and tomorrow and help migrants better prepare themselves when seeking for jobs in New Zealand.

The research will involve answering a questionnaire, which will ask you about your experiences when trying to look for jobs in New Zealand, about the methods you use/d when looking for a job, the outcome of your efforts and your satisfaction with the process and outcome. The questionnaire should take no longer than 20 minutes to complete. Your responses will be strictly confidential.

All the information obtained will be used only for the purpose of completing my Master of Arts research thesis and possibly for publishing for academic purposes. The information obtained will be securely kept at Massey University and will only be accessible by my supervisors and myself. If you wish, I can send you a summary of the group results by indicating that at the end of this invitation on the next page.

You are under no obligation to accept this invitation. If you decide to participate, you have the right to:

- *decline to answer any particular question;*
- *withdraw from the study at anytime*
- *ask any questions about the study at any time during participation;*
- *provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used unless you give permission to the researcher;*
- *be given access to a summary of the project findings when it is concluded.*

Please complete the attached questionnaire if you are an African migrant:

20 years old and above,

Working, looking for work or have previously worked in New Zealand

Not a student who is looking for part time work

New Zealand Permanent Resident, NZ Citizen or seeking NZ permanent residency

Have been in New Zealand for at least 6 months

Have good reading English

If you decide to complete the questionnaire I will assume that you are satisfied with the information on this sheet and that you give your consent to participate.

Please do NOT complete this questionnaire more than once.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, Application 07/039. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate Professor Ann Dupuis, Chair, Massey University Human Ethics Committee: Northern, telephone 09 414 0800 x 9054, email humanethicsnorth@massey.ac.nz.

Please do not hesitate to contact my supervisors or myself if you have any questions regarding the research or participation in the research. Our contact details are:

Researcher: Martine Udahemuka.
MAthesis2007@hotmail.com

Supervisors: Professor Stuart Carr
09-414 0800 ext 41128
Email: S.C.Carr@massey.ac.nz

Dr. Regina Pernice
Phone number: 06-356 9099 ext 2242
Email: R.E.Pernice@massey.ac.nz

.....
.....
Would you like a summary of the group results of the study?

If YES please email me your contact details in a separate email to the completed questionnaire. Email address: MAthesis2007@hotmail.com. I thank you greatly for your participation.



QUESTIONNAIRE FOR AFRICAN MIGRANTS IN NEW ZEALAND

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. Remember: Only answer this if you have ongoing employment, are looking for ongoing employment or have previously had ongoing employment in New Zealand. There is no right or wrong answer.

A. This section asks you about your job searching experiences.

1. How have you tried to find employment or how did you find your current **main** employment in New Zealand? (For those who are not working and not looking for employment at the moment but have had a job in New Zealand before, please think of the last ongoing employment you had).

If you have more than one employment please use ONLY ONE FOR ALL your answers.

(Tick (✓) all that you have done)

- Went to Work and Income New Zealand (WINZ)
- Answered advertisements in ethnic newspapers
- Answered advertisements in New Zealand newspapers
- Answered advertisements on the internet
- Answered advertisements in professional journals
- Approached employers directly by email/mail
- Approached employers directly in person
- Approached employers directly by telephone
- Asked friends and/or families about jobs that they know of
- Went to employment agencies
- Talked to immigration consultant
- Talked to refugee volunteer/sponsor
- Contacted a settlement support service
- Went to a career exposition
- Placed advertisements in professional journals
- Placed advertisements in the newspaper
- Did volunteer work in any organisation
- Wrote a Curriculum Vitae (CV)/Resume
- Looked for jobs on the internet

- Gained more qualifications/training in the same area/subject as from home country
- Gained more qualifications/ training in a different area/subject than from home country
- Gone to courses/programme to help improve my job finding skills
- Found out information about starting own business in NZ
- Gone to courses to improve my English
- Arranged job before arriving in New Zealand
- Other (please specify) _____

2. How often would you usually do the following in a job interview in New Zealand?

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Never</i>	<i>rarely</i>	<i>some of the time</i>	<i>most of the time</i>	<i>Always</i>

(Circle the number that applies to you)

Have a firm handshake	1	2	3	4	5
Wear informal NZ clothes	1	2	3	4	5
Smile at interviewer	1	2	3	4	5
Show confidence	1	2	3	4	5
Make eye contact with interviewer	1	2	3	4	5
Focus on what I can do for the company	1	2	3	4	5
Arrive early or on time for the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Have a gentle handshake	1	2	3	4	5
Wear formal NZ style clothes	1	2	3	4	5
Avoid eye contact with interviewer	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my people skills	1	2	3	4	5
Focus on what the company can do for me	1	2	3	4	5
Use humour in the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my skills	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my family	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my country	1	2	3	4	5
Arrive a little bit late for the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Learn about the company before interview	1	2	3	4	5
Ask questions about the company and the job	1	2	3	4	5

3. Please circle a number below to show your level of confidence about your job searching.

If you have employment, think of the main current employment

If you are looking for employment, think of your current situation

If you don't have employment and are not looking but have had employment in New Zealand, think of the last main employment you had.

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Strongly agree</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Not sure</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Strongly Disagree</i>

I feel/felt certain about my ability to search for the job I want	1	2	3	4
5				
I have/had what it takes to get a good job/employment	1	2	3	4
5				
I am/was confident that my job search will be successful	1	2	3	4
5				

B. This section asks you about the results of your job search process. Please carefully answer each question by circling, ticking your answer or writing your answer.

4. Are you currently working? YES¹ (go to question 5)

NO² (go to question 11)

5. What type of employment are you in?

(Please Tick (✓) **only** the one that applies to your **main** employment)

- Full time permanent employment¹
- Part time permanent employment²
- Casual but ongoing employment³
- Short-term employment/ on a contract⁴
- Self – employment⁵

6. What kind of job is your current MAIN job? (For example: customer service, trade, health...)

Please specify _____

7. How long did it take you to find this employment? (Only think of the time when you were actively looking for a job).

___ Years ___ Months ___ Weeks ___ Days

8. Does this job use your qualifications/training?

YES¹ SOMEWHAT² NO²

9. Which of the following options best describes your current employment?

- In line with my qualifications and training¹
- Below my qualifications and training²
- Really below my qualifications and training³

10. Is this your first employment in New Zealand?

YES¹

NO² (Please go to question 14 in Section C)

11. Are you currently looking for employment?

YES¹ (please continue)

NO² (go to question 13)

12. How long have you been actively looking for employment?

___ Years ___ Months ___ Weeks ___ Days

13. Have you had permanent employment in New Zealand before?

YES¹

NO²

C. This section is about the feelings you have experienced in trying to find a job in New Zealand

14. How do you or did you feel about your experience of your job searching process in New Zealand?

(Please circle the 'Y' under **ONE** face that is the closest match to your feeling)



Y¹



Y²



Y³



Y⁴



Y⁵

15. How do you or did you feel about the outcome of your job search process?

Very dissatisfied¹ not satisfied² just okay³ satisfied⁴ very satisfied⁵

16. How do you or did you feel about your job search process?

Very dissatisfied¹ not satisfied² just okay³ satisfied⁴ very satisfied⁵

D. This section is about how much you prefer to practice activities from your home culture and how much you prefer adopting Kiwi culture

17. How much of the time do you prefer to keep practices from your own home culture and/or to adopt practice from Kiwi culture in terms of the daily experiences/behaviours listed in the table?

(Please circle 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5 for the home culture AND for Kiwi culture)

<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Never/ Not relevant</i>	<i>rarely</i>	<i>some of the time</i>	<i>most of the time</i>	<i>always</i>

	HOME CULTURE	KIWI CULTURE
I prefer to wear clothing from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to know general knowledge from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to eat the same/similar type food from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to practice religious beliefs from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to take part in recreational activities (for example sport or hobbies) from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to identify myself in relation to	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to attend/take part in cultural events/activities from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to hold values similar to that of	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to have friends from	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to use the skills and knowledge gained/developed from my home country	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to speak the language from (<i>home culture/kiwi culture</i>) at home	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to speak the language from (<i>home culture/NZ culture</i>) outside of my home	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to look for jobs the same way as it is done in	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
At job interviews , I prefer to do as it is done in	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
I prefer to talk to people from <i>home/New Zealand</i> about job opportunities	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

E. This section asks you about yourself and your migration

Please provide some information about yourself for statistical use ONLY.

(Write, circle, or tick (✓) the answer that applies to you)

Are you: MALE¹/FEMALE²

Age: _____ years

Country of origin: _____

What is your highest educational qualification? (Please tick (✓) the answer)

- NO QUALIFICATION¹
- HIGH SCHOOL/SECONDARY²
- DIPLOMA³
- TRADE QUALIFICATION⁴
- UNIVERSITY DEGREE⁵
- POSTGRADUATE DIPLOMA/DEGREE⁶
- MASTERS DEGREE⁷
- PHD⁸

How is your level of reading English? EXCELLENT¹ GOOD² OKAY³ POOR⁴

Are you doing or have you done any English course/study/programme since arriving to New Zealand? (For example: IELTS, ETC, ESOL)

YES¹ Please specify _____ NO²

Is English your first language? YES¹ NO²

Which category did you come to New Zealand under?

- SKILLED MIGRANT¹ (PERHAPS UNDER THE POINTS SYSTEM)
- REFUGEE²
- ASYLUM SEEKER³
- FAMILY QUOTA⁴
- FAMILY REUNIFICATION⁵
- BUSINESS⁶ (PERHAPS UNDER THE POINTS SYSTEM)
- STUDENT⁷
- OTHER⁸(E.G. STUDENT, VISITOR), IF OTHER PLEASE SPECIFY _____?

How long have you been in New Zealand? ____ Years ____ months

Why did you come to New Zealand?

Please indicate how much each of the following influenced your reason for coming to New Zealand.

(Please circle the number that applies to you)

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all/not relevant	A little	not sure	A lot	Very much

1. I/My family enjoy seeing the world	1	2	3	4	5
2. I/My family wanted a peaceful life	1	2	3	4	5
3. I/My family wanted to have greater political freedom	1	2	3	4	5
4. I/My family had to earn more money	1	2	3	4	5
5. I/my family had achieved to the maximum possible level in my career in the home country/where I was	1	2	3	4	5
6. I/My family love to visit different places	1	2	3	4	5
7. I/My family needed an exciting environment to live in	1	2	3	4	5
8. I/my family wanted to give high quality educations to the children	1	2	3	4	5
9. I/my family wanted a high salary	1	2	3	4	5
10. I/my family needed new challenges	1	2	3	4	5
11. My/our poor financial position in my/our home country pulled me/us towards New Zealand	1	2	3	4	5
12. I/my family wanted to learn more so I/we can make my/our career in my/our home country better	1	2	3	4	5
13. I/my family like to see new things	1	2	3	4	5
14. I/my family wanted to escape from the ethnic conflict	1	2	3	4	5
15. I/my family wanted to learn about new developments and go back to my/our country and make my/our career better	1	2	3	4	5
16. I/my family enjoy living in different countries	1	2	3	4	5
17. I/my family wanted to have a good quality of life	1	2	3	4	5
18. I/my family wanted something different from what I/we had	1	2	3	4	5
19. I/my family faced a lot of difficulties due to the political situation in the country	1	2	3	4	5
20. I/my family wanted to give the children a better life	1	2	3	4	5
21. I/my family felt I/we could learn more in New Zealand	1	2	3	4	5
22. I/my family was/were a victim(s) of war	1	2	3	4	5
23. I/my family wanted to take advantage of opportunities that I/we did not have in home country	1	2	3	4	5
24. I followed my partner/spouse's decision to come to NZ	1	2	3	4	5

Your help in completing this questionnaire is much appreciated. Please put it in the stamped envelope provided and mail it to me. Please return the completed questionnaire within one week of receiving it.

Appendix B

Factor Analysis Results– Acculturation Index

KMO and Bartlett's Test

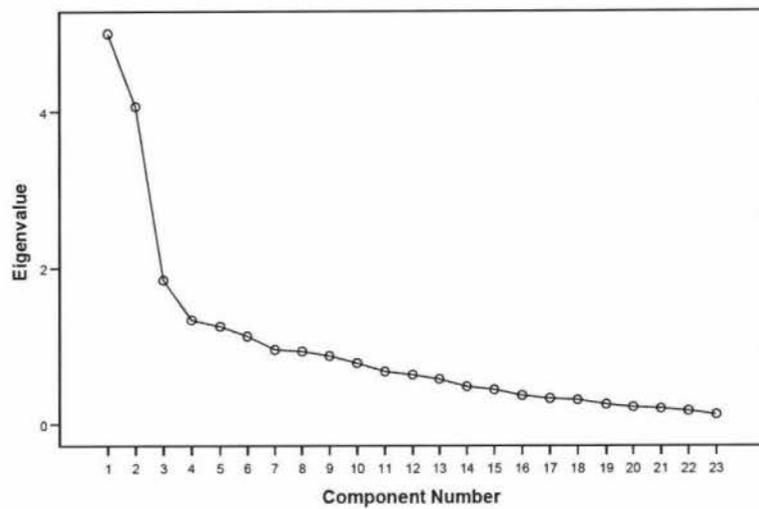
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.716
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	870.008
	df	253
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Hclothing	1.000	.288
Hfood	1.000	.472
Hreligious beliefs	1.000	.233
Hrecreational activities	1.000	.490
Hidentity	1.000	.554
Hcultural events/activities	1.000	.338
Hvalues	1.000	.475
Hfriends	1.000	.429
Hlanguage used at home	1.000	.358
HLanguage used outside of home	1.000	.332
Hjob opportunities	1.000	.403
NZclothing	1.000	.259
NZfood	1.000	.278
NZreligious beliefs	1.000	.182
NZrecreational activities	1.000	.514
NZidentity	1.000	.442
NZcultural events/activities	1.000	.340
NZvalues	1.000	.280
NZfriends	1.000	.521
NZlanguage used at home	1.000	.249
NZlook for jobs	1.000	.543
NZjob interviews	1.000	.536
NZjob opportunities	1.000	.550

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot



Appendix C

Factor Analysis Results – Psychological Motives to Migrate measure

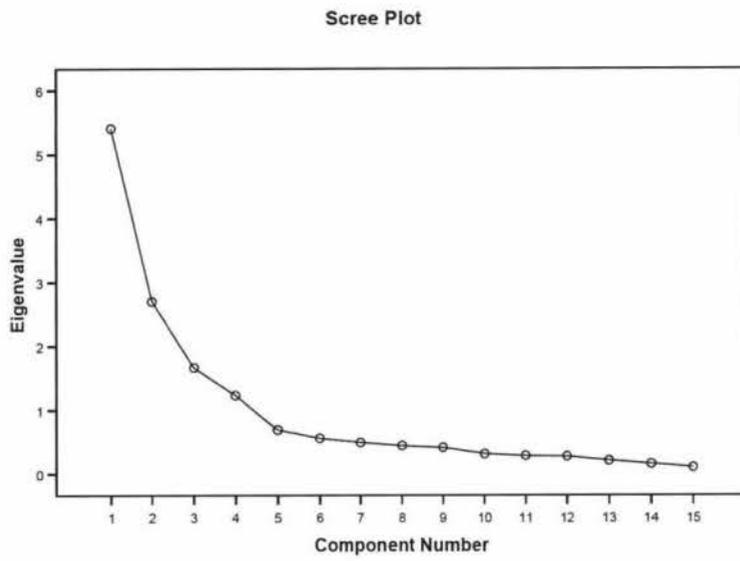
KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.798
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	869.678
	df	105
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
See the world	1.000	.749
money	1.000	.798
visiting	1.000	.812
environment	1.000	.572
education	1.000	.755
salary	1.000	.760
financial	1.000	.621
New things	1.000	.882
Ethnic conflict	1.000	.700
Different countries	1.000	.723
Quality of life	1.000	.648
Political situation	1.000	.756
Children life	1.000	.760
Learn in NZ	1.000	.668
war	1.000	.802

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.



Appendix D

Factor Analysis Results– Job Interview behaviour measure

KMO and Bartlett's Test

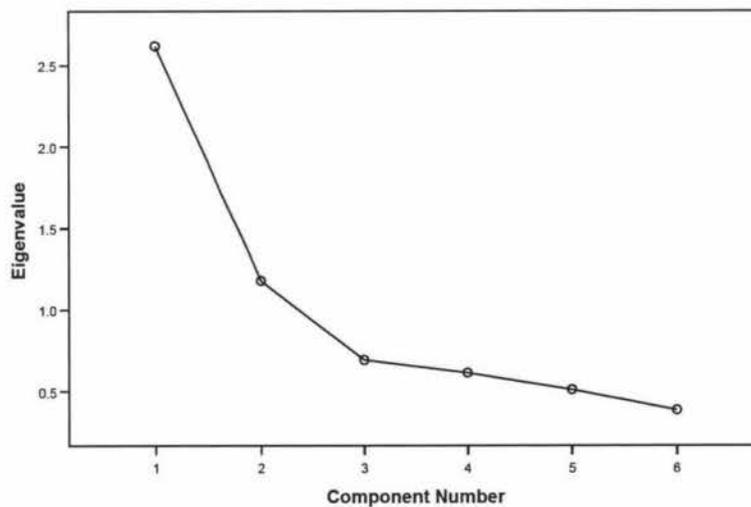
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.742
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	132.706
	df	15
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Show confidence	1.000	.720
Make eye contact with interviewer	1.000	.708
Focus on what I can do for company	1.000	.446
Arrive early or on time	1.000	.631
learn about company	1.000	.695
ask qs about company and job	1.000	.597

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot



Appendix E

Mancova Results– Demographic Migration Category and Acculturation

	Migration Category	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Maintain culture of origin	Humanitarian	3.7470	.44952	23
	Family	3.8926	.41024	11
	economic	3.3824	.87305	34
	other	3.6682	.78107	20
	Total	3.6064	.72724	88
Adapt to New Zealand Culture	Humanitarian	3.6908	.63825	23
	Family	3.3737	.49008	11
	economic	3.3824	.80505	34
	other	3.6056	.71235	20
	Total	3.5126	.71184	88

Appendix F*Ancova Results – Demographic Migration Category and Employment Outcome*

Dependent Variable: Employment Outcome

Migration Category	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Humanitarian	4.27	1.991	26
Family	4.08	2.610	12
economic	4.98	1.725	41
other	4.86	1.905	21
Total	4.66	1.955	100