Psycho-social correlates of employment amongst skilled newcomers to
New Zealand

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Abstract

This socially relevant research focused on immigrants and refugees who have arrived in New Zealand in the last five years and investigated the affect, behaviours and cognitions associated with trying to find work that matched their qualifications. While there has been a lot of research on immigrants and refugees from various perspectives, not much has focused specifically on the psycho-social correlates of under-employment that skilled newcomers to New Zealand face, in trying to find work that matches their existing qualifications. This research investigated how a) behaviours used pre-interview, b) behaviours used at interview, c) cognitive flexibility, d) acculturation style adopted by the newcomer to New Zealand, e) acculturation 'fit' between the acculturation styles of the newcomer and the employment community predicted (i) how close the newcomer came to finding a job that matched their qualifications and subsequent (ii) employment related emotional well-being. A sample of 70 newcomers (66% migrants, 17% refugees) filled in a questionnaire on these issues. Pre-interview behaviours, "here's what I can do for you" behaviours at interviews, cognitive flexibility and adapting to New Zealand culture all significantly predict how close the newcomer will come to finding jobs that match their qualifications and this in turn predicts employment related emotional well-being. Research of this kind may be used eventually to inform immigration policy and, more importantly, to assist immigrants with finding employment that matches their qualifications.

Acknowledgements

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Chapter 1   Introduction

Over recent years, the world has been becoming increasingly smaller, with technological advances, accelerated transportation and increased media communication (Hermans & Kempen, 1998). With this decreasing distance, there is a growing movement of people from country to country (Carmon, 1996) through migration and immigration which "is drawing people from different cultural origins into close relationships" (Hermans & Kempen, 1998, p. 1111). These inter-cultural relationships bring various challenges (for example lifestyle and language choices) to the people involved, which can enhance or detract from their quality of life and psychosocial well-being. People coming into a country bring a variety of skills and knowledge with them, and this research hopes to add to our understanding of some of the challenges that newcomers face in the search for employment in New Zealand, and how this affects their psychosocial wellbeing.

Historical Context

Migration to New Zealand has occurred from its earliest recorded history. New Zealand is surrounded by sea and over the years the country has attracted seafarers. The first inhabitants of New Zealand were the Moiriori people, followed by the Māori people who migrated to New Zealand between 1200 -1400 AD (Knox, 1977, p. 41) and settled throughout the country. The Māori are recognised as the tangata whenua (Māori words meaning "people of the land", the indigenous people of New Zealand). The first European settlement was established in 1814 (Knox, 1977). From then on settlers from all nations of the world have come to New Zealand and sought to make their home here.

Over the years, the population of New Zealand has grown by migration as well as by natural increase. In 1880, government assisted immigration boasted the population of New Zealand to 500,000 (http://www.statistics.govt.nz/domino/external/Web/nzstories.nsf, 25/01/03). Refugees came from Europe in the 1930s and 40s, Poland post-war and the Indo-Chinese in the 1970s. (http://www.statistics.govt.nz/domino/external/Web/nzstories.nsf, 25/01/03). Approximately 20% of the New Zealand's population growth between 1952-1973 is considered to have come from immigration (http://www.statistics.govt.nz/domino/external/Web/nzstories.nsf, 25/01/03). More recently immigration has continued to have a major influence on New Zealand with 35,000 people entering New Zealand in the 1997/1998 and 1998/1999 years; 38,000 in 1999/2000 and 2000/2001 years and 53,000 in the 2001/2002 year. The projected number to enter New Zealand during the 2002/2003 year is 45,000 (plus or minus 5,000) (http://www.immigration.govt.nz/research_and_information/statistics/R5.xls, 22/01/03). Thus, immigration is not in any way a new 'problem' in New Zealand nor is it a recent invention.

Political context

Immigration has always been a very sensitive political issue in New Zealand. Immigration has been governed by laws that would seek to restrict or to hinder immigration of some groups into the country. Examples of the legislation include the Chinese Immigration Act of 1881 and the Asiatic Immigration Act of 1899 (Selvarajah, 1997). These Acts sought to limit the numbers of Asians that were entering New Zealand due to perceptions by people living in New Zealand of 'unfair competition' in the employment realms (Selvarajah, 1997, p. 3). During the mid 1980s, changes were made to the immigration laws, which freed previous restrictions and encouraged skilled migrants to immigrate to New Zealand (Selvarajah, 1996). In 1991, the Points system was introduced (Selvarajah, 1996) which awarded points based upon qualifications,

working experience and other factors to ensure that well-qualified and skilled people able to assist the New Zealand economy came to New Zealand (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002a). Even as this thesis is being researched, there are major changes afoot with the immigration policies (for example the requirement that all people entering in New Zealand have a job offer for a job that matches their qualifications prior to entry). Thus, immigration continues to be a sensitive political topic, not only in the political arena but also in the economic arena, where immigration impacts peoples' lives.

Economic context

New Zealand, along with other Western countries, has been recently promoting the concept of the knowledge economy. Beck (1992, cited in Lee & Westwood, 1996) states that in a technological economy, people with knowledge are in demand. The knowledge economy has been the focus of two annual conferences in New Zealand which have combined community, government and business leaders, to try and take advantage of the growth of knowledge that is occurring and how to capitalise on this situation (http://www.knowledgewave.org.nz/index.php?fpg=home, 1/7/03). One of the major sources of knowledge within New Zealand, is that which the immigrants bring, as the current immigration policy encourages skilled migrants to come to New Zealand. People bring different degrees of knowledge and skill with them as they emigrate to New Zealand, but the New Zealand economy only benefits if the newcomers find jobs that match their qualifications and skills (Glass & Choy, 2001). This thesis looks at how New Zealand is currently utilising the skills that the newcomers bring to New Zealand, and how we can help the newcomers to more effectively utilise their skills to improve the economy.

There is a concept that has recently been introduced in the migration literature called 'brain waste' (Mahroum, 2000). Brain waste occurs when skilled people cannot find work equivalent to previous work experience that matches their qualifications (Mahroum, 2000). Brain waste is often bounded by prejudice and discrimination by the potential employer (Carr, in press). In the psychological literature the concept of brain waste is called under-employment. For example, under-employment was defined by Lock (1992) as "a situation in which a person is working in an occupation that does not use his or her maximum ability or skills acquired in training" (Lock, 1992, p. 48). Under-employment and brain waste both have psychological consequences for the skilled migrants themselves, and it is to these issues that we now turn.

Psychological context

This research explores the psychological consequences of under-employment amongst the skilled newcomers in New Zealand. For the purposes of the research, newcomers are defined as anyone who has arrived in New Zealand in the past five years, either as a migrant, a refugee or an asylum seeker. The period of five years was chosen arbitrarily by the researcher. In a summary of the research on culture shock and acculturation, Ward, Bochner & Furnham (2001) propose that the best explanation of culture shock and acculturation uses a model that incorporates affect, behaviours and cognitions (ABC) in the research. Hence, the following diagram (see Figure 1.1 on the next page) summarises the model that is tested in this particular research.

Behaviours
Pre-interview
Interview

Cognitive Flexibility

Acculturation style

'Fit' of aculturation style between employer and newcomer

How close a newcomer comes to getting a job that matches their qualifications

Employment related emotional well-being
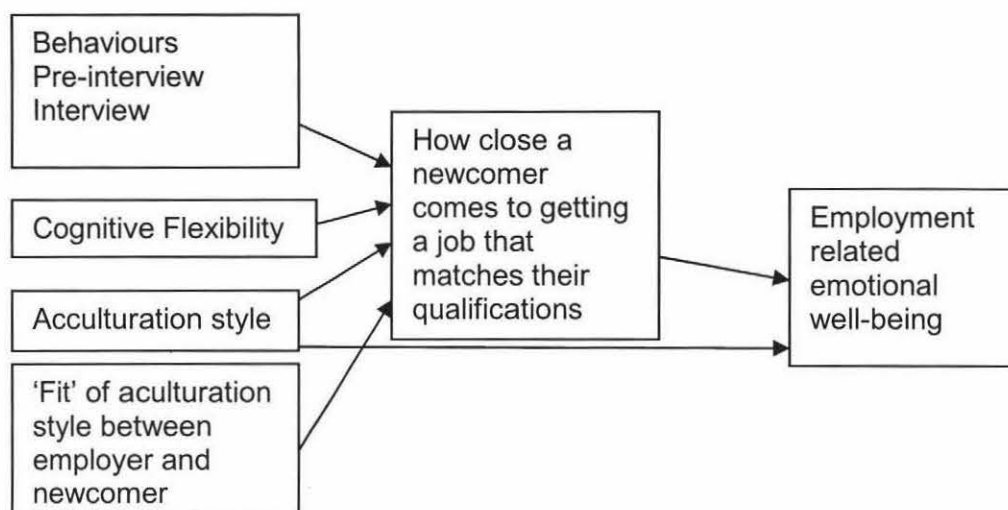
Figure 1.1: Model being tested in this research with predicted paths

Employment related emotional well-being

One of the major constructs being looked at in this particular research is the construct of employment related emotional well-being. Well-being has been defined operationally by many different authors (Watson, Clark & Tellegen,1988; Carr, 2003) and relates to how people feel about their lives in general. Well-being can be positive or negative in its outlook and can include stress, eustress, distress and happiness. As it has just been defined, well-being is too broad for inclusion in my research, so for my research the meaning has been restricted to the emotional impact of trying to find a job and the eventual outcome of this process i.e. employment related emotional well-being.

In Figure 1.1, employment related emotional well-being has been linked to how close people come to having a job that matches their qualifications. Jobs are vital to many areas of life and provide, according to Hulin (2002): a sense of identity, source of relationships, obligatory activity, autonomy, opportunities to develop skills and creativity, source of purpose in life, self-worth and self-esteem, income and security and it gives other activities meaning (Hulin, 2002, p. 4-5). New Zealand studies (Kam Chan, 2002; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001; Glass & Choy, 2001; Oliver, 2000; McNab,

1998), reviewed later show that newcomers often find getting a job harder than they expected, and that the newcomers tend to be unemployed or under-employed for significant periods of time. Some of the psychological effects of unemployment and under-employment are now examined.

Unemployment

In a review of the unemployment literature, Freyer & Payne (1986) conclude that unemployment had far-reaching psychological consequences including increased guilt, higher levels of strain, more negative feelings, lower happiness levels, less pleasure, fewer positive feelings and lower negative self-esteem. For many unemployed people, "their economic, social and psychological well-being deteriorates" (Freyer & Payne, 1986, p. 259) with unemployment. The drop in psychological well-being occurs within weeks of becoming unemployed, worsens at about 3 months of unemployment, and then remains stable (Freyer & Payne, 1986). In reviewing the social psychological aspects of unemployment, Kelvin & Jarrett (1985) conclude that unemployment is for the majority "deeply disturbing, distressing and debilitating" (Kelvin & Jarrett, 1985, p. 6), and that unemployment undermines people's status and damages their self-concept, which leads to resentment, anger and frustration at the humiliating situation which they find themselves.

Under-employment

Under-employment has defined by Feldman (1996) as either: possessing more formal education than the job requires; being involuntarily employed outside of area of education; possessing higher-level work skills and more experience than the job involves; being involuntarily engaged in part-time, temporary or intermittent work; and earning wages 20% less than their previous job (Feldman, 1996, p. 388). For some people, under-employment is a lifestyle choice, but others (especially newcomers to

New Zealand) are forced into this situation through the circumstances they find themselves in. Under-employment can potentially affect productivity, profits, work-satisfaction, self-esteem, stress levels, health status and capacity to enjoy life outside work (O'Brien, 1986). There also could be economic consequences of under-employment in that families may find it difficult to maintain standards of living on a lower income.

The psychological costs of under-employment are also significant. Under-employment has been consistently linked to poorer job attitudes in terms of satisfaction experienced, commitment to organisations, and motivation (Feldman, 1996). Under-employment has been positively correlated with depression and negatively correlated with self-esteem, locus of control and general well-being or affect, often affecting people's well-being to such an extent that their well-being when under-employed is similar to that when unemployed (Feldman, 1996). In a study looking at executives who were re-employed after a layoff in an under-employment situation, Feldman, Leana & Bolino (2002) showed that under utilisation of their previous skills was a major cause of stress to the executives and that the psychological costs were significant. Thus, under-employment amongst the skilled newcomers to New Zealand, is likely to be a major issue in their employment related emotional well-being.

Under-employment and unemployment have both been shown to impact on well-being and it is hypothesised that both under-employment and unemployment will negatively affect the newcomer's employment related emotional well-being as shown in Figure 1.1. Both unemployment and under-employment contribute to brain waste (Morhaum, 2000). My research, from Figure 1.1, sets to find out if there are any changes in the employment related emotional well-being that occur in newcomers because of either unemployment or underemployment after arrival in New Zealand.

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Emotion has been defined as having two orthogonal dimensions by Watson, Clark & Tellegen (1988), called positive affect and negative affect (which are found when factor analysing the responses to various mood words). Positive affect has been defined as the "extent to which a person feels enthusiastic, active and alert" (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988, p. 1063). Negative affect has been defined as "subjective distress and unpleasurable engagement" (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988, p. 1063). These factors have been consistently found in rotated factor solutions when mood inducing words have been shown to people, regardless of the time frame used (Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Watson Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The time frames, Watson, Clark & Tellegen (1988) utilised ranged from this moment up to during the last year and a general category (you generally feel this way or this is how you feel on average). In my research, I am using positive and negative affect to reflect the employment related emotional well-being of newcomers to New Zealand, by specifying the time frame "the time spend looking for a job and its outcome" (see Appendix B for questionnaire) and looking at various antecedents of employment related emotional well-being as shown in Figure 1.1.

It is expected that the employment related emotional well-being of the newcomer will be significantly impacted by whether they have a job or not. It is hypothesised that there will be high degrees of frustration experienced by the newcomer to New Zealand while looking for a job that matches their qualifications. As shown in Figure 1.1, it is also hypothesised that the closer the newcomer comes to having a job that matches their qualifications the greater the newcomer's employment related emotional well-being.

As the previous discussion, has established a link between employment related emotional well-being and how close the newcomer comes to finding work that matches their qualifications (the right hand side of Figure 1.1), any impact from the other factors

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in Figure 1.1 on how close the newcomer comes to finding work, will be assumed to impact on the employment related emotional well-being of the newcomer. The review now focuses on the research around how close newcomers come to getting jobs that match their qualifications. Finally, the review will explore the antecedents of employment related emotional well-being and job closeness (as shown on the left hand side of Figure 1.1), by defining and looking at relationships that the literature would predict. The review looks at behaviours, cognitions and finally emotions (or affect).

How close a newcomer comes to finding a job

From Figure 1.1, how close the newcomer to New Zealand comes to getting a job that matches their qualifications is thought to impact both on the employment related emotional well-being and also be impacted by the affect, behaviour and cognitions (as described on the left hand side of Figure 1.1).

Overseas research shows that under-employment and unemployment of newcomers is quite common. In studying acculturation attitudes in Turkish migrants to Canada and how these relate to employment, Aycan & Berry (1996) found there were 30.9% employed in satisfactory work conditions, 36.4% currently unemployed and 32.7% underemployed, with only 28.2% never having been unemployed in Canada. Aycan & Berry suggested reasons for the unemployment or underemployment were a lack of competence in the national languages, difficulty in getting qualifications recognised, expensive and demanding required tests and lack of Canadian work experience (Aycan & Berry, 1996). From a London employment centre working with immigrants, Cliff (2000) stated that while approximately 30% of their clients have degrees or post-graduate degrees from overseas, most of their clients need to take courses, get UK qualifications and work experience to make contacts in order to find appropriate employment (Cliff, 2000). Thus, while there is evidence of brain waste in most Western

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countries, often the newcomer is blamed for the brain waste when in fact it may be caused by barriers beyond their control. My research sets out to look at whether the barriers experienced by the newcomer are contributed to by external factors or from the newcomer themselves or are a combination of both (as shown in Figure 1.1).

Empirical evidence from USA, Israel, Netherlands and UK, provides evidence that immigrants come in to a new country with high expectations of being able to find work successfully. From the UK, Stein (1986) points out that refugees have high expectations about their new country, and that they don't expect to lose anything because of their migration. In Israel, Krau (1984) compared Eastern European immigrants with a sample of white collar employees. The results suggested that work has a large impact on immigrants' lives and that immigrants consider obtaining work to be their career in the new country, and yet the immigrants find trying to find work frustrating. This often results in lowered expectations when having to take a low status job, in spite of a high commitment to work and high skill base (Krau, 1984). Newcomers tend to concentrate on achieving their immediate goals and adjusting to the occupational world in the new country, which is often unfamiliar to the immigrants (Krau, 1984). While looking at professional workers (with significant work experience) who migrated to Canada, United States and Australia, Lee & Westwood (1996) conclude there is a need for the migrants to acquire skills to obtain employment (eg language, job finding skills, computer technology and labour market). This is also the situation in New Zealand, as will be looked at now.

Entry into New Zealand currently is based on a points system. The points are awarded based on qualifications, years of experience, a job offer in New Zealand and age, amongst other factors (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002b). Once the potential migrant has the required number of points as determined by the Minister of Immigration, they can apply to enter New Zealand. This situation leads to an

expectation that New Zealand values the skills and experience the newcomer brings as these skills have allowed them to generate more points. This expectation brings about a situation of over promising and under delivery by New Zealand, as the newcomer often finds it hard to find work that matches their qualifications once they arrive here(Johns & Ainsworth, 2001;Oliver, 2000).

Evidence for the raised expectations in the newcomers is provided by numerous studies (Johns & Ainsworth, 2001;Oliver, 2000). While looking at gaps in settlement services in Auckland and options to meet the gaps, Johns & Ainsworth (2001) found "They *(the newcomer)* expected to have employment – as their qualifications and work experience had enabled them to generate the points required for them to be accepted in New Zealand" (Johns & Ainsworth, 2001, p. 1063, italics mine). More evidence is provided by Oliver (2000), when assessing Work and Income New Zealand's (WINZ) effectiveness in meeting the needs of 39 professional migrants, stated that "all had arrived with a belief that they would settle into meaningful work within six to eight weeks of arriving in New Zealand, and an expectation that the process would be straightforward" (Oliver, 2000, p. 6). In describing attitudes to migration amongst Indian groups, Wali (2001) states that most Indians migrate "with high expectations for better living standards and more financial prosperity" (Wali, 2001, p. 13), but then admits that these expectations are not often met on arrival in New Zealand.

The New Zealand Immigration Service tries to reduce the expectations of newcomers before coming to New Zealand but this appears to be unsuccessful. Examples of statements to reduce the expectations include the following (provided in the middle of a book on what New Zealand is like):

the job market ...is very competitive and some employers may not recognise your overseas qualifications and training. (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002a, p. 15)

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Some employers specifically look for New Zealand work experience when recruiting new staff. (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002a, p. 15)

You may have to accept a position at a lower level than you have now. You may also have to think about working in a related job until you can find a job in your usual profession (New Zealand Immigration Service, 2002a, p. 15)

As detailed above, these statements appear to be unsuccessful at lowering expectations of the newcomers to New Zealand, and the reality hits the newcomer once they are in New Zealand and find themselves under-employed or unemployed.

Once newcomers arrive in New Zealand, they often discover that finding a job is harder than they expected (Johns & Ainsworth, 2001; Glass & Choy, 2001; Oliver, 2000; McNab, 1998). Most tend to be underemployed or unemployed for significant periods of time (Glass & Choy, 2001; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001; Oliver, 2000, McNab, 1998). In her study of 39 professional migrants, Oliver (2000), found more than 50% of the migrants were in a lower position in New Zealand than before they migrated, often after undertaking some New Zealand training. While looking specifically at long term Asian migrants in the Auckland region (most had lived in New Zealand for 3 years or longer), Kam Chan (2002) showed that   35% in full time employment, 13% in part time employment, 10% in self employment and 42% were unemployed, (compared to national   unemployment   of   approximately   5%(http://www.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/pasfull/pasfull.nsf/0/4c2567ef00247c6acc256d7c0001dae4/$FILE/alltab.xls, 21/8/03)). Economic evidence is provided by Winkelmann (1998), that whilst immigrant males arrive with higher qualifications on average than New Zealand born males, the incomes of the immigrants were well below the comparable New Zealand born male and that these income differences tended to persist over time. Winkelmann concludes

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that "high qualifications alone do not guarantee successful labor market outcomes" (Winkelmann, 1998, p. 23). This situation results in New Zealand experiencing lots of brain waste (Morhaum, 2001) despite the raised expectations that are generated prior to arrival in New Zealand.

A key barrier that is faced by newcomers is potential discrimination and prejudice, according to previous research (Oliver, 2000; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001; McNab, 1998; Burns, 2000). New Zealand organisations according to Elkin & Inkson (2000) may exhibit prejudice based on age, gender, ethnicity or any other noticeable differences in body makeup. This is borne out by McLachlan (1999) who states that the norm for employment in New Zealand is to be "male, able-bodied and Caucausian" (McLachlan, 1999, p. 157) and that people outside of these categories will face greater obstacles to finding a job. The Equal Employment Opportunities Trust interviewed recruitment professionals and found that people with a non-New Zealand accent and people from a different culture were likely to experience barriers in trying to find employment (Burns, 2000). In the early 1970s, Trlin (1974) sampled registered voters in Auckland to measure the preference of New Zealanders to different ethnic groups. Trlin found that the rankings from most acceptable to least acceptable ethnic group were people from the United Kingdom, United States of America, Denmark, Sweden, Netherlands, Germany, Yugoslavia, Hungary, Italy, China, Western Samoa, Japan, Niue and India (from Table XLVI, Trlin, 1974, p. 365). Thus this forms the cultural milieu that all newcomers come to New Zealand face in trying to find a job that matches their qualifications.

Some other barriers that newcomers face, as identified by previous research, include: lack of English skills (Oliver, 2000; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001;Burns 2000), not having New Zealand work experience (McNab, 1998; McCarthy, 2003; Oliver, 2000), qualifications not being recognised (either by the government agency -New Zealand

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Qualifications Authority, or by professional bodies) (McNab, 1998; Oliver, 2000; Lee & Westwood, 1996), and being unfamiliar with New Zealand culture and employment markets (Oliver, 2000; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001). This research sets out to find out whether any of these potential barriers are identified as being important by the newcomers themselves.

This review will now focus on the behaviours, cognitions and affect from Figure 1.1 that could affect a newcomer getting a job that matched their qualifications. I have detailed the information from the right hand side of Figure 1.1 and the centre circle, so any impact from the following antecedents (behaviour, cognitions and affect) on how close newcomers come to getting a job that matches their qualifications will be assumed to impact on the their employment related emotional well-being as well as their job success. Firstly, this review will turn its attention to behaviours exhibited by the newcomer to New Zealand in trying to find a job that matches their qualifications.

Behaviours

a) Pre-interview

Behaviours utilised before the interview to try and find a job, play an important role in whether an applicant gets a job or not (e.g. if someone does not apply for a job, then they will not be employed even though they could do the job). Previous research has described three different types of behaviour used to job seek prior to an interview: informal job searching methods, formal job searching methods and direct approach methods (Huffman & Torres, 2001). Informal methods involve utilising contacts and networking to find a job, often referred to in the popular literature as the 'hidden job market' (McLachlan, 1999). Formal job searching methods include: reading job advertisements and approaching employment agencies. Direct approach methods include approaching an employer directly. This research sets out to test how many of

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these methods have been utilised by the newcomer to New Zealand to try and find a job that matches their qualifications as shown in Figure 1.1. I will now look at some of these methods starting with the informal methods.

Networking is considered to be the most successful method to get a job in New Zealand (McLachlan,1999). A major drawback to newcomers utilising this method, is that the newcomers don't have established networks on arrival and building networks takes time. In contrast to what McLachlan stated, while reviewing unemployment in the United Kingdom, Kelvin & Jarrett (1985), found that approaching employers directly was the most successful tactic for the semi-skilled and skilled workers, but networking was best option for the unskilled workers. As most of the newcomers to New Zealand are skilled, this may indicate that approaching employers directly may be a better alternative for the newcomer to use in theory. There have also been gender influences found in the use of networks (Huffman & Torres, 2001).

While looking at the job search methods and job search outcomes of 9000 college graduates in the United States, Mau & Kopischke (2001) found that writing a resume was the most commonly used job search method and answering want advertisements was the second most commonly used job search method. Mau & Kopischke found that the number of interviews increased, the more job search methods were used. Mau & Kopischke also found significant job search differences depending on race and sex, but no differences in the overall job search outcomes but significant differences in underemployment and annual salary measures. Newcomers to New Zealand are expected to utilise the resume or curriculum vitae as it is called in New Zealand and also want advertisements (see Figure 1.1).

In New Zealand also the Curriculum Vitae (CV) is important, as McLachlan (1999) states, "Interviews win jobs and CVs win interviews" (McLachlan, 1999, p. 81). CVs,

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recommends the New Zealand Herald, must be in a 'Kiwi format', up-to-date, not too long, with highlighted roles, experiences, strengths and skills matching the job description (McCarthy, 2003). It is very important to have a 'Kiwi format' CV, says Stoltz-Loike (1997) as the definition of what is a 'good' CV varies across the world. Thus, it is expected that for the newcomer to have written a CV would enhance potential employability.

While looking at different sized firms and their hiring practises in the United States, Barber, Wesson, Roberson & Susan Taylor (1999) found that large firms (greater than 1000 employees) utilised different hiring practices and evaluated effectiveness differently from small firms (less than 500 employees). As organisations in New Zealand tend to be considerably smaller than those in other countries, this finding could be very significant for the New Zealand market, especially if newcomers have come from countries where large organisations are the norm (e.g. India or United States).

In a meta-analysis of articles on job search factors and personality, Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz (2001) found that individuals who engage in greater job search behaviours were more likely to obtain employment than those who engaged in fewer job search behaviours. This finding was also found in Wanberg, Kanfer & Rotundo (1999). There is a caution expressed in Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz's research in that the studies they meta-analysed consisted of people who had lost their jobs and college aged students only, and that the results could be different for other groups of people who were looking for work.

Some other methods that have been tested empirically in the job search include:, employee referrals (Terpsta, 1996), college based recruiting (Terpsta, 1996), use of executive search firms (Terpsta, 1996) using professional organisations (Terpsta, 1996), answering help wanted signs (Huffman & Torres, 2001), using state or

government employment agency (Huffman & Torres, 2001), using temporary employment agencies (Huffman & Torres, 2001), using unions (Huffman & Torres, 2001), walking in and applying (Huffman & Torres, 2001) and calling an employer(Huffman & Torres, 2001). Volunteering has been found to improve career chances (Ellis, 1993). A lot of these behaviours were incorporated into the question that the newcomers to New Zealand answered.

This research sets out to investigate whether as shown in Figure 1.1, the more pre-interview behaviours newcomers to New Zealand exhibit whether this will affect how close they come to getting a job that matches their qualifications. The research lists various behaviours that could be used by the newcomers to help them find a job and asks them to tick the behaviours they had used to try to find a job. It is hypothesised that the more behaviours exhibited by the newcomers the closer they will get to finding a job that matches their qualifications. In their meta-analysis, Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz (2001) suggest that presentation may be as important to employment success as the job search, and it is to this issue that this review turns in terms of interview behaviour.

b) Interview behaviours

Once the potential employee's CV has attracted the attention of a would-be employer, they may be given an interview. While there is a trend recently toward assessing competencies in interviews, behaviour still plays a major part in determining the outcome of the interview. Effective interview skills vary depending on the country in which the interview takes place (Stolz-Loike, 1997). Hence, it may be important that newcomers are using skills that are relevant to New Zealand in an interview. This assumption will be tested in my research to see whether in fact this is true in a New Zealand setting.

Interviews have been the focus of much research (for summaries see Salgado & Moscoso, 2002; Gatewood & Field, 1998; Guion, 1991; Borman, Hanson & Hedge, 1997). The literature has tended to focus on the validity of interviews for predicting job performance, the psychometrics of different assessment tools used during the interview procedure, and the format of the interview (structured versus unstructured) but there are more basic issues which have been relatively unanswered in the literature, for example prejudice and unfairness.

Non-verbal behaviour plays a major role in interview outcomes, for example eye contact, smiling and posture were all important for positive interview outcomes according to Anderson (1992). Physical appearance (including obesity), grooming, dress, non-verbal behaviour, intelligence, skill, gender and ethnicity are all related to outcomes of interviews according to a review by Gatewood & Field (1998). While looking at graduate interviews at universities in the United Kingdom, Anderson & Shackleton (1990) concluded that eye contact and smiling were influential in positive interview outcomes. While some of these factors cannot be changed by the newcomer for example gender and ethnicity, this research looks at how relevant the other non-verbal behaviours are in a New Zealand setting.

Another barrier that has been proposed by Anderson (1992) when reviewing eight decades of interview research was that foreign or regional accents affected the interview outcome. The conclusion that regional or foreign accents affect the interview outcome is borne out by Burns (2000). In Burns' New Zealand study, while talking to recruitment officers about barriers that their clients had experienced, Burns found that having a non-New Zealand accent lead to higher levels of discrimination and greater barriers for the candidates. In fact it was the second most highly ranked factor that the recruiter's clients experienced discrimination because of (Burns, 2000).

From Figure 1.1, interview behaviour is believed to play an important part in how the newcomer to New Zealand is perceived, and hence whether they will get a job that matches their qualifications. Various interview behaviours are tested in this research to see if there was any impact on the newcomers getting a job that matched their qualifications. The behaviours chosen include behaviours that are thought to either help or hinder a positive interview outcome. The newcomer to New Zealand is asked to rank the frequency of usage of various behaviours. It is hypothesised that the closer the behaviours exhibited by the newcomers to the behaviours expected in job interviews in New Zealand, the closer the newcomer will get to finding a job that matches their qualifications. While behaviour is important, it is only part of the equation for the newcomers. Most of the newcomers to New Zealand are highly skilled, and so cognition or thinking often underlies their behaviour choices. This review now turns its attention to the cognitive factors that newcomers to New Zealand utilise.

Cognition

Cognitive Flexibility

Almost by definition perhaps, one of the major cognitive factors that could influence behaviour in general, is flexibility. For example, cognitive flexibility has been operationally defined as consisting of three parts a) awareness that in any given situation there are options and alternatives available, b) willingness to be flexible and adapt to the situation and c) self-efficacy in being flexible (Martin & Rubin, 1995, p. 623). This research sets out to test if flexibility in newcomers is related to them securing a job that matched their qualifications (see Figure 1.1). People who see alternative ways of behaving in situations show more cognitive flexibility, than those who tend to respond in a 'prescribed' fashion (Martin & Rubin, 1995; Martin, Anderson & Thweatt, 1998). People with low cognitive flexibility tend to remain in situations they

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know, which may indicate that voluntary migrants may be relatively high in terms of cognitive flexibility as they have voluntarily left a known situation. When testing the relationships between cognitive flexibility, assertiveness and responsiveness with both university students and the wider non-immigrant community in the United States, Martin & Anderson (1998) concluded that someone with high cognitive flexibility "would be willing to make the necessary (communication) changes to achieve a goal" (Martin & Anderson, 1998, p. 5, brackets added). The necessary changes are made because people who are cognitively flexible are more open to new experiences and to different ways of acting in situations they find themselves in. According to Martin & Anderson (1996), cognitive flexibility is also more predictive of a person's confidence in communicating to strangers than communicating to familiar individuals, and in particular in new situations. It is precisely these situations that newcomers to New Zealand would have to adapt to if they are going to find work successfully in New Zealand.

Research by Martin, Rubin & Thweatt (1988) tested cognitive flexibility in 276 college students in the United States. Briefly, Martin et al found positive correlations with cognitive flexibility to positive argumentativeness (tendency to focus on discussion content, rather than on the people involved) and tolerance for disagreement (perceiving negative affect slowly, and being more satisfied at work). Both of these tendencies have been shown to have positive implications in an organisational setting, especially for working within teams or groups (Martin, Rubin & Thweatt, 1988). Thus, having a high cognitive flexibility score, would in the above studies lead to someone relating better to the people around them, which would mean they were more successful in the workplace than people with low cognitive flexibility. But the focus of this research is getting into the workplace (see Figure 1.1), rather than the workplace itself, and people with high cognitive flexibility may be more open to adapting to new situations and hence pursue more ways of trying to find a job than people with low cognitive flexibility.

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In earlier research, Martin & Rubin (1995) had found a positive correlation amongst university students between cognitive flexibility and communication flexibility, interpersonal attentiveness, perceptiveness, extroversion, acting and other-directedness. In the same study a negative correlation was found by Martin & Rubin between cognitive flexibility and avoidance, reward and rigidity (Martin & Rubin, 1995). However, there are limitations to the generalisability of results found with college students as the college students may not be reflective of the general population. In an effort to address this constraint on generalisability, Martin & Anderson (1998) extended the testing of cognitive flexibility to the wider population. Martin & Anderson found that cognitive flexibility was positively correlated to assertiveness and to responsiveness. All of these factors would indicate that if newcomers to New Zealand have a high cognitive flexibility, they may 'adapt' better to New Zealand life and hence find work more easily (see Figure 1.1). In an international study of approximately 100 New Zealand managers, New Zealand was found to be low in assertiveness, showing solidarity for the weak with warm and co-operative relations, high in performance orientation, averagely humane and least in in-group collectivity (family members are not favoured) by the GLOBE study (Javidan & House, 2001). This situation, potentially could lead to a mismatch of expectations, in that as stated earlier, newcomers who voluntarily come to New Zealand, may exhibit quite high levels of cognitive flexibility already. This in congruency could lead to other predictors, from Figure 1.1, being stronger than cognitive flexibility in the final model.

While most of the research in this field has been done in a communication setting, there is no limit on the extent to which cognitive flexibility could affect a person's life (Martin, Anderson & Thweatt, 1998). A moderate correlation (r= 0.35) was found by Martin & Anderson (1998) between the self-reported cognitive flexibility scores and the cognitive flexibility scores as measured by a close personal friend. Martin & Anderson

proposed that this meant that people tend not to hold inflated opinions of their cognitive flexibility and hence that a single self-report scale was an appropriate measure of this concept.

This research sets out to test whether the concept of cognitive flexibility has any relationship to the proximity the newcomer comes to finding a job and psychosocial well-being in a New Zealand context (see Figure 1.1 for the model being tested). It is hypothesised that newcomers to New Zealand with a high cognitive flexibility will be able to adapt more easily to unfamiliarity of the New Zealand job hunting situation than newcomers with a low cognitive flexibility. Because, as stated earlier voluntary migrants in particular, may be expected to have quite high cognitive flexibility, because they have already chosen to live their familiar world and migrate, it may be that this research is focusing on the degree of cognitive flexibility exhibited by the newcomer to New Zealand. This would imply that those with a higher cognitive flexibility may be more successful than those with lower cognitive flexibility. But flexibility is only one part of the possible cognitions that a newcomer to New Zealand can experience. Another major factor is acculturation and it is to this issue we now turn.

Acculturation

In the proceeding sections, it has been implicitly assumed that 'adaptiveness' is helpful to finding a job. In the wider literature on migration, such adaptiveness (or flexibility) goes by the name of acculturation. The concept of acculturation was first described by anthropologists in the 1960s, and adapted by Graves (1967, cited in Berry 1989) to 'psychological acculturation'. This psychological acculturation was later defined as the "changes an individual experiences as a result of being in contact with other cultures and participating in the process of acculturation that one's cultural or ethnic group is undergoing" (Berry, 1990, p. 203). Over the years, the concept of acculturation has

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been operationally defined in many ways. Acculturation started off being defined as a linear, unidimensional process but more recently has become a multifaceted, multidimensional concept (Berry, 1990). In their literature review of acculturation studies, Kagiticibasi & Berry (1989), note that acculturation has shifted from being synonymous with assimilation or absorption into a culture, to that of a dynamic process with the possibility of different psychological outcomes over time (Kagiticibasi & Berry, 1989).

These different outcomes can occur both at the group and the individual level. Acculturation can be viewed as more than just shedding off of the old culture and replacing it with a new culture, according to Bhatia & Ram (2001). Instead acculturation is a process which is influenced by "power relations, inequalities and injustices" based on gender issues as well as nationality (Bhatia & Ram, 2001, p. 8). Because newcomers experience different influences exerted on them and in turn react differently to the applied pressure, the consequence is that there are diverse outcomes in terms of individual reactions to acculturation (Berry, 1990). This diversity of responses or outcomes also occurs within an individual as well as between individuals, in that individuals often reacts differently to the different situations they find themselves in (Berry, 1990). For example, a newcomer may chose to assimilate more in the work environment than they chose to do in a sports environment. . Newcomers can "both influence and be influenced" (Khisty, 2001, p. 19) by the cultural milieu they find themselves in. Acculturation has become a major research focus in psychology and especially cross-cultural psychology.

Cross-Cultural Psychology

Acculturation has been investigated by a number of different authors and especially in so far as acculturation relates to stress and well-being (Berry, 1989; Berry, 1997;

Bourhis, Moise, Perreault & Senecal, 1997; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999; Ward & Kennedy, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 1994; Horgan, 2000). From this literature it is predicted that there will be a link in the model that I am testing in this research between the acculturation and the employment related emotional well-being (see Figure 1.1 for the diagram). Most of the research in the acculturation area has been conducted in the United States and Canada and some in Europe. While research in these countries provides an important basis for the research, the New Zealand situation is unique in that New Zealand, has a diverse existing multicultural population, within a relatively small total population (4 million people in the whole country) and both these factors may change the impact that acculturation has on the newcomer to New Zealand. My research looks at employment related psycho-social correlates and this includes acculturation as expressed by the newcomer to New Zealand (see Figure 1.1 for the model being tested).

Previous work on acculturation has been conducted with expatriate New Zealanders living overseas (Ward & Kennedy, 1993; Ward & Kennedy, 1994; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999; Nesdale, 2002; Nesdale & Mak, 2000) which has tended to show different predictors for well-being related to the country where the expatriate New Zealander is currently living. Other studies with the Māori people (indigenous people of New Zealand) are related to drug use (Huriwai, 2002); underachievement amongst Māori at schools (Herring & Jespersen, 1999), and mental illness (Kelly, 1973) but no research that I could find that directly relates to employment issues. There are also some comparisons amongst Pacific Islanders in New Zealand and their home islands (Altrocchi & Altrocchi, 1995; Reid, 1990; Graham, 1983). Recent studies, amongst Chinese or Asian migrants to New Zealand have focused on mental health issues (Abbott, Wong, Giles, Wong, Young & Ming, 2003; Salant & Lauderdale, 2003; Cheung, 1998; Cheung, 1995), adolescent issues (Eyou, Adair & Dixon, 2000) and communication in families(Liu, Ng, Weatherall & Loong, 2000; Ng, Loong, He, Lu &

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Weatherall, 2000). There are no specific New Zealand studies, that I could find focusing on acculturation and employment, from a psychological perspective, or even testing any of the constructs shown in the model in Figure 1.1 (as far as I could find) from a New Zealand perspective.

Outline of the theory

Berry (1986, 1990, Berry, Kim, Power, Young & Bujaki, 1989) defined four acculturation styles or attitudes. These attitudes were based on the answers to the following two questions: 1) Is it considered to be of value to maintain your cultural identity and characteristics? and 2) Is it considered to be of value to maintain relationships with other groups? (Berry, 1990). The answers were dichotomised with yes or no answers. The combination of these answers formed the different acculturation attitudes as shown in Figure 2. The four possible acculturation attitudes are integration, assimilation, separation and marginalisation.

	Issue 1	
	Is it considered to be of value to maintain your cultural identity and characteristics?	
Issue 2	**YES**	**NO**
Is it considered **YES** to be of value to maintain relationships with other groups?	Integration	Assimilation
NO	Separation	Marginalisation
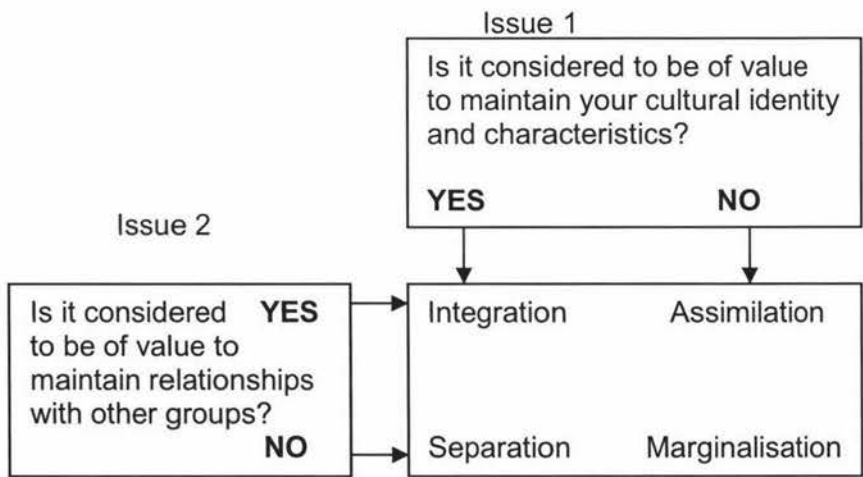
Figure 1.2: Four varieties of acculturation, based upon orientations to two basic issues (Fig 4 from Berry, 1990, p. 216).

These four styles of acculturation form the basis for most of the subsequent research in acculturation. When reviewing the acculturation literature testing the above model Berry, Kim, Power, Young & Bujaki (1989) found these acculturation styles had been applied to indigenous people groups (e.g. Aborigines in Australia), other ethnic groups and immigrant groups in both Australia and Canada. On reviewing the evidence and assessing how the acculturation styles were reflected in the diverse populations, Berry et al concluded that this model was applicable to people in a diversity of populations. Berry et al also acknowledged that while there were limitations on the acculturation styles that certain groups could chose, because of external restrictions (for example Aborigines living in a segregated camp could not choose to assimilate into the larger community, because of their physical separation) that in general the studies reviewed showed the model in Figure 1.2 tended to show the expected patterns and interrelationships as Berry had earlier predicted.

New Zealand Studies

While studying the ecological impact of immigrants in New Zealand, Trlin (1974), assessed New Zealanders' attitudes to various ethnic groups. To do this, Trlin tested the three assimilation orientations introduced by Taft (1963, 1966 cited in Trlin, 1974) of monism (similar to assimilation in the above model), pluralism (similar to separation in the above model) and interactionism (similar to integration, but with a mutual adapting to each other cultures) with 317 registered voters of Auckland. Trlin found that 72% of Aucklanders reported preferring interactionism, 24.6% preferred monism and 2% preferred pluralism. This study was conducted in the early 1970s, before the concept of social desirability in responding to questions was an issue. Social desirability responding is when the response to a question is considered to be the answer the researcher wants to hear, or one that is 'politically correct' rather than the respondent's true feelings. The author of this thesis expects that if a similar study were

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repeated today, similar results would be found based on experience of talking to various people living in Auckland. This is the cultural milieu into which newcomers to New Zealand seek to enter.

Acculturation Styles preferred by newcomers

Previous research has shown that newcomers have preferences as to the acculturation style they wish to adopt in a new country (Horgan, 2000; Roccas, Horencyzk & Schwartz, 2000). The newcomer's preferred order of adoption of the acculturation styles according to Roccas et al (2000) was integration, separation and finally assimilation, very few people chose marginalisation. In Ireland, Horgan (2000) found that non-voluntary immigrants (i.e. refugees) preferred integration rather than assimilation, but voluntary immigrants (i.e. migrants) tended to follow an assimilational style. This pattern appears to make sense logically, in that the voluntary immigrants choose to be in a country and so are more likely to adapt to that country's systems (assimilation) than if the newcomer had no choice in where they ended up (non-voluntary) where they would choose to retain their own culture as well as the new culture (integration). The research reviewed in this paragraph, shows that acculturation attitudes may vary among the newcomers and so it is expected that my research will show a diversity of acculturation attitudes amongst the newcomers to New Zealand.

In his critical review of the acculturation literature, Rudmin (2003) found that very little attention had been paid to the changes that occurred in the dominant groups due to the migration process. So for my research, the model in Figure 1.1 is based around measuring attitudes in both the dominant group and the minority groups and comparing the results. Rudmin stated that there were not simply four choices of acculturation, but in fact 16 different choices when two cultures were in contact. Rudmin also notes that

members of minority groups don't always have the freedom to pursue the acculturation style that they prefer.

Minority cultural groups are not always free to pursue the acculturation strategy that they prefer (Berry, 1986; Berry et al, 1989; Roccas, Horenczyk & Schwartz, 2000; Berry, 1997; Nauck, 2001) but instead are affected by the beliefs and values of the 'receiving' society (Berry, 1986; Berry et al, 1989; Roccas, Horenczyk & Schwartz, 2000). Often the acculturation options for the newcomer are reduced to two options (for example assimilation and marginalisation) because of host society choices or attitudes towards that ethnic group (Berry, 1986). An example of this is shown by Roccas et al (2000) who examined immigrants moving to Israel, which traditionally favoured newcomers adopting an assimilation position. Roccas et al found that 83% of immigrants believed that members of Israeli society wanted the newcomers to relinquish their unique culture and assimilate more than the newcomers would prefer. New Zealand has been acknowledged as a multicultural society for many years (even as early as Trlin (1974), but especially from the mid 1980s onwards). Newcomers to New Zealand enter this multicultural society and may find that to succeed in the multicultural environment, the newcomers may have to change more than they had expected to. That is the newcomer may have to be willing to adapt to the New Zealand way of living in a greater way than the newcomer may have expected to before coming to New Zealand.

The host society attitude is not simply formed by the dominant group, although it is a major influence, but by a union of all groups' (both dominant and minority groups) attitudes (Berry, 2001). Attitudes to different ethnic groups are not static, but may differ depending on the time and situation, and also may vary amongst the different ethnic groups already within the society (Berry, 1990). While looking at the psychological adaptation of university students (both sojourners and migrants) when compared to

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Anglo-Australian students, Leung (2001) found that some migrant groups were acculturating more rapidly into the mainstream Australian culture than other groups. Nesdale & Mak (2000) suggested a possible explanation for the differences in acculturation while looking at the identification of different migrant groups with Australian culture (host country). Nesdale & Mak found that host country identification was influenced not only by the migrant's desire for acculturation, but also by the welcome the host country's dominant group gave to the different immigrant groups. A possible explanation for these differences could be the cultural distance between the two cultures, which has previously been shown to be influential in the formation of acculturation attitudes (Nesdale & Mak, 2000; Ward, Bochner & Furnham, 2001). Interestingly immigrants' successes in Australia (for example getting a job) did not impact on their identification with Australian culture (Nesdale & Mak, 2000). Since the dominant cultures in Australia and New Zealand are very similar, the same finding that different ethnic groups acculturate at different speeds into the New Zealand culture may be found in New Zealand. Thus, some newcomers to New Zealand may be more successful (in terms of getting employment that matches their qualifications) than other groups (see Figure 1.1). Some ethnic groups may find that their choices of acculturation style are restricted by the dominant culture's choices. This thesis is specifically looking at employment issues and how acculturation impacts on employment as shown in Figure 1.1, so it looks at the link between acculturation chosen style and how close the newcomer to New Zealand comes to finding a job that matches their qualifications.

Link between employment status and employment related emotional well-being

Migration often leads to a general loss of status, devaluing of existing qualifications and/or new employment opportunities (Berry, 1997; Aycan & Berry, 1996). Employment status has been found to impact a large amount on the lives of newcomers to various

countries. In Ireland, Horgan (2000) found a link between current employment status and acculturation stress. In the United States, Nwadiora & McAdoo (1996) found Amerasian youths who were employed showed less acculturation stress than the youths that were unemployed, and the youths who spoke better English showing less acculturation stress than those with poor spoken English.

In Figure 1.1, there is a proposed link between the acculturation style of the newcomer and employment related emotional well-being. This link was included in the model because there has been significant link between acculturation and stress in the previous literature. The general conclusions from the empirical literature around stress and acculturation, is that the acculturation style chosen influences well-being or stress. Integration has been shown to be the least stress producing strategy, marginalisation has produced the most stress and assimilation and separation have resulted in intermediate amounts of stress (Berry, 1997). It is hypothesised that the acculturation style that the newcomer chooses to use while in New Zealand will be predictive of their employment related emotional well-being (as reflected by the stress literature) and shown in Figure 1.1. My research sets out to establish whether there is a link in New Zealand samples between the acculturation style utilised by the newcomer and the employment related emotional well-being.

In his critical review of the acculturation literature, Rudmin (2003) also noted that the issue of acculturation 'fit' is often missed out entirely from the acculturation literature. Acculturation 'fit' occurs when the acculturation style the newcomer chooses to adopt is similar to the acculturation style of the dominant community to which the newcomer comes. It is to this issue we now turn.

Acculturation 'Fit'

Previous vocational literature has emphasised the importance of the person-environment fit. Lewin (1946) stated "Behaviour (B) is a function (F) of the person (P) and of his environment (E), B=F (P, E)." (cited in Cartwright, 1963, p. 239). This idea has become part of the theoretical basis of career decision making, specifically with Dawis & Lofquist (1984) and Dawis (1994), having the person-environment fit as a central component of the Theory of Work Adjustment and by Holland (1994) as part of his typography of work theory. The basic principle of person-environment fit is that a person is happier if they are in an environment which suits their personality and 'style'. This concept can be applied to newcomers in that they are likely to be happier in an environment that matches their personality and style. The underlying assumption within the person-environment literature is that similarity leads to attraction, but this may cause difficulty for the newcomer in that they by their very nature (different ethnic group) bring diversity into the places where they live, work and interact with others.

The concept of person-environment fit can be adapted to the concept of acculturation. Acculturation, by definition, is a two way process, though in reality the immigrant was expected to adopt more to the new country. While previous research acknowledges this issue, it has tended to focus on the non-dominant population and ignored the effect on the dominant population (Berry, 2001). Acculturation 'fit' is the intersection of the beliefs between the community or environment in which the newcomer lives and their own beliefs. 'Fit' does not automatically occur between the host society and the newcomer, acknowledges Berry (1997) and 'fit' may be affected by adaptation. If 'fit' is not achieved, then stress and psychopathology are more likely (Berry, 1997). But according to the model in Figure 1.1, there may be a missing link in this equation and that is how close the newcomer comes to finding a job that matches their qualifications.

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There has been an imbalance in the previous acculturation literature, with all the research focusing on the minority (or acculturating group) and very little attention paid to the dominant group, which Rudmin (2003) emphasised. The balance is somewhat rectified in an article by Bourhis, Moiese, Perreault & Senecal (1997). This article addresses the issue of both dominant and non-dominant group reactions by proposing the 'Interactive Acculturation Model'. The Interactive Acculturation Model (IAM) seeks to combine both attitudes of the host community, attitudes of the newcomer and resulting interaction attitudes in terms of acculturation styles to determine possible outcomes. In the model, the interaction of attitudes between the host community and the newcomer form a continuum from concordant to discordant with the resulting interactions being either pleasant or difficult (with increasing degrees of difficulty).

Essentially, this model (IAM) proposes that if there if a close fit between an acculturation style of a newcomer and a predominant acculturation style in the community, then joining the new community should be more of a smooth transition for the newly arrived newcomer. For example: if the community wished for the newcomer to adapt an assimilation style, and the newcomer wanted to adapt a integrationist style, then there is a potential for a breakdown in communication to occur. For the purposes of this research, it is assumed that the employers fit into a homogeneous community in terms of the preferred acculturation style of newcomers (and this is tested later). Thus the more divergent the styles, between the employment community and the newcomer, the less successful the potential interactions would be. If the model is right, then the closer the fit between a newcomer and the employment community the easier it will also be for a newcomer to find employment in New Zealand. This formed a theoretical basis for this thesis.

As part of the IAM, Bourhis et al (1997) proposed that each ethnic group within a particular country may have a different pattern of responses as these ethnic groups

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would be considered differently by the host society. It is also possible that the attitudes towards different groups may change over time (Bourhis et al, 1997). When testing the IAM, with French speaking Canadians in Quebec, Montreuil & Bourhis (2001) found that Canadian's attitudes were more accepting of valued immigrants than devalued immigrants, and that Canadians expected different acculturation styles from the valued and devalued groups. In my research, it is expected that there will be participants from groups that are valued, groups that are devalued and groups that are neutral to the dominant New Zealand society. Discrimination experienced by different groups has also been linked to 'fit' by Liebkind & Jasinskaja-Lahti (2000) when looking at stress in immigrants to Finland (living in Helsinki). Liebkind & Jasinskaja-Lahti found that immigrant groups with a better cultural 'fit' with the host culture will experience less discrimination than more cultural groups that are vastly different from the host society (i.e. culturally distant groups). This may mean that some ethnic groups in New Zealand have better 'fit' than others and that cultural distance may play a part in this.

In my research, from Figure 1.1, it is hypothesised that as the 'fit' between the acculturation style of the newcomer and that required by the employment community increases then the newcomer will be more likely to get a job that matches their qualifications. I hypothesise that as the 'fit' decreases then the newcomer will be less likely to get a job that matches their qualifications, thereby potentially contributing also to lowered well-being. This is modelled in Figure 1.1.

Conclusion

In conclusion, this research attempts to test the model shown in Figure 1.1. A summary of the hypotheses it proposes to explore follows:

- Under-employment and unemployment will lead to high levels of frustration for the newcomer and thus negatively affect the newcomer's employment related emotional well-being, which will generally be low amongst the newcomers.

- The closer the newcomer comes to having a job that matches their qualifications the more employment related emotional well-being they will experience.

- As pre-interview behaviours (identified from the literature) increase so will the newcomers' chances of getting a job that matches their qualifications.

- Increasing interview behaviours (as identified by the literature) utilised will lead to an increased chance of the newcomer finding a job that matches their qualifications

- Newcomers with high cognitive flexibility will be more able to adapt to the New Zealand situation and hence find a job that matches their qualifications, more easily than newcomers with a low cognitive flexibility.

- Acculturation style that the newcomer chooses to use will predict how close they will come to getting a job that matches their qualifications.

- Acculturation style that the newcomer chooses to use in New Zealand will be predictive of their employment related emotional well-being with integration giving the greatest employment related emotional well-being and marginalisation decreasing employment related emotional well-being. The other styles will provide intermediate degrees of well-being.

- As the 'fit' between the acculturation style of the newcomer and that required by the employment community increases then the newcomer will be more likely to get a job that matches their qualifications.

These hypotheses will now be tested.

Chapter 2   Method

Participants

The site selected for this research is Auckland, New Zealand. Auckland is New Zealand's largest city with a population of 1.1 million (http://www.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/web/CommProfiles.nsf/FindInfobyArea/02-rc, 1/7/03) out of a total population of 3.9 million in New Zealand (http://www.stats.govt.nz/domino/external/web/prod_serv.nsf/htmldocs/Top+20+statistics, 1/7/03). Auckland also has a diverse 'ethnic' population with people from many different ethnic groups making their home here. Statistics from the 2001 census show that 1 in 3 people within the Auckland region are born overseas (New Zealand Statistics, 2001). The diversity of the overseas born ethnic population makes Auckland a good site for this research.

Because this research focuses on both of the groups involved in acculturation, there are two sets of participants in this research. The first group of participants are recruiters from the employment community who participated in a telephone survey. The second group of participants are 'newcomers' to Auckland, and potential employees, who participated in a mail survey.

Employment Community

The employment community participants comprised 20 representatives from the employment community (employment agencies and recruitment agencies). Employment agencies were chosen as they were considered to be probably relatively non-biased representatives of the employment market. If the employers themselves were approached, they might give at least a slightly more "politically correct" answer,

rather than an accurate answer. To choose the participants, I selected every fourth or fifth employment agency or recruitment firm from the Auckland 2002 Yellow Pages (telephone book), and asked to speak to someone who dealt with placing permanent workers (rather than temporary workers).

Potential Employees - Newcomers

These comprised 70 representatives of newcomers to New Zealand. The participants were refugees, migrants and asylum seekers, currently resident in Auckland, New Zealand in 2003, who had entered New Zealand within the last 5 years. In order to recruit participants, I first talked to key community leaders within the different ethnic populations in greater Auckland. I also asked various community groups (for example Migrant Centre, Kiwi Contax, Auckland City Council, YWCA, Refugee and Migrant Services (RMS), Auckland Regional Migrant Centre) who work with newcomers to New Zealand, to provide some points of contact for possible participants. A total of 450 questionnaires were distributed to these identified participants. Yet, there were 27 completed questionnaires returned by the free post envelope to the researcher (6% response rate). A variety of sources (e.g. previous researchers, business lecturers and personal contacts) have described a reluctance on the part of the newcomers (especially the Asian community, who comprised the majority of the potential sample pool) to fill in and return questionnaires for fear of being identified and/or the research being shown to the government. This fear means that the response rate found may be a 'normal' response rate but there appears to be no empirical data on this. The return rate was 'higher' when the researcher personally asked for participants than when the questionnaires were distributed by a third party that was not related to the survey (for instance contacts).

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In order to obtain a fuller and more substantive sample, a more direct approach was adopted. It was decided to recruit from the student population of Massey University students, in order to allay some of the fears of filling in the questionnaire. The students were recruited by the researcher going into classrooms (with the lecturer's permission) and asking for anonymous volunteers. Participants were asked to volunteer only if they had arrived in New Zealand in the last 5 years, and also were permanent residents. The requirement for permanent residents was to recruit participants who were planning on staying in New Zealand, rather than simply studying in New Zealand with the intention of returning back to their own country on completion of the study. The response rate from the Massey University students was 43 returns from 150 questionnaires distributed (28% response rate). This is a much more akin to the norm for social science surveys.

In total the contribution of the community sample of 27 questionnaires and the university sample of 43 returns made a total of 70 participants. Of the respondents to the survey, 76% were migrants ($n=53$), 13% were refugees ($n=9$) and 11% other or did not reply. The people picking the other category were probably overseas students. The demographics of the final sample were male 55% ($n=38$) and female 45% ($n=30$). There was an age range of 18-57 years amongst the participants. Sixty-seven percent of the sample were married ($n=45$), with the rest being single (33%, $n=22$). A de facto option was not supplied for this question. The education levels of the sample ranged from primary school with no formal qualifications up to doctorate level with 61% of the sample ($n=42$) having a bachelor's degree or higher. English was a second language for the majority of the participants because of their ethnicity. This is reflected in the IELTS scores (measure of English capacity ranging from 0 no English, to 9 native speaker) from this sample ranging from 5.0 to 7.5, with a mean of 6.3, but only 50% of the sample responded to this question. There were a large variety of participants with 28 different ethnicities being recorded, 24 different countries of birth

and 24 different first languages. People from Asia represented 50% of the sample (n=35), people from Europe represented 11% of the sample (n=8), people from the Middle East represented 10% of the sample (n=7) with African, Pacific Islanders and other ethnicities making up the rest of the sample. The length of time that the newcomers had spent in New Zealand varied from 1 –156 months. So in summary the participants were mainly highly educated (bachelor's degree or higher) migrants with 50% being from Asia and 2/3 being married. There was a fairly even spread between males and females.

Regarding employment, the majority of the sample (55%, $n=38$) were currently unemployed, with only 45% of the sample were currently employed (n=32). Of the people that were employed, 34% were using their qualifications in their job (n=15), 16% were using their qualifications somewhat in their job (n=7), and 50% were not using their qualifications in their current job. Of those employed in a job that matched their qualifications, 60% (n=17) of the sample were in lower jobs than the best job in their own country, 17% were in a higher job (n=5) and the remainder (21%, n=6) were in jobs at the same level as their best job in their own country. There were 31 different occupations held as current job by the sample. These ranged from none, student (n=4), waitress or volunteer up to Project Manager (n=1) and Engineer (n=2). The time spent looking for a job that matched their qualifications ranged from less than 1 month up to 60 months. Of the people that had secured a job, 64% of the respondents had got a job that matched their qualifications in 7 months or less, with 82% of the respondents having found a job within 12 months of looking. Thus overall, we see a pattern of unemployment and under-employment in the participants in this study, but enough variation in the level of employment to examine the predictors of the employment criteria.

Materials

Employment Community Telephone Survey

This was a telephone survey (shown in Appendix A), given to the representatives of the employment community. The questions measured the acculturation style (assimilation, integration, marginalisation and separation (Berry, 1997), see Figure 2 of introduction) that the employment community preferred newcomers to exhibit. Specifically, the survey asks the participants to rank the acculturation styles from the most preferred style to the least preferred style, according to the order they felt that the employment community would prefer newcomers to manifest within an employment setting. From Appendix A, the survey involved presenting, in a rotating order (a,b,c,d / b,c,d,a / c,d,a,b / d,a,b,c), the four different acculturation styles from Berry (1997) that a newcomer can utilise on entering a new country.

Potential employees' (newcomers) questionnaire

This questionnaire (shown in Appendix B), which was filled out by the newcomers to New Zealand, was based on Figure 1.1 of the Introduction. It consisted of sections looking at critical incidents, behaviour, affect and cognition. The first section of the questionnaire was a rapport-building section, in which the newcomers were asked how they came to New Zealand and to describe critical incidents (according to the Critical Incident Technique, Flanagan, 1954, see below) that had happened to them while looking for a job. This section included both a positive and a negative critical incident (i.e. something good and something bad that had happened to the newcomer while looking for a job). The behaviour section looked at behaviours utilised pre-interview and at the interview. It also contained the Guttman scale on how close the newcomer had come to finding work that matched their qualifications. The affect section consisted of the Faces Scale and the Positive Affect/Negative Affect Scale (PANAS Scale). The

Cognition section used the Cognitive Flexibility Scale, Acculturation Index and acculturation fit questions. Because English is a second language for the majority of the participants, particular care was taken to simplify the English in this questionnaire during pilot testing, so that the English posed as little difficulty as possible.

Critical Incident Technique

The first section asked the participants how they came to New Zealand, and about positive and negative critical incidents that occurred for them during the job hunting process in New Zealand, using the Critical Incident Technique or CIT (Flanagan, 1954). The CIT asks the participants to remember significant (or critical) incidents or events that happened to them in a particular situation, in this case while job hunting (Flanagan, 1954). Since its inception, the CIT has been extended to a wide variety of situations including measuring: customer service perceptions (Grove & Fisk, 1997), training success (Antonacopoulou, 2000) and anti-retroviral drug use in culturally diverse populations (Kemppainen, Levine, Mistral & Schmidgall, 2001). Most relevantly for this research, the CIT procedure was used by MacLachlan & McAuliffe (1993) to establish the training content for a course for people working in Malawian refugee camps with Mozambican refugees. CIT use was then extended to refugees themselves, by Kanyangale & MacLachlan (1995) who evaluated the effects of counselling on post-traumatic stress syndrome, amongst displaced Mozambican women and children in refugee camps. My research further extended the usage of the CIT, in that it is asking to hear specific examples of positive and negative incidents that have happened to the newcomers while looking for a job which matches their qualifications, in an urban setting in New Zealand.

Behaviours

Behaviours used to find a job: Inventory Measure

An inventory measure was used to assess the utilisation of different behaviours that could be used to try and find a job. An inventory was considered by the researcher to be the most effective way of measuring this construct as newcomers would have either used or not used a range of discrete methods in their job search, each of which might in theory add to their job prospects, without necessarily being related to each other (for example: search the internet, write a Curriculum Vitae). Thus, an inventory provided a content valid measurement of both the utilisation and effectiveness of particular behaviours.

Respondents were asked to tick the behaviours they had used to try to find a job that matched their qualifications. This format has been used previously by Huffman & Torres (2001) in their study of gender issues in the job search. The specific behaviours were suggested during the literature review (Huffman & Torres, 2001; Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001), from Industrial/Organisational psychology textbooks (Aamodt, 1999), and 'popular' books on job hunting (McLachlan, 1999; Patton & McMahon, 1999; Courtis, 1994). The specific behaviours included were chosen by the researcher as being relevant to the New Zealand job market. Due to space restraints in the final questionnaire, items that are similar were combined (for example answered advertisements (either in newspapers or in professional journals)).

Success in finding a job: A Guttman scalogram

In order to measure how close the newcomers had come to getting a job that matched their qualifications, a Guttman scalogram (Robson, 2002) was used. A Guttman scalogram is used to measure attitudes or reactions to a particular construct, where there is a progression in attitude change such that the further down the scalogram the

person goes, the more cumulative (either positive or negative) their attitude will be to the construct. In this particular research, the construct was finding a job that matched the newcomer's qualifications and the further the newcomer went down the scalogram the closer they were to having a job that matched their qualifications. Previously Guttman scales have been used to measure: prejudice (Kogan & Downey, 1956), job satisfaction and leisure time activities (Matthews & Abu-Laban, 1959), job performance (Schultz, Wayne & Siegel, 1961), attitudes towards work (Palmer, 1964), career-development volunteerism (Zakour, 1994) and professional deviance in organisations (Raelin, 1994). Thus the use of the Guttman hierarchy has had varied applications in the work area. Previous use of the Guttman hierarchy with migration was provided by Buggie & Makubalo (1987), who assessed the attitudes surrounding rural to urban migration. My research extends the use of the Guttman scalogram to how close newcomers have come to finding jobs that match their qualifications.

The scalogram in this particular research had the following stages that a person may go through in trying to find a job that matched their qualifications: The items chosen ranged from seen jobs advertised in the newspaper (furthest away from a job), to currently working in a job that matched your qualifications (closest item). There were originally 12 items in this scalogram (see question 8, Appendix B). Respondents ticked the items completed while trying to find a job that matched their qualifications. The scale was constructed such that a greater number of items checked meant that the person was closer to finding a job that matched their qualifications (see Results).

Interview Behaviour scale: A Likert type scale

This scale measures the behaviours exhibited by the newcomer in an interview situation in New Zealand. Because the interview is such a common assessment tool in New Zealand (McKenzie, & St George, 1997), the participants were asked to comment

on their behaviour in an interview situation in New Zealand. There was no specification about the interview being for a job that matched their qualifications. A variety of different possible scoring systems were considered. These systems included ranking of dichotomous variables (e.g. confident/humble, task focused/people focused) along an importance scale, ranking the dichotomous variables along a frequency scale, and ranking single variables along a frequency scale. These different alternatives were each tried during the pilot testing for measuring interview behaviour. The Likert frequency scale was chosen because it reflected the clearest and most easily understood option of the alternatives tested, especially for people with English as a second language. This decision was made after the pilot testing and consultation with Subject Matter Experts (i.e. both psychology lecturers and people working with newcomers).

The behaviours included in this scale, were constructed by the author from the literature on interview behaviour and consultation with Subject Matter Experts. The literature has shown that some behaviours (e.g. smiling, greater eye contact) are more effective in an interview than others (e.g. avoiding eye contact) (Anderson, 1992). Interview behaviour was measured using a Likert scale, reflecting frequency of specific behaviour usage in an interview in New Zealand, ranging from 1 to 5 with 1 being never and 5 being always. These questions are scored such that a higher score on this scale reflects behaviour which could give a more positive outcome to an interview (i.e. lead to a job offer), according to the empirical literature (Anderson, 1992).

Other behaviour questions

These questions asked about the respondents current work situation, including if they were currently employed, whether this job used their qualifications and its prestige ranking in comparison to their best job in their home country.

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Emotions

The next section (from Appendix B, the newcomer's questionnaire) included two measures of emotion experienced during the job hunt process. The emotion section of the questionnaire was used to measure the employment related emotional well-being (criterion variable) in the model being tested (Figure 1.1 of introduction). Two measures were used in this section because it was uncertain to what extent the English of the participants would influence responding. Given the need for simplicity of language, we looked for measures that reduced the need for language as much as possible. Two such instances were chosen in case emotions are particularly difficult to explain in a second language. The two measures chosen were the Positive Affect/Negative Affect Scale or PANAS Scale (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988) and the Faces scale (Andrews and Robinson, 1991, p. 74). The PANAS scale uses single adjectives to describe moods and as such is relatively straightforward to understand, and the Faces scale is a pictorial representation of the different emotions (thus requiring no language basis at all). These scales will now be described in more detail.

PANAS Scale

It has been proposed that there are two underlying orthogonal dimensions of emotion (Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). These dimensions are positive affect (PA) and negative affect (NA), and are the factors that are found after conducting a factor analysis (Principal Component Analysis with a varimax rotation) on responses to emotion laded words (Watson & Tellegen, 1985; Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The measurement of both of these dimensions has been pooled into one instrument, the Positive Affect/Negative Affect scale or PANAS scale (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). The PANAS scale has good internal reliability and test-retest reliability (as described below) and was relatively easy to understand because of the

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single adjectives used to describe the mood. These factors made the PANAS scale less likely to be influenced by language skills, than other scales that were considered and hence it was chosen for inclusion in this research.

The PANAS scale asks for ratings as to how often people have felt different emotions during a scenario situation (in this case: "about your job searching in New Zealand and its final outcome", see Appendix B for questionnaire). This scenario, allows a variety of emotions to be given depending on different outcomes (for example finding a job that matches their qualifications, being rejected for every job the newcomer applies for or any other possibility). The emotions are ranked from 0 = not at all to 5 = extremely. Previous testing, by Watson, Clark & Tellegen (1988) found the PANAS scale to be consistent across gender and unaffected by the time frame chosen. Watson, Clark & Tellegen found the internal reliability of positive affect of between .86-.90 and for negative affect of between .84-.87. There was a correlation between PA and NA to be -.12 to -.23 with test-retest reliability scores of between .47 and .68 for positive affect and between .39 and .71 for negative affect (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988). While these test-retest correlations are poor, emotion is not stable across time frames and so some variation is expected. A slightly modified PANAS scale (see Procedure) was used to measure both positive and negative affect because it allowed us to choose the scenario or time frame that was most appropriate to the questions being asked in my research.

Faces Scale

The other measure of emotion (the Faces scale) was included as a non-verbal, visual scale, in case the language abilities of the sample meant that responding to the language dependent PANAS scale was too difficult. The Faces scale has been used cross-culturally to measure job satisfaction (Roberts, Glick & Rotchfeld ,1982; Brief &

Roberson, 1989; O'Reilly & Roberts, 1973), overall well-being (Yang, 2002), depression (Matthey, Barnett & Elliott, 1997), satisfaction at work compared with satisfaction with non-work activities (Rousseau, 1978), pain (Bohannon, 1996), depression (Matthey, Barnett & Elliott, 1997), quality of life (Beckie & Hayduk, 1997; Staats & Stassen, 1988) and tedium (Pines & Kafry, 1978). The Faces scale (and other measures) was used by Rousseau (1978) to measure both work satisfaction and non-work satisfaction (e.g. autonomy, dealing with others, skill variety and physical variety). Rousseau's study was the first time that the Faces scale had been used to measure anything other than simply job satisfaction. In a study, comparing various measures of job satisfaction and job cognition, Brief & Roberson (1989) found the Faces scale to be the most balanced and effective measure of both positive and negative affect out of the Job Descriptive Index, Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire, Job Affect Scale and the Faces Scale. All of the above mentioned research was conducted using cross-cultural samples. Thus, the Faces scale has been shown to be a robust measure of emotions cross-culturally, experienced both on and off the job.

The Faces scale used in this research was taken from Andrews and Robinson (1991) and consisted of circular faces showing different degrees of emotion, with three faces showing positive emotion (smiling) and three faces showing negative emotion (frowning) and a neutral face. The scale used was an adaptation of the General Motors Faces scale (Kunin, 1955) which utilised white male faces and was not considered culturally appropriate for this research. The Faces Scale was used to measure the emotions and employment related emotional well-being experienced by newcomers to New Zealand, while trying to find a job that matches their qualifications (in this case the question read "how you feel about your experience of job searching in New Zealand and its outcome", see Appendix B for questionnaire). As this scale is answered with a single answer, internal reliability is not an issue. The Faces scale on this research had a range of 1-7 with 1 being the happiest and 7 being the most unhappy.

Cognition

From Figure 1.1 (Introduction), it is proposed that cognition (as well as behaviours) will influence how close a person comes to getting a job and their employment related emotional well-being. This section of the questionnaire (see Appendix B) measured various cognitions exhibited by the newcomer to test these hypotheses. The cognitions measured were: cognitive flexibility, acculturation and acculturation fit. These cognitions were measured using the following scales: Cognitive Flexibility Scale, the Acculturation Index and the acculturation fit questions.

Cognitive Flexibility Scale

Cognitive Flexibility (as described in the introduction) means the ability to consider alternative situations or different ways of thinking in situations in which people find themselves. There was generally a lack of instrumentation found to measure the concept of Cognitive Flexibility. Another scale was found, the Short Category Test Booklet Form (Wetzel & Boll, 1986; 1987), but this measured cognitive problems after brain injuries and both the cost and length (15-30 minutes) were prohibitive for a Master's thesis. Eventually however, the Cognitive Flexibility Scale, developed by Martin & Rubin (1995), was utilised for this research. It consists of 12 questions with a 6 point Likert scale ranging from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree and takes about 5 minutes to complete (Martin & Rubin, 1995). Robinson, Shaver & Wrightsman (1991) described this scale as having internal consistency reliability of between .72-.82 and a test-retest correlation of .83 when tested with university students (with no significant differences in responses between the sexes, see Martin & Rubin, 1995). This scale has been tested extensively by the scale's authors, but not by other people (as far as I could establish). I could find no research using the Cognitive Flexibility scale with

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migrants or cross-culturally, meaning that using the Cognitive Flexibility scale in my research is exploratory in nature.

Acculturation Index

Acculturation has previously been measured by selecting relevant domains of life (for example food, clothing), developing statements reflecting the four acculturation styles in these domains and asking the participants to rate these (Berry, 1990). The questions that are formed are very specific to the countries and the people specified within the questions, so the measures need modification in order to utilise them in a different setting especially to different countries (Berry, 1997). Some of the acculturation measures I found were unsuitable for this particular research, in that only a portion of their scale was reproduced in the literature (Berry et al, 1989) or the literature reproduced an acculturation scale in a foreign language (Dela Cruz, Padilla & Agustin, 2000). An effective and freely published scale that was found was the Acculturation Index (Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999; Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Ward, 1999; on the website http://www.vuw.ac.nz/psyc/academic/ward/ward.html).

The Acculturation Index (http://www.vuw.ac.nz/psyc/academic/ward/ward.html, Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999) measures 21 domains of life. The participant is asked to rate these specified domains as to how important it is for them to maintain your experiences of daily life compared to your home culture and New Zealand culture. The Acculturation Index in my research is formatted into a table with 2 columns, one column reflecting the importance of maintaining their home culture and the other of adopting New Zealand culture (see Appendix B for format, question 25). These questions are answered for each of the domains represented. The answers are measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 to 7, with 1 being not very important and 7 being very important (http://www.vuw.ac.nz/psyc/academic/ward/ward.html, Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999).

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Previously, the Acculturation Index had been used by Ward & Rana-Deuba (1999), to measure acculturation in 104 sojourners in Nepal and by Ward & Kennedy (1999) to measure acculturation in 98 New Zealand sojourners on foreign placements overseas. These studies found that the scales had good internal reliabilities with co-national identification found to have alphas ranging between 0.91-0.93 and host national identification had alphas in the range of 0.89-0.96 (Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999). Co-national identification (identification with your own ethnic group) and host national identification (identification with the national ethnic group of the country) were found to be orthogonal with correlation coefficients from r = -.04 to r=0.23 (Ward & Kennedy, 1999; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999).

Acculturation Fit

Acculturation 'fit' was the last concept to be measured in this section of the questionnaire (see Appendix B). After quite extensive and unsuccessful search to find a scale to measure this concept[1], the researcher decided to adapt the acculturation styles that Berry (1997) proposed and created her own questions around these styles. The purpose of this question was to compare how divergent (or convergent) the newcomers' perception and the employers' perception were from each other and so try to get a measure of the 'fit' between the perceptions of both communities. There are two questions that were formulated. The first question requests a ranking of which acculturation style a newcomer should adopt if they moved countries (no particular countries were specified in the question, see question 26, Appendix B) and the second question asked the newcomers perception of what acculturation style New Zealand

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[1] Attempts to contact Richard Bourhis, owner of the original Host Community Acculturation Scale (Bourhis et al, 1997) proved unsuccessful.

employers wanted newcomers to adopt while looking for a job. The purpose of the questions are to compare how divergent (or convergent) the newcomers' perception and the employers' perception were from each other and so try to get a measure of the 'fit' between the perceptions of both communities.

The first question requests a ranking from the newcomer of the acculturation styles as follows: Please rank these statements, from (1) agree with most to (4) agree with least. If a newcomer comes to a new country, they should: "Adopt the new culture and keep their own culture as well", "Adopt the new culture and put their own culture in the background", "Keep their own culture and put the new culture in the background", "They should ignore both their own culture and the new culture and look after themselves". The acculturation styles are rotated on different questionnaires (either: a,b,c,d / b,c,d,a / c,d,a,b / d,a,b,c), to eliminate presentation biases. The example given is a,b,c,d and each question had a box beside it for the ranking (see Appendix B for the format). The rankings used were from 1 = agree with most to 4 = agree with least. This question is designed to establish what the acculturation style the newcomer would prefer to hold as they come to New Zealand, in another way from that recorded in the Acculturation Index (above).

The second question that was formulated by the researcher, focused on the newcomer's perception of New Zealand employers ranking of the acculturation styles as exhibited by newcomers. The question was as follows: In your experience, How would a typical New Zealand employer respond to the same statements. Please rank 1) the statement your think they agree with most to 4) the statement you think they agree with least.

If a newcomer comes to New Zealand, they should: "Adopt the new culture and keep their own culture as well", "Adopt the new culture and put their own culture in the

background", "Keep their own culture and put the new culture in the background", "Ignore both their own culture and the new culture and look after themselves only". The order of the items was the same as the previous question and there is a

certainty rating, consisting of a 5 point Likert scale asking how certain the newcomer is of the answer to the question they had just answered with possible responses ranging from very certain through neither certain nor uncertain to very uncertain.

Demographics

The final section of the newcomer's questionnaire (see Appendix B) covered some basic demographics including age, sex, gender, length of time spent looking for a job, length of time in New Zealand, the newcomer's highest qualification obtained prior to coming to New Zealand and their IELTS (International English Language Testing System) score on arrival in New Zealand. The latter is an international qualification that measures their standard of English. There has been previous literature identifying that lack of skills in English to be a barrier to finding work (Oliver, 2000; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001; Burns 2000). The pilot testing indicated that participants with low IELTS scores may have difficulty in understanding the questionnaire and hence the IELTS score could screen out the people with lower levels of English, if this was later found to be a problem. Hence, the IELTS score was included to act as a screening device if needed.

Procedure

Employment community telephone survey

After finalising the interview questionnaire, the researcher selected the participants, choosing every fourth or fifth employment agency or recruitment firm to ring from the Auckland 2002 Yellow Pages. During working hours, initially on a Friday afternoon, the various recruitment agencies were telephoned asking to speak to someone dealing

with permanent work. No messages were left on answerphones. After being connected to a relevant person, the survey was briefly described verbally and the option of responding at a different time was given. Some participants chose to have the interview at a more convenient time and two of the participants chose to respond electronically to the questions (because this was more convenient to these particular participants). After this, the interview (for format see Appendix A) was given with the four acculturation styles being presented in a rotated order, and the participants were asked to rank the acculturation styles that they thought the employers they knew would prefer the newcomer to New Zealand to hold. At the completion of the interview, the participants were asked for or volunteered other comments to the researcher regarding 'newcomers'. The participants were then asked if they wanted a copy of the results and the interview was concluded. The interviews were continued until 20 interviews had been completed. The interview data was collected over a period of 10 days during June/July 2003, due to people choosing to have the interviews at more convenient times.

Newcomer's survey

The process of developing the questionnaire was a complex one with difficulty in finding scales that measured some of the key concepts (for example acculturation 'fit'). This questionnaire was a compilation of various scales, which had never been used together and hence it required checking, prior to distribution, by a range of people and methods.

As a part of the checking process, the questionnaire was piloted three times. The participants in the pilots had various levels of English to check whether this would influence their answers, Subject Matter Experts (including people working in the recruitment industry, English language teachers and psychology professors),

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newcomers from some of the same channels as the final survey and university students. Significant changes were made to the questionnaire during the instrument development phase; including modifying the order of the questionnaire, changing scales within the questionnaire and changing wording on the questions. After the final pilot, the responses to the questionnaires were inspected visually and compared for overall comprehension, by the researcher and two supervisors. There were 53 questionnaires distributed during the pilot testing with 23 returned to the researcher.

The instrument development phase resulted in the modification of the structure of the questionnaire (ordering was changed) and some of the questions (modification of the PANAS scale and the Acculturation Index). The changes to the PANAS scale were that 'jittery' was found to be confusing to the sample (in that it was too colloquial and thus misunderstood by the sample) and so this item was replaced with frustrated. The item 'interested' was felt by the researcher to not reflect positive affect in this sample (as everyone would be interested in getting a job) and this was replaced with encouraged. The changes to the Acculturation Index were that the question stems were modified to how important it was to keep your home culture and how important it was to adopt New Zealand culture whereas the original had asked how similar they were to the respective cultures. Material comfort (standard of living) was removed from the questionnaire as it was not understood by the participants. During pilot testing particular attention was paid to the wording of the questions on acculturation fit, to ensure they were the most understandable possible. After incorporating these changes the final questionnaire was printed.

Following the pilot testing, 450 questionnaires of the final questionnaire were printed and distributed to newcomers via a number of different channels as detailed earlier in the participant section. These questionnaires were distributed to various groups, through contact with the community leaders, various other organisations and through

other contacts. The questionnaires were all distributed with addressed envelopes to be mailed back by free post to the researcher at the university.

Because of the need for a more substantive and representative sample, Massey University students were incorporated into the sample and an extra 250 questionnaires were printed. To facilitate the participation of the students, the departmental secretaries were approached for the name of the lecturer who was in charge of the Stage 1 or Stage 2 papers, with large numbers of students from overseas in the classes. The possible participants were from the Business school, Psychology school, International Commerce department and the Academic English classes. After gaining permission to enter the classroom from the lecturer, the researcher explained the study briefly and asked for volunteers, who met the participant criteria. Each volunteer was given a questionnaire with a free post return envelope stapled to the back of the questionnaire.

This resulted in an overall return rate of 70 questionnaires (11%), of which the newcomer community gave 4.25% and the student sample gave 6.75%. The data was then analysed using SPSS, AMOS and qualitative analysis of the critical incident data.

Chapter 3　　　Results

Employment Community Survey

Summary data from the employment community survey are shown in Table 1. This table focuses on which styles of acculturation in newcomers, the sample thought would be most to least expected by the employment community. From Table 1, those styles are: Integration; assimilation; separation; and marginalisation. Firstly, Table 1 shows that the recruitment agencies sampled　tended to estimate that employers would generally prefer the newcomers to be predominantly 'integrationist' in their acculturation style (mean rank score =1.5). However, a number of the recruiters also predicted a preference for 'assimilation' (mean rank score =1.9). Also from Table 1, the other two options 'separation' and 'marginalisation' were not ranked first by any of the participants. Thus a common feature in the estimated employment preferences (integration and assimilation), is a predicted requirement that newcomers adapt to the predominant culture in New Zealand.

Table 3.1: Mean Rank Preferences among prospective employers for Newcomer Acculturation – estimated by Recruitment Agents (N=20)

	Integration	Assimilation	Separation	Marginalisation
Mean rank score	1.5	1.9	3.3	3.5
Number of times estimated first preference	11	9	0	0

Survey of Newcomers

Psychometric properties of measurement scales

Where appropriate, it was decided to explore the principle component structure of the chosen instruments with this sample, prior to testing the model in Figure 1.1. As rules of thumb, these exploratory checks were not undertaken unless: 1) there were at least 5-10 participants per item (10 participants were recommended by Bryant & Grimm, 2000) or 2) the scale itself had a relatively reliable structure in the wider literature; and 3) the factorability statistics (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of Sampling Adequacy and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity) were satisfactory for that particular instrument. Where principal components analysis was not appropriate under these criteria, and if there were sufficient theoretical grounds for doing so, we relied on Coefficient Alpha and item-corrected total score correlations. Specifically, items were not included in further analyses if Cronbach's Alpha for the scale (or factor) with the item deleted was larger than the Alpha for the whole scale (or factor) or, if an item had a corrected item-total correlation of less than approximately 0.3. The value of 0.3 for the item-total correlations was chosen as an approximate cut-off point because 0.3 represents a level where there is a 1% chance of a type I error (Fisher, 1965). The individual scales' psychometric properties are now reviewed.

Pre-Interview behaviour: An Inventory

The Pre-interview behaviour inventory was compiled from the literature on job hunting behaviours (see page 43 of Method). An adjustment to this scale was to remove the category "other behaviour" due to it being seldom utilised (n =7) by the participants. Deciding whether to run a principal component analysis on this instrument was a little difficult. On the one hand, previous research using a similar measure (found after creating my own measure), did not factor analyse implying that pre-interview

behaviours need not necessarily be linked together by any particular underlying construct. On the other hand, pre-interview behaviour could equally be construed as potentially having a single underlying structure. The factorability statistics were reasonable with the KMO 0.729, Bartlett's statistic significant at p<0.0001 and the participant: item ratio was within our bounds at 7. Thus, a principal components analysis was run. The results of this analysis showed all the items loading onto a single component with the exception of "placing advertisements". The latter activity is an unusual step to undertake when job hunting and was excluded from the scale. The principal components analysis was run again after removing this item, both specifying a single factor and not specifying the number of factors. Both of these analyses showed all the remaining items loading onto one principal component. The results of the analysis with an unspecified number of factors are shown in Appendix C. Thus, pre-interview behaviour was measured on an interval scale ranging from 0 to 12.

Interview Behaviour: Likert scales

Again, this scale was constructed by the researcher, from the literature (see Method page 44-45). Scanning this literature produced a provisional item pool of 23 items. This pool was then subjected to a standard Likert scale development procedure, on the assumption that behaviour at job interviews is probably interlinked (because of the localised situation of an interview). After applying the two rules of thumb of deletion of items when the item total score correlation was less than approximately 0.3 and the coefficient Alpha when deleted was greater than the coefficient Alpha for the scale as a whole, there remained 10 items. These remaining 10 items had a KMO of 0.710, and a significant Bartlett's test p<0.0001, and so were subjected to a principal component analysis (see Appendix D for the solution). The principal component analysis found two components accounting for 54% of the total variance. These first of these two components perhaps represents relationship-focused interview behaviour ("Firm

handshake at the interview" (loading = 0.751), "learn about company before interview" (loading = 0.706), "use humour at the interview", (loading= .705), "ask questions at the interview" (loading = 0.656), "be confident at the interview" (loading = 0.516), and "sell yourself at the interview" (loading = 0.389), final alpha α=.72). The second component represents more "Here's what I can do for you" at interviews with the following items loading: ("Focus on what the company can do for you" (loading = 0.832), "talking about own people skills" (loading = 0.832), "sell yourself at an interview" (loading = 0.610) and "being confident at interview" (loading = 0.380), final alpha α=.65). The items were subsequently aggregated into the two variables: relationship interview behaviour and Here's what I can do for you reflecting the components.

Cognitive Flexibility: Cognitive Flexibility Scale.

This scale has been utilised in previous literature (Martin & Rubin, 1995; Martin & Anderson, 1998; Martin, Anderson & Thweatt, 1988), and there are just 12 items in the scale (see decision rules above). Moreover, the factorability statistics (see Appendix E) showed a marginally acceptable KMO of 0.638, and a significant Bartlett's test p<0.0001. Thus, I proceeded to a principal component analysis. On the basis of the eigenvalues above 1, this analysis revealed 4 factors, but the revealed factors were largely too difficult to interpret (see Appendix E). There was however one exception: the items loading onto the first factor could be considered to represent cognitive flexibility (see below for the items). This factor accounted for 16.8% of the total variance and contained 5 items. One of these items was not correlated with the corrected total score of the others, and this item was subsequently dropped. The remaining item pool consisted of 4 items:

- "I am willing to listen and consider alternatives for handling a problem" (loading= 0.780),

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- "I have difficulty in using my knowledge about a topic in real life situations" (reverse coded, loading =0.688),

- "I have the self-confidence necessary to try different ways of behaving" (loading = 0.630)

- "I am able to act appropriately for the situation I find myself in" (loading = 0.513)

These four items had a coefficient Alpha of $\alpha=0.62$ and because of their conceptual clarity reflecting cognitive flexibility, they were therefore aggregated tentatively into a new variable called "Cognitive Flexibility".

Acculturation: Acculturation Index

Initially, the researcher hoped to perform a Principal Component Analysis on the Acculturation Index. However, with this particular sample, the instrument did not meet the criteria for at least 5 participants per item of the scale. Although there is a wide literature about this instrument, the factorability statistics were not satisfactory: KMO 0.420 and significant Bartlett's test at $p<0.0001$. Thus and especially since the instrument has a good psychometric track record elsewhere I relied on coefficient Alpha and item-corrected total score correlations only.

For the sub-scale, "home acculturation", (which reflects how important it is for the newcomer to maintain their own home culture and was called co-national identification by Ward and associates), "home Religion" had a low item-corrected total score and was hence removed from further analysis. The remaining 19 items had a coefficient Alpha of $\alpha=0.87$ with all items correlating more than 0.3 with their respective corrected total scores, and were subsequently aggregated together to form the "home acculturation" variable. On the sub-scale, "New Zealand acculturation" (which reflects how important it is for a newcomer to adapt to New Zealand culture and was called host national identification by Ward and associates), "New Zealand Recreation" had a

low item-corrected total score and was removed from further analysis. The remaining 19 items had a coefficient Alpha of α=.87 with all items correlated more than 0.3 with their respective correlated total scores and were subsequently aggregated into a new variable called New Zealand acculturation.

In previous research, style of acculturation has been computed using median splits, on each of the co-national identification and host national identification scales. Specifically, by splitting each participant's scores into 'high' versus 'low', on both host country identification and co-national identification, each participant has typically been coded into one of the four main acculturation styles (e.g. high on both co-national and host national identification = 'integrationist', high on host country identification but low on co-national identification = 'assimilationist'). In the current study however, the use of a median split to create distinct categories was not considered feasible. This lack of feasibility of using median splits occurs because the data were distributed largely in the *upper* half of the scale, with no clear midpoints. The scatter plot of this information is shown in Figure 3.1 below. Thus, in order to compute acculturation orientations, I relied on the total component scores from each of the two sub-scales: Home acculturation and New Zealand acculturation separately.
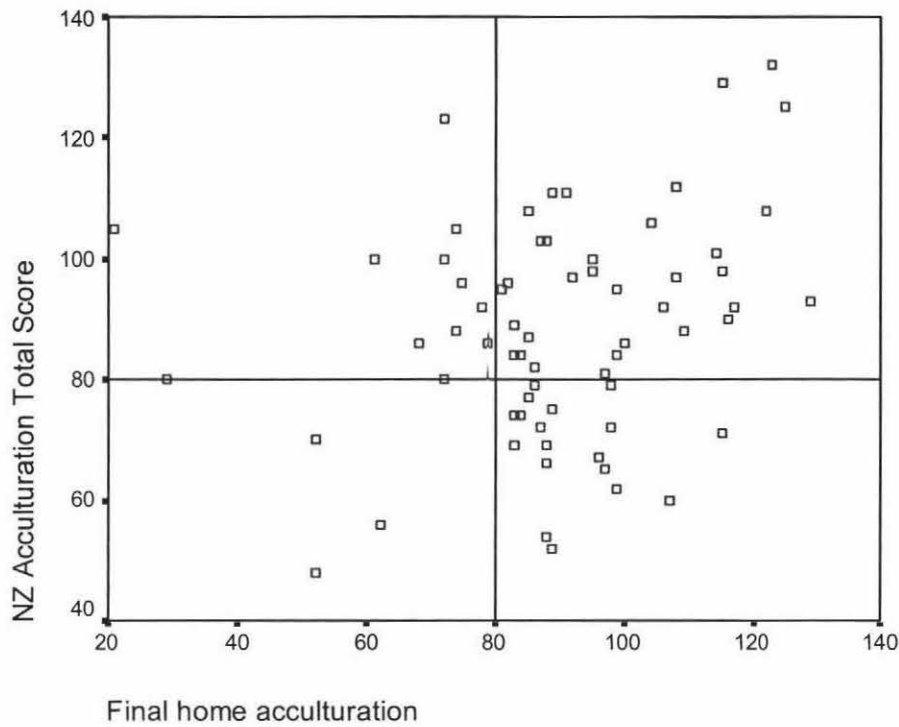
Figure 3.1: Scattergram plotting raw scores of Home acculturation against New Zealand acculturation for each participant with midpoints of the scales shown as axes

Acculturation 'Fit': A rank index

The above method of calculating acculturation style automatically affected the way I was able to calculate the degree of acculturation 'fit'. Rather than using the qualitative acculturation styles (which we have seen could not be computed on the data), I relied on the rank order data supplied by both the newcomers and recruitment agencies alike (see Method, p. 51). Specifically, I calculated an index of the 'fit' between the ranks given, respectively, to the four styles presented in Table 3.1. In the case of the newcomers, this entailed computing (i) raw ranks given by each participant. In the case of the recruiters, because of the division in estimated preferences among employers, this entailed computing (ii) the mean rank order in Table 3.1. Next, in order to calculate an acculturation 'fit' for each newcomer participant, the non-parametric test statistic, Kendall's tau b, was correlated between (i) each newcomer's rankings, and (ii) the

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mean ranks of the estimated employers preferences, as given in Table 3.1. Operationally therefore, higher positive correlations reflected better fit between own (newcomer) style and the style probably preferred by the host community of prospective employers (as indicated by the recruitment agencies' estimates). Any negative correlations, in this instance were thought to reflect a misunderstanding of the ranking system, and were later deleted from the sample for any particular analysis specifically on 'fit' (n = 12).

Proximity to securing a job: The Guttman scalogram

Conceptually, finding a job is a question of hierarchy: The job hunting process entails overcoming a series of hurdles (seeing jobs advertised, applying for jobs, getting an interview etc.) that brings a candidate ever closer to the goal of having a job that matches their qualifications. Hierarchies like this suggest Guttman scaling. A Guttman scalogram was constructed (using the procedure in Robson, 2002).

Robson (2002) recommends ordering the items into a table. These items are arranged vertically, by the number of times an item is chosen, with the item that is chosen the most (by the newcomers) at the top of a table and the item that is chosen the least (by the newcomers) at the bottom. Participants are also ordered from least to greatest on their total number of items chosen. Following Robson (2002), Guttman's 'Coefficient of Reproducibility' was calculated. My Coefficient of Reproducibility was 0.86, which is just below the acceptable 0.9 level proposed by Guttman (see also Robson, 2002). In such circumstances, in order to eliminate unwanted error variance, any items with a relatively high number of errors can be deleted from the scalogram item pool. Following this process of eliminating items with relatively manifest error, a Guttman scalogram emerged consisting of 7 items, with a Coefficient of Reproducibility of 0.93. Since this value is above the acceptable minimum recommended by Robson (2002), the trimmed

scale was considered to be an acceptable scalogram. The final scalogram had the following steps in it:

- Seen jobs advertised in the newspapers
- Applied for jobs
- Received a rejection letter before interview
- Got an interview
- Received a rejection letter after an interview
- Received a rejection letter after a second interview
- Am now working in a job that matches my qualifications

Satisfaction with job hunting process: PANAS scale

The PANAS scale has a wide literature of use, and includes a total of 20 items (which are expected to form two distinct factors called Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA), with all positive loadings). The factorability statistics for the sample in the current study were acceptable, with the KMO 0.762, and a significant Bartlett's test of $p<0.0001$ (see Appendix F). These factorability statistics and the wide literature of this scale meant that this scale meets the criteria for a principal component analysis. There were two components identified by the Scree diagram from the principal component analysis. The first component accounted for 31% of the variance, but was found to have both positive loadings (all of the positive items) as well as negative loadings of five Negative Affect items (upset, frustrated, afraid, distressed, and nervous). This pattern of results reflects a "bipolar eigenvector" (Bryant & Yarnold, 2000, p. 106). Bipolar eigenvectors are problematic in terms of interpretation, and are unusual for the PANAS scale. This unusual pattern of loadings was thought to reflect, perhaps, language difficulties of the participants (in spite of the relative simplicity of the items).

Thus, the theoretical sub-scales were tested with coefficient Alpha for internal consistency separately. The PA items alone had an internal consistency of α=0.88 with all 10 items included. The NA items alone had an internal consistency of α=0.81, again with 10 items included. Nonetheless, and despite the relatively high Coefficient Alphas for the Positive and Negative affect items, I decided to treat the PANAS measure as somewhat 'suspect', because of potential language difficulties (above) and I relied more on the simpler, non-language dependent Faces scale (below).

Satisfaction with the job hunting process: Faces scale

Being a single item, visual analog scale, the Faces scale is not subject to the rules of thumb listed above, for deciding on which items to include in any composite index of the theoretical construct of interest. Nonetheless, because single item questions may have unusual distributions (e.g. floor or ceiling effects), the distribution of the Faces scale was checked. The raw data showed a range from 1 to 7, ('4' is the neutral point and larger scores reflect increasing unhappiness). The overall mean score on the scale tended, slightly, towards unhappy (mean = 4.27, standard deviation = 1.84). The distribution of the Faces scale is shown in Appendix F and is relatively normal.

Linkages between variables – AMOS analysis

Before testing analytically, I examined the distribution of the other key elements for potential distribution. All of the above aggregated variables showed a nearly normal distribution with skewness and kurtosis statistics within the ranges allowable for analysis using AMOS. The potential linkages between the measures above are outlined below in Figure 3.2. This figure is based directly on the conceptual model presented in Figure 1.1. From Figure 3.2, we wished to test for statistical linkages between each operationally defined concept in the model, whilst controlling for the

others. AMOS is a programme that allows both (i) structural equation modelling and (ii) path analysis to be undertaken. While structural equation modelling tests models and allows causality to be determined (Byrne, 2001), path analysis tests theoretical relationships without assigning causality (Schumacker & Lomax, 1996). Initially, structural equation modelling was attempted on the model from Figure 3.1, but the sample was underpowered for the requirements of structural equation modelling and it was not possible to form an unidentified model. However, the model in Figure 3.2 was analysed using path analysis (in AMOS 4.01). Following Schumacker and Lomax (1996), paths were progressively dropped from the analysis as they became non-significant, and provided that the change in the model resulted in a significant decrease in the Chi square statistic for the model (which reflects goodness of fit between the model being tested and a model reflecting all the variance in the underlying population). Thus, a path was only dropped from the model if the new model (without the path included) fitted significantly better than the existing model (with the path included).
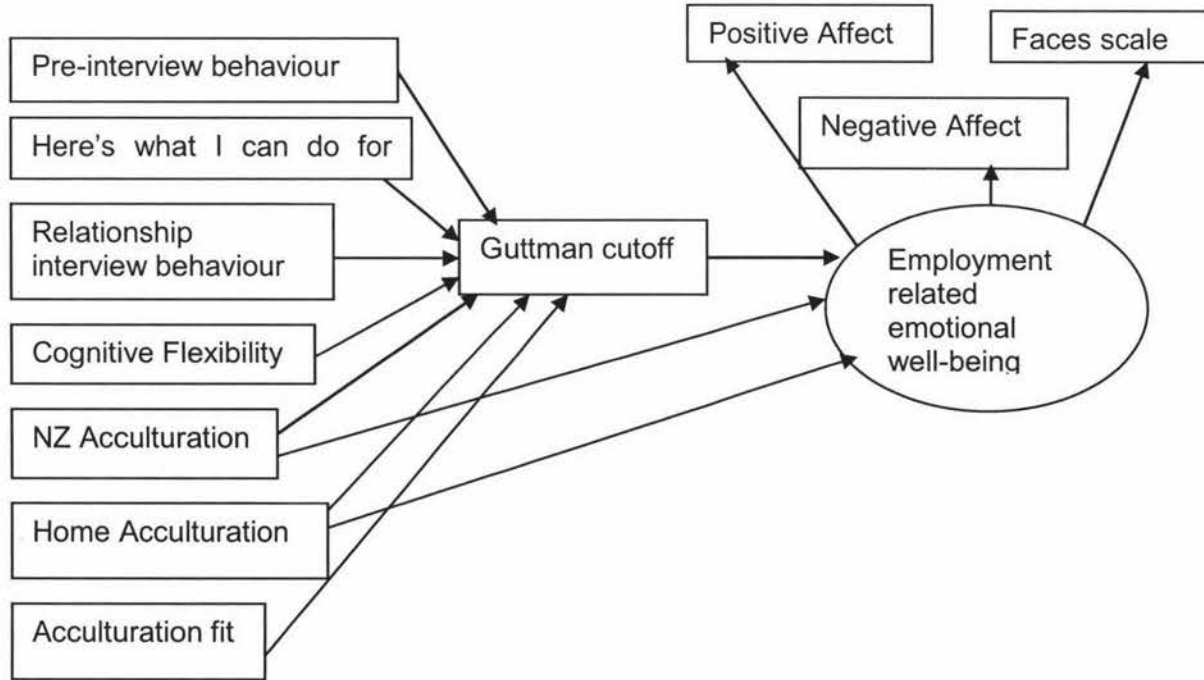
Figure 3.2:   Initial Model that was tested in AMOS 4.01 (error variables included on Guttman cut-off and employment related overall well-being)

The model that resulted from the above procedure is shown in Figure 3.3. The path analysis of the model in Figure 3.3 showed a $x_2=29.179$ which was significant at $p<0.01$ level. The paths that were eliminated from the initial model shown in Figure 3.2 are now summarised: "Here's what I can do for you" to Guttman cut-off, Relationship interview behaviours to Guttman cut-off, Acculturation fit to Guttman cut-off, New Zealand acculturation to Employment related emotional well-being, Home Acculturation to Guttman cut-off and Home Acculturation to employment related emotional well-being. From Figure 3.3, all the remaining paths are statistically significant at the $p<0.05$ level and the statistics shown are the standardised beta weights (for valid comparison purposes). There is evidence of a positive correlation between the aggregated score on pre-interview behaviours to Guttman cut-off (0.51), which is the strongest path in the model. There is a negative correlation between Cognitive Flexibility aggregated score and the Guttman cut-off (-.22), which is in the opposite direction to the way that was hypothesised. There is a positive correlation between the aggregated score on New Zealand acculturation and Guttman cut-off (0.25). There is a negative correlation between Guttman cut-off to employment related overall well-being (-0.33), which was opposite to the direction hypothesised. Employment related emotional well-being, in Figure 3.3 is predicted by positive affect, negative affect and the faces scale. Because the variable reflecting employment related emotional well-being contains both negative and positive affect, a direction had to be established, in my research higher values on employment related emotional well-being reflected higher levels of positive well-being, with lower levels reflecting negative well-being. Thus, and contrary to expectation, the negative correlation means the closer that the participant comes to finding a job without actually getting the job, the more frustrated they become with the job hunting process. The chi-square and the significant probability (see earlier this paragraph) show that the model shown in Figure 3.3 is a

close but not exact approximation of the model that best fits the data. The close approximation is reflected by the low value of the Chi square statistic, but for the model shown to be the best fitting model, the p value would be non-significant. Thus, while the model in Figure 3.3 is a close approximation of the data, it is not quite the model reflecting the best fit.
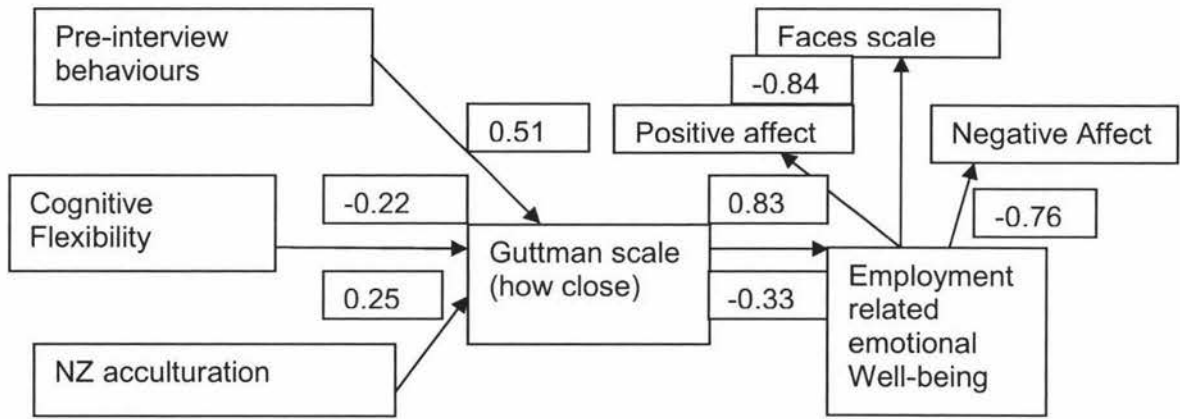
Figure 3.3: Path analysis indicating significant paths and standardized beta regression weights for each path

Given the marginal satisfactoriness of the PANAS scale with this sample, the above model (see Figure 3.3) was re-run with just the Faces scale reflecting employment related emotional well-being (i.e. with the PANAS excluded). The output for this re-analysis is shown in Figure 3.4. The test produced a x_2=31.159 and significant at p<0.001 level. The paths that were removed from the path analysis were: Relationship interview behaviours to Guttman cut-off, Acculturation fit to Guttman cut-off, Home Acculturation to Guttman cut-off, Home Acculturation to Faces scale and New Zealand acculturation to Faces scale. The remaining paths are in Figure 3.4, with the standardised beta weights for comparison purposes. Figure 3.4, shows that pre-interview behaviours to Guttman cut-off has a strong positive correlation at 0.47. This path is again the strongest path in the model. The aggregated score of Cognitive Flexibility to Guttman cut-off is again a negative correlation at -0.2, contrary to expectation. New Zealand acculturation still has a positive correlation with Guttman

cut-off at 0.31, which is a hypothesised relationship. The additional variable in this model is "Here's what I can do for you" which has a negative correlation with the Guttman cut-off at -0.20. The direction of this correlation is contrary to expectations, but may reflect the concept of "oversell". The Guttman cut-off is significantly correlated with the Faces scale at 0.31, but since higher values of the Faces scale reflect greater unhappiness, this correlation is in reality reflecting more unhappiness; the closer the newcomer comes to getting a job. These statistics again shows a close fitting model but not the best fitting model which shows a closer approximation of the model in the data (by Chi square) but still not the closest possible model (reflected by significant p value).
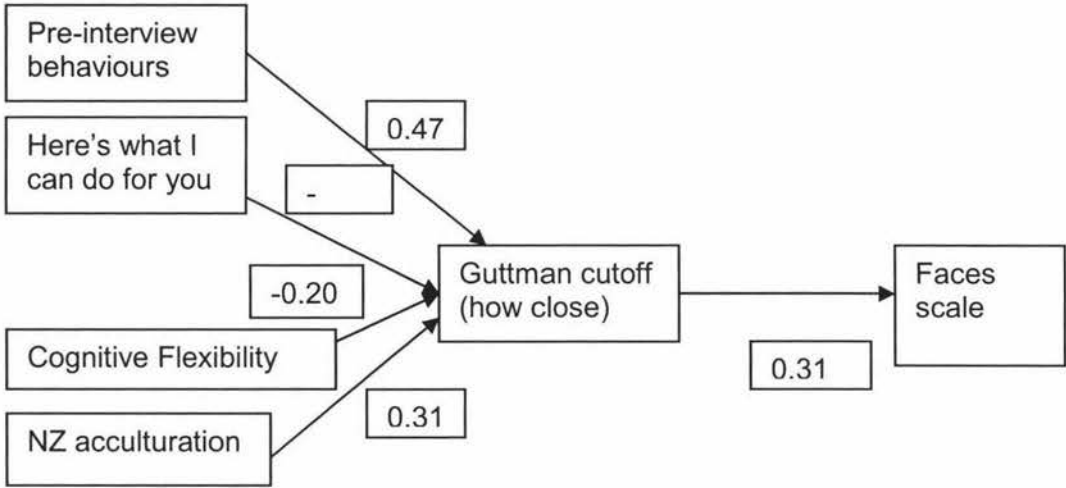
Figure 3.4: Path analysis indicating significant paths and standardised beta weights with a simplified final criterion (Faces scale score)

In conclusion, the path analysis in Figures 3.3 and Figure 3.4 show positive correlations between pre-interview behaviours and how close the newcomer comes to finding work that matches their qualifications, as well as between New Zealand acculturation and how close they come to finding work that matches their qualifications. There are negative correlations between Cognitive Flexibility and how close the newcomers comes to finding a job that matches their qualifications, as well as between

how close the newcomer comes to finding work that matches their qualifications and their employment related emotional well-being. In Figure 3.4, there is also a negative correlation between "Here's what I can do for you" and how close the newcomer comes to finding work that matches their qualifications.

Post hoc analysis

Although the recruitment agencies' perceptions of employers' preferred style of acculturation for newcomers' had been assessed earlier (see Table 3.1), the newcomers had also been asked during the survey, about their *own* perceptions of how employers expected newcomers to acculturate. Table 3.2 contains a comparison of the employment community's perception versus newcomers own perceptions, of the kind of acculturation style New Zealand employers were perceived to prefer. From Table 3.2, there is a discrepancy of +0.4 between the employers and the newcomers, concerning the perceived relative importance of integration, as opposed to assimilation: Whilst recruitment agencies' perceptions of what employers expect is that 'integration', with 'assimilation' coming second, the *newcomers* tended instead to think that *'assimilation'* was preferred and that *'integration'* was second. This reversal of mean rank order is interesting, because it suggests that the recruiters may have a slightly rosier perception of the reality than the newcomers.

Table 3.2: Discrepancy of mean rank preferences between employer's and newcomers

	Integration	Assimilation	Separation	Marginalisation
Employer ranking	1.5	1.9	3.3	3.5
Newcomer Ranking	1.9	1.86	2.49	2.39
Discrepancy	+0.4	-0.04	-0.81	-1.11

Qualitative Data

In order to complement and help illuminate further the qualitative analysis above, a qualitative analysis was undertaken. The main source of the qualitative data was the responses to our questions on critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954). These questions on critical incidents had asked for both positive and negative incidents, i.e., something memorably 'good' that happened while looking for a job and something memorably 'bad' that happened while looking for a job. Following Flanagan (1954), these critical incidents were content analysed separately. In order to check on the inter-rater reliability of the two analyses, we used Cohen's Kappa (Robson, 2002) to assess the degree of agreement on coding, between two independent raters (the researcher and another co-researcher). The coefficient Kappa for the 'positive' events was 0.72; for the 'negative' events was 0.76. Coefficients of these magnitudes reflect inter-rater reliability that is 'good' (Robson, 2002). The content analysis of the positive incidents is summarised in Table 3.3, and the content analysis of negative incidents is summarised in Table 3.4.

Table 3.3: Positive critical incidents categories.

Positive events	Frequency	Percentage of responses
Offered a job	17	24%
Kindness or friendliness by New Zealanders	11	16%
Given advice or encouragement	8	11%
Offered friendship	6	8%
Other	9	12%
Total	56	

From Table 3.3, the majority of positive incidents consist of being offered a job. This is shown by the following excerpt taken from the one of the respondents. The following example of being offered a job is faster than most newcomers experience:

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I arrived on a Wednesday. Had my 1ˢᵗ interview on Friday. Before I had got

back to home. I was called in for second (technical ability) interview on the

Monday following. I got the job and was working in less than 10 days.

From Table 3.3, a relatively common theme was the kindness or friendliness of New Zealanders (especially to people from overseas). A typical example of the kindness and/or friendliness experienced is shown in the following excerpt:

Most people here are friendly, they try and help strangers

From Table 3.3, a common theme was that newcomers were given advice or encouragement. A typical example of this is shown in the following excerpt (grammar has not been changed):

I made phone call to ask for job opportunity and one of the recipients though

hadn't got a vacancy for me but encouraged me to continue on

The 'other' category (from Table 3.3) included seeing jobs advertised, none or irrelevant, got student loan, friends had succeeded here, no discrimination shown, new start in life, freedom/democracy and attended good seminars. Interestingly, 6% of the sample ($n = 4$), reported nothing positive to report. The positive critical incident data shows that newcomer generally find people to be helpful and are given encouragement or advice to help them in the job process. Most of the positive critical incidents include being offered a job as the most significant incident that happened to them, but this job was not necessarily one that matched their qualifications.

Table 3.4   Negative critical incidents by category

Negative event	Frequency	Percentage of responses
No progress/ No reply to applications	17	24%
New Zealand experience required	8	11%
Application rejected	7	10%
Experienced discrimination	5	7%
Other	9	12%

From Table 3.4, the majority of negative incidents said that there was no progress or no reply to applications. A typical reply to this was seen in the following excerpt (with no grammatical changes):

Over 90% reply to application are declined reply

From Table 3.4, a relatively prominent theme was that New Zealand experience was required to get a job. A typical excerpt is shown below (with no grammatical changes)

The job is difficult to find because I have not local experience

From Table 3.4, another negative critical incident category was being rejected for the job. This following excerpt is fairly typical:

But it was unsuccessful for reasons unknown to me, though I fared very well and had the required experience. Ever since that I am not called for any interview, though I applied for about 40 jobs.

From Table 3.4, the 'other' category included WINZ problems, problems with not being a permanent resident, document processing problems, being over-qualified, no job advancement, lack of management support and bank problems.

The negative incidents paint a fuller picture of the emotions that the newcomers experience in trying to find a job that matches their qualifications, with some of the reasons that had been found in previous research coming out. Overall, the linking emotions that are experienced are more 'flat' affect or disappointment, rather than anger or frustration. The qualitative data may help to explain some of the quasi 'anomalies' that were found in the PANAS scale (above). The PANAS scale (see questionnaire in Appendix B) asks about people being: distressed, upset, guilty, scared, hostile, irritable, nervous, frustrated and afraid. The adjectives that come closest to expressing disappointment are distressed, upset, nervous, frustrated and afraid, which are all the emotions that loaded onto the first component in the factor analysis above. It may be that the first component (with the combined positive affect items and the negative affect items) of the PANAS in my research actually reflects the emotions that the newcomers are feeling. It may be that the PANAS scale was reflecting different emotions from those which the newcomers were actually experiencing. So overall the negative emotions expressed by the qualitative data show that the newcomers are frustrated that there is no response or no progress with their applications, the newcomers find they require New Zealand experience or the newcomers feel discrimination.

Reasons why answered the Faces scale: qualitative data

The possible 'flatness' of affect shown in the negative critical incidents above is also shown in the newcomers answers to our final qualitative question about why they had answered the Faces scale in the manner which they had. Answers to the Faces scale (above), had utilised the whole scale, with positive experiences, neutral experiences and negative experiences being reported, and the qualitative data for the question about why the newcomers had answered the Faces scale as they had, reflects and converges with this diversity of answers. The Kappa coefficient (between the two

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raters) for this data, was also' good' at 0.60 (Robson, 2002). The major theme breakdown of the content analysis is not shown because of the relatively small numbers of newcomers responding to each category instead some typical examples are shown.

Some examples of typical positive responses are shown. Many of these excerpts state that finding a job was hard work but the outcome was good:

Though it was hard work, I was satisfied with the outcome.

and

I've got a challenging job, which interests me. I have worked hard to get it

One response showing the variety of emotions that the newcomers experience, but ending up in the neutral position is typified in the following excerpt:

When I came to New Zealand, my face was (very happy), after 4-5 months it was (very unhappy). Now I think it is like (neutral) (no happiness/no sorrow).

The negative responses to this question express some of the same themes as those already described by the negative critical incidents (see Table 3.6). I have included the themes of repeated rejection, taking a lower position, and requiring New Zealand experience, which also came out in the negative critical incidents. .

After trying sincerely and tirelessly, exploring all avenues and really taking the initiative time and time again, my efforts have not borne fruit. Willy nilly, I was forced to take a very very elementary position just to keep myself from starving (repeated rejection / took a lower position).

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Local experience is a must. Even you're a expert and your English is good. But you don't have local experience, you will fail. It seems that Nzer does not want to learn from others. I came here less than 1 year. How can I have the local experience?? (no NZ experience)

Other themes that occurred in the negative responses included that of the need for retraining or further study in order to get a job that matched their qualifications and also the prejudice shown by employers. Some examples are shown of these reasons:

As it is we are the middle aged professionals in our country and have to start life all over again is indeed an ordeal. To re-train is again awful with no assurance of job after that (re-training)

Some employers are not sincere and are prejudice (prejudice shown).

Some of the other negative responses to this question included: having multiple interviews, no response to applications, being unhappy or depressed, experiencing pressure or discrimination, having a too low salary, no future in jobs got, , and unfulfilled promises.

Overall, these reasons show a large variation in the emotions expressed with more responses being positive than the researcher had expected. The neutral category and the negative category reflect on some of the reasons expressed earlier.

In conclusion, the results of the qualitative data have shown that there is a lot of emotion being expressed by newcomers to New Zealand in terms of trying to find a job that matches their qualifications and not succeeding. There is no anger being expressed but generally a sense of disappointment and even frustration that the

newcomer has these skills that they cannot utilise fully within the New Zealand environment.

Chapter 4 Discussion

The results from my highly exploratory research show that pre-interview behaviour (positively correlated), here's what I can do for you (negatively correlated), cognitive flexibility (negatively correlated) and adaptation to New Zealand culture (positively correlated) are all correlated with how close the newcomer to New Zealand comes to finding a job that matches their qualifications. How close the newcomer comes to finding a job is significantly negatively correlated with employment related emotional well-being. Some of the implications of these results are now examined.

There was a significant negative correlation found between how close the newcomer to New Zealand came to finding work that matches their qualifications and their employment related emotional well-being. The direction of this relationship was contrary to expectations and that hypothesised. This negative correlation reflects that as the newcomer get closer to finding a job that matches their qualifications, their employment related emotional well-being decreased, and the direction was found regardless of the criterion variables used (see both Figure 3.3 and Figure 3.4 of the results). This effect reflects a J-curve, similar to what Davies (1979) found when the reality of a situation did not meet the expectation levels of the participants. The negative consequences of trying to find a job but not succeeding could lead to a high degree of frustration and general lowering of the employment related emotional well-being. Other factors, for example prejudice, could be influencing this relationship as well. Interestingly, this negative correlation supports the hypothesis that the more unemployment or under-employment is experienced by the newcomer, the more their employment related well-being will decrease while being in the opposite direction than hypothesised for the effect of getting a job that matched the newcomers qualifications effect on employment related well-being.

The results showed that pre-interview behaviours were very highly correlated with job success, with the more pre-interview behaviours utilised, the more likely the newcomer was to find a job that matched their qualifications. The results for this path were as hypothesised. This particular path was the strongest path in the model, and had the highest correlation of the whole model. This correlation has been consistently found in literature around job searching, for example, Kanfer, Wanberg & Kantrowitz, 2001 in their meta-analysis found a similar impact of pre-interview behaviours. The same result was found by Wanberg, Kanfer & Rotundo (1999). There is also a suggestion in the literature that the more behaviours or avenues are tried, the more successful the person looking for a job is likely to be (Mau & Kopischke, 2001) and this finding is borne out by my results. It is important to note that the outcome of a job search is not just influenced by pre-interview behaviours, but also by the behaviours shown at interviews.

The interview behaviour hypothesis was only partly supported by my research. Interestingly, the "Here's what I can do for you" interview behaviours were negatively correlated to how close the newcomer came to getting a job that matched their qualifications. That is as "Here's what I can do for you" interview behaviours increased, the chances of getting a job that matched the newcomer's qualifications decreased in my sample. The negative correlation is counter-intuitive and contrary to the hypothesised direction. One possible explanation for the negative correlation, may be that newcomers' show a degree of oversell when trying to find a job. The oversell principle is that the newcomers are trying so hard to make a positive impression and to get a job, that they try too hard, and come across as not authentic, which decreases their chances of actually getting the job. The effects of oversell as negative have been demonstrated in a variety of contexts by previous research (for example: Mississippi Business Journal, 2002; Kalra, Shi & Srinivasan, 2003). Also the Guttman scalogram showed that 37 newcomers (52%) had actually gotten an interview for a job that

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matched their qualifications, which may mean that the influence of interview behaviour is underestimated in my research. Other factors, for example, prejudice and/or discrimination may be contributing to the outcome of interviews. In contrast to the "Here's what I can do for you" interview behaviours, relationship behaviours in interviews were not found to be significant in my research, thus indicating only partial support for the hypothesis around interview behaviours affecting how close newcomers came to finding jobs that match their qualifications.

Cognitive Flexibility was also negatively correlated to how close the newcomers came to finding work, in my research. Again, this negative correlation is contrary to expectations and contrary to the hypothesised direction. I have no explanation for this finding and further research should be investigating this phenomenon to see if it is a sample specific result or if it generalises across samples.

The concept of acculturation was a major part of my research. One of the results from my research was the importance for newcomers to adapt to the predominant New Zealand culture. The direction of the correlation showed that as adaptation to New Zealand culture increased, so did the success in finding a job that matched the newcomer's qualifications. While previous research had shown that adaptation was important in a new culture (Lazarus, 1997; Aycan & Berry, 1996; Berry, 1997; Ward & Kennedy, 1993), the strength of the adaptation in predicting job hunting success was surprising to the researcher, in its magnitude though not in its direction. New Zealand acculturation, was not related to employment related emotional well-being in my research, thus not supporting this hypothesis.

In contrast to adapting to New Zealand culture, a newcomer keeping their own culture was not related to either job success or employment related emotional well-being, in my research. These findings do not support the hypotheses around home

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acculturation. Interestingly, there was a negative correlation between the newcomer keeping own home culture and job success as well as employment related emotional well-being (though the paths were non-significant). This negative correlation shows that the more the newcomer wanted to keep their own culture, the less likely they were to get a job that matched their qualifications and that the newcomer would likely have poorer employment related emotional well-being.

The combination of the New Zealand acculturation results and the home acculturation results, would indicate to the researcher that New Zealand's overall attitude to acculturation styles in the workplace for newcomers, is one of 'assimilation' rather than 'integration' (see Figure 1.2 of the introduction). The finding of a preference for 'assimilation' is borne out by the newcomer's perceptions of what they thought New Zealand employers wanted (see the post hoc analysis section in the results). So the recruitment agents perception of the New Zealand employment community may be slightly optimistic, or showing a bias in terms of being more positive than the reality is, which is a common bias found in psychology (Carr, 2003). In looking at host country identification in Australia, Nesdale & Mak (2000) found that Australian dominant majority attitudes to newcomers, produce tension in that the majority prefer one acculturation attitude by the newcomers in certain situations and that in other situations the majority prefer another acculturation attitude. My research has shown that there is a similar situation in New Zealand attitudes.

The hypothesis around various acculturation styles chosen by the newcomer were unable to be tested in my research, due to the distribution problems of the sample data (as described in the results). The raw data was aggregated into total scores rather than being coded into the different acculturation styles, so unfortunately these hypotheses could not be tested as proposed in this research. There were no significant effects found between New Zealand acculturation or Home acculturation and the employment

related emotional well-being in this research, thus not supporting these hypotheses to the degree they could be tested in this research.

Acculturation 'fit', in contrast to New Zealand acculturation, was not found to be significant in the analysis of the model. The hypothesis about 'fit' being important was not supported. This finding was also in contrast to what Bourhis et al (1997) predicted in their Interactive Acculturation Model, so my research does not confirm the Interactive Acculturation Model in New Zealand. This research was only highly exploratory and so this finding will need to be researched more in future studies. Other variables, for example, prejudice or discrimination may be stronger in the employment context than issues of 'fit' in New Zealand.

The Faces scale was found to be the most effective measure in measuring employment related emotional well-being in my research. Interestingly, this conclusion is supported by Brief and Roberson (1989) who found the Faces scale to be the most effective and balanced measure of both positive affect and negative affect, while measuring job satisfaction. The difficulties that my research found with the PANAS scale (in terms of the bipolar 'eigenvector'), may have been that the PANAS scale was not actually reflecting the emotions the newcomers were experiencing. The qualitative data showed that the emotions being experienced by the newcomer were more disappointment and 'flatness' of affect. The negative emotions that came close to reflecting disappointment were the emotions that loaded onto the first component in the principal component analysis (see Appendix F for these results). The first principal component may have been reflecting the emotions that the newcomers were actually experiencing rather than positive affect and negative affect as was traditionally measured by the PANAS scale.

Prior to conducting the survey, the researcher (an Aucklander) assumed that the employment community in Auckland would be fairly homogenous in their attitude to 'newcomers', and would have the same perception about newcomers' acculturation attitudes. During the course of the telephone interviews, it became clear that the assumption of homogeneity was not necessarily holding true, with different ethnic groups being perceived differently by the participants. The different perceptions of the different ethnic groups may be due to the cultural milieu that surrounds immigration in New Zealand. In the early 1970s, Trlin (1974) found there was a specific order of preference for ethnic groups to immigrate to New Zealand and also recently McLachlan (1999) found a preference in employment for be "white, male, able-bodied and Caucausian" (McLachlan, 1999, p. 157). These findings are reflected by Elkin & Inkson (2000) in their book about organisations in New Zealand. Thus, it may be that in the New Zealand employment market, ethnicity is important.

Discussion around employment issues

My research shows significant under-employment (at best) amongst the skilled newcomers to New Zealand. Under-employment amongst skilled newcomers has been shown by previous research in New Zealand (Oliver, 2000; Johns & Ainsworth, 2001, Kam Chan, 2002). The results of my research, along with previous research, show that very few newcomers to New Zealand (7% of the sample, $n=5$) are working currently at a job that is at a higher level than the best job the newcomers had in their home country. Fifty percent of the newcomers that are employed are not using their qualifications in their job at all. Sixty one percent of the sample had a bachelor's degree or higher as their highest education. This shows a severe under utilisation of the skills that the newcomers bring to New Zealand which has economic, political and psychological consequences for New Zealand (Glass & Choy, 2001). Thus, New Zealand has very severe brain drain occurring (Mahroum, 2000).

Some of the barriers identified by previous research to finding a job that matched the newcomer's qualifications include lack of English skills, lack of New Zealand experience and qualifications and/or experience from overseas not being recognised. All of these barriers were identified by the newcomers themselves, in the qualitative data from my research.   Other barriers that were also identified in my research included: lack of progress or no responses to applications, wage paid was not enough to support family on and on the more positive side: the kindness and friendliness of New Zealanders, and New Zealanders willingness to give help and advice. All of these factors paint a picture that life in New Zealand is complex in that some things are very positive, whereas some things (especially employment) are very complex and frustrating for the newcomer to New Zealand.

Limitations of the study

One of the major limitations of my research was the total number of questionnaires returned to the researcher. There was a low return rate from the community sample of newcomers. A variety of sources have confirmed that Asian people especially are reluctant to fill in questionnaires, because of fear of reprisal or intervention from the government.   Also the length and complexity of the questionnaire may have discouraged participation in the research, because English was a second language for most of the newcomers, which makes it more complex to understand. It was found that if the researcher personally asked possible participants to complete the survey rather than having the questionnaire distributed via third parties, then the return rate was higher (a case in point 160 questionnaires were distributed by third parties without a single response to the researcher, which negatively skewed the response rate). Also in an attempt to maximise the returns, a response date for returns was included on the questionnaire. This date may have discouraged returning the questionnaire, once it had

passed although data collection continued past many of these dates, to try and maximise the sample size. The resulting sample size of 70, restricted the analyses that could be performed on the sample, but was the most representative sample that could be achieved by the researcher, in the time constraints imposed by the Master's degree.

Future Research Directions

Future research could test the resulting model (see Figure 3.4 from the results) with newcomers in other parts of New Zealand, outside of Auckland. Also the research could be expanded to include Pacific Island peoples. Other potential ways of finding potential subjects include door to door canvassing in suburbs with a high concentration of newcomers or recruiting people from shopping malls.

Future research could also investigate whether other factors such as prestige of last job held affected the outcome of the job search. It could also investigate how the demographics of the participants affected the outcomes. While demographics were identified within this research, limitations meant that they were unable to be fully explored within this setting. Other suggestions for future research have been included in the text.

Conclusions of my research

In conclusion, my highly exploratory research has found that skilled newcomers to New Zealand are often under-employed or unemployment and that this state of employment, has major psychological consequences.

Despite the limitations of this study, the tentative conclusions that have been reached show that the following psycho-social correlates predict how close a newcomer will come to finding a job that match their qualifications include:

- The use of multiple pre-interview behaviours,

- Being willing to adapt to the 'predominant' New Zealand culture. Adapting to the New Zealand culture may mean changing approaches that had previously worked in the newcomers' country of origin.

- How cognitive flexible the newcomer is will also negatively impact on how close they come to finding a job that matches their qualifications.

- The newcomers possible over-use of "Here's what I can do for you" behaviours in an interview situation.

- How close a newcomer comes to finding a job that matches their qualifications in turn predicts employment related emotional well-being (again through a negative correlation) which reflects the influence of a J-curve.

- New Zealand employers may be somewhat more 'assimilationist' in their outlook than the recruitment agents think they are.

My research also provides a platform and a baseline from which further research into the psychological factors associated with employment may be investigated in the future.

Chapter 5   References

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Appendix A

Hello, my name is Karen Mace and I am conducting research into employers attitudes to newcomers to New Zealand. Do you have 5 minutes to help me with this research?

If yes: then continue with survey

If no: then what is a convenient time for you?

Survey:

Research has identified 4 attitudes that newcomers could hold on coming to New Zealand. Please could you rank them based on what you think employer's would like newcomers to hold from 1) agree with most to 4) agree with least.

The choices are:

a) Adopt New Zealand culture and keep their own culture

b) Adopt New Zealand culture and minimise their own culture

c) Keep their own culture and minimise New Zealand culture

d) Ignore both New Zealand and their own cultures and look after themselves.

Thanks for your help. Do you have any further comments?

Would you like a summary of the results sent to you?

Appendix B

Massey University
COLLEGE OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL SCIENCES

School of Psycholog
Private Bag 102 904,
North Shore MSC,
Auckland,
New Zealand
Telephone: 64 9 443
extn 9180
Facsimile: 64 9 441 8

Information Sheet

Hello my name is Karen Mace, and I am looking at how newcomers to New Zealand, find work that matches their qualifications in the Auckland region. I am looking for people who have arrived in New Zealand within the past 5 years, either as migrants or refugees, and have permanent residency in New Zealand. Job hunting is a very important part of people's lives and I hope to be able to make this easier or more successful by this research. This research is part of the requirements for my Master's degree in Psychology.

I would like to hear about your experiences in trying to find work, whether you are working or not. I have spoken to lecturers who gave me permission to come into the classroom and ask for volunteers to participate. This information sheet gives you some information about the project, and asks you if you wish to participate in this research.

Participation in the study involves answering a questionnaire, which would take about 30 minutes of your time. No names are required on the questionnaire, so nobody will know that you have participated. The questionnaire asks questions about how you came to New Zealand, important events, things you have done and feelings you have experienced in trying to find a job. It also asks about actions in a job interview and how important culture is for you and how you respond in different situations.

If you do decide to participate in the study, a stamped addressed envelope is provided for you to return the completed questionnaire. Once the questionnaires have been returned, the group results will be combined to obtain the conclusions of the study. The questionnaires collected will be stored under lock and key at the university for 5 years with only my supervisor and myself having keys. Once the information has been obtained it will be used in writing the thesis for a Master's degree, in a sheet summarising the results and possibly in a journal article describing the results.

A summary of the results can be sent to you on your request. It will also be sent to the community leaders, lecturers, and the people significant in helping newcomers find work. This will be allow the findings to be read more widely and used to improve access to jobs for other newcomers like yourself.

If you fill in the questionnaire, I will assume that you give permission for the information contained within the questionnaire to be used as above. You have a right to:
- To decline to participate in this research
- To refuse to answer any question
- To ask any questions about this study at any time during participation
- To provide information on the understanding that your name will not be used
- To be given access to a summary of the findings of the study when it is concluded.

This project has been reviewed and approved by the Massey University Regional Human Ethics Committee, Albany Campus, Protocol MUAHEC 02/052. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research, please contact Associate-Professor Kerry Chamberlain, Chair, Massey University Regional Human Ethics Committee, Albany, telephone 09 443 9799, email K.Chamberlain@massey.ac.nz.

This research is being conducted by Karen Mace for her Master's degree in Psychology and is being supervised by Dr Stuart Carr of Massey University, Albany Campus. Karen can be contacted on 025 831122 or by email at kmace@ihug.co.nz and Stuart Carr on 09-443 9700 ext 9073 or email at S.C.Carr@massey.ac.nz . If there are any issues that arise while filling out this questionnaire, the following counsellors would be available to help you (most are free of charge).

List of Possible Counsellors

Massey University Health and Counselling Centre	414 0800
Refugees as Survivors	270 0870
Lifeline	0800 111 777
Chinese Line	522 2088

Many thanks for participating in this research.

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this research. This questionnaire asks about your experience trying to find a job in New Zealand. It also asks for your opinion about New Zealand culture and the best ways to cope with the changes you have been experiencing. This information may help future newcomers to New Zealand like yourself. The questionnaire should take approximately 30 minutes of your time. We would like to hear your story as a newcomer to New Zealand.

1. How did you come to New Zealand?
(Please include country of birth, last job held in country of origin, why you came to New Zealand)

Important events
Please tell us about two important events, a positive one and a negative one (something good that has happened when you were looking for work, and something bad). Describe each one briefly saying what the situation was, what happened and what the result was. For example:
A positive event: "I went to the Centre and one of the officers helped me fill in a questionnaire properly"
A negative event: "I sent in an application for a job but did not receive a reply"

2. Please describe your positive event here.

3. Please describe your negative event here.

Job Seeking

This section asks about things that you have tried to get a job. Please tick the boxes next to anything you have done.

4. Which of these have you done to find a job that matches your qualifications? (tick all that apply)

- ☐ Answered advertisements (either in newspapers or in professional journals)
- ☐ Approached employers directly (either by mail or in person or by telephone)
- ☐ Asked friends or relatives about jobs (either at their place of work or elsewhere)
- ☐ Went to Employment Agencies
- ☐ Went to Work and Income New Zealand (WINZ)
- ☐ Contacted professional organisations
- ☐ Been to Career Fairs or Job Days
- ☐ Placed advertisements in professional journals or in the newspapers
- ☐ Volunteered in organisations
- ☐ Wrote a curriculum vitae/resume
- ☐ Researched jobs at the local library or on the internet
- ☐ Gained more qualifications (either in same area or different area)
- ☐ Gone to courses to help improve your job finding skills
- ☐ Other (Please state) _____
  _____

5. Are you currently employed? (Please circle)   Yes (go to Question 6)
                                                      No (go to Question 8)

6. Are you working in a job that uses your qualifications? (Please circle one)

   Yes   Somewhat   No (go to Question 8)

7.   Same
   My current job is at the Lower   level than my best job in my home country.
                              Higher

8. Below is a sequence of stages in getting a job. Which have you done to find a job that matches your qualifications? (Please tick all that apply)

- ☐ Seen jobs advertised in newspapers
- ☐ Applied for jobs that match your qualifications
- ☐ Received a letter back from the company acknowledging receiving your Curriculum Vitae
- ☐ Received a rejection letter back from the company
- ☐ Gone to an interview
- ☐ Had your references checked
- ☐ Received a rejection letter after interview
- ☐ Placed on a short list for the position
- ☐ Offered a second interview
- ☐ Got a rejection letter after second interview
- ☐ Currently working in a job that matches your qualifications
- ☐ Other (please specify) _____

2

9. **Which of the following would you normally do in a job interview here in New Zealand?**

Please choose from 1=never, 2=rarely, 3=some of the time 4=most of the time or 5=always

Have a firm handshake	1	2	3	4	5
Wear casual 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 you can do for the company	1	2	3	4	5
Arrive early or on time for the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Be humble	1	2	3	4	5
Have a gentle handshake	1	2	3	4	5
Wear formal clothes	1	2	3	4	5
Avoid eye contact with interviewer	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about your people skills	1	2	3	4	5
Focus on what the company can do for you	1	2	3	4	5
Use humour in the interview	1	2	3	4	5
Promote yourself	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my family	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my country	1	2	3	4	5
Talk about my experiences	1	2	3	4	5
Arrive 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 job	1	2	3	4	5
Speak slowly	1	2	3	4	5
Hesitate before answering questions	1	2	3	4	5

Feelings about job search

This section looks at the feelings that you have experienced in trying to find a job.

10. **Which face or box best shows how you feel about your experience of job searching in New Zealand and its outcome? Please tick the box under one face.**

11. **Why do you feel this way?**

12. **The next question consists of a number of words that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then say to what extent you have felt this way about your job searching in New Zealand and its final outcome. Use the following numbers to record your answers.**

0=not at all 1=very slightly 2=a little 3=moderately 4=quite a bit 5= extremely

In thinking about my job searching in New Zealand and its final outcome, I have felt:

a) encouraged _____		l) irritable _____
b) distressed _____		m) alert _____
c) excited _____		n) ashamed _____
d) upset _____		o) inspired _____
e) strong _____		p) nervous _____
f) guilty _____		q) determined _____
g) scared _____		r) attentive _____
i) hostile _____		s) frustrated _____
j) enthusiastic _____		t) active _____
k) proud _____		u) afraid _____

4

This section looks at how you respond in different situations. Please circle how much you agree with the statements below.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree

13. I can communicate an idea in many different ways

1   2   3   4   5   6

14. I avoid new and unusual situations

1   2   3   4   5   6

15. I feel like I never get to make decisions

1   2   3   4   5   6

16. I can find workable solutions to seemingly unsolvable problems

1   2   3   4   5   6

17. I seldom have choices when deciding how to behave

1   2   3   4   5   6

18. I am willing to work at creative solutions to problems

1   2   3   4   5   6

19. I am able to act appropriately for the situation I find myself in

1   2   3   4   5   6

20. My behaviour is a result of the conscious decisions that I make

1   2   3   4   5   6

21. I have many possible ways of behaving in a situation I find myself in

1   2   3   4   5   6

22. I have difficulty using my knowledge about a topic in real life situations

1   2   3   4   5   6

23. I am willing to listen and consider alternatives for handling a problem

1   2   3   4   5   6

24. I have the self-confidence necessary to try different ways of behaving

1   2   3   4   5   6

This section looks at how important it is for you to adopt New Zealand culture and how important it is for you to keep your original culture.

25. Use the following scale to show how important it is for you to maintain your experiences of daily life compared to your home culture and New Zealand culture.

1----------2----------3----------4----------5----------6----------7

Not very important   very important

Enter your response (1,2,3,4,5,6 or 7) in the table.

	How important is it for you to keep your home culture in terms of ….	How important is it for you to adopt New Zealand culture in terms of
Clothing		
Pace of Life		
General Knowledge		
Food		
Religious Beliefs		
Recreational Activities (for example sport or hobbies)		
Self-identity		
Family Life		
Accommodation/Residence		
Values		
Friendships		
Communication Styles		
Cultural Activities		
Language		
Perceptions of co-nationals (people from your home culture)		
Perceptions of host nationals (New Zealanders)		
Political ideology		
Worldview		
Social Customs		
Employment activities		

26. Please rank these statements, from (1) agree with most to (4) agree with least.

If a newcomer comes to a new country, they should:

☐ Adopt the new culture and keep their own culture as well.

☐ Adopt the new culture and put their own culture in the background.

☐ Keep their own culture and put the new culture in the background

☐ They should ignore both their own culture and the new culture and look after themselves

27. In your experience, How would a typical New Zealand employer respond to the same statements.   Please rank 1) the statement your think they agree with most to 4) The statement you think they agree with least.

If a newcomer comes to New Zealand, they should:

☐ Adopt the new culture and keep their own culture as well.

☐ Adopt the new culture and put their own culture in the background.

☐ Keep their own culture and put the new culture in the background

☐ Ignore both their own culture and the new culture and look after themselves only.

28. How certain are you about your last answer?

Very certain   Certain   Neither certain   Uncertain   Very uncertain
                              Nor uncertain

Please provide some information about yourself for statistical use only. **We do not want your name.**

Male/Female   Single/Married   Age in years_____

Perceived Ethnic Group to which you feel you belong_____

Country of Birth_____

Are you a Migrant/Refugee/Asylum Seeker/Other? (circle one)

Length of time in New Zealand (in months)_____

Is English your first language? Yes/No If No what is your first language?_____

Overall IELTS score (International English Language Testing System) on entry

_____

Do you have a job currently? Yes/No   Is it full time/ part time/ casual

Does the job match your qualifications?   Yes/ Partly / No

What is your current job? _____

How long have you been looking or did you look before you found a job that matched your qualifications? _____ months

What is your highest educational qualification that you obtained in your home country? (choose one only)
- ❏ Primary school only - no formal qualifications
- ❏ Secondary school only - no formal qualifications
- ❏ Secondary School with formal qualifications
- ❏ Apprenticeship (trade qualification for example plumbers, electricians)
- ❏ Diploma/Trade Certificate (Post Secondary School qualification)
- ❏ Teaching Adult Further Education certificate
- ❏ Bachelor's Degree
- ❏ Master's Degree (Postgraduate Degree)
- ❏ PhD (doctoral degree)
- ❏ Other   Please specify _____

What subject are the above qualifications in? _____

Thank you very much for completing this questionnaire. Please put the questionnaire into the envelope (no stamp required) and post it to the researcher.

If you would like a copy of the results sent to you please contact Karen Mace at Massey University 09-443 9799 after May 2003 Many thanks for your help.

Yours sincerely

Karen Mace

Karen Mace
PS: Please return the questionnaire by 30th September 2003.

Appendix C

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.752
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	177.956
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Answered ads	1.000	.522
Approached employers	1.000	.745
Asked friends	1.000	.573
Used agencies	1.000	.774
Approached WINZ	1.000	.385
Approached prof orgs	1.000	.668
Career fairs/Job days	1.000	.574
Volunteered	1.000	.675
Wrote CV	1.000	.576
Researched posns	1.000	.562
More Qualifications	1.000	.509
Attended courses	1.000	.743

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	3.602	30.018	30.018	3.602	30.018	30.018
2	1.414	11.780	41.798	1.414	11.780	41.798
3	1.193	9.938	51.736	1.193	9.938	51.736
4	1.098	9.153	60.889	1.098	9.153	60.889
5	.921	7.672	68.561			
6	.836	6.966	75.526			
7	.634	5.282	80.809			
8	.590	4.915	85.724			
9	.507	4.223	89.946			
10	.452	3.765	93.712			
11	.391	3.262	96.974			
12	.363	3.026	100.000			

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot

Component Number
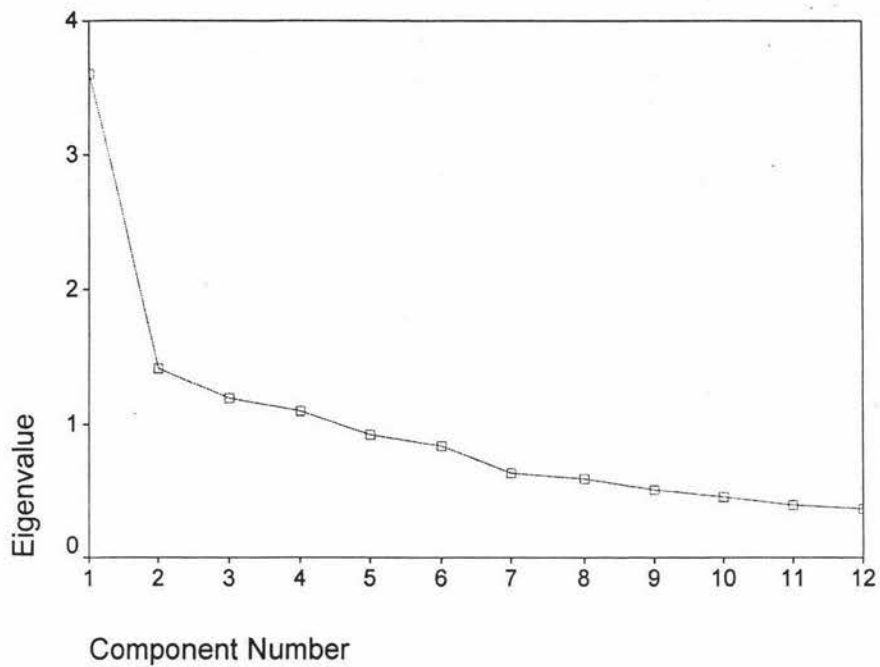
Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Volunteered	.660	-.369	.322	
Wrote CV	.630	.378		
Approached WINZ	.621			
Approached employers	.614		-.387	-.461
Answered ads	.610	.349		
Researched posns	.606			.430
More Qualifications	.556			-.400
Approached prof orgs	.536	-.314		.525
Used agencies	.348	.599		.463
Career fairs/Job days	.437	-.524	.328	
Attended courses	.375	.374	.680	
Asked friends	.467	-.321	-.484	

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 4 components extracted.

Appendix D

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.710
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	103.991
	df	28
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Firm handshake at int	1.000	.565
Confident at int	1.000	.411
Use humour at int	1.000	.539
Sell yourself at int	1.000	.523
Ask questions	1.000	.435
Learn abt company before int	1.000	.510
Focus on what com do for you	1.000	.692
Talk abt people skills	1.000	.665

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.746	34.329	34.329
2	1.592	19.899	54.227
3	.973	12.157	66.385
4	.731	9.135	75.520
5	.604	7.555	83.075
6	.514	6.423	89.499
7	.456	5.701	95.200
8	.384	4.800	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.746	34.329	34.329	2.412	30.144	30.144
2	1.592	19.899	54.227	1.927	24.083	54.227
3						
4						
5						
6						
7						
8						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot

Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
Use humour at int	.704	
Sell yourself at int	.656	.304
Firm handshake at int	.647	-.383
Confident at int	.640	
Ask questions	.588	
Learn abt company before int	.540	-.467
Talk abt people skills	.393	.714
Focus on what com do for you	.449	.700

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
Firm handshake at int	.751	
Learn abt company before int	.706	
Use humour at int	.705	
Ask questions	.656	
Confident at int	.516	.380
Focus on what com do for you		.832
Talk abt people skills		.814
Sell yourself at int	.389	.610

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	.843	.538
2	-.538	.843

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix E

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.638
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	138.478
	df	66
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
CF answer q13	1.000	.555
CF answer q14	1.000	.525
CF answer q15	1.000	.498
CF answer q16	1.000	.665
CF answer q17	1.000	.387
CF answer q18	1.000	.536
CF answer q19	1.000	.698
CF answer q20	1.000	.635
CF answer q21	1.000	.655
CF answer q22	1.000	.591
CF answer q23	1.000	.751
CF answer q24	1.000	.555

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

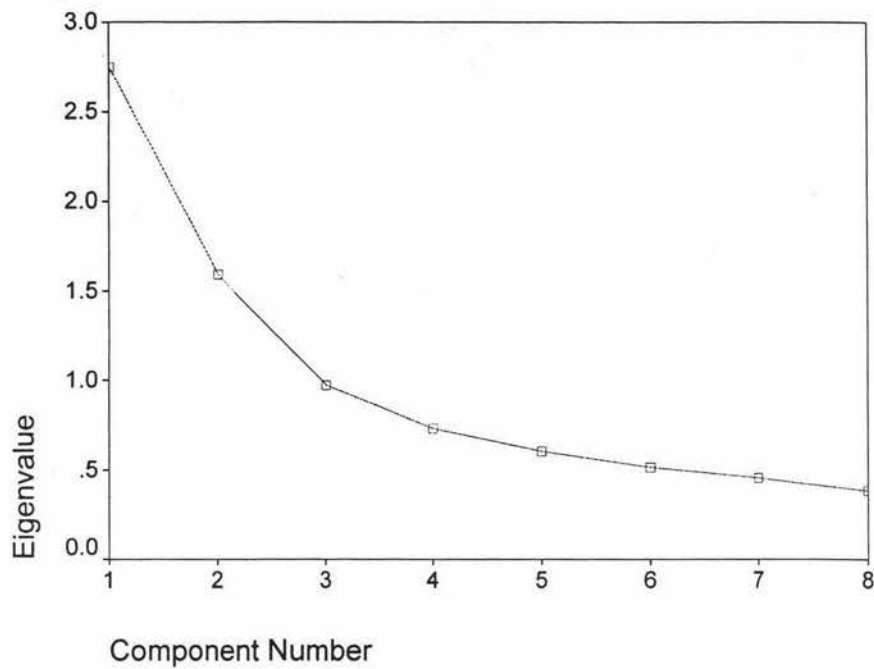| Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.956	24.630	24.630
2	1.665	13.874	38.504
3	1.261	10.506	49.010
4	1.169	9.744	58.755
5	.960	8.000	66.754
6	.818	6.817	73.571
7	.755	6.290	79.861
8	.676	5.634	85.495
9	.625	5.211	90.706
10	.471	3.926	94.632
11	.334	2.785	97.417
12	.310	2.583	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.956	24.630	24.630	2.021	16.838	16.838
2	1.665	13.874	38.504	1.830	15.247	32.086
3	1.261	10.506	49.010	1.817	15.144	47.230
4	1.169	9.744	58.755	1.383	11.525	58.755
5						
6						
7						
8						
9						
10						
11						
12						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot
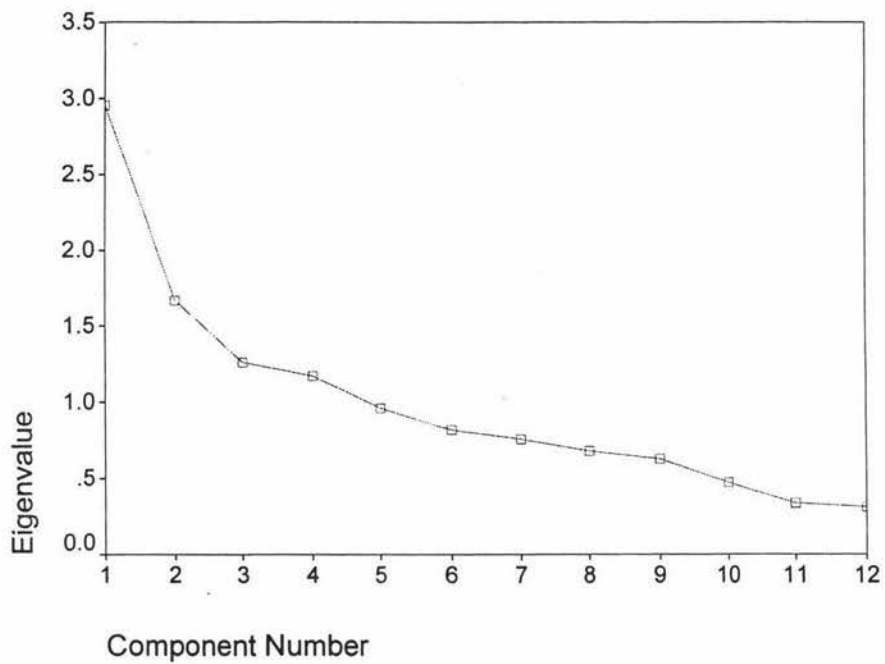
Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
CF answer q19	.785			
CF answer q13	.648			
CF answer q24	.640			-.316
CF answer q23	.580			-.550
CF answer q21	.342	-.729		
CF answer q18	.397	.590		
CF answer q20	.527	-.575		
CF answer q15	.370	.477		.350
CF answer q16	.398		-.582	.406
CF answer q17			.570	
CF answer q22	.411	.342	.423	-.356
CF answer q14	.389		.416	.446

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
a. 4 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
CF answer q23	.780			
CF answer q22	.688			
CF answer q24	.630		.362	
CF answer q18	.412		-.409	.351
CF answer q16		.806		
CF answer q13		.668		
CF answer q19	.513	.533	.388	
CF answer q21			.806	
CF answer q20			.721	
CF answer q14				.686
CF answer q17				.548
CF answer q15		.389	-.335	.445

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.
a. Rotation converged in 15 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	.669	.587	.349	.293
2	.318	.133	-.931	.118
3	.175	-.620	.068	.762
4	-.649	.503	-.078	.565

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix F

Factor Analysis

KMO and Bartlett's Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.762
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	575.270
	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Communalities

	Initial	Extraction
Encouraged	1.000	.623
distressed	1.000	.296
excited	1.000	.677
upset	1.000	.435
strong	1.000	.325
guilty	1.000	.701
scared	1.000	.260
hostile	1.000	.618
enthusiastic	1.000	.573
proud	1.000	.483
irritable	1.000	.483
alert	1.000	.448
ashamed	1.000	.435
inspired	1.000	.569
nervous	1.000	.276
determined	1.000	.376
attentive	1.000	.616
frustrated	1.000	.575
active	1.000	.394
afraid	1.000	.488

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.525	37.627	37.627
2	2.125	10.623	48.250
3	1.728	8.642	56.892
4	1.270	6.348	63.240
5	1.050	5.251	68.492
6	.987	4.935	73.426
7	.841	4.206	77.632
8	.735	3.677	81.309
9	.646	3.228	84.537
10	.522	2.608	87.145
11	.488	2.438	89.583
12	.403	2.016	91.600
13	.353	1.767	93.367
14	.307	1.535	94.902
15	.277	1.383	96.286
16	.212	1.060	97.345
17	.196	.981	98.327
18	.144	.721	99.048
19	9.811E-02	.491	99.539
20	9.227E-02	.461	100.000

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Total Variance Explained

Component	Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	7.525	37.627	37.627	6.227	31.136	31.136
2	2.125	10.623	48.250	3.423	17.114	48.250
3						
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18						
19						
20						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Scree Plot
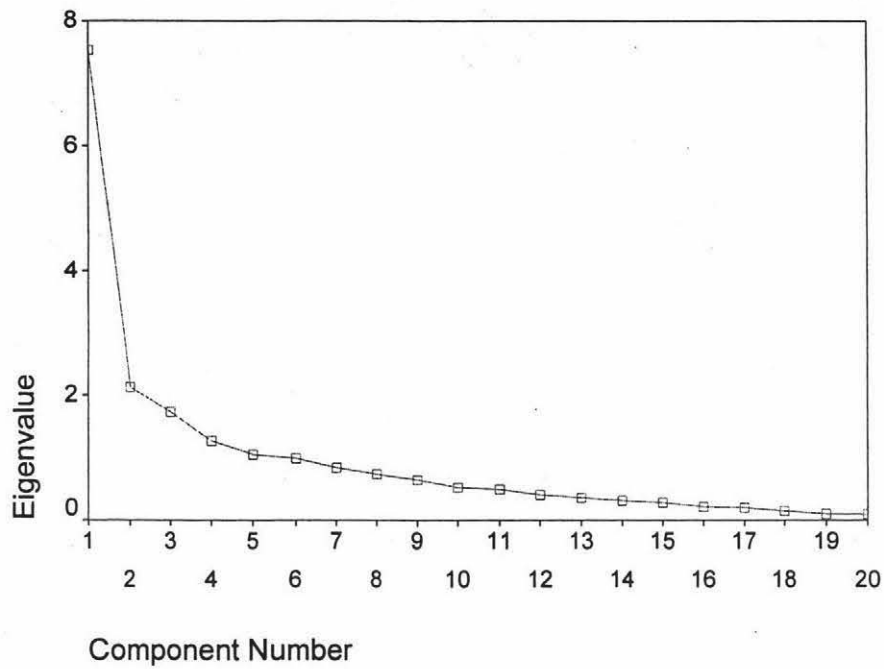
Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
excited	.786	
attentive	.785	
Encouraged	.774	
frustrated	-.758	
enthusiastic	.747	
inspired	.739	
upset	-.657	
afraid	-.654	
active	.624	
alert	.589	.318
proud	.571	.396
distressed	-.544	
determined	.540	
strong	.516	
nervous	-.516	
irritable	-.498	.485
scared	-.452	
guilty	-.315	.775
hostile	-.522	.588
ashamed	-.382	.537

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 2 components extracted.

Rotated Component Matrix[a]

	Component	
	1	2
excited	.804	
Encouraged	.750	
inspired	.718	
enthusiastic	.711	
proud	.692	
attentive	.678	-.396
alert	.669	
frustrated	-.667	.360
determined	.613	
active	.576	
strong	.568	
upset	-.545	.372
nervous	-.500	
distressed	-.475	
guilty		.830
hostile		.768
irritable		.666
ashamed		.656
afraid	-.450	.534
scared		.428

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 3 iterations.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	.872	-.490
2	.490	.872

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

Appendix G

Frequencies

Answer to faces scale

N	Valid	67
	Missing	3
Mean		4.27
Minimum		1
Maximum		7

Answer to faces scale

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	extremely happy	4	5.7	6.0	6.0
	very happy	10	14.3	14.9	20.9
	happy	11	15.7	16.4	37.3
	neutral	11	15.7	16.4	53.7
	unhappy	11	15.7	16.4	70.1
	very unhappy	10	14.3	14.9	85.1
	extremely unhappy	10	14.3	14.9	100.0
	Total	67	95.7	100.0	
Missing	System	3	4.3		
Total		70	100.0		

Answer to faces scale

Std. Dev = 1.84
Mean = 4.3
N = 67.00

Answer to faces scale