

TESTING THE CAREER ADJUSTMENT MODEL
FOR IMMIGRANT WOMEN TO CANADA

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ABSTRACT

According to the statistical data, immigrant women are less integrated into the Canadian labour market than immigrant men or Canadian-born women, even when accounted for years of education and work experience. Studies of immigrant women's cross-cultural adjustment and labour market integration have been largely underestimated in the history of research on immigrants' acculturation. This study explores the factors that contribute to a successful career adjustment of immigrant women in Canada. A comprehensive model of psychological, situational, and social factors designed by Rasouli et al. (2008) and revised by the author was tested on a sample of 101 immigrant women across Canada. Career adjustment was measured positively as job satisfaction and negatively as occupational stress. Career management self-efficacy, problem-focused coping, emotion-focused coping, language self-efficacy, social support, personal income, work experience from Canada, and work experience from the country of origin predicted job satisfaction while emotion-focused coping, career management-self-efficacy, education attained in Canada, and parenthood predicted occupational stress. Career management self-efficacy and education obtained in Canada were in particularly strong predictors of those variables. Implications of the findings and future research directions are discussed.

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Historically, immigration has played a significant role in the settlement and economic development of Canada. In 2001, 18% of the Canadian population was foreign-born and this percentage was expected to grow to approximately 20% by the end of the first decade of the twenty-first century (Statistics Canada, 2006; Ziestma, 2007). Immigration has provided a vital source of population growth in Canada and has become a crucial source of skilled workers for the Canadian labour market, given the ageing of the Canadian population and the declining birth rate.

Patterns in immigration to Canada have changed greatly during the 20th century. In the first six decades, the majority of immigrants came either from Europe or the United States. Then, with the adoption of the points system in 1967 that strongly encouraged the immigration of economic class immigrants from all parts of the world, the patterns changed so that now the greatest portion of recent immigrants originate in Asia, most notably China and India (Ziestma, 2007). As well, numerous African countries and Central and South American countries have also become a significant source of immigrants to Canada in recent decades (Statistics Canada, 2006).

The introduction of the points system in 1967 has also shaped the profile of immigrants to Canada in a specific way as it encourages migration of highly educated and skilled immigrants under the economic immigration category. Under this system immigration status in the skilled worker category is granted only to persons who have job experience, higher education, and language skills in at least one of the Canadian official languages. In particular, there are six selection factors – education (maximum 25 points), English and French language ability (maximum 24 points), work experience (maximum 21 points), age (maximum 10 points),

preferred age between 21 and 49), arranged employment (maximum 10 points), and adaptability¹ (maximum 10 points). The passing mark has been 67 points since 2003 (Citizenship & Immigration Canada, 2011).

In 2001, people immigrating as economic class immigrants accounted for 70% of all immigrants to Canada. Eighty-eight percent of them were granted permanent residency based on their skills and qualification, the rest were economic class immigrants admitted under Canada's business immigration program who are expected to start their own businesses in Canada or invest in Canadian business ventures (Li, 2003; Mulder & Korenic, 2005).

Along with the increase in immigration to Canada in recent decades, there has been an increase in social science research conducted with immigrants, mostly in the fields of economy, sociology, and public policy. Unique challenges that immigration brings both for immigrants and the receiving population have been mapped by researchers for the last five decades. While earlier cohorts of immigrants showed success in their integration into Canadian society and especially into the labour market, more recent cohorts seem to face more barriers and be less successful in their adaptation, especially the economic class immigrants (Aydemir & Skuterud, 2005). The trend of a more lengthy process of integration of recent immigrants can be partially explained by greater cultural differences between immigrants and the native born as the last few decades have seen an increase in immigration from Asian and African countries in comparison to 'traditional' sending countries of Western Europe. Research on immigration also shows that many newcomers to Canada are met with credentialing problems that pose a significant barrier to their economic integration (Esses, 2006; Grant & Nadin, 2007; Li, 2003; McCoy & Masuch, 2007). According to this research, Canadian employers lack a complete understanding of foreign

¹ Examples of adaptability include education of accompanying spouse, Canadian work experience of the principal applicant or a spouse, completed Canadian education of the principal applicant or a spouse, arranged employment in Canada, and family members residing permanently in Canada.

credentials and tend to discount immigrants' work experiences gained in their country of origin. At the same time, lack of Canadian work experience and Canadian workplace specific skills and knowledge prevent immigrants from being hired into positions for which they were trained in their countries of origin. Consequently, immigrants are often forced into low-skill, 'survival' jobs because they need to provide for themselves and their families. This trend is commonly referred to as a *brain waste* (Reitz, 2001; Wanner, 2001).

Admitting large numbers of highly skilled and educated immigrants to Canada is often justified by labour shortages that are predicted to grow exponentially due to the demographic trends described above. It is therefore in the best interest of the country and its citizens to ensure that the skills and education of immigrants are being utilized in the Canadian labour market. Economic integration of immigrants means "better use of immigrants' skills, better earnings and more job satisfaction for Canada's immigrants, which will ultimately help drive Canada's economic growth" (Ziestma, 2007). Satisfaction of immigrants is also a necessary factor for their full integration into society because it fuels their desire to stay in Canada for the rest of their lives. Nevertheless, proliferating research evidence (e.g., Esses, 2006; Grant & Nadin, 2007; Li, 2003; Man, 2004; McCoy & Masuch, 2005; Reitz, 2001; Wong, 2000) suggests that many recent immigrants do not achieve full economic integration and that their skills are being largely underutilized.

According to the recent statistics, more than 73% of very recent immigrants (immigrated less than 5 years ago) and more than 70% of recent immigrants (immigrated between 5 and 10 years ago) are between the ages 25 and 54 (Ziestma, 2007). The difficulties that they experience when they try to enter the Canadian labour market and secure a job corresponding to their qualification cause serious concern. According to the data collected within the Labour Force

Survey in 2006, the labour market outcomes of immigrants vary by region, age, sex, and education. Most importantly for this thesis, the results of the survey indicate that female immigrants experience significantly less economic integration into the labour market than their male counterparts or Canadian born women. When broken down by age groups, the situation of female immigrant youth aged 15 to 24 is the most severe. Very recent female immigrant youths are more than twice as likely to be unemployed (19.9% unemployment) than Canadian born females in the same age group (9.8%). Recent female immigrant youths' unemployment is more than 50% higher than the one of a comparable Canadian born population (15.4% vs. 9.8%). Also older immigrant women aged 55 and older seem to be affected by this trend. According to the 2006 Labour Force Survey, older immigrant women are far less likely to be employed and far more likely to be looking for work than their Canadian-born counterparts. In fact, their unemployment rate is more than four times higher (20.2%) than the rate among Canadian-born women in the same age group (4.8%) (Ziestma, 2007). The statistics for each group of immigrants and for native-born Canadians are summarized in Table 1 and Table 2.

Table 1 Labour force characteristics of population aged 25 to 54

	Employment rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
Born in Canada	83.1	4.9
Established immigrants (10 years and over)	82.1	5.0
Recent immigrants (5 to 10 years)	75.7	7.3
Very recent immigrants (5 years or less)	65.4	11.5

The recent trends in immigration indicate that an increasing number of economic class immigrants are women (slightly more than 50%; Statistics Canada, 2006). Furthermore, the

majority of family class immigrants are also women and this group includes a large number of women who immigrated to Canada as spouses of economic immigrants (Statistics Canada, 2006). Despite the classification of family class immigrants, many of these spouses and relatives are also looking for a job in their new country (Rasouli, Dyke, & Mantler, 2008) and a good proportion of them are university educated and have years of work experience in various professional fields from their country of origin.

Table 2 Labour force characteristics of youth aged 15 to 24

		Employment rate (%)	Unemployment rate (%)
Both sexes	Born in Canada	60.8	11.2
	Recent immigrants (5 to 10 years)	46.4	15.8
	Very recent immigrants (5 years or less)	39.5	17.2
Men	Born in Canada	59.7	12.7
	Recent immigrants (5 to 10 years)	43.9	16.1
	Very recent immigrants (5 years or less)	43.0	14.8
Women	Born in Canada	61.9	9.8
	Recent immigrants (5 to 10 years)	49.4	15.4
	Very recent immigrants (5 years or less)	35.8	19.9

Despite the above described demographic trends in immigration many studies in the field of social psychology to date have not controlled for gender differences (Dion & Dion, 2001). It is believed, however, that, compared to men, immigrant and refugee women face different and multiple challenges in adjusting to their new country and to the unknown labour market. As a consequence, the field of social research has seen an increased interest in issues faced by immigrant women in the past decade. However, as is common in the discipline of psychology when there is not a sufficient body of knowledge about a certain population or phenomena, most

studies of immigrant women's experiences have been qualitative and exploratory with many of them focused on domestic violence and health issues (e.g., Menjívar & Salcido, 2002). Yet the last few years have stimulated some studies about immigrant women's participation in the labour market (e.g., Foroutan, 2008; Schoeni, 1998; Wong, 2000). Nevertheless, despite these studies and the importance of the topic, not very much is still known about the specific employment barriers immigrant and refugee women face and how they cope with these barriers.

This thesis, therefore, examines a social psychological model of career adjustment for immigrant women to Canada that encompasses numerous potential barriers to the successful labour market integration of immigrant women. The goal of this study is to provide empirical support for this model and to explore the nature of these barriers further. Immigrant women in Canada represent a population with a large economic potential. At the same time, it is a population that is believed to experience more challenges and barriers to their career adjustments than many other members of Canadian society. An appropriate assessment of these barriers is necessary, therefore, for identifying the settlement and development needs of this population. That is, this study was designed to contribute to the body of knowledge that is necessary for developing appropriate services to assist immigrant women in their career adjustment in Canada. Throughout the text, the term 'immigrant women' will be used as an encompassing category for all women who were born outside Canada and who came to live permanently in Canada at some point in their lives, including women who are refugees. That being said, it needs to be acknowledged that the conditions under which refugee women arrive to Canada are frequently inherently different from those of other immigrant women. Refugees experience trauma and may have less coping resources to apply in their cross-cultural transition, including career adjustment. The data from refugee women were, however, included in the analysis as they had

some major characteristics in common with the rest of the study sample – they had post-secondary credentials from outside of Canada and a desire to practice their professions in Canada. Indeed, the proportion of refugees both among immigrants to Canada and in this sample is relatively small (5-7%) and it was thus statistically impossible to analyze the collected data separately for refugee women and other immigrant women.

Profile of Immigrant Women

Immigrant Women in Canada

Canada annually receives approximately 240 000 immigrants and this trend has remained steady over the first years of the 21st century (Mulder & Korenic, 2005). Just over half (52%) of these immigrants are women who come either as economic class immigrants under the ‘points system’ or family class immigrants sponsored by their spouses or other family members who are Permanent Residents or Canadian Citizens. A small percentage of these women immigrated as refugees. Seventy percent of immigrants to Canada report languages other than English or French as their mother tongues. However, at the point of immigration, almost 94% of immigrants have knowledge of at least one of the official languages of Canada (Mulder & Korenic, 2005). Immigrants are also more than twice as likely as Canadian-born persons to belong to visible minority groups.

The 2001 Census data also shows that immigrants are more likely to have post-secondary education, especially Bachelor’s and post-graduate university degrees. In fact, the proportion of immigrants with post-graduate degrees is much higher than the proportion of Canadian-born persons with equivalent education. This trend is similar for both men and women immigrating to Canada when compared to their Canadian-born counterparts. However, there are differences between immigrant men and immigrant women. In fact, fewer immigrant women have

university degree than their male counterparts (32% vs. 40% for immigrants who arrived between 1996 and 2001). Nevertheless, compared to the levels of post-graduate education of the Canadian-born population, immigrant women are still more educated than Canadian-born women. It is surprising then that both immigrant men and immigrant women are less likely to be employed than men and women who were born in Canada.

Because the points system for independent class immigrants is largely based on their professional expertise and education, the high percentage of immigrants with university degrees is the result of the points system. However, it is important to note that these qualifying factors do not necessarily lead to corresponding financial success in Canada (Mulder & Korenic, 2005). In fact, the statistics show that Canadian-born adults earn more than Canadians who immigrated to Canada with foreign credentials after adjusting for education level and work experience. Gender disparity plays a major role in the income distribution of Canadians and it is true both for immigrant and Canadian-born populations. For example, analyses of the 2001 Census data showed that, whereas 68% of immigrant men and 66% of Canadian-born men had a total income of less than \$40 000, 86% of immigrant women and 85% of Canadian-born women fell into this income category (Mulder & Korenic, 2005). Li (2003) who used the 1996 Census data for his comparisons pointed out how being a member of visible minority negatively affects a person's participation in the labour market and his/her total annual income. His analysis shows that regardless of the size of the city or the distinction between urban and rural areas, members of visible minorities earn significantly less than White persons. This experience is common to both genders measured by income adjusted for years of education and work experience. Women belonging to visible minorities, however, earn on average much less than men from visible minority groups and less than Canadian-born women (Li, 2003, p.108-109). The situation

appears to be the most serious in large and medium metropolitan centres. The average income of white immigrant women is also significantly less than the National Mean Earnings and the earnings of Canadian-born workers and white immigrant men. The statistics show that women in general earn less than their male counterparts and that visible minority women experience double stigma caused by their gender and ethnic origin. This double stigma places them at the bottom of the income scale and makes them a vulnerable population. Some authors (e.g., James, Plaza, & Jansen, 1999) speculate that they represent a triple minority as they are disadvantaged in comparison to Canadian men and women, to White immigrant women and to male members of their own racial groups.

Immigrant Women in Saskatchewan

Because this study is heavily relying on a sample of immigrant women from Saskatchewan, it is necessary to look at the profile of immigrant women in this province. Until the early 2000s, Saskatchewan has not been a popular destination for economic immigrants; most of those who immigrated to the province were either joining family members in Canada or were accepted as refugees and placed in the province by the Federal government.² The immigration numbers have been steady for several decades. Only in recent years, during an economic boom, has the province seen a large increase in the number of immigrants entering the province and a significant diversification of the population.

According to a report on immigrant women in Saskatchewan issued by the Status of Women Office (2009), in 2006, there were 25,465 Saskatchewan women who were born outside Canada. This means that immigrant women make up 2.7% of the Saskatchewan population and

² Note that the province of Saskatchewan has been settled largely by immigrants seeking better life and economic prosperity between the 1870s and the 1930s. Ukrainians, Scandinavians, and Americans were the most numerous groups settling the province at that time. The massive immigration to the province decreased markedly after the 1930s and was renewed in the early 2000s (Saskatchewan Archives Board, 2005).

5.3% of all women in the province. More than half of the immigrant women currently living in Saskatchewan immigrated to the province when they were under 25 years of age (Status of Women Office, 2009). As in the general population, immigrant women slightly outnumber immigrant men, in this case by a ratio of 52% to 48%. As of 2006, the majority (46%) of immigrant women in Saskatchewan came originally from Europe and many of them were born in the United Kingdom. The second largest group (28%) came from Asia and the Middle East. In this group, the most represented countries were China and the Philippines. Since the seventies, the number of foreign-born women immigrating to Saskatchewan has been approximately 1,000 per year. With the introduction of the Saskatchewan Immigrant Nominee Program (SINP) in 2003, the province has experienced an increase in the immigration rate and this trend is expected to continue in the future because of this program. For comparison, in 2008, 7,500 persons have been nominated through the provincial immigration program while in 2009, it was already 10,000 persons with another 10,000 expected to arrive in 2010 (Ministry of Advanced Education, Employment and Labour, 2008; Pandya, R., 2009). There is additional 2,000 immigrants admitted under the federal system who settle in Saskatchewan every year (ibid).

In Canada as a whole, immigrant women made up 10.3% of the population in 2006. In other words, immigrant women represent 20% of all women in Canada. The highest proportions of the female foreign-born population can be found in Ontario and British Columbia. Saskatchewan, on the contrary, has one of the lowest percentages of immigrant women from all Canadian provinces. Despite that, immigrant women significantly contribute to the diversity of Saskatchewan population as 40% of them belong to visible minority groups in comparison to 1% of Canadian-born women. Sixty percent of immigrant women speak a different language than English as their mother tongue. The age distribution indicates that many of these women either

immigrated to Canada several decades ago or immigrated at an older age; 28% of women born outside Canada that reside in Saskatchewan are 65 years of age or older. Also, 91% of them currently speak English at home which supports the assumption that they immigrated many years ago³.

In 2006, almost 80% of women born outside Canada lived in the eight largest urban centres in Saskatchewan and two thirds of them lived in Saskatoon or Regina. More than 50% of immigrant women in Saskatchewan had a post-secondary education and were more likely than Canadian-born women to have a university degree. Among the women who obtained any kind of post-secondary education, immigrant women were more likely than other women to have specialized in the sciences. Overall, they tend to prefer different professional areas than Canadian-born women. As a consequence, it is assumed that their career path and career needs will vary from women born in Canada who tend to prefer non-scientific careers, namely education, business, and public administration. Interestingly, almost half of the immigrant women living in Saskatchewan received their credentials from a Canadian educational institution (Status of Women Office, 2009).

Employment rate among immigrant women in Saskatchewan is slightly lower than among women born in Canada and residing in the province. Although employment rates of immigrant women have been increasing since the census in 1996, their labour market participation is still significantly lower than that of immigrant men. According to the Status of Women Office (2009), immigrant women workers dominated in health care and social services, and in the hospitality industry. The 2006 Census data show that immigrant women tend to have

³ It is important to note that the Saskatchewan Immigrant Nominee Program (SINP) began its activity only after the year 2003. The processing time of applications was approximately 2 years when the program started and so the first waves of provincially nominated immigrants started to settle in Saskatchewan only in years 2005 and 2006. As a result the 2006 census could not quite capture the population changes caused by the increased immigration.

6% higher income in comparison to women born in Canada. Their income distribution was, however, similar to that of women born in Canada. Generally, there wasn't a difference between the proportions of immigrant women and Canadian-born women living below the low income cut-off.

The two profiles just described provide two different types of information: 1) in general, immigrant women belong to highly disadvantaged populations in Canadian society, and 2) the situation of immigrant women in Saskatchewan, despite their similar demographic characteristics, does not seem to be as severe as in some other provinces. Nevertheless, as the Status of Women Office concluded, most of the Saskatchewan immigrant women have been living in the province for decades and are therefore well settled. The 2006 Census could not fully capture the consequences of the new generation of immigration to the province as it was only in 2006 when the Saskatchewan Immigration Nominee Program significantly increased the number of nominees. Consequently, since the last Census, the province has seen an influx of thousands of newcomers from all parts of the world. In the Saskatchewan population of one million, thousands of newcomers likely make a significant difference.

As statistical data show, new immigrants have the greatest difficulties with adjustment and successful integration into the society. Settlement agencies in the province have already been dealing with the increased number of newcomers knocking on their doors and requiring assistance. One of the most common programs and services provided to immigrants by these agencies are employment and mentorship programs, and employment related consulting. Given the immigration patterns, there is an obvious need for continuing these services. This study is an attempt to enrich the immigrant-serving practice by exploring the factors which should be a part of such employment programs.

Psychology of cross-cultural adaptation

A growing body of research in social psychology is focused on what happens to individuals who have grown up in one cultural environment when they decide, as adults, to re-establish their life in a different cultural context. The success of the long-term process of acculturation is dependent on multiple variables, including the personal and social characteristics of the acculturating individuals and the social, economic, and political characteristics of the host society. The psychological consequences of acculturation are also highly variable and have a long-term impact on a person's well-being and adjustment (Berry, 1997, 2005). These consequences are the result of exposure to novel and unfamiliar cultural environments, and the reactions, expectations, and assumptions people hold about these experiences are commonly referred to as the psychology of culture shock (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001). However, because the concept of culture shock has been defined in many different ways, there are currently several theoretical approaches to adaptation, each of them emphasizing different parts of the adaptation process and different factors that influence the process.

For my thesis, I will be using the culture learning approach (Hernandez, 2009) to acculturation that combines both a psychological and a sociocultural component. The theory has its roots in social cognitive theory and stresses the importance of acquiring culture specific skills. The culture learning approach "is based on the assumption that intercultural problems arise because cultural novices have difficulties managing everyday social encounters" (Ward, 2004, p.186). Representatives of this approach point out that the process of acculturation does not consist solely of acculturative stress, but that it also incorporates cultural learning. The focus of culture learning theory is the social psychology of intercultural encounters including communication competence and knowledge of norms and values (Hernandez, 2009).

Because cross-cultural adjustment affects all areas of a person's life, a complex theoretical approach must be adopted in order to describe and explain the broad variety of factors that influence successful adaptation. Currently, the best developed and most complex culture learning approach is the model of sociocultural adjustment developed by Colleen Ward and her colleagues (e.g., Ward & Searle, 1991; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1994, 1999; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999). In particular, they have made a significant contribution to psychological and sociocultural theories of immigration and to the field of cultural learning by distinguishing between psychological and sociocultural adjustment. Psychological adjustment is interpreted as the process through which an immigrant maintains psychological and emotional well-being and is best understood within a stress and coping framework (Ward, Leong, & Low, 2004; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999). For example, psychological adaptation is commonly operationalized in terms of mood disturbance or depression by this research group and as such is broadly affected by personality traits, life changes, predominant coping style and social support (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

In contrast, sociocultural adjustment, is placed within a social learning paradigm and results in development of behavioural competences. It is more strongly influenced by factors relating to culture learning and social skills acquisition such as the length of residence in the new culture, cultural knowledge, amount of interaction and identification with host nationals, cultural distance, language fluency and acculturation strategies (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). Table 3 provides a review of factors that this research group has found to be predictors of either psychological or sociocultural adaptation, or both.

Table 3 Predictors of psychological and sociocultural adjustment

Type of adjustment	Psychological	Sociocultural
Predictors	Personality traits (flexibility, locus of control)	Length of stay in the new culture
	Life changes	Cultural knowledge
	Coping strategies	Cultural distance
	Social support	Language fluency
	Extraversion	Acculturation strategies
		Expected difficulty
	Contact with host nationals and co-nationals	

Ward et al.'s model has gained significant popularity among cross-cultural researchers and several of the predictors have been studied further by Ward's followers (e.g., Foroutan, 2008; Kang, 2006; Masgoret, 2006; Ward, T., 2007; Zlobina, Basabe, Paez, and Furnham, 2006). The following section reviews the available research evidence for each predictor specified in Table 3.

Factors Predicting Psychological Adjustment

Personality traits

The three most commonly measured personality traits studied by Ward and her colleagues (Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1993b, 1999; Ward & Searle, 1991) are locus of control, flexibility, and extraversion. In samples of international students and temporary sojourners in countries such as New Zealand or Singapore, Ward and her colleagues found that both flexibility and locus of control account for a significant portion of variance in psychological adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993, 1999; Ward & Searle, 1991). Specifically, these researchers found that the more a person is flexible, the higher they score on a measure of psychological well-being. As well, persons with an external locus of control, those who believe that their lives are mostly influenced by circumstances beyond their control, had significantly

poorer psychological adjustment than persons with an internal locus of control who believe that they are largely in control of their own lives.

Extraversion has been linked to psychological well-being of sojourners in a number of early studies on cross-cultural adaptation (Ward & Kennedy, 1993b; Ward & Searle, 1991). However, the effects of extraversion on psychological adjustment as measured by mood disturbance or a level of depression varied across cultural contexts. On the one hand, in samples of expatriates in New Zealand, extraversion had a positive impact on psychological adjustment and was positively correlated with host national contact (e.g., Searle & Ward, 1990) while, on the other hand, in studies which used samples of Western expatriates in Singapore, extraversion was associated with higher levels of adjustment difficulties (Armes & Ward, 1989 as cited in Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Ward and Kennedy, 1992). Ward and her associates (e.g., Ward & Kennedy 1992, 1999) speculate that the cultural differences between the Western, more individualistic, culture of New Zealand and the collectivist, Southeast Asian culture of Singapore accounted for the differential impact of extraversion on cross-cultural adjustment. Counter to this hypothesis, however, a recent study found that extraversion was directly linked to decrements in depression in Australian expatriates residing in Singapore (Ward et al., 2004). The role of extraversion in cross-cultural transition, thus, remains unclear and is most likely dependent both on the sample of sojourners, the cultural context, and, perhaps also, the way in which psychological adjustment is measured.

Life changes

Higher incidence of life changes in an individual's life has been linked to greater psychological difficulty when facing a significant cross-cultural stress (Ward & Kennedy, 1999). According to the theory, each life change (both negative and positive) inevitably brings certain

amount of stress that the person needs to deal with. The effect is mediated by characteristics of the change such as its intensity or cultural context and by characteristics of the individual such as personality or social support (Searle & Ward, 1990). The researchers therefore expected that intensity of life changes associated with cross-cultural transition will put individuals more at risk (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1993).

Coping strategies

Researchers studying how people deal with stressful situations commonly distinguish between two types of coping strategies: problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (e.g., Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Selmer, 2001). Some add a third type of coping strategies, avoidance when a person is trying to avoid the problem by engaging in other non-related activities (e.g., Blalock & Joiner, 2000; Bryant & Harvey, 1995). The definitions and the boundaries between each type of coping strategy are often rather unclear, however. Selmer (2001), for example, includes avoidance strategies into emotion-focused strategies that he calls symptom-focused strategies in his studies. Other scholars distinguish between approach versus avoidance strategies which seem to parallel the problem- versus emotion-focused strategies (Selmer, 2001). Research on the effectiveness of these different types of strategies has shown that it is the problem-focused coping strategies which contribute to successful adaptation or coping with stressful life circumstances. In contrast, emotion-focused or avoidance coping strategies are associated with worse adjustment outcomes (Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Selmer, 1999, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 2001). Herman and Tetrick (2009) explain that while problem-focused strategies are proactive and seek to remove the stressor from the individual's immediate environment, emotion-focused strategies are only used to mitigate emotional responses to the stressor. These distinctions among coping strategies and their impact on psychological well-

being and professional achievement appeared to hold true for samples of international students (e.g., Chataway & Berry, 1989) and professional expatriates (e.g., Ward & Kennedy, 2001).

Selmer (1999, 2001) has studied how preferred coping style relates to adjustment of business expatriates in Asia, in particular in Hong Kong and the People's Republic of China. He used the coping framework developed by Lazarus and Folkman (1984) and distinguished between problem-focused coping and emotion-focused coping (the latter is in his studies referred to as symptom-focused coping). Inspired by the complex and multidimensional model of expatriate adjustment developed by Black, Mendel and Oddou (1991), Selmer measured four distinct types of adjustment – general, work, interaction (non-work), and psychological. The results of both his studies clearly suggest that problem-focused coping strategies significantly facilitate adaptation to the new environment and have positive impact on all forms of adjustment including work adjustment. In contrast, symptom-focused coping strategies had a negative impact on all forms of adjustment of expatriates and an especially devastating effect on interaction adjustment. Similar results were found in a study by Herman and Tetrick (2009) who tested the stress and coping model on a sample of returning expatriates. Problem-focused coping was clearly linked to better work and interaction outcomes than emotion-focused coping.

Social support & contact with co-national and host nationals

Social support has been an integral part of the sociocultural adjustment model since its creation, with the hypothesis being that those with more social support are more able to adjust and adapt to a new culture. However, social support has hardly ever been measured directly, but rather indirectly through measures of the amount of contact with co-nationals and host-nationals, as well as measures of the satisfaction with this contact (Ward and Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1993b). It was assumed that, for sojourners, contact with co-nationals was more important than

contact with host nationals as they tend to create more emotional bonds and closer friendships with people from their cultural group. However, host nationals could also be a valuable source of social support, especially in situations where a newcomer needs to handle problems that require culture specific knowledge.

In support of the social support hypothesis, a great deal of research has shown that sojourners and migrants who had close friends and networks in the new country were better adjusted than those who did not make close friends and felt lonely (e.g., Jasinskaja-Lahti, Liebkind, Jaakkola, & Reuter, 2006; Masgoret, 2006; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Ward, T., 2007). It was originally assumed that contact with co-nationals plays an important role in psychological adjustment and good psychological well-being, while frequent contact with host nationals facilitates learning of the culture specific skills such as practicing the language and learning norms and rules of social interactions which contributes to sociocultural adjustment. And in fact, Ward and her colleagues found that contact with host national was negatively correlated (-.22) with the level of social difficulty experienced by international students in New Zealand (Ward & Searle, 1991) and that the quantity of contact with host nationals predicted sociocultural adjustment in another cohort of international students in New Zealand while psychological adjustment was predicted by satisfying co-national relations (Ward & Kennedy, 1993b). Nevertheless, some other studies could not confirm this hypothesis. For example, contact with host nationals was found to have a positive effect on psychological adjustment (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1993b) while predicting also sociocultural adjustment in the same sample (Ward & Kennedy, 1993b).

The controversy of the most effective source of support remains salient in research circles (Searle & Ward, 1990). It appears that it is the quality rather than the quantity of host national

contact and the quantity of co-national contact that affect psychological well-being (Ward & Kennedy, 1992; Ward & Searle, 1991). In contrast, the amount of interaction and identification with host nationals predicts sociocultural adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1999).

Social support networks frequently appear as one of the major source of coping (Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2006). Nevertheless, some studies failed to prove this strong link (e.g., Ward & Kennedy, 2001) while some studies brought mixed results (e.g., Brown, 2009; Zlobina et al., 2006). Ward and her colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy; 1992, 1993; Ward & Searle, 1991) repeatedly conducted studies in which they show that it is important to measure not only the quantity of the contact but also the quality and satisfaction with the contact.

Factors Predicting Sociocultural Adjustment

Length of stay in the new country

It has been acknowledged that the longer individuals stay in one environment, the better they become adjusted to that environment. This observation is in accord with the culture learning perspective according to which an individual needs time to learn culture specific skills to be able to fully function in the new environment. Ward and her colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999) found that this was true for both international students and sojourning professionals regardless of the culture in which they were sojourning.

Cultural knowledge

Culture-specific knowledge is the cornerstone of culture learning. In fact, culture learning is “the process whereby sojourners acquire culturally relevant social knowledge and skills in order to survive and thrive in their new society” (Ward, Bochner, & Furnham, 2001, p. 51). Culture specific knowledge includes aspects of verbal and non-verbal communication that are of

central importance to the dynamics and effects of culture contact because the evidence indicates that many of these processes vary between cultures (Ward et al., 2001). The amount of culture-specific knowledge that an individual possesses depends on numerous factors such as, for example, the ability to communicate in the host language, pre-arrival intercultural training, the length of stay in the host country, or the intensity of contact with host-nationals. In addition, the amount of culture specific knowledge a newcomer needs to acquire is at least partially dependent on the cultural distance between his/her culture of origin and the host culture.

Cultural distance

Perceived cultural difference has been included in many recent studies as a predictor of sociocultural adjustment. It is believed that immigrants who perceive that there is a greater cultural distance between their home country and the host country have to overcome greater barriers. They are also exposed to greater acculturative stress as they are often less able to adapt successfully in the initial stage of immigration (Mumford, 2000; Ward & Searle, 1991). In other words, migrants coming from backgrounds that are very different from the host culture need to acquire much more culture specific knowledge and learn many more culture specific skills. This appears to be true both for temporary sojourners and permanent immigrants. In a study of exchange students in Russia, Suanet and van de Vijver (2009) found that larger perceived cultural distance was associated with both worse psychological outcomes (as measured by homesickness and stress) and lower level of sociocultural adjustment (as measured by self-reported behaviour in public and private domains). Mumford (2000) found in his sample of British volunteers working abroad that cultural distance accounted for 36% of variance in culture shock (as measured by emotional reactions to relocation and interpersonal stress) reported by respondents.

In contrast, Zlobina et al.'s (2006) study of immigrants and sojourners in Spain found that Colombians, whose language was identical with the host language and whose culture was perceived as similar to the mainstream culture, experienced the highest level of social difficulty from all five culturally and ethnically diverse groups in the study. This is an interesting example of complex conditions in which acculturation and immigration need to be studied. Although cultural similarity can facilitate adaptation and greater cultural distance can pose greater barriers to adjustment (Ward & Kennedy, 1993a), this predictor cannot be considered separately. Instead, both characteristics of a given ethnic group, and the personal characteristics of acculturating individuals, and the characteristics of the host society need to be considered in order to fully understand the adaptation process of a particular immigrant group in a specific environment.

Language fluency

The ability to speak and understand the host country language has been identified as the major predictor of both sociocultural and psychological adaptation (Kang, 2006). Although language competence is traditionally mentioned in relation to sociocultural adjustment as it belongs to culture specific skills that can be acquired, it is also necessary for successful psychological adaptation. Speaking and understanding the host language are essential skills that help individuals to understand the world around them which, in turn, have a positive effect on their psychological well-being. Research demonstrates that the host-country language skills are crucial for all groups of migrants whatever the purpose of their migration or the lengths of their stay (Kang, 2006; Masgoret, 2006).

Host country language skills have a significant impact on all areas of a person's life. To be able to interact with host nationals has repeatedly been shown to be an important means of

acquisition of host country specific cultural skills (Ward & Kennedy, 1993a). Most importantly, however, competence in the host country language has a crucial impact on career options and career adjustment of immigrants and sojourners. Poor host country language skills were found to block immigrants' opportunities to continue their successful careers after relocation and force them into so called "survival", low-skill jobs (Rasouli et al., 2008; Ward, T., 2007).

Although many studies found that language ability is a necessary condition for a high quality of life in the host society, it would not be wise to conclude that a person who speaks the host language fluently will not experience cross-cultural difficulties. For example, Zlobina and her colleagues (2006) in their multicultural sample of immigrants to Spain found that some groups whose native tongue was identical with the host country language experienced more difficulty in adapting to their new cultural environment than groups whose language and culture were completely different from the host country ones. The study of Zlobina et al. (2006) is unique in the sense that it attempted to test an entire model of sociocultural adjustment using a sample of immigrants from culturally and ethnically very diverse groups. The mixed results of this study warn against extensive generalization of the model and suggest that language fluency may be a necessary but not sufficient factor for sociocultural adjustment.

Acculturation strategies

According to John Berry (1997, 2005), there are four major acculturation strategies that a person can pursue. These four strategies are determined by a person's preference for two separate orientations – how important is it for an individual to maintain their culture of origin and how important is it for them to adapt to the host culture? When both cultures are equally important, Berry talks about a strategy of *integration*. If individuals adopt the host culture at the expenses of their culture of origin, they pursue *assimilation*. *Separation* occurs when a person

cherishes and maintains their culture of origin and refuses, or is not able, to adopt the host culture at the same time. The last acculturation strategy, *marginalization*, represents an individual's withdrawal from both cultures. Such a person loses a sense of belonging and experiences the poorest adjustment outcomes from all four groups. Generally, integration is considered to be the most functional acculturation strategy and it should be a positive predictor of a person's psychological well-being and overall successful adaptation to a new culture.

Ward included these four strategies into her model of sociocultural adjustment and found that, as hypothesized, integration did have a positive impact on psychological adjustment, while assimilation positively influenced sociocultural adjustment (Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999). The Ward & Rana-Deuba's study measured the two orientations as identification with host nationals or identification with co-nationals. The research showed that even though integrated individuals readily adopted the host culture, their identification with their culture of origin remained significant and it was this strong identification with co-nationals that help them to maintain their psychological well-being even during a stressful transition into a new culture.

Expected difficulty

The expected level of social difficulty before immigration or before temporary international relocation (business assignment, international student) has also been studied as a predictor of adjustment to the new environment. While Searle and Ward (1990) identified expectations before migration as a factor influencing sociocultural adjustment, other studies pointed out that the realism of these expectations will also have an impact on psychological well-being of acculturating individuals (Mak, 1991; Rasouli et al., 2008). When immigrants have unrealistically high expectations of the quality of life after immigration and when they are then confronted with a different reality, they often experience disappointment, confusion, and

frustration which, in turn, may negatively affect their adjustment in their host country. In contrast, modest and realistic expectations of life conditions may result in an anticipation of potential challenges in the host country and encourage immigrants to develop the skills required for effective adjustment (Rasouli et al., 2008; Searle & Ward, 1990).

Relationship between psychological and sociocultural adjustment

In addition to the individual predictors of either psychological or sociocultural adjustment discussed above, these two types of adaptation predict each other. A higher level of sociocultural adaptation, measured as a level of experienced social difficulty, was found to be associated with higher level of psychological adaptation together with personality traits, contact with host nationals, life changes, acculturation strategies and social support (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992) whereas high level of psychological adjustment measured as mood disturbance was associated positively with sociocultural adaptation together with factors such as cultural distance, cultural identity and the length of residence in the host country. Although Ward and her associates have repeatedly found positive correlations between psychological and sociocultural adjustment ranging from 0.35 to 0.38 (e.g., Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Searle, 1991), they have also shown that each of them were predicted by a different set of variables and it is therefore necessary to treat them as two separate, albeit related constructs.

Career Adjustment Model for Immigrant Women in Canada

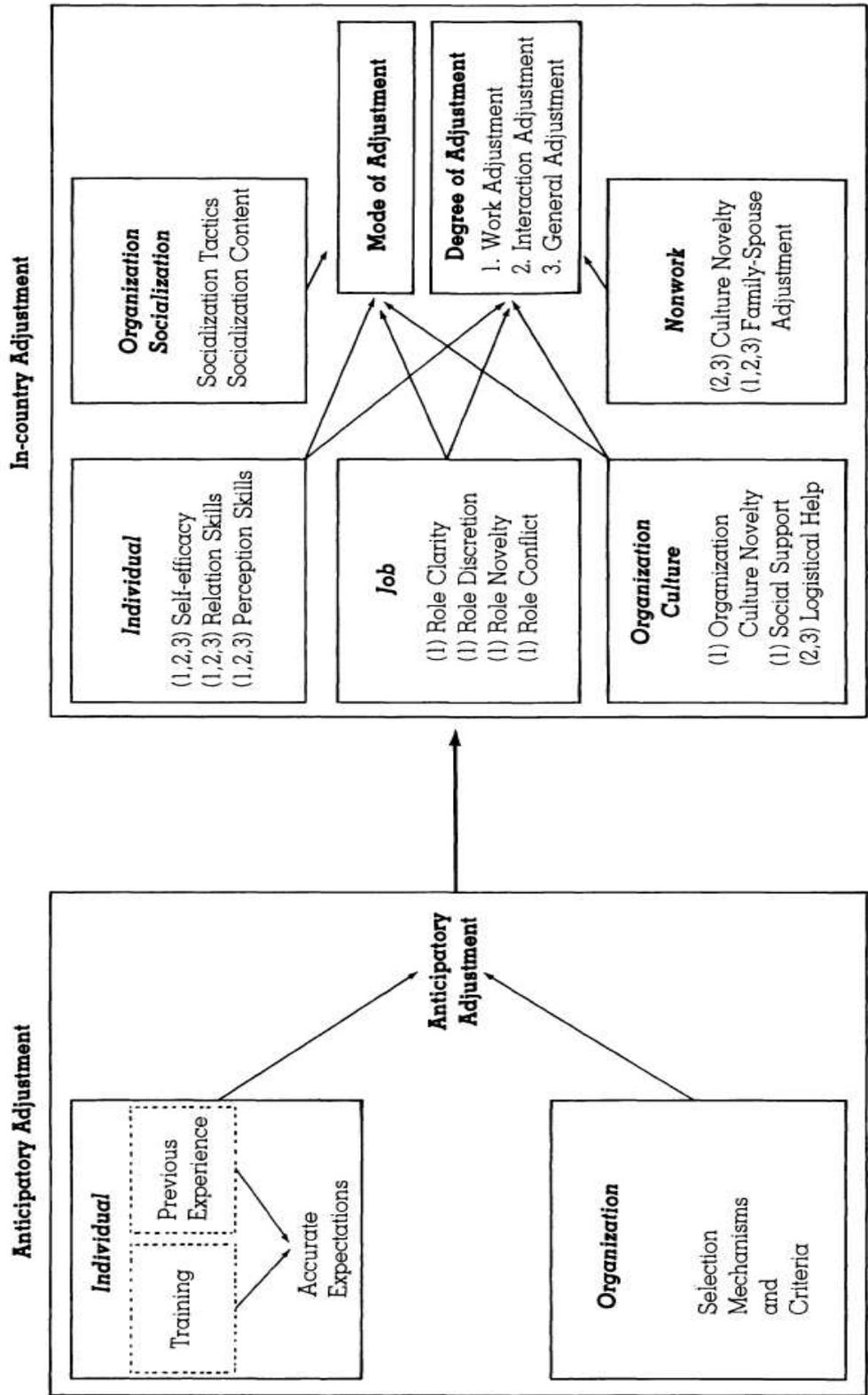
Recently a model of career adjustment for immigrant women in Canada was developed by Rasouli et al. (2008) as an effort to integrate current knowledge about the barriers that immigrant women experience when they try to participate in the Canadian labour market. It was inspired by Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou's (1991) model of expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment that represents one of the first efforts to bring together pieces of knowledge about

cultural shock and subsequent adjustment to the demands of a new and often very different cultural environment. The Black et al.'s model was created based on review of the adjustment literature; the authors took into account pre-departure training, previous overseas experience, individual skills and nonwork factors. They integrated international and domestic literature on adjustment which resulted in a comprehensive model presented in Figure 1. It is necessary to note, however, that most of the research available at the time of creation of the model had been conducted with male expatriates. Further, the barriers and challenges that expatriates on temporary assignments encounter are qualitatively different from people who decide or who are forced to relocate permanently as is the case of immigrants and refugees.

When creating the current career adjustment model, Rasouli et al. (2008), reviewed research on immigrant women and their participation in the labour market and incorporated current knowledge about this population into the Black et al.'s (1991) model. The resulting Model of Career Adjustment contains three groups of factors that are believed to either contribute or hinder the success of immigrant women in the Canadian labour market. The factors are divided into psychological, situational, and social predictors. Rasouli et al. (2008) formulated a proposition for each predictor that provides the direction of influence on the successful economic integration of immigrant women in Canada.

After reviewing other literature on cross-cultural adjustment and taking into account the culture learning perspective represented by the model of socio-cultural adjustment developed by Ward and her colleagues, the Rasouli et al.'s model was slightly revised (see Figure 2) to predict the career adjustment of immigrant women. Because most of the factors in this model have been found to be predictors of sociocultural and psychological adjustments in the studies of Ward and colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Searle, 1991; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1993b,

Figure 1 Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment according to Black et al. (1991)



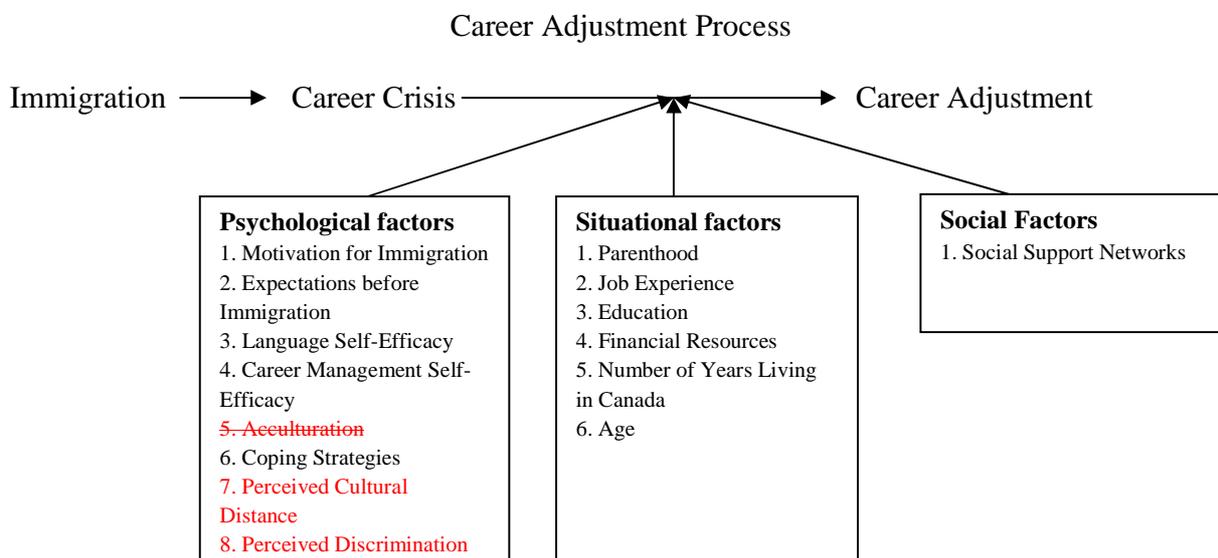
Numbers in parentheses indicate the numbered facet(s) of adjustment to which the specific variable is expected to relate.

1994, 1999; Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999) and because these two adjustments together represent a measure of acculturation, a decision not to include acculturation in the career adjustment model was made. The rationale behind this decision is that acculturation should, according to the cultural adjustment literature, be included in the model as a dependent variable rather than as an independent variable.

Other change that has been made to Rasouli and her colleagues' (2008) model was to add perceived cultural distance as another predictor. This was done because of the research finding that the more one's original culture is perceived to be different from the host country culture, the more acculturative struggles an individual experiences (Babiker, Cox, & Miller, 1980; Mumford & Babiker, 1997; Mumford, 2000). It is well-known that different cultures have different work ethics and work habits and because of that, cultural distance should be closely related to career adjustment at least in the first few years after immigration. Finally, the factor called discrimination in Rasouli et al.'s model was renamed as perceived discrimination in my revised version of the model as the subjective perception of being discriminated against is expected to have a greater influence on actual career adjustment than instances of discrimination measured objectively. Despite not naming it this way, Rasouli et al. (2008) included only perceived discrimination into their model and predicted that it will be negatively related to career adjustment of immigrant women. Further, due to the psychological nature of perceived discrimination, it was moved from the list of situational factors to that of psychological factors. hypotheses) were derived from Rasouli et al.'s (2008) model except for the predictors that were newly added. In the case of the factors motivation and parenthood, extra propositions have been added based on the literature review.

Figure 2 shows the model with my revisions in red. The Figure is followed by a more detailed description of each group of predictors. Propositions for each predictor (in this thesis treated as hypotheses) were derived from Rasouli et al.'s (2008) model except for the predictors that were newly added. In the case of the factors motivation and parenthood, extra propositions have been added based on the literature review.

Figure 2 A Model of Career Adjustment for Immigrant Women in Canada (Adapted from Rasouli et al., 2008)



Psychological Factors

Motivation for immigration

Motivation for immigration is best understood in relation to the push and pull factors that motivate individuals to migrate, i.e., the reasons that people had to leave their country of origin (push) and the reasons they had for coming to their new country (pull). Persons who decided to relocate to a different country voluntarily are likely to be more motivated and ready to face the challenges that adjustment to a new environment inevitably brings (Donkor, 2004; Rasouli et al.,

2008). According to Badets and Howatson-Leo (1999), Boyd and Vickers (2000), and Rasouli et al. (2008), people immigrate to Canada, for two major reasons: 1) searching for higher economic standards, and 2) joining a partner or another family member. The third major group of immigrants are refugees admitted because of Canada's international obligations and humanitarian and compassionate traditions (Badets & Howatson-Leo, 1999). Despite the prevalence of economic migration, the career aspirations of immigrants have been largely ignored in the social science research (Lopes, 2006). Rather, it is assumed that people whose reasons behind relocation were of economic nature such as improving one's standards of living or progressing in one's career goals, will be more motivated to enter the labour market and fulfill their expectations which will, in turn, lead to a greater success and enhance economic integration. In contrast, individuals who chose or who were forced to migrate with a partner will likely be less motivated and will engage less in job search or in the acquisition of additional skills. As a result, they will experience lower level of career adjustment and be less successful in their integration into the host country labour market.

Hypothesis 1a: *Higher motivation for career and economic advancement through immigration will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Hypothesis 1b: *Those women who chose to migrate to Canada for career advancement reasons will show better career adjustment than those women who chose to migrate to Canada for family reasons.*

Expectations before immigration

Expectations before immigration can be characterized as the beliefs that individuals hold about their new life in the chosen country before they immigrate. These beliefs relate to the ease or difficulty of establishing a new life in the host country and generally concern all areas of life

such as housing, establishing social networks, employment, and finding high quality schooling for children. In this study, expectations before immigration refer specifically to the beliefs immigrant women hold about how easy or difficult it will be to find their desired job, establish themselves in the Canadian labour market, and start or pursue their desired careers.

Although there has not been a lot of research done on expectations that migrants hold before migration, some scholars (e.g., Martin, Redford, & Rohrlich, 1995; Zlobina et al., 2006) argue that expectations must be at an optimal level, i.e., not too high and not too low. Martin and colleagues (1995) explain that people hold expectations about events, others, behaviours, and relationships and these expectations are used as criteria against which they evaluate the reality; this evaluation subsequently influences their interactions with the new environment. Black and Gregersen (1990), however, found that even expectations that were positively violated (i.e., overmet) can lead to a positive evaluation of one's cross-cultural experience.

Researchers commonly distinguish between expectations that correspond with the reality and expectations that are too optimistic so that the reality of the host country's labour market results in disappointment and frustration. Anecdotal and research evidence shows that realistic expectations necessarily include readiness for at least a moderate level of difficulties while adapting to the new environment (Lee & Westwood, 1996; Rasouli et al., 2008; Searle & Ward, 1990).

Hypothesis 2: *The more expectations formed prior to migration are met in the host country, the higher the level of career adjustment experienced by immigrant women.*

Language self-efficacy

Proficiency in the host country's official language is frequently cited as the major facilitator of adjustment to the new cultural environment (e.g., Ali, Van der Zee, & Sanders,

2003; Foroutan, 2008; Kang 2006; Masgoret, 2006). Host language skills allow the newcomer to orient faster and to establish relationships with host nationals that further enhance his or her sociocultural adjustment and development of culture-specific skills (Man, 2004). A fluent speaker of the host language with advanced writing and reading skills has a far better chance of being hired for highly skilled and specialized positions, the positions for which he or she was originally trained. Therefore, language proficiency is one of the key factors in the career adjustment of immigrants.

However, some authors (e.g., Zlobina et al., 2006) argue that acquisition of the host language skills is a necessary, but not a sufficient skill for the person to be able to adjust to a new culture. More importantly, the individual must believe that he or she has the necessary language skills and is able to use them. This is what Rasouli et al. (2008) refer to as language self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is the subjective judgments that people make about their capabilities to organize and execute actions required to achieve designated types of performance (Bandura, 1986). An immigrant woman who feels that her host language skills are sufficiently developed will be more confident in engaging in interactions with host nationals, networking, searching and applying for a job. As well, she will be more likely to perform better at job interviews and consequently will experience greater success at entering the host country's labour market and better career adjustment.

Hypothesis 3: *Language self-efficacy will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Career management self-efficacy

Career management self-efficacy is the degree to which individuals are confident that they can collect information about their interests and skills, identify career goals, and engage in

career strategies that increase the probability of achieving those career goals (Rasouli et al., 2008). Skills that are needed for obtaining a job not only include job specific skills, but also generic skills such as how to effectively search for a job, explore career options, write a resume and do well in an interview. These activities and strategies are strongly influenced by the host culture and the unfamiliarity of immigrants with the culture can severely hinder their performance in these tasks (Lee & Westwood, 1996).

Similar to language self-efficacy, the subjective beliefs of immigrant women in their skills regarding career management can significantly affect their employment related behaviour such as searching and applying for a job, searching for an access to information and using this information. Indeed, the lack of confidence in their career management skills may limit them to search for low-skill jobs, or to obtain jobs within their ethnic enclave, or to withdraw from the labour market.

Hypothesis 4: *Career management self-efficacy will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Coping strategies

The stress and coping framework currently represents one of the most popular theoretical approaches to acculturation and adaptation studies (Ward & Kennedy, 2001). The perspective draws on the theory and research of Lazarus and Folkman and their followers (e.g., Endler & Parker, 1990; Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping has been conceptualized as a response to external stressful or negative events (Endler & Parker, 1990). The response depends on the salience of life changes, their appraisal as threatening or challenging and the choice of coping strategies to deal with psychological distress (Ward & Kennedy, 2001). The concept of coping appears to be relevant to immigration because moving

permanently to a new country generally represents a stressful life event. Studies that have focused on coping with cross-cultural transition (e.g., Chataway & Berry, 1989; Selmer 1999, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 2001) dealt mostly with temporary expatriates and very little research has been done on how immigrants cope with moving and permanently settling in their new country. The immigration literature focusing on coping commonly distinguishes two major coping strategies – problem-focused and emotion-focused. Although these two are not the only possible coping strategies, numerous studies (e.g., Parker & Endler, 1990; Selmer 1999, 2001; Ward & Kennedy, 2001) show that they are prevalent in various countries around the world and can be applied to various stressful situations. The third fairly common coping strategy is avoidance (Endler & Parker, 1990). Anecdotal evidence shows that some immigrants choose avoidant strategies when facing adaptation challenges; for example, migrants whose credentials are not recognized in the new country, decide to move to a different country or return back home.

While using problem-focused strategies is an active coping response which aims at removing or changing the stressor in one's environment, emotion-focused strategies are individuals' efforts to regulate emotions evoked by the stressor, but not change the stressful situation. Avoidance can include both avoiding a stressor by seeking out other people and engaging in another task to avoid the stressful task or event at hand (Endler & Parker, 1990; Rasouli et al., 2008). In essence, avoidance involves behavioural disengagement, venting of emotions, the inability to see the positive aspects of change, and mental disengagement (Ward & Kennedy, 2001). Although these three groups of coping strategies do not represent all possible coping strategies with cross-cultural transition, they are broad enough to encompass many strategies used by immigrants (Rasouli et al., 2008, Ward & Kennedy, 2001).

According to the stress and coping framework, an immigrant woman with career adjustment problems needs to first make a cognitive evaluation of her current situation as stressful or threatening and then, if it is stressful, undertake coping. Her success may largely depend on the type of coping strategies she will choose. All the above mentioned coping studies found that problem-focused strategies predict better adjustment to the host culture; whereas emotion-focused or avoidance coping strategies predict worse adjustment to the host culture in situations of cross-cultural transition.

Hypothesis 5: Immigrant women who use primarily problem-focused coping strategies will experience higher career adjustment than those using primarily emotion-focused or avoidance strategies.

Perceived cultural distance

Culture distance has been defined as a distance between two cultures based on their social and physical attributes (Babiker, Cox, & Miller, 1980). A person who spends a long time in a country with a different culture may experience emotional disturbances caused by the many and various new demands this relocation creates (Mumford & Babiker, 1997). According to the authors, significant difficulties in coping can be expected when the move to a new culture is rapid and long-term or permanent. The requirements for assimilation and adjustment can be overwhelming and a person in such a situation may undergo 'culture shock' (Mumford & Babiker, 1997).

Researchers started to pay attention to this phenomenon as early as in the 1960s, yet the first validated measurement was developed in 1980 by Babiker and colleagues. They followed a common-sense hypothesis which states that the greater the dissimilarity between two cultures, the more pronounced the emotional reaction (culture shock) (Mumford & Babiker, 1997). This

hypothesis was later confirmed in numerous studies (e.g., Babiker et al., 1980; Furnham & Bochner; 1982, cited in Mumford & Babiker, 1997; Mumford & Babiker, 1997; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993; Ward & Searle, 1991).

Because the vast majority of studies examining the effect of cultural distance on cross-cultural adjustment used self-report measures, the variable was often named perceived cultural distance. That is, it is individuals' subjective perceptions of cultural dissimilarities that may make them feel uncomfortable or alienated in the host culture. Ward and her colleagues (Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993, 1999; Ward & Searle, 1991) have conducted fairly extensive research on socio-cultural adaptation which included perceived cultural distance as one of the important factors. In all their samples, cultural distance was negatively related to socio-cultural adaptation.

Hypothesis 6: The greater the cultural distance between the host culture and culture of origin, the less immigrant women will make successful career adjustments to their host country's labour market.

Perceived discrimination

Both research (e.g., Esses; 2006; Grant, 2008; Li, 2003; Matthews, 2006) and anecdotal evidence suggest that many skilled immigrants encounter discrimination in the labour market, especially in hiring and promoting practices. Discrimination can occur on numerous levels and be based, for example, on skin colour, accent, or the country of origin. It is not uncommon to find that people hold negative stereotypes about people from different cultures and these can be projected into employer's selection and recruitment practices.

Practically, it is often difficult to distinguish how much discrimination causes negative labour market outcomes for immigrants versus how a lack of understanding and valuing of

immigrants' foreign credentials contribute to this negative phenomenon. Some authors (e.g., Man, 2004; Mojab, 1999; Preston & Man, 1999; Purkayastha, 2005) argue that not recognizing the foreign-earned experience is also a form of discrimination rather than just lack of understanding. Quite likely, it is the combination of both factors that result in blocked or limited economic opportunities for immigrants. The situation appears to be even more serious for immigrant women, especially those belonging to visible minority groups, as they face the stigma of double or triple minority and can be discriminated against on the base of skin color, gender, country of origin and accent (Iredale, 2004; James, Plaza, & Jansen, 1999; Mojab, 1999; Preston & Giles, 2004; Preston & Man, 1999; Man, 2004).

Li (2003) tried to provide objective evidence of discrimination that immigrants face in the labour market by using statistical data on immigrant and non-immigrant earnings while distinguishing between white and visible minority immigrants. His research concluded that immigrants truly hold a disadvantaged position in the Canadian labour market. However, studies (Grant & Nadin, 2007; Ward, T., 2007) on discrimination from the psychological perspective have taught us that it is necessary to determine whether immigrants themselves feel discriminated against. The subjective perception of discrimination is what is going to have a hindering effect on immigrant's success in the labour market. Thus, this study measures *perceived* discrimination as a psychological factor influencing the career adjustment of immigrant women in Canada.

Hypothesis 7: Perceived discrimination will be negatively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.

Situational Factors

Parenthood

Parenthood represents a critical issue in career adjustment of any woman, both Canadian-born and immigrant, and both employed and self-employed. Traditionally, women remain the main caregivers for their young children and although the conditions are slowly changing in Canada and other industrial countries, immigrant women often come from more traditional cultures where the woman's family and parental duties are put ahead of her career development and aspirations (Iredale, 2005). As a result of the greater parental responsibilities that women bear, they are often forced to accept part-time, insecure, and lower-skilled jobs or completely leave the labour market. For example, Foroutan (2008) found in his study that immigrant women with no young children at home were much more likely to be employed than women with young children at home regardless of the children's age. Further, employers fear that the domestic responsibilities of married women with children will curtail their performance on the job (Preston & Man, 1999) which lowers their chances to be hired.

In Canadian culture, parental responsibilities are a private matter within the nuclear family, and it is up to the parents to secure alternative (mostly private) childcare should they wish to participate in the labour market. Private childcare in Canada, however, is expensive and for some families, and immigrant families especially, it remains a luxury they cannot afford. Thus, the chances for career development and free career choices for immigrant women who are parenting young children are often very limited.

Hypothesis 8a: *Parenthood will be negatively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Hypothesis 8b: *Women with children who are 3 years old or younger will experience the lowest level of career adjustment.*

Job experiences

It is generally assumed that chances of finding suitable employment increase as a person gains work experience. Nevertheless, data on the immigrant population of Canada show that this may not be the case for immigrants to Canada, especially the recent ones who came to the country less than 10 years ago (Ziestma, 2007). Studies show that recent immigrants are not allowed to easily transfer their skills from their countries of origin to the Canadian labour market. Problems with recognition of their credentials and work experience obtained in foreign countries cause discontinuity in their professional careers that further results in deterioration of their skills, under-employment, unemployment, return to school and overall downward occupational and social mobility (Grant & Nadin, 2007; Lee & Westwood, 1996; Man, 2004; McCoy & Masuch, 2007).

Despite current Canadian immigration policy favouring applicants with higher education and extensive work experience, there is a lack of relevant policies and programs that would facilitate transferring skills between countries. The lack of understanding of foreign credentials on the side of Canadian employers is the major barrier and the reason why immigrants' skills do not contribute to their career adjustment. However, it appears that the situation differs for immigrants in regulated and non-regulated professions (for further discussion see McCoy & Masuch, 2007). While in regulated professions, immigrants need to follow a well-structured, lengthy and usually fairly demanding process of foreign credentials and skills assessment, in non-regulated professions, there are no guidelines on how to assess one's qualification. The difference is also in the specificity of the professional field. On the one hand, some occupational

fields require culturally specific skills and are therefore hardly accessible to immigrants. On the other hand, others require more general and transferrable skills and these are the fields where immigrants are more likely to have career success.

According to Bennett (2010, p.457), “transferrable skills are skills that are needed in any job and which enable people to participate in flexible and adaptable workforce”. They include personal skills such as ‘work well with others, communication skills, leadership, capacity to solve problems, or basic capability of using information technologies. Nevertheless, the set of basic transferrable skills may differ across countries. Scholars argue that transferability of skills may be largely dependent on the country of origin, its culture and economic conditions (Orcutt Duleep & Regets, 1997). Immigrants from countries with significantly lower GDP than the host countries seem to be less successful in transferring their skills to the host country labour market. It is possible that the formal education and work experience of these immigrants are less applicable to the labour market of host countries (Orcutt Duleep & Regets, 1997). Transferability of skills may also be influenced by language ability and cultural distance.

Hypothesis 9: Previous job experience is positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women only if they can transfer their skills and experiences from their country of origin to Canada.

Education

The majority of immigrants arriving in Canada every year are admitted under the point system that accentuates education as one of the most important factors (Citizenship & Immigration Canada, 2010; Man, 2004; Preston & Man, 1999). There is no doubt that education is an essential component of human capital in the current knowledge society. Technically, then, people with higher education have greater potential to succeed in the labour market. After

immigrating to Canada, however, the situation of highly educated immigrants often turns out to be different. In Canada, foreign education does not seem to be recognized or valued despite the federal government's immigration policy (Citizenship & Immigration Canada, 2010b), and Canadian employers are not ready to ascribe high economic potential to immigrants' education obtained abroad (Foroutan, 2008; Li, 2003; Masuch & McCoy, 2006, Reitz, 2001). Ferrer and Ridell (2008:188) offer the following explanation: "*Most human capital has a country-specific component, owing to knowledge of institutions, culture, and customs and establishment of networks.*" Consequently, the value assigned to the skills obtained in a foreign country is likely to be lower than to those obtained locally.

One of the common coping strategies that immigrants choose, when they encounter a lack of recognition of their credentials, is to return to school and obtain another degree from one of the host country's educational institutions. Therefore, two kinds of post-secondary education need to be recognized: education attained in the country of origin and education obtained in the host country. Although there is an assumption that immigrants with high level of education from their country of origin will achieve greater economic success than their counterparts without any post-secondary education, individuals who choose the path of obtaining Canadian education are expected to be significantly more economically successful than those who were educated in their country of origin.

Hypothesis 10a: *Education from the country of origin will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Hypothesis 10b: *Education from the host country will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Hypothesis 10c: *Education obtained from the host country will be more positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women than an equal level of education obtained in the country of origin.*

Financial resources

Individuals who immigrate to Canada as economic migrants have aspirations to start working as soon as they relocate. Most of them are not ready for the reality of not being able to find a job corresponding to their qualification within the first few months or even years after immigration. And, although they often bring all their savings with them to Canada, the living expenses in the new country often exhaust their financial reserves. And even if they find an employment commensurate to their qualification, their financial situation may not improve significantly as research shows that immigrants' entry earnings, despite significant educational increases, have declined 20% since the 1970s (Reitz, 2007). This means that many new immigrants experience downward social mobility after their arrival to the new country (Grant & Nadin, 2007; Man, 2004; McCoy & Masuch, 2007).

This burdensome financial situation then forces immigrants to accept survival jobs that do not provide them with security and benefits, do not use and further develop their knowledge and skills, but often require long working hours and/or irregular working shifts. Individuals in such a situation often realize that they do not have time to look for an appropriate job or to upgrade their education and participate in additional language classes. Their path to the higher echelons of the labour market is therefore blocked. Yet, many feel that they do not have any other choice. After all, immigrants often bring their families with them, frequently including young children, and their common answer to the survival jobs is a deep sigh and words such as "we have to pay the bills".

At the same time, survival jobs provide just enough financial resources to cover the essential bills and do not allow extra employment related expenses such as paying for exams to verify their foreign credentials even though this verification is required by most of the professional bodies in Canada. As a result, immigrants without financial resources are disadvantaged in many ways in their initial years in Canada. They can only advance their language skills, progress with the credentialing process, or upgrade their education by taking additional courses slowly due to a lack of finances. Or they might find themselves starting a completely new university degree in order to gain qualifications that Canadian employers recognise. In contrast, those who can afford to advance in either of these areas are more likely to find an employment in their field of expertise.

It is recognized that the lack of financial resources is a barrier for both men and women. If both the man and the woman in a couple experience credentialing problems, one of the partners often sacrifices his or her career so that the other spouse can secure meaningful employment. According to anecdotal testimonies of employment and settlement coordinators, it is often the woman who sacrifices her career so that her husband can become successful in the host country's labour market. This male preference is also closely related to childcare responsibilities and the cultural norms that immigrants are bringing with them to the new country (Iredale, 2005).

Hypothesis 11: *The availability of financial resources within the family will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women.*

Number of years living in Canada

The length of residence in the host country has been identified as an important factor influencing the overall adjustment of immigrants, the development of their language skills, and

their culture-specific knowledge and skills. Length of stay in the host country is also believed to have a significant impact on career adjustment (Black et al., 1991; Foroutan, 2008; Rasouli et al., 2008; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993). This assumption is not surprising given how all these areas of skills are closely related. Already the previous chapter indicated that both language skills and culture specific skills contribute to success in the labour market. The longer an immigrant lives in the host country, the more he/she has opportunities to learn about the Canadian job market and to master skills related to searching for a job and presenting oneself in a job interview and in relevant documents such as resumes.

Hypothesis 12: The number of years lived in Canada will be positively related to the career adjustment of immigrant women in Canada.

Age

Some studies showed that age is negatively related to successful acculturation and career adjustment (Hanassab, 1991; Lee & Westwood). Although the causes of this trend are not well known, researchers speculate that younger individuals adjust easier in comparison to their older counterparts due to easier acquisition of the host language. However, structural barriers such as age-related discrimination could also play a role (Rasouli et al., 2008). Studies (e.g., Lee & Westwood, 1996; Rasouli et al., 2008) found that individuals who arrive in the new country at older age find the process of cultural adjustment more difficult than younger immigrants. Both language skills and cultural adjustment are closely related to career adjustment and arriving in older age will therefore likely have a negative impact on career adjustment. Further, the analysis of Census data showed that immigrants arriving as adults experience much lower returns to their human capital than do native born Canadians. In contrast, immigrant youth (under 20 years of age at arrival to Canada), and young immigrant women especially, experienced an increase in

earnings relative to their educational attainments (Ferrer & Ridell, 2008). As hypothesis 11 predicts, higher earnings also lead to higher career adjustment.

Hypothesis 13: *The older individuals are at the time of migration, the lower their level of career adjustment.*

Social Factors

Social support networks

Family is frequently the main source of social support for people regardless of their immigration status in a given country. For immigrants, and especially those who arrive from more collectivist cultures with strongly developed familial structures, family is often the most important source of social support. In their country of origin, this kind of support is used to facilitate their work adjustment by providing help with child care and also emotional and material support where needed. After relocation, however, these familial structures are frequently disrupted as it is often only the immediate family that migrate. Both research (e.g. Iredale, 2005), anecdotal evidence, and the author's experience show that immigrants are coming from countries where women are traditionally considered the main caregivers and household keepers with little or no participation by the husband. In fact, studies (Black & Gregersen, 1991; Timmerman, Emanuels-Zuurveen, & Emmelkamp, 2000) found that marital support is frequently one of the most important sources of social support. For example, in interviews conducted by Rasouli et al. (2008), all immigrant women agreed that support from their families and partners was what helped them the most in facing labour market barriers in Canada.

Other support can also be beneficial for the adjustment of immigrants, especially for immigrant women who face a lack of familial or spousal support in the new country. In the settlement stage, immigrants tend to rely on their social, frequently co-ethnic, networks that help

them to find a place to live, register children to schools, and provide advice and information necessary for basic orientation in the new society. The evidence implies that support from family and social networks together contributes positively to career adjustment of immigrant women (Rasouli et al., 2008). It also appears that both quality and quantity of social support are important factors in career adjustment.

Hypothesis 14: *The strength of immigrant women's social support networks will be positively related to their career adjustment.*

Methods

Participants

Almost 150 immigrant women responded to the career adjustment survey, however, only 101 provided sufficient data to be included in the statistical analyses. Even though the survey was distributed all over Canada, it is likely that a greater proportion of the respondents are residents of Saskatchewan as most of the recruitment was focused on this province for convenience reasons. Participants in this study were between 19 and 59 years old, mean 37.7 years, mode 32 years, and their countries of origin covered almost all geographical regions in the world. Thirty-eight and half percent of them were originally from South-East Asia, especially Pakistan (n=12, 11.1%), India (n=6, 5.5%), China (n=6, 5.5%), and the Philippines (n=5, 4.6%). The second biggest group (29.2%) consisted of women of European origin, predominantly from Ukraine (n=5, 4.6%) and the Czech Republic/Czechoslovakia (n=5, 4.6%). Almost ten percent (9.4%) of the respondents represented the region of Middle East and North Africa, 12.5% were from Central or Latin America, and the remaining 10.4% came from various countries in Africa.

On average, these women had lived in Canada for 7 years and 3 months (range from 1 month to 35 years; mode 1 year). More than thirty percent (30.7%) immigrated to Canada as independent economic class immigrants, followed by 24.8% of family class immigrants. A significant portion of them came on temporary permits (visitor 12.9%, worker 10.9%, and student 7.9%) and 5.9% were admitted as refugees. Eight (8.2%) women had obtained a PhD degree before they moved to Canada. A much larger number of respondents had either a Master's degree or a Bachelor's degree from their country of origin ($n = 28$, 28.6% and $n = 27$, 27.6% respectively), while 24.5% had some kind of post-secondary or technical training. Ten (10.2%) women were able to complete high school prior to moving to Canada and 3 (3.1%) left their country before finishing secondary education. After moving to Canada, these women were most likely to take some post-secondary training ($n=21$, 19.3%), or other courses ($n=21$, 19.3%). For further details on the respondents' Canadian education and other demographics, consult Table 4.

Table 4 Demographic Information

Variable	Value
Age	19 – 59 years old Mean 37.7 years, mode 32 years
Region of Origin	South-East Asia (38.5%), Europe (29.2%), Central & Latin America (12.5%), Middle East & North Africa (9.4%), Africa (10.4%)
Length of Stay in Canada	1 month to 35 years Mean 7 years & 3 months, mode 1 year
Immigration Status at the Entry	Economic (30.7%), Family (24.8%), Temporary (31.7%), Refugee (5.9%)
Highest Achieved Education in Country of Origin	Elementary school (3.1%) High school (10.2%) Post-secondary/technical training (22.5%) Bachelor's degree (27.6%) Master's degree (28.6%) PhD degree (8.2%)
Highest Achieved Education in Canada	High school (6.2%) Post-secondary/technical training (32.3%) Bachelor's degree (10.8%) Master's degree (15.4%) PhD degree (3.1%) Other courses (32.3%)

Years of Profession in Country of Origin	None to 40 years Mean 6 years & 9 months, mode 0
Years of Profession in Canada	None to 30 years Mean 4 years & 3 months, mode 0
Annual Personal Income	None to more than \$100,000 Mean & mode \$20,000 to \$29,000
Annual Family Income	None to more than \$100,000 Mean \$50,000 to \$59,000, mode more than \$100,000
Number of Children	0 (40.2%); 1(17.5%); 2(29.9%); 3(7.2%); 4 and more (5.2%)
Currently Employed	Yes (n=80, 73.4%); No (n=21, 19.3%)
Relevance of Job to Original Career	Not at all related (18.4%) Somewhat related (19.3%) Moderately related (30.5%) Very related (19.6%)

Despite significant efforts to approach as many immigrant women as possible from diverse cultural and professional backgrounds, it is clear that some biases were introduced into the sample. The two most important are the location of respondents and their highest achieved education. It is likely that the majority of respondents were residents of Saskatchewan as all the paper and pencil copies of the questionnaire were collected in the province. As well, my personal network consists predominantly of settlement and employment workers and immigrants residing in the Saskatoon area and it is likely then that many of the online respondents were recruited through this network.

While the profile of immigrant women in the introduction of the thesis stated that 32% of them had a university degree, in this sample, almost 65% of respondents had a university degree and another 22.5% had some other form of post-secondary training. Clearly then, this study oversampled immigrant women with a post-secondary education which may also mean a bias toward women who have a greater interest in their career. As such, the results of this study should be used with caution as they cannot be generalized to the population of immigrant women in Canada. Instead, they are more likely to reflect the reality of highly educated immigrant women living in the Canadian prairies.

Procedure

The study was conducted both as an on-line and a pen and paper questionnaire study. The on-line format was chosen for several reasons. First, despite the contradictory findings on response rate from previous research using web-based surveys (e.g., Cole, 2005; Couper, 2000; Nadin, 2008), the Internet provides an opportunity to reach a large and diverse population and, therefore, the chance to obtain a larger sample size. Second, since the Internet is currently wide spread and the majority of the Canadian population has access to the network, it is assumed that participants will find it more convenient to complete the survey electronically. Third, it seems likely that women who want to pursue their career will be regular users of the Internet as many job postings and career related information can be found on-line. Lastly, women who are engaged in pursuing their career are likely to be busy and so there was a desire to provide them with the opportunity to fill out the survey in the comfort of their home at a time that is convenient for them.

Nevertheless, despite the large prevalence of Internet usage in the Canadian population, there are still people who do not have a regular access to Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). In the case of some immigrant women, usage of ICT can be further complicated by a low exposure to ICT in their country of origin and therefore a lack of relevant computer skills. For that reason, a pen and paper version of the questionnaire was also used. Posters and flyers introducing the study were distributed to all immigrant-serving organizations in Saskatoon area, as well as all cultural groups which had an e-mail address listed in the directory of cultural and ethnic groups of Saskatoon. Several were left also in major immigrant-serving organizations in Toronto⁴. Equally, the study was advertised via the Community e-mail

⁴ I attended a conference in Toronto during the data collection period and visited several immigrant-serving organizations based in the Toronto-area. The printed posters were not distributed in any other major Canadian city.

list of the City of Saskatoon, as well as in the Calendar of events of the City. Further, a list of community services for newcomers provided by the Citizenship and Immigration Canada (2011b) was consulted for immigrant-serving organizations in other provinces. All of those that had an e-mail contact listed were contacted and asked for assistance with the survey distribution. In addition, all foreign embassies and consulates that had their e-mail address listed in the directory provided by Foreign Affairs and International Trade Canada (2011) were contacted and asked to circulate the information about the study among their workers and the potentially broader community of co-nationals in Canada. Further, several other organizations in Saskatchewan and Manitoba were contacted via telephone and subsequently sent an e-mail with the online survey link and a poster. In addition, my extensive personal network⁵ was used to recruit additional respondents, as well as visits to all Language Instructions for Newcomers classes (LINC) of level 3 and higher, and English for Post-Secondary Success classes in the Saskatoon area.

In addition, other questionnaire work with immigrants in Saskatoon has indicated that a successful recruitment strategy involves distributing questionnaires at cultural events and gatherings (Grant, 2007; Grant & Nadin, 2007). Consequently then, the study was advertised at several Latino parties and multicultural events. Eventually, I also recruited a couple of voluntary research assistants who collected additional data from respondents residing in Saskatoon. Overall, more than 300 hard copies of the questionnaire were distributed in the community. The number of organizations contacted via e-mail exceeded 200.

⁵ I volunteered and worked in several immigrant-serving organizations in Saskatoon and I also developed my network through active participation in cultural events in the Saskatoon area. Tens of people were contacted through this network and asked to circulate information about the study and/or participate in case they were eligible potential respondents.

The combination of an electronic version and a paper version of the questionnaire strived to maximize the coverage of the studied population. In the end, 63 women filled out the online survey and 38 handed in a pencil and paper copy. The response rate, however, was generally very low. The feedback on the questionnaire indicated that the length of the questionnaire was the major problem. Some key informants from major cultural groups also admitted that many women in their community did not have sufficient English language skills to complete the questionnaire.

For those who received the e-mail invitation to participate in the electronic version of the study, the procedure was as follows: When a participant or an immigrant-service provider opens the e-mail, she was introduced briefly to the topic of the research and to its purpose. The e-mail also provided a direct link to the first page of the questionnaire. Participants were told that the average time required for filling out the full questionnaire was approximately 30 minutes⁶, yet the time may be longer depending on language skills of the respondents. In fact, 30 minutes appeared to be a large underestimation of the time that immigrant women spent on filling out the questionnaire. Based on the feedback provided, the length was rather close to one hour or more. The first page of the online survey served as a consent form and the consent was identical to the consent form distributed with the hard copy questionnaires. By clicking on the button 'next', participants consented to the procedure and their participation.

Those who chose to filled out a 'hard copy' version received the questionnaire directly from the researcher who also was able to answer their questions (the exception was the few participants who were recruited by the research assistants). All participants decided to work on the questionnaire at home and return it to the researcher at a later time. E-mail addresses were

⁶ This estimate was based on the estimate of the survey portal used (24 minutes) and experience with a previous study of a similar extent and content.

collected for this purpose. The exceptions were students in the LINC classes who could bring the questionnaire to the LINC coordinator, and several potential participants who had scheduled a meeting with the researcher. All hard copies of the questionnaire included two copies of a consent form. A brief explanation of the consent form was provided to all participants with instruction to return one signed copy and keep the other one. All participants were encouraged to contact the researcher if they would like to see the results of the study.

Measures

The self-administered questionnaire consists of a mixture of well established scales, new scales, and demographic questions intended to measure the dependent variable, career adjustment, and the independent variables described in the model of career adjustment (see Figure 2). See Table 5 for a summary of the variables used in the study. The measures are given in Measures.

The dependent variable, career adjustment, was measured in two ways: positively as job satisfaction and negatively as job-related stress. This approach was adopted from Leong (2001) who operationalized career adjustment in this way in his study of the role of acculturation in the career adjustment of Asian American professionals working for large organizations in various industries such as high-tech engineering, household product producer, or computer information systems, in the United States.

Job Satisfaction Inventory. The Job Satisfaction Inventory (JSI) was developed by Brayfield and Rothe in 1951 and is currently one of the oldest and most used measures of global job satisfaction (Leong, 2001). The scale consists of 18 statements about job-related opinions and attitudes and uses a 5-point Likert scale (1 = strongly agree, 5 = strongly disagree). Half of the items are reverse-scored. The scale has shown good reliability (Cronbach's $\alpha = .87$) and

repeatedly demonstrated its construct validity (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951; Fogarty, Machin, Albion, Sutherland, Lator, & Revitt, 1999). It was found, for example, that JSI was significantly predicted by job stress and strains in the expected negative direction. Job satisfaction measured by JSI was also negatively associated with a measure of environmental factors showing that unpleasant work conditions had direct negative impact on job satisfaction (Fogarty et al., 1999).

Table 5 Measures and Predicted Directions of Variables used in Analysis

Variable	Measurement	Direction
Dependent variable		
Career adjustment	Job Satisfaction Inventory Job Stress Survey	
Independent variables – Psychological factors		
Motivation before immigration	Level of motivation, readiness before immigration	+
Expectations before immigration	The extent to which expectations before immigration were met	+
Career management self-efficacy	Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale	+
Language self-efficacy	Language Self-Efficacy Scale	+
Coping strategies	Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations	Problem focused coping + Emotion focused coping – Avoidance coping –
Perceived cultural distance	Cultural Distance Questionnaire	–
Perceived discrimination	The Discriminatory Barriers to Integration Scale	–
Independent variables – Situational factors		
Parenthood	Number of children and their age	Number of children – Age of children +
Job experience	Years of experience	+
Education	Degrees, diplomas and certificates from home country and from Canada	From home country + From Canada ++
Length of stay in Canada	Years and months	+
Age at immigration	Years	–
Financial resources	Income in Canadian Dollars	+
Independent variable – Social factors		
Social support	Social Support Inventory	+

Job Stress Survey. The Job Stress Survey (JSS; Vagg & Spielberger, 1998) is a measure of generic job-related stressors. Each of the 20 items describes one specific occupational stressor and respondents are asked to rate the stressor on a 9-point scale (1 = least stressful, 9 = most stressful). The scale covers two factors that are labelled Job Pressure and Lack of Organizational Support and each of the factors is represented by 10 items. These two factors represent two positively correlated subscales ($r = .42, -.44$; Vagg & Spielberger, 1999). The reliability of the scale was examined via factorial analysis that showed fairly high item loading on the respective factors (Vagg & Spielberger, 1998). In another study, the Cronbach's α ranged from .76 to .90 (Gellis, Kim, Hwang, 2004). Job Pressure and Lack of Organizational Support were found to be significant stressors for both men and women across a wide range of professions (e.g., managers, clerical staff, maintenance staff, military personnel, police officers, and teachers). Similar factors have also been reported for heterogeneous groups of workers in Austria, Germany, and Norway (Vaag & Spielberger, 1998). Further, the measure was able to detect significant differences in the organizational level of employees (managers were more stressed than clerks) and their gender (women were more stressed than men; Vagg & Spielberger, 2002), and between urban and rural case managers (Gellis, Kim, Hwang, 2004).

Motivation and expectations before immigration. A mixture of open-ended and closed-ended questions were employed to gain deeper insight into the respondents' motivation and expectations before immigration. The questions were inspired by Rasouli et al.'s (2008) work which examined the motivational factors and the expectations of immigrant women through in-depth interviews and a discussion of the related literature. The design of the questions was guided by the Career Adjustment Model. Because they all are original items, they have only face validity. Using a 7-point response scale, two items about motivation for career and economic

advancement and two items on the extent to which expectations prior to immigration were met were used to calculate indices of motivation for career advancement and the extent to which expectations prior immigration were met. The mean values of these two pairs of items were used in the multiple regression analyses.

Language Self-Efficacy Scale. The Language self-efficacy scale was an adaptation of a scale measuring linguistic abilities of bilingual Canadians and immigrants to Canada (Bourhis, 2004, 2008). The scale asks participants to evaluate their ability to speak, listen, write and read in a given language. Bourhis has been using this scale with multiple languages, most recently with English and French. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale measuring English skills is .92 (Bourhis, 2008). In Bourhis and Dayan's (2004) study of acculturation orientations of Quebec residents, French linguistic ability measured by this scale was positively related to the extent to which respondents perceived their membership or civic nationhood in Quebec, i.e., the extent to which they felt they belonged to the province.

Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale. The Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale (CMSS) was developed by the author from two well established scales: the Occupational Self-Efficacy Scale (OSS; Schyns & von Collani, 2002) and the General Self-Efficacy Scale (GES; Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1979; Schwarzer, 1992). The OSS consists of 20 items derived from different assessments of general self-efficacy (Rigotti, Schyns, & Mohr, 2008) and was validated in relation to personality traits and organizational outcomes. Recently, a short, 8-item version was introduced and its testing showed equally good measurement characteristics. This short version was further tested by Rigotti et al. (2008) and their examination resulted in a 6-item version of the OSS with goodness-of-fit and comparative fit index greater than .90 in several European samples (see Rigotti et al., 2008 for the psychometric qualities of the latest version). In

support of its predictive validity, the 6-item version was positively correlated with job satisfaction (r ranging from .17 to .46), performance (r ranging from .32 to .58), commitment (r ranging from .13 to .39), and job insecurity (r ranging from .09 to .27).

The GES (Jerusalem & Schwarzer, 1979; Schwarzer, 1992) was originally developed as a 20-item instrument that was later reduced to 10 items. Its reliability (Cronbach's alpha ranging from .75 to .91) and validity have been demonstrated in numerous studies (Scholz, Gutiérrez Doña, Sud, & Schwarzer, 2002) across large multinational samples (Wu, 2009). For example, in a large sample of German students, general self-efficacy was correlated (.49) with optimism and with perception of challenge in stressful situations (.45). In a sample of teachers, general self-efficacy was strongly correlated with proactive coping (.55), self-regulation (.58) and procrastination (-.56). Similar evidence for the scale's validity was found in a sample of teachers in Hong Kong (Scholz et al., 2002). Self-efficacy was also related to self-regulation and individualism (Wu, 2009).

The OSS was the closest, domain-specific self-efficacy scale to career adjustment self-efficacy and, therefore, all 6 items of the scale were used as foundation of the CMSS. The items were slightly reworded for the purposes of measuring career management self-efficacy in comparison to job self-efficacy. So, for example, instead of a statement *When I am confronted with a problem in my job, I can usually find several solutions*, participants were evaluating a statement *When I am confronted with a problem in my career, I can usually find several solutions*. Because of the adaptation of the items, a few more items from the GES scale were added to decrease the risk of the scale having low reliability. Two items that did not overlap with already existing items (*I am certain that I can accomplish my career goals* and *I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected obstacles in my career*) were selected and reworded

so that they measure career management self-efficacy. Two other items were created based on the definition of career management self-efficacy provided by Rasouli et al. (2008). These items are: *I am confident about my abilities to perform specific tasks related to my chosen career* and *I am confident about my career goals*.

Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations. The Coping Inventory for Stressful Situations (CISS) was developed by Endler and Parker (1990) as a multidimensional assessment of coping mechanisms. The scale was further revised (Endler & Parker, 1994) into the final 48-item version of the CISS. The scale measures problem-focused coping ($\alpha = .87-.92$), emotion-focused coping ($\alpha = .82-.90$) and avoidance coping ($\alpha = .69-.79$) which can be further divided into 8-item Distraction and 4-item Social diversion subscales. Frequency of usage of each coping strategy is rated on 5-point scale (1 = never, 5 = very often). The measure was tested with various samples of college students, psychiatric patients, adolescents, and professionals and it repeatedly proved to have good psychometric qualities (Endler & Parker, 1990, 1994; Cosway, Endler, Sadler, & Deary, 2000). For example, the validity of CISS has been assessed by examining the relationship between personality traits and coping strategies. Cosway et al. (2000) found that problem-oriented coping was negatively correlated with Neuroticism (-.23), whereas it was positively correlated with Extraversion (.24). Emotion-focused coping had a significant positive correlation with Neuroticism (.63) and Anxiety (.44). The avoidance coping was most notably correlated with Extraversion (.23).

The scale, however, is considered too long for some practical applications and some researchers have made an effort to develop a shorter version of the CISS. A successful attempt was carried out by Yakhnich (2008) who studied coping mechanisms among immigrants in Israel. She selected 20 items from the original scale according to their loadings on the respective

coping dimensions; 6 items represented problem-focused coping, 6 items represented the emotion-focused coping, and 8 items represented avoidance coping. This short version of the CISS showed reasonable psychometric qualities for all three factors - problem-focused coping ($\alpha = .83-.87$), emotion-focused coping ($\alpha = .82-.83$) and avoidance ($\alpha = .80-.81$), and this version of the scale is the one that was used in this study because it was short and developed using a sample of immigrants.

Cultural Distance Questionnaire. Cultural Distance Questionnaire (CDQ; Babiker, Cox & Miller, 1980; Mumford & Babiker, 1997) was originally designed as a series of open-ended questions that measured respondents' perception of differences between the host culture and the culture of origin. The questionnaire has been revised by Mumford and Babiker (1997) and the revision resulted in 20-item questionnaire with a 3-item response scale. The response scale differs for each item, however, each has a general direction from complete similarity to complete dissimilarity. Questions are presented in pairs with each pair representing one of the ten tested domains. The items compare domains such as language, climate, clothes or education. The scale has repeatedly shown an outstanding reliability with Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$ and item-total correlations ranging from 0.5 to 0.9, except for climate where the correlation was 0.43. Babiker et al. (1980) found that students from Europe, Australia and the United States scored as culturally close to the British (host nationals) at the lower end of the scale, while students from Africa and Asia occupied a more distant position further up the scale. Further, Mumford and Babiker (1997) found that young British volunteers who were on an assignment in non-Western countries had the highest scores on CDI. The scale was originally developed for comparing the culture of the United Kingdom as the host culture and was adjusted to the Canadian environment by replacing the item reference to the United Kingdom by reference to Canada.

The Discriminatory Barriers to Integration Scale. The Discriminatory Barriers to Integration Scale was developed by Grant (2007) and later revised by Grant & Nadin (2007) as a subjective measure of how much a person feels discriminated against. The scale consists of two correlated subscales: perceptions of discrimination against immigrants in the Canadian labour market (DAILM, a four-item subscale) and perceptions of discrimination against immigrants in general (DAIG, a six-item subscale). Both scales showed satisfactory psychometric qualities with Cronbach's α .75 and .84 for DAILM and DAIG respectively (Grant & Nadin, 2007). The validity of the DAILM was supported by the negative correlation (-.16) between perceived discrimination in the labour market and Canadian identity of immigrants and a positive correlation between the DAILM and DAIG (.42). Because this study focuses specifically on career adjustment and integration into the labour market, only the 4-item DAILM subscale was included. Although the subscale is short and has not been used extensively, the decision to use it as a sole measure of perceived discrimination was made due to its previous use with a multicultural sample of immigrants from the same region in Canada.

Social Support Inventory. The Social Support Inventory (SSI; Timmerman et al., 2000) is a measure of global social support that incorporates various components of social support. The scale consists of 20 items that measures four different components of social support – Informative support, Emotional support, Social companionship, and Instrumental support. Each subscale was found to have good internal consistency: Informative support ($\alpha = .83-.86$), Emotional support ($\alpha = .79-.84$), Social companionship ($\alpha = .77-.81$), and Instrumental support ($\alpha = .70-.75$) (Timmerman et al., 2000). The original 5-point response scale (1-much too little support, 2-too little support, 3-enough support, 4-too much social support, and 5-much too much support) has been changed to a completely new 4-point scale. This was done because the original

wording of the anchors was too complicated for persons who speak English as a second language and also due to the obscurity of the scale. The new response anchors were as follows: 1 – no support at all, 4 – a great deal of support, and they appeared to be more comprehensible than the original wording.⁷

Demographics. A mix of open-ended and closed-ended questions was created to measure all the situational factors described in the Career Adjustment Model (Figure 2; Rasouli et al., 2008). Respondents were asked to indicate their age, highest achieved education, their country of origin, number of children and their age, length of stay in Canada, their work experience both from their country of origin and from Canada, their subjective perception of transferability of their skills to Canada, and their current employment situation. A question about available financial resources was also included in this section.

Results

Reliability of the scales. Prior to analyzing the data, all the measurement scales were checked for their reliability. The newly developed scale of Career Management Self-Efficacy (CMSE) was of special interest. Confirmatory factor analysis showed strong and significant inter-correlations among all ten items ranging from .394 to .730 (see Table B 1 in Appendix B). All ten items loaded highly on one factor with factor loadings ranging from .660 to .835 (see Table B 3 in Appendix B). The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was .93. In addition, correlations with the dependent and independent variables were checked to ensure that Career management self-efficacy was a distinct concept from career adjustment. CMSE correlated significantly with

⁷ As a speaker of English as a second language, I used my own comprehension as a "pre-test" of the language difficulty of the questionnaire. Reading the original version of the SSI, I did not understand the response scale anchors and was under impression that I would not be able to answer the SSI with the provided response scale. Hence, in consultation with my advisor, I made the decision to modify the response scale. It seemed to be easier to come up with anchors for a 4-point scale, rather than a 5-point scale. The Results section provides some evidence of reliability and validity of this modified scale, that was generally very good.

both job satisfaction ($r = .41, p < .001$) and occupational stress ($r = .17, p < .10$); however, the correlations were moderate to small which clearly indicated that CMSE and career adjustment were not overlapping concepts. CMSE and career adjustment correlated with extent to which expectations prior immigration were met, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, however, career adjustment (job satisfaction) also correlated with language self-efficacy and social support which were not correlated with CMSE. The only correlation in common between CMSE and occupational stress was the one with emotion-focused coping skills. In addition, CMSE did not correlate significantly with any situational variable while both occupational stress and job satisfaction were correlated with several of them. Clearly, then, the evidence suggests that CMSE and career adjustment are two distinct, yet related, concepts.

Another scale of particular interest was the Social Support Inventory because the response scale of the standardized scale was modified in this study. A factor analysis confirmed that all the items of the inventory were significantly inter-correlated (correlations ranging from .369 to .773) and loaded on only one factor (factor loadings ranged between .598 to .872; see Appendix B

Statistical Analysis). As such, the inventory was treated as a one-factor scale as opposed to the four distinct sub-scales as it was the case in the original study (Timmerman et al., 2001). As might be expected, the SSI correlated significantly positively with problem-focused coping ($r = .20, p < .05$). Of interest is also a marginally significant correlation between social support and cultural distance ($r = .18, p < .10$) as culture is likely to influence social support networks, as well as the quality and other characteristics of social support. These correlations provide some support to the construct validity of the revised social support inventory.

Motivation for economic advancement was calculated as an average score on two items: *How motivated were you to come to live to Canada for economic reasons?* and *How important was economic advancement for your decision to immigrate?*. The two items were significantly positively correlated ($r = .669, p < .001$). The extent to which expectations prior to immigration were met was calculated as an average score of items *To what extent were your expectations for your life in Canada met?* and *To what extent were your expectations for your career in Canada met?*. These items also correlated positively with each other ($r = .554, p < .001$). All the established scales which were used in this study also demonstrated good psychometric qualities: Job satisfaction (Cronbach's $\alpha = .91$), Occupational stress (Cronbach's $\alpha = .92$), Problem-focused coping (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$), Emotion-focused coping (Cronbach's $\alpha = .71$), Avoidance coping (Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$), Perceived discrimination (Cronbach's $\alpha = .77$), Social support (Cronbach's $\alpha = .97$), and Language self-efficacy (Cronbach's $\alpha = .95$). For further information on the scales, see Table 6.

Table 6 Scale overview

Scale	# of items	Range	Mean	S.D.	N	Reliability
Job Satisfaction	18	1-5	3.657	.635	101	.91
Occupational Stress	19	1-9	4.254	.1.526	96	.92
Career Management Self-Efficacy	10	1-7	5.1015	1.139	101	.93
Expectations prior Immigration	2	1-7	4.438	1.400	96	N/A
Economic Motivation	2	1-7	4.831	1.782	101	N/A
Problem-Focused Coping	6	1-5	4.066	.629	101	.84
Emotion Focused-Coping	6	1-5	2.765	.736	101	.71
Avoidance Coping	9	1-5	2.758	.738	101	.80
Cultural Distance	20	1-3	1.784	.403	101	.90
Perceived Discrimination	4	1-5	4.167	7.116	99	.77
Language Self-Efficacy	4	1-7	6.041	1.143	98	.95
Social Support	20	1-4	2.741	.675	96	.97

Preliminary analyses. Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was used to examine whether there were any significant differences between those respondents who answered the

questionnaire online and those who filled out a paper copy. Due to the large number of predictors, a significance level $p < .01$ was used to decrease the chance of making a Type I error. These analyses showed that the groups differed in their language self-efficacy, $F(1,97) = 15.713$, $p < .001$, perceived cultural difference, $F(1,100) = 24.018$, $p < .001$, and perceived transferability of their skills, $F(1,99) = 15.549$, $p < .001$. In particular, women who responded online had higher language self-efficacy, scored lower on the measure of perceived cultural distance and felt that their skills were more transferable to the Canadian labour market than those who responded the paper version of the questionnaire. For further details see Table 7. There was no significant difference between the groups in their scores on the dependent variables, job satisfaction and occupational stress.

A chi square test was performed on the variable, region of origin. The countries of origin were divided into 5 regions – Europe, Central and Latin America, Middle East & North Africa, Asia (excluding Middle East), Africa (excluding the North). The test was significant, $\chi^2(4) = 23.202$, $p < .001$, indicating that there were greater than random differences in the region distribution among those who responded online and those who filled out a paper copy. A closer examination of the data revealed that the major differences applied for women from Europe. Out of the twenty-eight respondents who were originally from a European country, 96.4% (27) responded online. In contrast, approximately half (48.5%) of the respondents from the other regions responded online. For further information see Table 8.

Table 7 Analysis of Variance Results Comparing Online with Paper Questionnaires

Variable	Online		Paper		<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
Language self-efficacy	6.37	.94	5.49	1.25	15.713	1,97	.001
Cultural distance	1.65	.37	2.01	.36	24.018	1,100	.001
Skill transferability	4.33	.50	3.91	.54	15.549	1,99	.001

Table 8 Distribution of Respondents' Regions of Origins

Questionnaire		Europe	Latin America	Middle East & N. Africa	South-East Asia	Africa	$\chi^2(4)$	p
Paper	N	1	5	6	21	3	23.202	.001
	%	3.6	41.7	66.7	56.8	30		
Online	N	27	7	3	16	7		
	%	96.4	58.3	33.3	43.2	70		

Multiple regression analyses were used to examine the relationships among career adjustment predictors and the dependent variables, job satisfaction and occupational stress. Because there were significant differences between the respondents who answered online and those who completed the paper version of the questionnaire, a dummy variable (0 = paper copy, 1 = online) was entered into the first step of these regression analyses in order to control for these differences. As well, the chi-squared analysis demonstrated that there was a significant difference in the region of origin and the mode of the questionnaire. In particular, there was a disproportionate number of women from Europe who responded to the online survey versus the hard copy one while the distributions of online and hard copy survey respondents were relatively equal for women from other regions. Therefore, another dummy variable (1=Europe, 0=other regions) was created and entered at step 1 with the questionnaire mode. The dependent variables, job satisfaction and occupational stress, were significantly negatively correlated ($r = -.34, p < .001$), however, the analyses discussed below showed that each of them were predicted by different variables. Therefore, the effect of the independent variables on each of the dependent variables is reported separately.

Testing the hypotheses.⁸ At first, all 20 predictors from the career adjustment model were entered at once. Unfortunately, due to randomly missing data across most of the variables,

⁸ This study was exploratory in its nature and as such, some statistics that reached only a marginal level of significance, $p < .10$, are reported in the following text. These statistics should, however, be interpreted with a great caution as some of the "significant" results could be Type I errors. Due to the newness of the career adjustment

the sample size was reduced to 72 and the model did not yield predictors which would account for a significant proportion of unique variance in the dependent variables (See Table B 7 and Table B 8 in Appendix B for details on this analysis). Consequently, those situational variables that correlated with the dependent variable were entered as a first block of independent variables into a hierarchical regression analysis. Then those psychological variables that correlated with the dependent variable were entered into the regression equation as a second block. Social support, as the only social predictor, was included with the psychological variables in this block. The rationale for this analysis strategy was that the social and psychological variables were likely to be more proximal predictors of job satisfaction and occupational stress than the mostly demographic, situational variables.

The dummy variable, region of origin, did not correlate significantly with either of the dependent variable and was dropped from further analyses. There was also no significant correlation between the dummy variable, questionnaire mode, and occupational stress, so I did not control for this variable in the subsequent regression analyses. This dummy variable did, however, correlate with job satisfaction and was controlled for in this regression analyses by entering it as an extra and first step.

Job Satisfaction. Regression of the situational factors on job satisfaction was examined first. Many situational factors did not correlate significantly with the dependent variable and were eliminated from further analyses. In the end, only questionnaire mode, age at arrival in Canada, personal income, years of professional experience from the country of origin, and years of professional experience from Canada correlated significantly with the dependent variable (N=86) and were kept in the regression equation at the second step. These variables, however,

model and because this is the first time it has been tested in a quantitative study, these statistics are reported for interest and to provide directions for further research. The results, therefore, need to be replicated and elaborated upon in future cross-cultural studies.

did not account for significant portion of variance in the dependent variable. At the third step, psychological variables which significantly correlated with the job satisfaction were included in the regression analysis. This decreased the sample size ($N=81$), yet the model was significant as the block of psychological variables accounted for additional significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction, $\Delta R^2 = .207$, $F(6,83) = 3.57$, $p < .01$. However, the age at arrival was significantly positively correlated with professional experience from the country of origin ($r = .87$, $p < .001$) and it had a positive, though non-significant, beta weight (.146) and negative correlation coefficient (-.144), also non-significant. It was suspected, therefore, that this variable acted as a suppressor and it was deleted from the analysis. The resulting model showed the psychological variables still accounted for a significant increase in the variance on the third step, $\Delta R^2 = .296$, $F(10,83) = 3.069$, $p < .003$. Career management self-efficacy was the only unique significant predictor of job satisfaction, $\beta = .324$, $p < .05$. For further details see Table 9.⁹

Occupational stress. A similar procedure was repeated with occupational stress. Only the number of children, age of youngest child, and education obtained in Canada were significantly correlated with the dependent variable. These variables accounted for 11.9% of variance in occupational stress at the first step and the model was significant at $p < .01$ level (See Table 10). None of the variables was a significant predictor except education achieved in Canada which was only marginally significant, $\beta = .198$, $p = .052$. In the second step, the only two psychological variables which correlated significantly with occupational stress (career management self-efficacy and emotion-focused coping) were entered. The sample size remained the same ($N=94$) and the model was significant (See Table 11). The highest education achieved in Canada was

⁹ The dummy variable questionnaire was significantly correlated with job satisfaction and its beta weight was marginally significant at $p < .10$, therefore, interaction terms were examined on the fourth step of the regression. The analysis did not yield any significant interaction terms and it is thus not reported in this section. Further details on the analysis may be reviewed in Table B 9 in Appendix B.

the only significant predictor, $\beta = .198$, $p < .05$, however, career management self-efficacy reached marginal significance at $p < .01$.

Table 9 Job Satisfaction Regressed on the Independent Variables (N=84)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² _{change} F	R ² F
<i>Step 1</i>				
Questionnaire	.19*	.19	3.7% $F(1,3) = 3.13$	3.7% $F(1,83) = 3.13$
<i>Step 2</i>				
Income	.23*	.14	5.3% $F(3,83) = 1.52$	8.9% $F(4,83) = 1.94$
Work experience country of origin	-.17 ⁺	-.14		
Work experience Canada	.19*	.02		
<i>Step 3</i>				
Career management self-efficacy	.41***	.32*	20.7%** $F(6,83) = 3.57$	29.6%** $F(10,83) = 3.07$
Expectations prior immigration	.32**	.13		
Problem-focused coping	.24*	-.06		
Emotion-focused coping	-.25*	-.07		
Language self- efficacy	.24*	.13		
Social support	.17 ⁺	.15		

⁺ Years of professional experience from the country of origin and social support were only marginally significant, $p < .01$.

Note: A higher number indicates higher income, more years of professional experience in the country of origin and in Canada, higher career management self-efficacy and extent to which expectations prior immigration were met, higher engagement in problem-focused and emotion-focused coping skills, higher language self-efficacy and levels of social support. Questionnaire is a dummy variable (1 = online, 0 = paper copy). Significance tests for the correlations and the standardized regression weights are 1-tailed.

Table 10 Occupational Stress Regressed on Situational Variables (N=94)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² F
Number of children	-.27**	-.16	11.9%** $F(1,80) = 3.03$
Age of youngest child	.25**	.11	
Education from Canada	.25**	.20 ⁺	

⁺ A marginally significant predictor, $p = .052$.

Note: A higher number indicates a higher number of children, younger age of children, and higher achieved education from Canada. Significance tests for the correlations and the standardized regression weights are 1-tailed.

Table 11 Occupational Stress Regressed on the Independent Variables (N=94)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² change F	R ² F
<u>Step 1</u>				
Number of children	-.27**	-.16		
Age of youngest child	.25**	.11	11.9%**	11.9%**
Education from Canada	.25**	.20*	$F(3,93) = 4.067$	$F(3,93) = 4.067$
<u>Step 2</u>				
Career management self-efficacy	-.17 ⁺	-.17 ⁺		
Emotion-focused coping	.27**	.13	6.3%* $F(2,93) = 3.39$	18.2%** $F(5,93) = 3.93$

⁺ Career management self-efficacy correlation coefficient was marginally significant at $p < .01$ and its beta weight was also marginally significant at $p < .01$.

Note: A higher number indicates higher number of children, younger age of children, higher achieved education from Canada, higher career management self-efficacy and greater engagement in emotion-focused coping strategies. Significance tests for the correlations and the standardized regression weights are 1-tailed.

The regression analyses just described only identified two significant predictors even though a sizable proportion of the variance was accounted for in the dependent variables. Specifically, career management self-efficacy was a significant predictor of job satisfaction and a marginally significant predictor of occupational stress, and highest education achieved in Canada was a significant predictor of occupational stress. This is not too surprising given the significant inter-correlations among most of the independent variables (see Table 12 through Table 14).

Tests of the Hypotheses. Hypothesis 2 predicts that the extent to which expectations prior immigration were met will be positively related to career adjustment. This hypothesis was supported as the extent to which expectations prior immigration were met was correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .32, p < .01$). However, no significant relationship with occupational stress was found.

Hypothesis 3 states that higher language self-efficacy will be related to higher career adjustment. This hypothesis was supported by a positive correlation between job satisfaction and language self-efficacy ($r = .24, p < .01$), but there was no significant relationship between language self-efficacy and occupational stress.

Hypothesis 4 states that the career adjustment of immigrant women is positively related to career management self-efficacy. In support of this hypothesis, the results show that career management self-efficacy is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .41, p < .001$), and negatively, albeit marginally, with occupational stress ($r = -.17, p < .10$). That is, career management self efficacy is more strongly related to career adjustment as measured by job satisfaction than the lack of occupational stress.

According to the hypothesis 5, problem focused coping strategies will be more positively related to career adjustment than emotion focused or avoidance coping strategies. This hypothesis was strongly supported in the current study. Problem-focused coping was positively correlated ($r = .24, p < .05$) with job satisfaction, but not with occupational stress. Conversely, emotion-focused coping was negatively correlated ($r = -.25, p < .05$) with job satisfaction and positively ($r = .27, p < .01$) with occupational stress. There was no significant relationship between the avoidance coping strategies and either of the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 9 predicted that previous job experience will be positively related to career adjustment only if immigrant women can transfer the skills from these experiences to the Canadian labour market. This hypothesis was only partially supported. Work experience from Canada was positively correlated to job satisfaction ($r = .19, p < .05$) while professional experience from the country of origin was correlated negatively, albeit marginally with job satisfaction ($r = -.17, p < .10$). Neither of the variables correlated significantly with occupational stress.¹⁰

Hypothesis 11 presumes that a greater availability of financial resources will be positively related to career adjustment. Due to the ‘male preference’ (Iredale, 2005; anecdotal stories of immigrant settlement workers), this study distinguished between personal and family income to assess whether financial resources within a family could also influence career adjustment of immigrant women. Only personal income correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .23, p < .05$), there was no relationship between family income and either of the dependent variables or between personal income and occupational stress.

Lastly, hypothesis 14 states that the strength of immigrant women’s social support network will be positively related to career adjustment. Indeed, social support was positively, albeit marginally, correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .17, p < .10$). However, it was completely unrelated to occupational stress.

Several hypotheses were not supported by the results of this study. Hypotheses 1a and 1b states that the higher motivation for economic advancement through immigration will be

¹⁰ This study also measured subjective perception of one’s skills transferability to the Canadian labour market. However, this variable did not correlated significantly with either of the dependent variables and so it was dropped from further analyses in favour of work experience from the country of origin and from Canada. In this way, the large number of variables in the regression model could be slightly reduced.

positively related to career advancement, but motivation for economic advancement did not correlate significantly with either of the dependent variables.

Based on extensive research done on cultural distance and cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Mumford & Babiker, 1997; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992), hypothesis 6 stated that higher perceived cultural distance will be negatively related to career adjustment. However, this independent variable was not significantly correlated with either job satisfaction or occupational stress. Similarly, hypothesis 7 presumed that subjectively perceived discrimination will be negatively related to career adjustment. Nevertheless, this study did not find support for this hypothesis as perceived discrimination did not correlate with either of the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 8a predicted that parenthood will be negatively correlated to career adjustment and hypothesis 8b specified that immigrant women with children of 3 years of age or younger will experience the lowest level of career adjustment. Surprisingly though, the number of children correlated negatively with occupational stress ($r = -.28, p < .01$), and the age of the youngest child was related positively to occupational stress ($r = .26, p < .01$). That is, the more children an immigrant woman has the less occupational stress she experiences and the older her children are the more occupational stress she reports. Clearly, these findings are in the opposite direction than predicted and are rather surprising.

Hypotheses 10a to 10c state that education from the country of origin and Canada will be positively related to career adjustment but that the education from Canada will be more positively related to career adjustment than the education from the country of origin. However, unexpectedly, education from Canada was positively correlated with occupational stress ($r = .25,$

$p < .01$) and was not correlated positively with job satisfaction. There was no significant relationship between education from the country of origin and either of the dependent variables.

Hypothesis 12 states that length of stay in Canada will be positively related to Career adjustment. This study, however, did not find support for this hypothesis as the length of stay in Canada was not significantly correlated with either of the dependent variables.

Lastly, hypothesis 13 predicted that the age of an immigrant woman at the time of her arrival to Canada will be negatively related to career adjustment, but this hypothesis was not supported in this study as the age at arrival to Canada did not correlate significantly with either of the dependent variables.

In sum, these results show some support for many of the hypotheses. The correlates of job satisfaction and occupational stress are quite different, however (see Table 12 through Table 14). The only common correlates are the emotion-focused coping (negatively correlated with job satisfaction, positively correlated with occupational stress) and career management self-efficacy (positively correlated with job satisfaction and negatively, albeit marginally, correlated with occupational stress). Job satisfaction is uniquely related to income and work experience both from Canada and from the country of origin, as well as to the extent to which expectations prior immigration were met, problem-focused coping, language self-efficacy, and social support; whereas occupational stress is uniquely related to parenthood and education attained in Canada. Although this is correlational data, this pattern of results suggests that these two measures capture quite different aspects of career adjustment.¹¹

¹¹ Given that only two of the independent variables were significant unique predictors of the dependent variables, presumably because there are so many independent variables specified by the model and because their variances overlap considerably, a stepwise regression was run to identify the best predictors on statistical grounds. However, these analyses rather confirmed the previous findings and nothing new was gained out of them. See Appendix B for details on the stepwise regressions.

Relationships among independent variables. Despite avoiding severe multicollinearity in the data set (Tolerance values ranging from .154 to .789, VIF values ranging from 1.268 to 6.481), there were significant inter-correlations among the independent variables which complicated the analysis and the search for significant predictors of each of the dependent variables. Not surprisingly, career management self-efficacy was significantly positively correlated with the extent to which expectations prior immigration were met ($r = .615, p < .001$), problem-focused coping skills ($r = .588, p < .001$), and highest education achieved in Canada ($r = .237, p < .05$). In contrast, this variable was negatively correlated with emotion-focused coping ($r = -.458, p < .001$). As a result, respondents who scored high on problem-focused coping, low on emotion-focused coping, had their expectations prior immigration met, and completed education in Canada scored higher on the career management self-efficacy scale. Further, the extent to which one's expectations prior to immigration were met was significantly related to problem-focused coping ($r = .269, p < .05$), perceived discrimination ($r = -.262, p < .05$), age at arrival to Canada ($r = -.215, p < .05$), the number of children (parenthood; $r = -.327, p < .01$), the age of the youngest child ($r = .238, p < .05$), personal annual income ($r = .314, p < .01$), and length of professional work in country of origin ($r = -.199, p < .05$). Consequently, the expectations of immigrant women are more likely to be met if they arrive to Canada at younger age, have fewer and older children, high personal income, minimal professional work experiences from their country of origin, feel less discriminated, and engage predominantly in problem-focused coping strategies.

Also, problem-focused coping strategies seem to be an important factor relevant to many other predictors used in this study. For example, as well as career management self-efficacy and the extent to which expectations were met, problem-focused coping was also significantly

correlated with emotion-focused coping ($r = -.453, p < .001$), language self-efficacy ($r = .217, p < .05$), length of stay in Canada ($r = .254, p < .05$), the highest education achieved in Canada ($r = .212, p < .05$), and length of professional work in Canada ($r = .318, p < .01$). Interestingly, problem-focused coping was correlated with the questionnaire mode ($r = .308, p < .01$), indicating that women who responded online also tended to use more problem-focused strategies to cope with difficulties.

In fact, women who responded to the online survey had also greater language self-efficacy and perceived smaller cultural distance between their culture of origin and Canada, Further relationships among the variables can be reviewed in Table 12 through Table 14.

Table 12 Correlations between the Dependent Variables and the Psychological Variables (N=72)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Job Satisfaction													
2 Occupational Stress	-.339**												
3 Questionnaire Mode	.197*	-.140											
4 Career Management Self-Efficacy	.383***	-.132	.095										
5 Extent to Which Expectations Prior Immigration Were Met	.427***	-.071	-.032	.615***									
6 Motivation for Economic Advancement	-.082	.059	-.142	.150	.031								
7 Problem-Focused Coping	.297**	-.037	.308**	.588***	.269*	-.054							
8 Emotion-Focused Coping	-.215*	.315**	-.207*	-.458***	.071	.063	-.453***						
9 Avoidance Coping	-.143	.137	.014	.050	.068	.135	.004	-.002					
10 Cultural Distance	.065	-.061	-.394***	.106	.023	.199*	-.066	-.072	.090				
11 Perceived Discrimination	-.206*	.156 ⁺	-.095	-.097	.262*	.051	-.045	.125	.034	-.046			
12 Social Support	.149	-.042	.170 ⁺	-.053	.049	-.158 ⁺	.195*	.030	.051	-.180 ⁺	-.060		
13 Language Self-Efficacy	.186 ⁺	.047	.347***	.127	.011	-.189 ⁺	.217*	-.175 ⁺	-.011	-.112	-.029	.090	

* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$ ⁺ Marginally significant at $p \leq .10$

Table 13 Correlations between the Dependent Variable and the Situational Variables (N=72)

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1 Job Satisfaction													
2 Occupational Stress	-.339**												
3 Questionnaire Mode	.197*	-.140											
4 Age at arrival	-.111	.013	-.035										
5 Number of Children	-.046	-.279**	.015	.285**									
6 Age of Youngest Child	.011	.255**	-.028	-.080	-	.684***							
7 Length of Stay in Canada	.074	-.088	.306**	-.435***	.107	.036							
8 Education from Country of Origin	.086	-.086	.188+	.284**	.096	-.202*	-	.441***					
9 Education from Canada	.222*	.200+	.078	-.218*	-.227*	.223*	-.168 ⁺	.098					
10 Personal Income	.265*	-.150	.194 ⁺	-.390***	-.247*	.131	.432***	-.094	.267*				
11 Family Income	.091	-.063	.145	-.285**	-.056	-.050	.295**	.055	-.034	.636***			
12 Experience from Country of Origin	-.095	-.059	.041	.854***	.192 ⁺	-.038	-	-.254*	-.256*	-.338**	-.128		
13 Experience from Canada	.192 ⁺	-.119	.330**	-.355***	-.024	.135	.858***	-.346***	.182 ⁺	.532***	.312**	-.273 ⁺	

* $p \leq .05$; ** $p \leq .01$; *** $p \leq .001$

⁺ Marginally significant at $p \leq .10$

Table 14 Correlations between Situational and Psychological Independent Variables

		Career Management Self-Efficacy	Expectations ^a	Motivation for Economic Advancement	Problem- Focused Coping	Emotion- Focused Coping	Avoidance Coping	Cultural Distance	Perceived Discrimination	Social Support	Language Self- Efficacy
Age at arrival	Correlation	.050	-.265*	.144	.100	.067	-.060	-.012	.330***	-.089	-.167
	N	94	89	94	94	94	94	94	94	92	94
Number of children	Correlation	-.059	-.274**	.107	.091	-.206*	-.227*	.219*	.002	-.082	-.005
	N	98	93	98	98	98	98	98	98	96	97
Age of youngest children	Correlation	.099	.184	-.047	.018	.142	.221*	-.090	.051	.065	.001
	N	98	93	98	98	98	98	98	98	96	97
Length of stay in Canada	Correlation	.045	.047	-.257**	.195 ⁺	-.167	-.064	-.093	-.132	.050	.373***
	N	101	96	101	101	101	101	101	99	96	98
Education country of origin	Correlation	-.075	-.229*	.051	-.022	-.012	-.127	-.120	.087	-.120	.096
	N	98	93	98	98	98	98	98	98	95	97
Education in Canada	Correlation	.121	.082	-.115	.199*	.060	.032	-.017	-.055	.001	.157
	N	99	94	99	99	99	99	99	99	96	98
Personal income	Correlation	.070	.299**	-.282**	.145	-.088	-.075	-.241*	-.210*	-.089	.165
	N	95	91	95	95	95	95	95	95	92	94
Family income	Correlation	-.052	.108	-.309**	.020	.051	-.170	-.339***	.071	-.065	.202 ⁺
	N	90	86	90	90	90	90	90	90	87	90
Prof. work country of origin	Correlation	.125	-.282**	.143	.203*	.103	.042	-.017	.204*	-.088	-.162
	N	97	92	97	97	97	97	97	95	93	94
Prof. work in Canada	Correlation	.124	.160	-.255*	.239*	-.140	-.140	-.148	-.176 ⁺	.054	.356***
	N	97	92	97	97	97	97	97	95	92	94

^aExtent to which expectations prior immigration were met

* p ≤ .05; ** p ≤ .01; *** p ≤ .001

⁺ marginally significant at p ≤ .10

Discussion

This thesis tested the revised model of career adjustment for immigrant women to Canada developed by Rasouli and her colleagues (2008). To my knowledge, this thesis was the first quantitative study of this model and, as such, it was designed to examine a broad range of situational and psychological factors and determine which of them significantly predicted the successful career adjustment of immigrant women. Career adjustment was conceptualized as a form of economic and, more broadly, sociocultural adjustment, two commonly noted components of cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Aycan & Berry, 1996; Berry, 1997; Ward & Kennedy, 1994, Ward & Rana-Deuba, 1999).

Rasouli et al. defined career adjustment based on Black's (1988, as cited in Rasouli et al., 2008, p. 49) description as "one's psychological satisfaction and comfort toward different aspects of her or his career" while career was thought of as "a sequence of paid employment positions occupied by a person over a life-time". Leong (2001) studied career adjustment of Asian Americans as measured by job satisfaction and occupational stress. This conceptualization of career adjustment was built on Berry's (1980, as cited in Leong, 2001) acculturation theory and assumed that better acculturated Asian Americans would experience higher job satisfaction and lower occupational stress than less acculturated individuals pursuing separationist acculturation strategy.¹² Both authors assumed that higher acculturation leads to a higher career adjustment and that a career that is compatible with the previous qualifications and work experience of immigrants in their country of origin contributes to their psychological adjustment and well-being (Aycan & Berry, 1996; Rasouli et al., 2008).

¹² Individuals pursuing a separationist acculturation strategy remain strongly identified with the values of their original cultures and despite frequent contact with the host culture, they choose not to accept these values, practices and behaviours.

This study adopted the same approach to career adjustment, conceptualizing it as a level of job satisfaction and occupational stress in the respondents' current or most recent employment. In contrast to both Rasouli et al. and Leong who defined acculturation in terms of Berry's 4-category typology (Berry, 1997), however, this study adopted the less categorical approach of Ward and her colleagues (Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1994) who distinguish between psychological and social components of cross-cultural adjustment and who have examined a broad range of predictors such as cultural distance, length of stay in the host country, or education obtained in the host country. In the model of sociocultural adaptation, these variables predict the acquisition of desired, culture-specific behaviours and knowledge. Further, many of these variables are used in Rasouli's model as predictors of career adjustment (Rasouli et al., 2008). Indeed, the overlapping predictors in these two models demonstrate how career adjustment can be an important component of cross-cultural adjustment.

The model of career adjustment was largely supported by this study as the regression analyses identified a number of correlates which accounted for a significant portion of variance in both job satisfaction and occupational stress. In particular, job satisfaction was correlated with career management self-efficacy, problem-focused and emotion-focused coping skills, extent to which expectations prior immigration were met, language self-efficacy, social support, personal income, work experience from Canada, and work experience from the country of origin. When used as predictors, these variables explain 29.6 % of variance in job satisfaction which is a relatively large proportion for a social psychological study. In contrast, occupational stress was correlated with emotion-focused coping, career management self-efficacy, parenthood (number of children and their age), and education attained in Canada, and together these variables predicted 18.2 % of variance in occupational stress. Interestingly, this means that job

satisfaction and occupational stress were related to a different set of variables except for career management self-efficacy and emotion-focused coping. In the following section, therefore, I discuss the results for each separately.

Predictors of Career Adjustment

Career management self-efficacy was the only significant predictor of job satisfaction as well as being a marginally significant negative predictor of occupational stress. This finding was in support of hypothesis 4 and it implies that when immigrant women feel a sense of efficacy over their career decisions, they are more able to make a successful career adjustment in response to the different labour market conditions in their adopted country. To my knowledge this relationship has never been demonstrated before. In fact, career management self-efficacy has never been measured before as it is a construct recently created by Rasouli et al. (2008) in her model of career adjustment. The construct refers to the degree to which individuals are confident that they can gather information about their interests and skills, identify career goals, and engage in career strategies that increase the probability of achieving those career goals. Theoretically, career management self-efficacy is a specific component of general self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986) and the items for the CMSE scale were adapted from a measure of occupational self-efficacy (Rigotti et al, 2008). Thus, when examining the role of CMSE as a predictor of career adjustment, it is important to argue that the CMSE scale is not just another measure of career adjustment. Fortunately, the evidence from this thesis shows that the CMSE measure has construct validity. Specifically, it suggests that this measure has good discriminant validity because it did not correlated strongly with the two indices of career adjustment (See Table 12). Further this measure correlates with different variables than either of the dependent variables measuring career adjustment and, as expected, is related to problem-solving coping – a coping

style that is used when a person feel that their actions can make a real difference in the face of a stressful event. Thus the results from this study point both to the usefulness of this construct as a predictor and to the validity of the CMSE scale when considering the career adjustment of immigrant women.

According to previous research (Lee & Westwood, 1996; Mak, 1991; Rasouli et al., 2008), immigrants may not know culturally appropriate employment seeking skills such as resume writing and interviewing. They also lack knowledge about how to effectively search for jobs, explore career options and opportunities, or access and use career information. Acquiring this knowledge is, however, essential for their successful career adjustment. Career adjustment management self-efficacy, however, conceptualizes these findings in psychological terms by stating that immigrants need to have the subjective perception that they have acquired all the knowledge and skills necessary for successful job search and labour market integration; and it is this feeling of self-efficacy that the results suggest is the best predictor of career adjustment.

Perhaps, a high level of career-management self-efficacy motivates immigrant women to “target higher”, i.e., to apply for more ambitious jobs requiring higher qualification. They may also be more resourceful generally which should lead to even greater feelings of self-efficacy in terms of managing their careers. As well, it is likely that immigrant women are more confident about their ability to achieve their desired goals when they have a high level of career management self efficacy, and this confidence may consequently lead them to become more successfully integrated into the labour market. Finally, a high level of career management self-efficacy may serve as a ‘buffer’ against occupational stress. It is important that future research explores these implications and, more generally, the role of career management self-efficacy in the career adjustment of immigrant women. Potentially, this knowledge could prove useful to

immigrant-serving agencies. For example, employment counselling for immigrant women could focus on increasing the career management self-efficacy of immigrant women in addition to teaching them culturally specific job skills.

Social support in this study predicted (albeit marginally) job satisfaction of immigrant women, in support of hypothesis 14. This finding was not surprising given the previous research. Indeed, social support is a well researched phenomenon in immigrant adjustment studies. Social support has been found to be an important predictor of both sociocultural and psychological adjustment in Ward et al.'s cross-cultural research (e.g., Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a) and a factor influencing the rate of adaptation and assimilation into the host society (Grieco, 1998). From a health and social work perspective, social support is seen as a factor influencing physical health and psychological well-being of immigrants both directly and indirectly (Aroian, 1992; Simich et al., 2005). Social networks are also recognized as a source of information about employment opportunities (Hagan, 1998).

Some researchers distinguish among different components of social support (e.g., instrumental vs. emotional; Aroian, 1992) or sources of support (Aroian, 1992; Black & Gregersen, 1991; Timmerman et al., 2000). Both the source of support and the components of social support most needed tend to change over time (Hagan, 1998). Some studies (e.g., Black & Gregersen, 1991; Timmerman et al., 2000) found that support from a spouse was the most important social support, while others (e.g., Aroian, 1992; Jasinskaja-Lahti et al., 2006; Ward & Kennedy, 1992, 1993a, 1993b) reported co-nationals as the most important source of social support. The circumstances and characteristics of migration influence the strength and density of one's social networks (Aroian, 1992; Grieco 1998). Hagan (1998) also suggests that social support assume different forms and functions for men and women; in particular, that immigrant

women tend to have less mature and resourceful networks and, therefore, tend to have less opportunities to benefit from their respective ethnic networks.

Due to the complexity of the phenomenon, this study focused only on the strength of social support networks of immigrant women measured by the frequency and availability of social support in diverse concrete situations. The study indicated that immigrant women tend to experience higher satisfaction with their current employment if they have stronger social support networks. These women could either belong to larger cultural and ethnic groups that provide social support to their members, or they could have secured employment that provides them with additional support from their coworkers. In addition, a stable, secure employment situation may assist these women to bring family members to Canada which can further extend and strengthen their social networks. There is clearly a great variety in the form and characteristics of social support and their effects on successful adjustment. Social support, especially its qualitative nature, may also be highly variable based on culture. To address this complex issue was, however, beyond the scope of this thesis. Future research should thus direct its focus on both qualitative and quantitative social support and its cultural context, as well as the sources and components of social support in different phases of cross-cultural adjustment and if (and how) these differ for immigrant men and women.

The highest achieved education from Canada was the only unique significant predictor of occupational stress. These results were surprising, however, because, counter to Hypothesis 10b, they suggest that immigrant women educated in Canada experience more occupational stress in their jobs. Hypothesis 10b assumes that higher achieved education in Canada would lead to securing a better job which would decrease rather than increase occupational stress. However, if an immigrant woman is not successful in obtaining a job commensurate with her training and

education, especially when a part of her education comes from a Canadian institution, that situation likely leads to a greater frustration (see Grant, 2008) for further information on the frustration of immigrants with credentialing problems). And if she is forced to accept or stay in a low skill job which is completely unrelated to her upgraded education from Canada, occupational stress may increase as a result of these factors.

Another explanation could be that women who were able to obtain a Canadian education were also able to secure a job with greater responsibility that puts greater pressure on them which results in a higher occupational stress. About two thirds of the women provided a brief description of their current jobs, however, the study did not ask for a description of jobs they held in their country of origin. It thus was not possible to compare whether their career position improved, remain the same, or worsen. Nevertheless, research on labour market integration of immigrants show that immigrants hold less responsible and lower level jobs than they used to hold in their countries of origin (e.g., Essess, 2006; Li, 2003). Future research should explore in greater detail the relationship between education, employment achievements, job satisfaction, and occupational stress as the path between education and career adjustment is likely moderated by other factors.

Correlates of Job Satisfaction

Turning to the correlates of job satisfaction first, the results support hypothesis 2 and show that the extent to which expectations prior to immigration were met related job satisfaction. That is the more the expectations were met, the more immigrant women felt satisfied with their current or most recent employment. This finding supports results from extensive research on the relationship between immigrants' expatriate and repatriate expectations and adjustment (e.g., Black & Gregersen, 1990; Martin et al., 1995; Segal and Maydas; 2005; Simish, Beiser, Stewart

and Mwakarimba; 2005; Stroh, Gregersen, & Black, 1998). For example, Segal and Maydas (2005) and Simish et al. (2005) assert that immigrants' expectations are frequently significantly different from reality and that this dissonance results in disappointment and frustration which further hinders successful acculturation. Rasouli et al. (2008), on the other hand, suggested that immigrants who hold realistic expectations prepare themselves for a certain level of difficulty in their new country which further contributes to their successful adjustment. Consequently, immigrants with too low expectations should be equally satisfied with their post-immigration situation as those who had realistic expectations because both groups were prepared to face difficulties. Martin et al. (1995) found in their research of American students sojourning in different countries that expectations could be violated negatively or positively (i.e. undermet or overmet) and that expectations that were violated positively (the reality was better than expected) led to a positive evaluation of the sojourn. This finding was, however, contradicted by Zlobina et al. (2006) who insisted, based on the results of their study of multiple immigrant groups in Spain, that expectations prior to immigration needed to be at an optimal level, i.e. not too optimistic and not too pessimistic.

In a classical publication on cross-cultural adjustment, Furnham and Bochner (1986) stated that migrants have a set of expectations related to different aspects of their life in their new country. The important question then is which expectations about what aspects of life in the host culture are more important for adjustment. In this study of career adjustment, I was interested in this question, but was only able to measure the expectations of immigrant women about their career after immigration. Therefore, future research should examine this question more thoroughly. As well, it needs to be acknowledged that the expectations that I measured were retrospective and may have not been recalled and rated accurately by the immigrant women. In

other words, the reported expectations may have been contaminated by their current career situation and life circumstances.

In support of hypothesis 3, language self-efficacy was positively related to job satisfaction; i.e., the more immigrant women felt confident in their English skills the more satisfied they were with their jobs. Language ability repeatedly comes out as one of the most important predictors of cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Kang 2006; Masgoret, 2006) and some research demonstrated that it has a crucial impact also on economic adaptation (e.g., Foroutan, 2008; Potocky-Tripodi, 2003). This finding is not surprising as it is difficult to imagine someone who cannot communicate with the members of the host society integrating into that society. The question then is how much are the different areas of immigrants' lives affected by their language knowledge, and what particular language skills are most needed. For example, in a test of a model of the economic adaptation of refugees, each unit increase in English speaking ability approximately doubled the odds of employment in a sample of Hmong, Russian and Somali refugees in Minnesota, United States (Potocky-Tripodi, 2003). Interestingly, in the same study, English speaking ability was a stronger predictor of employment status than English reading ability.

In this thesis, language self-efficacy was treated as a scale and the regression analyses were run with an average score across the four language domains. That was because of the way the language scale is normally used (Bourhis, 2004, 2008) and also because of the already high number of predictors specified by the theoretical model. However, an additional analysis was run to see if there was support for Potocky-Tripodi's (2003) finding. When broken down into language domains, English comprehension, English reading skills, and English writing skills were all significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .20, p < .05$, $r = .26, p < .01$, $r = .24, p$

< .05 respectively) and English speaking ability was correlated marginally ($r = .18, p = .056$). None of the beta weights was significant though. This study does not seem to find any of the domains more important than the others and, therefore, I suggest that language programs for immigrants continue to focus on all four domains unless future findings strongly support the findings from Potocky-Tripodi's research.

Hypothesis 5 was largely supported as emotion-focused coping was, together with career adjustment self-efficacy, the only factor that correlated with both components of career adjustment. As expected, it was negatively related to job satisfaction and positively related to occupational stress. Clearly then, emotion-focused coping strategies are not adaptive in the context of foreign labour market integration as immigrant women who use them tend to experience less job satisfaction and higher levels of occupational stress. This finding is supported by an extensive body of previous research (e.g., Blalock & Joiner, 2000; Bryant & Harvey, 1995; Chataway & Berry, 1989; Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Ward & Kennedy 2001), which, however, does not provide a clear explanation as to why emotion-focused coping is not an adaptive strategy. A study of coping strategies in a workplace conducted on nurses suggests that the choice of certain coping skills over others stems from individual differences in occupational attributional style, defined as "ways in which positive and negative events at work are interpreted and explained" (Welbourne, Eggerth, Hartlet, Andrew, & Sanchez, 2007, p. 313). In particular, a positive occupational attributional style was associated with greater use of problem solving/cognitive restructuring coping skills and less use of avoidance coping skills to deal with workplace stress.

In the context of career adjustment, it may be that immigrant women with predominantly emotion-focused coping skills tend to attribute initial lack of success in a job search, or not being

able to obtain a desired position or promotion to different factors than women who predominantly engage in problem-focused coping. Their emotional reactions may be more intensive and, if this reaction is self-directed, could lead to the development of adverse health symptoms such as depression or insomnia (e.g., Morin, Rodrigue, Ivers, 2003; Seiffge-Krenke & Klessinger, 2000). These attributions may also have unfavourable effects on their career management self-efficacy as these two variables were strongly negatively inter-correlated.

As expected, problem-focused coping was positively related to job satisfaction and this finding only confirms the extensive literature on coping strategies and cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Chataway & Berry, 1989; Herman & Tetrick, 2009; Selman, 1999, 2001; Ward & Kennedy 2001). In these studies, problems-focused coping skills were judged to be the most adaptive in cross-cultural adjustment. Indeed, the more immigrant women in this study engaged in problem-focused coping strategies and the less they used emotion-focused coping strategies the more satisfaction they reported with their current or most recent employment. However, it could also be that women who are more satisfied with their jobs tend to have more resources to solve problems and thus score higher on the problem-focused coping scale.

As discussed above, emotion-focused coping appears to be maladaptive and may be related to personal attributional styles (Welbourne et al., 2007). Consequently, it may be that problem-focused coping elicits attributions that strengthen one's self-confidence and career management self-efficacy. Problem-focused coping implies a more rational approach that immigrant women may use to justify potential success and failure in the host labour market. For example, one of the items on the problem-focused coping scale is *Work to understand the situation* (as opposed to *Blame myself for having got into this situation* as an example of an emotion-focused item). These justifications will likely be somewhat more precise than those

coloured by an emotion-focused coping style. The positive attributional style used in the situation may then contribute to building further self-confidence and resilience toward initial job-related failures. In sum, if a woman pursues positive attributional style, she tends to view causes of positive events as internal, stable, and global (as opposed to situation-specific), and causes of negative events as external, temporary, and situation-specific (Welbourne et al., 2007). In contrast, a woman whose primary attributional style is negative will view positive events as being caused by external, unstable, and situation-specific factors and negative events as stemming from internal, stable, and global factors. So while an immigrant woman with positive attributional style who cannot secure an employment after her arrival may attribute this initial lack of success to current economic situation or the season of the year, her counterpart with negative attributional style may think that it is because her qualification is not sufficient to meet the standards of the Canadian labour market.

Avoidance coping did not correlate with either of the dependent variables and so I suggest focusing future research of immigrant women's career adjustment on the two broadly-researched coping strategies – problem-focused and emotion-focused.

Previous work experience was related to job satisfaction and this finding supported hypothesis 9. However, the length of professional experience from Canada appears to be somewhat more important than the length of professional experience from the country of origin as the former correlated significantly positively with job satisfaction while the latter reached only a marginal level of significance. Immigrant employment counsellors¹³ testify that a great emphasis in current employment programs for immigrants is put on teaching them to do things in a Canadian way. Employers' preference for workers who will fit well into the organization in terms of their personality is well known among immigrant-serving counsellors and was

¹³ Personal conversations.

supported also in a study of Asian American and Hispanic American workers conducted by Leong (2001). Leong found that those ethnic Americans who were acculturated (pursued integration or assimilation strategy in Berry's typology), were also ranked higher in performance rating by their direct supervisors. Given that performance data are used for pay raises and promotion (Leong, 2001), high level of accultured (host-society appropriate) behaviour may be a significant factor in the career adjustment of immigrant workers. Consequently, it is not surprising that Canadian work experience, which allows immigrants to learn more about the Canadian work environment, would be more valued and would predict career adjustment more than work experience attained in the country of origin.

In this study the subjective perception of one's skill transferability was measured as hypothesis 9 assumed that work experience from the country of origin would contribute to a successful career adjustment only if skills acquired through these experiences were transferable to the Canadian labour market. However, skill transferability was not significantly correlated with either of the dependent variables and was dropped from the analyses in favour of the length of work experience which does correlate with the dependent variable. The analysis of several Census years data suggests that the transferability of skills is rather low for immigrants coming from countries with lower GDP (Ferrer & Ridell, 2008). Indeed, in terms of income, it has been shown that highly skilled immigrants from those regions are compensated at a level comparable to lower-skilled native-born Canadians. This study found some support for this finding as online respondents, with a sizeable proportion of women from Europe, perceived their skills to be more transferable in comparison to women who answered the paper and pencil survey and who were predominantly from South-East Asia. This is rather a speculative finding, however, as the finding reached statistical significance, yet the actual difference between the two means was

rather minor (4.3 vs. 3.9) and may not be of practical significance. Consequently, more research is required before any conclusions can be drawn on this matter. Nonetheless, if this finding is confirmed, it would have clear implications for employment counselling practice as programs for immigrants from countries with a lower GDP would likely need a different focus than programs for immigrants from countries with a higher GDP. Cautiousness is warranted here though as this phenomenon could be also caused by employers' perceptions about qualification of immigrants coming from countries with lower GDP.

Income is undoubtedly an important predictor of career adjustment; in this study, and in support of hypothesis 11, it was particularly relevant to reported job satisfaction. However, in contradiction to the hypothesis, it is not the financial resources available within a family (family income) but personal income which is associated with immigrant women feeling more satisfied with their jobs and careers. Perhaps, it may be the case that higher personal income is viewed as indicating a greater personal independence. This study, however, did not control for family status; the number of women who were single and whose personal and family income was thus the same is not known. However, I tried to derive this information indirectly. Sixty-eight (71.6%) of women who reported their personal income also reported family income greater than the personal income. Nine women (8.3%) had children older than 19 years of age who could potentially contribute to the family budget. In the remaining cases (N=59) though, it is likely that the family income comprised the personal income and spousal income. The modal personal income was 20,000 to 29,000 while the modal family income was 100,000 and more. It is likely that the immigrant women in this sample earn significantly less than their husbands; yet having their own income makes them feel satisfied with their jobs.

Berry (1997) stated in a summary of his extensive cross-cultural research that income was one of the important correlates of cross-cultural adaptation. It may be that immigrants with higher income may not only have a higher living standard but can afford to upgrade their qualifications in the case of low recognition of their previous credentials. Further, immigrant women with lower levels of education and fewer labour market skills were found to be particularly vulnerable to negative psychological outcomes such as depression (Dion & Dion, 2001). However, in studies of Korean immigrant couples (Lim, 1997; Noh, Wu, Speechley, & Kaspar, 1992, as cited in Dion & Dion, 2001), immigrant women in more favourable economic conditions (higher education, higher income) also reported significantly higher levels of depression than their husbands.

Qualitative in-depth interviews revealed that immigrant women in professional wage jobs were endorsing the ideal of a “superwoman”; they imposed high standards on themselves both in terms of high level of work performance and equally high expectations for performance in the role of parent and homemaker. In this thesis though, higher income was related to higher satisfaction. It is possible that a higher personal income allows the women to seek substitutes for their role of a homemaker (e.g., hiring a cleaning help or purchasing home appliances which facilitate their household work), which consequently allows them to focus more on their career. Nevertheless, further research is required to clarify the role of personal income on the career adjustment of married immigrant women. Future research should also look at cultural differences in spousal roles expectations as while the Korean women in Dion and Dion’s (2001) had high expectations from themselves as wives and mothers as well as professionals, the expectations may not be the same for women from other cultural backgrounds.

Correlates of Occupational Stress

Parenthood is one of the frequently cited factors influencing career adjustment of all women, not only immigrants. In addition, some research (e.g., Foroutan, 2008; Iredale, 2005, Potocky-Tripodi, 2003; Preston & Man, 1999) suggests that immigrant women who are mothers of very young children tend to experience more difficulties in entering the labour market because they are often unable to afford expensive daycare facilities, do not have social networks including extended family members who could substitute for these facilities, and frequently come from cultures where women are the exclusive care givers for their children. Indeed, personal income and the number of children were negatively correlated in this study. However, contrary to the expectations and hypotheses 8a and 8b, the number of children correlated negatively with occupational stress and the age of the youngest child correlated positively with occupational stress. That is, the more children the immigrant women had, the less occupational stress they experienced, and the older their children were, the more occupational stress they reported. This is surprising and it is difficult to think of a convincing explanation for these relationships.

The questionnaire instructed the immigrant women to refer to their current or most recent job when responding to the job satisfaction and occupational stress scales. It is possible, therefore, that there may be some confounds as in some cases the most recent job could have been prior to having the youngest child. Also, some recent immigrants could have referred to the last employment they held in their country of origin prior to immigrating. The majority of immigrant women that come to Canada are in their child-bearing years and the likelihood that their parenthood situation will change after immigration is relatively high. In fact, the 20% of women who were not employed at the time of the study could have been on maternity leave and

evaluated their most recent employment as little stressful. The chi-square analysis, however, did not show any differences between the employed and unemployed women and the number of children they had and their children's age.

There may be more factors contributing to this unexpected finding, however, there is currently no literature which would help explain it. Future research should include more questions about parenthood into a study of the labour market integration of immigrant women and should then compare cultural gender role expectations, marital status, income, and other potentially relevant variables to explore the role of parenthood on immigrant women's employment situation.

Differences between Job Satisfaction and Occupational Stress

Except for career management self-efficacy and emotion-focused coping, job satisfaction and occupational stress were correlated with and predicted by different variables. The results from this study thus suggest that job satisfaction and occupational stress represent two unique aspects of career adjustment. In the previous research, these two variables were studied as separate, yet related factors. For example, Rothmann (2008) asserts that occupational stress and job satisfaction, together with burnout and work engagement, are important components of affective work-related well-being. In his study of police workers in South Africa, job satisfaction was measured on a pleasure-displeasure dimension while occupational stress was captured through an anxiety-comfort dimension. Rothmann found that both occupational stress and job satisfaction were related to exhaustion and cynicism and that together with the other two factors measured in this study (burnout and work engagement), they were all separate but related factors of occupational well-being. As well, Rothmann concludes that occupational well-being entails more than job satisfaction and thus it is likely that there may be another dimension of

career adjustment that would, together with job satisfaction and occupational stress, capture the concept more fully and distinguish it from other related concepts such as occupational well-being used by Rothmann. Generally, however, the reviewed studies that included these two concepts had a very limited discussion of the relationship between them. The relationship between job satisfaction and occupational stress would thus warrant further examination and investigation.

Job satisfaction was correlated with a significantly larger number of variables than occupational stress and, when entered into a regression equation, these variables accounted for almost 12 % more of the variance in job satisfaction than was explained by a separate set of variables predicting occupational stress. It may be that occupational stress is present in high skilled jobs that put greater demand on immigrant women, but that this stress may not necessarily mean a low level of career adjustment. On the contrary, low skilled jobs with low intellectual demand may not represent a challenge and, even though they may cause very little occupational stress, they may potentially result in boredom and a low level of career adjustment. Interestingly, job satisfaction was predicted by a larger number of psychological factors including social support. The only two psychological factors that correlated with occupational stress were also significant correlates of job satisfaction. In addition, all three of the situational factors which predicted occupational stress, did so in an unexpected direction. That is, the results mostly contradicted findings of previous research. Even though it is likely that different people react differently to various stressors, the conditions under which immigrant women experience occupational stress will require further investigation given the results from this study. Indeed, job satisfaction may represent a somewhat better way to conceptualize career adjustment than occupational stress, although clearly this must be investigated further.

Surprisingly, language self-efficacy had no relationship with occupational stress. This is in spite of the fact that language is considered critical for immigrants' adjustment and it seems plausible to assume that a lower level of language comprehension or the ability to express oneself precisely could increase the stress that one experiences in a workplace. The women in this sample, however, evaluated their language competence relatively high (5.8 to 6.2 out of 7 on all four domains) and it is likely then that language was not a stressor for them.

In contrast, career management self-efficacy was the bridging factor that predicted both components of career adjustment. The importance of career management self-efficacy was already discussed above and much of the explanation that applied to job satisfaction likely applies also to occupational stress. The rationale is further supported by the close negative relationship of career management self-efficacy and emotion-focused coping. Immigrant women with high career management self-efficacy and low emotion-focused coping are perhaps more likely to adopt a more rational approach to their careers including potentially different attributions they make about events that happen to them in relation to their careers. Despite not qualifying as a significant predictor, emotion-focused coping correlated significantly with both dependent variables; it is likely that emotion-focused coping is another important variable that needs to be considered when studying career adjustment of immigrant women or when designing employment counselling services for this group.

Other Factors from the Model of Career Adjustment

Contrary to the model's prediction (hypothesis 10a), education obtained from the country of origin was not a significant predictor of career adjustment. As a significant amount of literature on labour market integration of immigrants (e.g., Ferrer & Ridell, 2008; Grant & Nadin, 2007; McCoy & Masuch, 2007; Reitz, 2001; Wanner, 2001) reported a lack of

recognition of immigrants' education and work experiences, it may be that immigrant women in this sample also faced problems with recognition of their foreign credentials. Perhaps, the education they obtained from their country of origin is largely unrecognized by the Canadian system and they needed to start building their careers again.

Contrary to hypotheses 1, 6, 7, 12, and 13, motivation for economic advancement, perceived cultural distance, perceived discrimination, length of residency in Canada, and age at arrival to Canada were not significantly correlated with career adjustment. Age at arrival may be in a more complex relationship with some of the other variables tested in the model such as language competence, income, or work experience. Inevitably, age at arrival was significantly inter-correlated also with length of residence in Canada and extremely positively inter-correlated with work experience from the country of origin ($r = .87, p < .001$). It also correlated positively with education from the country of origin and negatively with personal and family income. The latter seems to support the findings of Ferrer and Ridell (2008) who showed that women who immigrate at a younger age tend to see an increase in their earnings. Interestingly, age at arrival was also positively related to perceived discrimination, indicating that the older the women were at the time of immigration the more they felt discriminated against. It may be that the women were exposed to general stereotypes toward older workers (e.g., Chiu, Chan, Snape, & Redman, 2001) but due to their immigrant origin attributed these negative stereotypes to discrimination against immigrants. No matter what the explanation is, it is an interesting finding which should be further explored in research on immigrant women's labour market integration.

Cultural distance was related to motivation for economic advancement, personal and family income, and the number of children. However, it did not seem to fit into the model too well as it did not correlate with the dependent variables and there were a fewer and less strong

correlations between cultural distance and other career adjustment predictors in comparison to other variables. Some recent research on immigrants' economic integration stated that immigrant's economic outcomes are worsening as a result of the source country shift between the 1970s/1980s and 1990s/early 2000s (Bloom, Grenier & Gunderson, 1995; Ferrer & Ridell, 2008; Green & Worswick, 2009). However, it may be that, cultural distance, even in traditional very distant countries, may be decreasing with progressing globalization. It is likely that immigrants from any part of the world have had some exposure to the western culture through media prior to immigrating. Consequently, they may be better prepared for living in a western culture compared to immigrants several decades ago. Whether or not cultural distance or the country of origin matter to immigrants' career adjustment should be further explored in future studies.

Lastly, motivation for economic advancement after immigration did not seem to be any more important than other measured motivations. My own experience with working in the immigrant community suggests that a large number of immigrants are equally or even more strongly motivated to immigrate in order to provide a better future of their children as they are for their own economic advancement. Indeed, the motivation to immigrate to better the future of their children was the strongest motivation among respondents to this study (mean score 5.8, SD = 2.4), followed by family reasons (mean score 5.3, SD = 2.1). Economic advancement was only the third most important with a mean score 4.6 (SD = 2.0). It seems like, despite experiencing stress and frustration from not being able to utilize their previous qualifications and secure an employment commensurate to their skills and experiences (Grant, 2008), immigrants are less focused on their own careers than they are on the future of their children.

This study provides evidence that career management self-efficacy, emotion-focused coping, extent to which expectations formed prior to immigration were met in Canada, problem-focused coping, language self-efficacy, strength of one's social support networks, personal income and professional experience from Canada and the country of origin are correlates of successful career adjustment of immigrant women to Canada. The results further revealed that career adjustment is influenced by the highest attained education in Canada as well as parenthood. Those two predictors were, however, correlated in unexpected directions and will need to be subject to more thorough examinations in future research. In the light of the whole model of career adjustment, the above listed factors appear to have a greater importance than cultural distance, perceived discrimination, length of residency in Canada or age at arrival to Canada. Previous research (e.g., Mumford, 2000; Searle & Ward, 1990; Ward & Kenendy 1992a, 2001) has promoted some of them (notably length of residence and cultural distance) as important predictors of cross-cultural adjustment and labour market integration. It may be that these variables have an influence on other, important factors such as work experience, education, age, social support, or language fluency rather than directly on career adjustment per se. For example, the longer a person lives in another country, the more likely they are to speak its language, develop stronger social networks, and be older.

Limitations

Initially, a minimum of 120 immigrant women were supposed to be recruited for this study so as to have enough power to detect a relationship with medium effect size.

Unfortunately, despite extensive recruitment techniques and an extended period of time devoted to distributing the questionnaire, the final sample size was only 101 respondents. This sample size was sufficient to run the regression analyses, however, it undoubtedly resulted in lower

power of the significance tests. Indeed, some of the factors were only marginally significant and it may be that they would have reached the level of conventional statistical significance if the sample size was bigger. As well, this thesis was an exploratory study and, therefore, some marginally significant results were reported, both correlations and regression beta weights. This limitation needs to be acknowledged when interpreting the data. In fact, all interpretations should be made with great caution as, given the number of statistical analyses performed, it may be that some of the significant results are a Type I error. Clearly then, replicating and extending on these promising preliminary results in future research projects is necessary.

In addition, there were missing data randomly distributed across the sample which resulted in decreasing the sample size to as low as 84 in some of the analyses. There were also substantial inter-correlations among the independent variables and a greater sample size could have shown more clearly the relationships between the dependent and independent variables. For example, some variables correlated significantly with the dependent variables at a certain sample size but with a change of the set of variables that resulted in a sample size change, the same variables were no longer significant. The sample size also influenced the analysis strategy as it appeared to be better to divide the predictors into blocks according to the model of career adjustment rather than analyze them all at once as it was originally planned. Despite these limitations, however, the regression analyses still showed that the variables that correlated significantly with either job satisfaction or occupational stress explained a relatively large portion of the variance.

As is common for applied social psychology studies, the sample for this study was not selected randomly and thus was not a representative sample of immigrant women. The women for this study were recruited based on methods of convenience such as using my personal

network and contacts in the immigrant-serving community. Equally, the research assistants used their personal contacts which may have oversampled specific ethnic groups. In particular, one was from Pakistan and collected 13 hard copies of the questionnaire, the other one was from China and recruited 4 participants who filled out the hard copy. The resulting sample, however, was still very diverse in terms of country of origin, age, work experience, length of stay in Canada and other important variables. Nevertheless, caution should be exercised when generalizing these findings to immigrant women across Canada; despite the recruitment efforts targeting immigrant women in all Canadian provinces except for Quebec, there is a significant likelihood that most of the women were residents of Saskatchewan at the time of the study. As was discussed in the introduction to this thesis, Saskatchewan has some unique immigration patterns in comparison to traditionally popular destinations for immigrants such as Ontario or British Columbia. The career adjustment of immigrant women could be potentially influenced by some characteristics of the host society and local employers whose attitudes toward immigrants may be different from those in provinces which have traditionally been more popular as a destination for immigrants.

In addition, there was a considerably higher proportion of immigrant women with post-secondary education in this sample. It may be argued that these women are more interested or motivated to pursue their careers. As such, this thesis results should be interpreted with regard to this sampling bias, i.e., besides the geographical limitation, the results of this thesis represent mostly highly educated immigrant women with a great interest in their career.

Further, the differences between refugee women and other immigrant women need to be acknowledged, despite the common data analysis. Refugee women represented only a small proportion of the study sample and the results thus have a limited generalizability to this

population. Even though there likely are some commonalities between immigrants and refugees when assessing career adjustment, there are unique adjustment aspects that need to be considered with regard to the refugee population, such as coping with a trauma and having potentially less coping resources.

Career adjustment was operationalized as a job satisfaction and occupational stress based on a study of career adjustment of Asian Americans in the United States (Leong, 2001). There have not been many studies of immigrants' career adjustment and none that have focused specifically on immigrant women. The literature review on the career adjustment of immigrants, particularly immigrant women, was thus limited. The conceptualization of career adjustment was compatible with the career adjustment definition used by Rasouli and her colleagues (2008). This study, however, suggests that job satisfaction and occupational stress might be two very separate aspects of career adjustment as except for two variables, their correlates were different. The question then is whether one of them could be a better index of career adjustment than the other, or whether the construct of career adjustment should be investigated more fully and revised.

This thesis used one completely new scale measuring career management self-efficacy and one modified scale measuring social support. Both scales proved to be highly reliable and both also demonstrated some construct validity. Future psychometric work with these scales, however, may be warranted to validate these scales on other samples of immigrant and non-immigrants populations. For this thesis, however, the psychometric qualities of these scales were adequate and the data collected through these measures resulted in identifying both as promising possible predictors of career adjustment that should be considered by researchers interested in exploring this important, but neglected topic more fully.

Another technical limitation of this study was the length of the questionnaire which resulted in 152 questions on 15 pages. Not surprisingly, the feedback from the immigrant women frequently included a complaint or criticism of the questionnaire length and the demand on their time. The innovative aspect of this study was to capture career adjustment as a complex phenomenon rather than focusing on certain parts of it. However, the length of the questionnaire could have resulted in the missing data found randomly across the respondents in the sample. Consequently, I recommend that researchers should try to 1) design and validate shorter scales for each of the predictors of career adjustment, or 2) test only certain predictors from the model of career adjustment rather than the model as a whole. Another solution may be to secure sufficient resources which would allow the researchers to compensate immigrant women for their time spent on the questionnaire, and to hire research assistants with extensive networks in immigrant communities. These efforts would likely result in a greater sample size and, therefore, more certainty regarding the predictors of the indices of career adjustment.

The questionnaire was also designed for immigrant women with a relatively high command of the English language. The level of language skills required to comprehend and answer the questionnaire was at least intermediate (CLB 4) and the lower the language level, the longer the time an immigrant woman spent on filling out the questionnaire. The survey was a measure of language ability in its own right, therefore, and created a sampling bias as women with lower level of English were either not recruited, or decided not to participate stating that their English was not good enough. It is likely though that women with a low command of the English language would experience much lower career adjustment as it is difficult to imagine someone in a professional occupation who does not have a good command of the language. On the other hand, language competence has been researched extensively in cross-cultural research

and the value of the approach taken in this thesis was to examine whether language self-efficacy, rather than actual language skills would predict career adjustment.

Lastly, the scope and characteristics of social support measured in this study were rather limited. Social support is a complex phenomenon that depends on a number of factors, with one of the major modifiers being culture. This study measured only the quantity of available social support while it may be that the quality of social support is more important for immigrant women to achieve successful career adjustment. Additionally, the characteristics of social support are likely to change based on cultural context or the cultural group to which the immigrant women belong. The fact that this thesis did not control for these various aspects of social support should thus be considered a limitation worth attention in future social psychological studies.

Despite its limitations the thesis was able to focus on a broader range of predictors than is common in traditional cross-cultural studies. Therefore, some psychological and situational factors were identified which may be more important for the career adjustment of immigrant women than other, traditionally studied and recognized predictors. Future research is necessary to confirm, clarify and further elaborate on the findings of this thesis, yet there are some practical implications that may be drawn at this point.

Applied Implications of this Research

This research was triggered by the finding that immigrant women in Canada constantly achieve a lower level of economic integration in comparison to immigrant men and to Canadian-born women. This study did not intend to confirm or refute this finding as it did not compare men and women; instead, it was meant to gain a deeper knowledge of the factors which may contribute to these adverse career outcomes for immigrant women. The majority of women in this study, however, expressed the opinion that their situation is no different from the situation of

immigrant men. Indeed, except for the statistical data showing that immigrant women are less adjusted than their male counterparts, there is no solid evidence on the differences between immigrant men and women in their career adjustment as cross-cultural studies do not frequently focus on gender and even less on a comparison between them. The following discussion will therefore refer mostly to immigrants in general.

Even though career management self-efficacy was introduced as a new concept in this study (based on Rasouli et al.'s definition), it was demonstrated that it is by far the most important predictor of career adjustment as it predicted both of the career adjustment components. To my knowledge, current employment programs for immigrants largely focus on teaching immigrants culture-specific knowledge and skills that may be applied in the labour market but do not focus on building self-efficacy. Consequently, a reality check may be missing as immigrants learn piecemeal knowledge and some domain-specific skills in an isolated environment of a class but are not able to verify whether they are able to use the knowledge and skills and do so in culturally appropriate manner. If they lack practice and feedback on their career-related knowledge and skills, it may be difficult to develop the belief that their knowledge and skills are effective and lead to enhanced self-efficacy. Given that problem-focused coping strategies significantly and positively influenced the career adjustment outcomes, it may be that more individual work with immigrants participating in these programs is required in order to help them identify these strategies and encourage the use of problem-focused coping skills. Perhaps more complex training centers for immigrants need to be established in order to provide them with comprehensive settlement and employment orientation services.

Statistical data continue to demonstrate that the economic situation of immigrants have been worsening in the last two to three decades. If the most plausible explanation is the shift in

the country source, then it is likely that immigrants need more specifically tailored employment services than native-born Canadians. Nevertheless, recent policy changes announced cuts to specialized employment counselling for immigrants in Saskatchewan; immigrants are now being referred to career and employment services for the general public (Saskatoon Open Door Society, 2011).

Immigration is an important current issue in Canada due to its strategic importance for economic and population growth in the next decades. Nevertheless, it is difficult for immigrants to contribute to the economy if their human capital is not recognized by Canadian employers. Equally, it is inefficient and ineffective to provide services for immigrants that do not fully address the adjustment issues that immigrants face. Despite its limitations, this study, which expands on previous knowledge about immigrants' cross-cultural adjustment, clearly provides several policy and program implications relating to employment services for immigrants.

Conclusion

This thesis was designed to study the complex nature of career adjustment of immigrant women to Canada. Reviewed statistical data indicated that immigrant women experienced lower levels of labour market integration and faced worse economic outcomes than immigrant men and Canadian-born women. The thesis attempted to explore factors that could potentially contribute to these unfavourable outcomes from a social psychological perspective. Indeed, the thesis presents the first quantitative and comprehensive investigation of the career adjustment of immigrant women to Canada. Using the theoretical framework of sociocultural adjustment, career adjustment was conceptualized as a sub-category of sociocultural adjustment. It was argued that, because a large number of immigrant women come to Canada under the skilled worker program, it will be important for them to achieve a high level of career adjustment which

will further enhance their overall adjustment to Canada as their new country. At the same time, however, acculturation and acquisition of host-country specific skills and knowledge was hypothesized to lead to an increased career adjustment and labour market integration.

Career adjustment was conceptualized as job satisfaction and occupational stress. The hypotheses expected all fourteen variables to correlate with both job satisfaction and occupational stress, yet differing in the direction of the correlation. Instead, however, this study demonstrated, that each of these constructs are correlated with quite different sets of variables. In addition, this study raised the question of whether job satisfaction and occupational stress are the only and best predictors of career adjustment, or whether future studies should try to re-conceptualize career adjustment. As other industrial psychology literature indicates (e.g., Rothmann, 2008), job satisfaction and occupational stress are two distinct, yet related factors. However, their use in a measurement of other concepts such as occupational well-being may mean that other dimensions of career adjustment need to be identified to distinguish fully this variable from other similar concepts.

Based on the career adjustment model developed by Rasouli et al. (2008) and a literature review of sociocultural perspective on adjustment, fourteen psychological, situational and social predictors were included in this study. While most of them were not new concepts in the immigration adjustment literature (in fact, most of them were very well researched), the fact that they were studied all together is what makes this study unique. An exception is the variable career management self-efficacy, which was a completely new construct that has not received researchers' attention so far. Interestingly, this variable turned out to be the most important predictor of career adjustment. Despite the failure to identify more than two significant predictors of career adjustment, the study shed a light on many correlational relationships

between both the dependent and independent variables and among the independent variables. Consequently, this study is a contribution to immigrant career adjustment/labour market integration literature. Further, the importance of career adjustment self-efficacy to immigrant women's career adjustment was clearly demonstrated in this study and it is recommended that researchers continue to focus on this variable when studying immigrants' labour market integration from a social psychological perspective.

The results of this study contradicted some findings from previous research by failing to demonstrate some well-established relationships between variables and by demonstrating some other relationships in unexpected directions. It is assumed that some of the traditional predictors of immigrants' adjustment may be actually moderators of some other variables that proved to be important correlates of career adjustment in this study. These relationships certainly warrant further investigation. Consequently, the contribution of this thesis is also in laying down numerous directions for future research on immigrants' career adjustment.

Lastly, the results of this thesis can be used in the field of practice, namely in immigrant employment counselling. This study focused on factors that may help or hinder immigrant women's career adjustment. Therefore, it provides important information to immigrant-serving organizations for the design of their programs and services for immigrant women.

In summary, this thesis presents an examination of the career adjustment model and its hypotheses. Despite the failure to find support for all fourteen hypotheses and their sub-hypotheses, the model of career adjustment was largely supported. More research with diverse populations and larger samples is important to extend these findings and provide solid grounds for services and programming for immigrant women who wish to succeed in the Canadian labour market.

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Appendix A Measures

MOTIVATION AND EXPECTATIONS BEFORE IMMIGRATION

This section asks about the motivation and expectations that you had before you immigrated to Canada. Please write in or circle your answers.

1. How long have you been living in Canada?

_____ years _____ months

2. What was the main reason(s) for you personally to come to Canada?

3. How motivated were you to come to live to Canada for family reasons?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all motivated			Somewhat motivated			Very highly motivated

4. How motivated were you to come to live to Canada for economic reasons?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all motivated			Somewhat motivated			Very highly motivated

5. How motivated were you to come to live to Canada for security reasons?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all motivated			Somewhat motivated			Very highly motivated

6. How motivated were you to come to live to Canada for the future of your children?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all motivated			Somewhat motivated			Very highly motivated

7. What was your immigration status when you came to live to Canada?

- a) Temporary resident on a visitor visa
- b) Temporary resident on a student visa
- c) Temporary resident on a work visa
- d) Independent immigrant (Economic, Skilled worker, business investor)
- e) Family class (my family sponsored me so that I could come and live in Canada)
- f) Refugee
- g) Other, please specify: _____

8. Did you feel ready for life in Canada when you were moving here?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all ready			Somewhat ready			Completely ready

9. How important was economic advancement for your decision to immigrate?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			somewhat			very
important			important			important

10. Before you came to Canada, what expectations did you have about what life is going to be like in Canada?

11. What aspects of your new life in Canada did you find more difficult than you expected?

12. What aspects of your new life in Canada did you find easier than you expected?

13. To what extent were your expectations for your life in Canada met?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Applicable
Not met			Somewhat			Completely	
at all			met			met	

14. To what extent were your expectations for your career in Canada met?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not Applicable
Not met			Somewhat			Completely	
at all			met			met	

CAREER MANAGEMENT SELF-EFFICACY

This section contains statements about career and career goals. Please circle your answer on the scale according to how much you feel the statement is true when related to your own career.

15. I can remain calm when facing difficulties in achieving my career goals because I can rely on my abilities.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

16. Whatever comes my way in my career, I can usually handle it.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

17. My past work experiences have prepared me well for my future career.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

18. I meet the goals that I set for myself in my career.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

19. I feel prepared for most of the challenges in my career.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

20. I am confident about my abilities to perform specific tasks related to my chosen career.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

21. When I face an obstacle in my career, I can usually find several solutions.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

22. I am certain that I can accomplish my career goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

23. I am confident that I could deal efficiently with unexpected obstacles in my career.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

24. I am confident about my career goals.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			Somewhat			Completely
true			true			true

COPING STRATEGIES

Now, try to think about what you usually do when you face a problem or get into a difficult situation. Indicate on the 1 to 5 scale how often you engage in each of the following behaviours. (PF – Problem focused; EF – Emotion focused; A – avoidance)

25. Focus on the problem and see how I can solve it. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

26. Blame myself for having got into this situation. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

27. Window shop (=to look at articles in the windows of stores without making any purchases).**(A)**

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

28. Try to go to sleep. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

29. Treat myself to a favourite food or snack. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

30. Feel anxious about not being able to cope. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

31. Go out for a snack or meal. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

32. Buy myself something. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

33. Determine a course of action and follow it. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

34. Blame myself for not knowing what to do. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

35. Work to understand the situation. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

36. Wish that I could change what had happened or how I felt. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

37. Take time off and get away from the situation. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

38. Worry about what I am going to do. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

39. Spend time with a special person. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

40. Focus on my general inadequacies. (EF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

41. See a movie. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

42. Get control of the situation. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

43. Make an extra effort to get things done. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

44. Try to be organized so I can be on the top of the situation. (PF)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

45. Watch TV. (A)

1	2	3	4	5
Never				very often

CULTURAL DISTANCE

This section focuses on comparison of your country of origin and Canada. Please indicate for each statement how much are these two countries similar or how much they differ.

46. What is the climate like?

similar to Canada a little hotter or a little colder much hotter or much colder

47. How much rainfall?

similar to Canada a little more or a little less much more or much less

48. What do men usually wear?

similar to Canada modified western clothes national costume

49. What do women usually wear?

similar to Canada modified western clothes national costume

50. What is the main language?

English other European language other language

51. Is English spoken?

by most people by some people hardly ever

52. Is education free?

free to secondary level free to primary level not free

53. What level of education would most people attain?

secondary (high school) primary level none

54. What food do most people eat?

similar to Canada somewhat different altogether different

55. Are there religious dietary rules?

no yes, but not mandatory yes, mandatory

56. What is the main religion?

largely Christian mixed largely non-Christian

57. Does religion play a role in most people's lives?

similar to Canada somewhat greater than in Canada affects all aspects of life

58. What is the standard of living?

similar to Canada a little better or little worse off much better or much worse off

59. Do most people have electrical appliances (TV, fridge, iron) in their homes?

yes, many appliances yes, a few appliances no

60. Are leisure activities (sport, music, drama, etc)...?

similar to Canada somewhat different very different

61. Are social interactions (parties, informal visiting, etc)...?

similar to Canada somewhat different very different

62. What respect is shown to elderly people?

similar to Canada treated with more respect revered

63. What roles do women fulfill?

go to work if they wish only look after house and children rigidly housebound

64. What is the system of marriage?

similar to Canada bride or groom brings a dowry financial settlement by families

65. Can young men and women meet each other socially?

at parties and social occasions only through the family no

JOB EXPERIENCE

The following statements concern your working experiences both in your country of origin and in Canada. Please write in or circle the appropriate answer.

66. Please, describe the training, qualifications, and work experiences that you gained in your country of origin before you came to Canada:

67. Please, describe the training, qualifications, and work experiences that you gained in Canada:

68. How long were you working in your profession(s) in your country of origin?

_____ (years and months)

69. How long were you working in your profession(s) in Canada?

_____ (years and months)

70. How much do you feel that your job skills from your country of origin are transferable to the Canadian labour market?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not at all			highly			
transferable			transferable			

71. Please evaluate how developed your skills are in each of the following areas:

a) Communication skills	very high	high	average	basic	none
b) Teamwork skills	very high	high	average	basic	none
c) Independence	very high	high	average	basic	none
d) Problem solving	very high	high	average	basic	none
e) Self-motivation	very high	high	average	basic	none
f) Computer software skills (e.g., MS Word, MS Excel)	very high	high	average	basic	none

72. What do you think are the major barriers for you to work in your profession(s) in Canada?

73. Do you currently have a job? YES NO

If you answered NO, continue to the next section.

If you answered YES, please describe your job: _____

74. How much is your current job related to your career aspirations that you had before coming to Canada?

Very related moderately related somewhat related not related

JOB SATISFACTION

The following statements relate to your attitudes toward your current (or most recent) job.

Please indicate how much you agree with the statements. (RS – Reverse scored)

75. My job is like a hobby to me.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

76. My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

77. It seems like my friends are more interested in their jobs. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

78. I consider my job rather unpleasant. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

79. I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

80. I am often bored with my job. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

81. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

82. Most of the time, I have to force myself to go to work. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

83. I am satisfied with my job for the time being.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

84. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

85. I definitely dislike my work. (RS)

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

86. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

87. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.

STRONGLY AGREE AGREE UNDECIDED DISAGREE STRONGLY DISAGREE

137. What is the age of your youngest child(ren)?

0-2 3-5 6-12 13-18 19 and older I don't have children

EDUCATION

138. What was the highest education that you obtained in your country of origin?

- Elementary school
 - High school
 - Some post-secondary or technical training
 - Bachelor's degree
 - Master's degree
 - PhD degree
 - Other, please describe
-

139. What was the highest education that you obtained in Canada?

- Elementary school
 - High school
 - Some post-secondary or technical training
 - Bachelor's degree
 - Master's degree
 - PhD degree
 - Other, please describe
-

140. Please describe any education or training you received in Canada:

LEARNING NEEDS

141. Please state and describe the three most important things that you need to learn to be successful in your career in Canada.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____

AGE

142. What is your current age? _____ years.

FINAL QUESTIONS

151. Please describe how your situation at the Canadian labour market is different from the situation of immigrant men.

152. Please use the following lines for writing down anything else you would like to share about your career adjustment in Canada.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME AND EFFORT!

**Appendix B
Statistical Analysis**

Table B 1 Factor Analysis of Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale – Correlation Matrix

		Correlation Matrix									
		CMSE1	CMSE2	CMSE3	CMSE4	CMSE5	CMSE6	CMSE7	CMSE8	CMSE9	CMSE10
Correlation	CMSE1	1.000									
	CMSE2	.606	1.000								
	CMSE3	.417	.547	1.000							
	CMSE4	.450	.601	.579	1.000						
	CMSE5	.546	.590	.546	.715	1.000					
	CMSE6	.628	.647	.474	.467	.613	1.000				
	CMSE7	.525	.577	.585	.630	.655	.549	1.000			
	CMSE8	.394	.519	.471	.585	.608	.470	.687	1.000		
	CMSE9	.569	.664	.465	.638	.581	.585	.730	.679	1.000	
	CMSE10	.526	.512	.492	.612	.573	.646	.559	.688	.715	1.000

Table B 2 Factor Analysis of Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale – KMO and Bartlett’s Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.878
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	661.61
	df	45
	Sig.	.000

Table B 3 Factor Analysis of Career Management Self-Efficacy Scale – Item Loadings

	Factor
	1
CMSE9	.835
CMSE7	.811
CMSE5	.797
CMSE10	.782
CMSE4	.775
CMSE2	.768
CMSE8	.751
CMSE6	.739
CMSE1	.674
CMSE3	.660

Extraction Method: Principal Axis

Factoring.

a. 1 factors extracted. 4 iterations required.

Table B 4 Factor Analysis of Social Support Inventory – Correlation Matrix

Correlation Matrix																				
	SS1	SS2	SS3	SS4	SS5	SS6	SS7	SS8	SS9	SS10	SS11	SS12	SS13	SS14	SS15	SS16	SS17	SS18	SS19	SS20
SS1	1.00																			
SS2	.765	1.00																		
SS3	.572	.516	1.00																	
SS4	.426	.457	.575	1.00																
SS5	.626	.517	.616	.369	1.00															
SS6	.659	.644	.635	.558	.594	1.00														
SS7	.539	.471	.490	.417	.568	.488	1.00													
SS8	.630	.664	.674	.524	.487	.680	.556	1.00												
SS9	.622	.635	.640	.335	.488	.668	.534	.656	1.00											
SS10	.504	.488	.543	.397	.441	.586	.480	.651	.729	1.00										
SS11	.539	.545	.571	.564	.390	.682	.418	.700	.576	.538	1.00									
SS12	.599	.574	.661	.505	.526	.760	.520	.681	.773	.607	.608	1.00								
SS13	.634	.637	.670	.581	.495	.689	.568	.736	.759	.705	.673	.744	1.00							
SS14	.507	.406	.571	.506	.454	.616	.473	.624	.520	.615	.518	.649	.585	1.00						
SS15	.520	.494	.526	.420	.478	.589	.545	.508	.610	.700	.380	.650	.655	.622	1.00					
SS16	.629	.548	.703	.510	.635	.785	.589	.697	.598	.561	.664	.654	.635	.629	.622	1.00				
SS17	.654	.586	.634	.446	.546	.800	.589	.675	.699	.637	.608	.806	.715	.614	.632	.756	1.00			
SS18	.635	.695	.488	.538	.509	.744	.509	.674	.596	.520	.502	.655	.646	.508	.670	.685	.665	1.00		
SS19	.524	.604	.431	.325	.399	.530	.437	.450	.611	.528	.308	.604	.579	.438	.659	.484	.577	.656	1.00	
SS20	.464	.522	.637	.522	.410	.699	.436	.653	.638	.582	.653	.685	.709	.626	.524	.693	.747	.497	.483	1.00

Table B 5 Analysis of Social Support Inventory – KMO and Bartlett’s Test

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		.914
Bartlett's	Approx. Chi-Square	1312.565
Test of Sphericity	df	190
	Sig.	.000

Table B 6 Factor Analysis of Social Support Inventory – Item Loadings

Pattern Matrix^a

	Factor	
	1	2
SS6	.872	-.061
SS13	.860	.002
SS17	.857	.027
SS16	.853	-.107
SS8	.849	-.140
SS12	.844	.047
SS20	.808	-.200
SS3	.794	-.159
SS11	.788	-.370
SS9	.787	.156
SS18	.752	.235
SS1	.739	.139
SS14	.731	-.070
SS10	.730	.100
SS2	.715	.173
SS15	.697	.326
SS4	.646	-.203
SS7	.641	.102
SS5	.641	.072
SS19	.598	.484

Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring.

Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser

Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 8 iterations.

Table B 7 Regression Analysis with all 20 variables – Job Satisfaction (N=72)

Independent variable	Correlation with Job satisfaction	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² _{change} F	R ² F
Step 1				
Questionnaire	.197*	.194	3.9%	3.9%
Region of origin	-.095	-.182	F(2,71)=1.396	F(2,71)=1.396
Step 2				
Career management self-efficacy	.383***	.030	36.7%	40.6%
Expectations	.427***	.361	F(20,71)=1.512	F(22,71)=1.520
Economic motivation	-.082	-.024		
Problem-focused coping	.297***	-.011		
Emotion-focused coping	-.215*	-.143		
Avoidance coping	-.143	-.168		
Cultural distance	.065	.297		
Perceived discrimination	-.206*	.027		
Social support	.149	.209		
Language self-efficacy	.186	.084		
Age at arrival	.111	-.123		
# of children	-.046	.066		
Child age	.011	.029		
Length of stay in Canada	.074	-.184		
Education country of origin	.086	.143		
Education Canada	.222*	.105		
Personal income	.265*	.189		
Family income	.091	-.104		
Experience country of origin	-.095	.099		
Experience Canada	.192	.130		

Table B 8 Regression Analysis with all 20 variables – Occupational stress (N=72)

Independent variable	Correlation with Occupational stress	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² change F	R ² F
<u>Step 1</u>				
Questionnaire	-.140	-.239	5.8%	5.8%
Region of origin	-.111	-.291	F(2,71)=2.115	F(2,71)=2.115
<u>Step 2</u>				
Career management self-efficacy	-.132	-.056	29.1%	34.8%
Expectations	-.071	-.079	F(20,71)=1.093	F(22,71)=1.191
Economic motivation	.059	.008		
Problem-focused coping	-.037	.168		
Emotion-focused coping	.315***	.189		
Avoidance coping	.137	.130		
Cultural distance	-.061	.088		
Perceived discrimination	.156	-.019		
Social support	-.042	-.078		
Language self-efficacy	.047	.095		
Age at arrival	-.013	.437		
# of children	-.279***	-.262		
Child age	.255*	.095		
Length of stay in Canada	-.088	.313		
Education country of origin	.086	.122		
Education Canada	.200*	.129		
Personal income	-.150	-.352		
Family income	-.063	.142		
Experience country of origin	-.059	-.387		
Experience Canada	-.119	-.137		

Interaction Analyses

The dummy variable questionnaire mode was significantly correlated with job satisfaction and its beta weight was marginally significant at $p < .10$, therefore, interaction terms were examined on the fourth step of the regression. Each variable was centered and interaction term calculated for each of the centered variables. The fourth step was significant, $R^2 = .462$, $F(21,80) = 2.41$, $p < .01$ but none of the interaction terms was a uniquely significant predictor of variance in the dependent variable. The only significant predictor was the centered term of professional experience from the country of origin, $\beta = -.587$, $p < .05$.

However, the centered term of professional experience in Canada was extremely highly intercorrelated with its interaction term ($.96$, $p < .001$). The collinearity statistics (VIF = 75.75, Tolerance = .01) clearly indicated that there was a multicollinearity between these two variables which led to their deletion. The resulting model did not yield any uniquely significant predictors, either among the interaction terms or the centered variables. Subsequently, only the analyses with the original variables were reported in the result section. The final interactions analysis is presented in Table B 9 Job Satisfaction Regressed on the IVs and Their Interactions (N=85)

Table B 9 Job Satisfaction Regressed on the IVs and Their Interactions (N=85)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R^2 change F	R^2 F
<u>Step 1</u>				
Questionnaire	.205*	.205	4.2% $F(1,84) = 3.64$	4.2% $F(1,84) = 3.64$
<u>Step 2</u>				
cIncome ^a	.238*	.149	5.6% $F(2,84) = 2.53$	9.8%* $F(3,84) = 2.94$
cWork experience country of origin	-.183*	-.145		
<u>Step 3</u>				
cCMSE ^b	.402***	.318*		
cExpectations prior immigration	.330**	.136	20.3%** $F(6,84) = 3.67$	30.1%** $F(9,84) = 3.59$
cProblem-focused coping	.244*	-.068		
cEmotion-focused coping	-.253*	-.076		
cLanguage self- efficacy	.234*	.111		
cSocial support	.176	.151		
<u>Step 4</u>				
icWork experience country of origin ^c	-.035	.348	11.6% $F(8,84)=1.67$	41.7%** $F(17,84) = 2.82$
icIncome	.241*	.028		
icCMSE	.337**	-.138		
icExpectations	.387***	.351		
icProblem-focused coping	.291**	.231		
icEmotion-focused coping	-.113	.183		
icSocial support	.059	-.067		
icLanguage self- efficacy	.018	-.235		

^a“c” stands for centered variable

^bCareer management self-efficacy

^c“ic” stands for the interaction term of the centered variable and questionnaire mode

Stepwise Regressions

Given that only two of the independent variables were significant unique predictors of the dependent variables, presumably because there are so many IVs specified by the model and because their variances overlap considerably, a stepwise regression¹⁴ was run to identify the best predictors on statistical grounds. All together, four stepwise regressions were run – for each block of independent variables and each dependent variable separately.

At the significance level, $p < .05$, professional experience from Canada was the best situational predictor, $\beta = .264$, $p < .05$, and career management self-efficacy the best psychological predictor, $\beta = .405$, $p < .001$, of job satisfaction. The best predictors of occupational stress were the number of children, $\beta = -.257$, $p < .05$, and emotion-focused coping, $\beta = .266$, $p < .05$. See Table B 10 to Table B 13 for details.

Table B 10 Job Satisfaction Regressed Stepwise on Situational Predictors (N=80)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² F
Professional experience from Canada	.264**	.264**	7%* F(1,79)=5.86

Table B 11 Job Satisfaction Regressed Stepwise on Psychological Predictors (N=90)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R ² F
Career management self-efficacy	.405***	.405***	16.4%*** F(1,89)=17.22

¹⁴ Stepwise regression is a post hoc approach to analysis which is not led by theory. Decisions on which variables are included and which excluded are based solely on statistics computed from the particular sample (Tabachnik & Fidell, 2007).

Table B 12 Occupational Stress Regressed Stepwise on Situational Variables (N=76)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R² F
Number of children	-.257*	-.257*	6.6%*
			<i>F</i> (1,75)=5.25

Table B 13 Occupational Stress Regressed Stepwise on Psychological Variables (N=86)

Independent Variables	Correlation with the DV	Regression Coefficient (β)	R² F
Emotion-focused coping	.266**	.266**	7.1%*
			<i>F</i> (1,85)=6.39