

**An Investigation into the Individual and Organizational Correlates of Expatriate
Success, Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**

by

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For my mother

Preface

First and foremost, my sincere and lasting gratitude to my thesis supervisor Dr. Hari Das who is everything an educator should be – knowledgeable, encouraging and kind. Fortunate are the students who have such a professor.

I am happy to have this opportunity to thank the members of my Ph.D. Dissertation Committee for their guidance and unwavering support: Dr. Ramesh Venkat, Dr. Russel Summers, Dr. Albert Mills and External Examiner Dr. Sudhir Saha.

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I will always think fondly of the organization from which my research data stems. It is truly an employer of choice, one that placed trust in me and played a profound role in my personal and professional development.

I am forever grateful to my father who has spent nearly half his life financing my education. Much of the success I achieve in my professional life I owe to this education and therefore in large part to him.

After writing thousands of words in this dissertation, words fail me now that the time has come to thank my mother. There is too much to say. You are the guardian of my faith and all that is good in the world.

Personal Message

"It is not for him to pride himself who loveth his own country, but rather for him who loveth the whole world. The earth is but one country and mankind its citizens."

Bahá'u'lláh

Bahá'i women and men continue to be persecuted for their religious beliefs by certain government regimes which deny them access to a university education. An unforgivable waste of potential.

An information resource of the Bahá'i international community (www.bahai.org) describes the importance of the realization of universal education as follows:

"The acquisition of knowledge, Bahá'u'lláh says, serves as wings for humanity's ascent, and thus is incumbent upon everyone. Knowledge plays a central role in human life and society. It is the process of generating and applying knowledge that lies at the heart of civilization. The advancement of society flows from it. In light of this teaching, the Universal House of Justice, in a 1985 statement on peace addressed to the peoples of the world, made the following declaration:"

"The cause of universal education, which has already enlisted in its service an army of dedicated people from every faith and nation, deserves the utmost support that the governments of the world can lend it. For ignorance is indisputably the principal reason for the decline and fall of peoples and the perpetuation of prejudice. No nation can achieve success unless education is accorded all its citizens. Lack of resources limits the ability of many nations to fulfil this necessity, imposing a certain ordering of priorities. The decision-making agencies involved would do well to consider giving first priority to the education of women and girls, since it is through educated mothers that the benefits of knowledge can be most effectively and rapidly diffused throughout society. In keeping with the requirements of the times, consideration should also be given to teaching the concept of world citizenship as part of the standard education of every child."

Abstract

An Investigation into the Individual and Organizational Correlates of Expatriate Success, Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment

By Natalie Vladi

Abstract: Global competition and emergence of new world markets have made it imperative to identify and develop managers who can effectively cope with culturally dissimilar environments. Expatriate managers live far away from their homes, adapt to alien settings, interact with culturally diverse constituents, continually respond to fast changing market requirements and must be effective in their responses to various stakeholders. Financial investments made by typical organizations to enable expatriate assignments are high and often so is the failure rate of such assignments. Research has shown significant relationships between manager satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Past research findings indicate that successful expatriate managers share some common personality traits and attributes. Past research also suggests that the success of expatriate assignments, at least in part, is related to organizational practices. However, most such research has been conducted in piece-meal fashion. Few studies have looked at the impact of organizational and individual attributes on the satisfaction and commitment of the expatriate manager and on the outcome of the assignment integrally.

The present study attempted to formulate and test an integrative model of expatriate success, satisfaction and commitment. Eleven hypotheses linking manager and organizational variables to project success and expatriate manager satisfaction and commitment were formulated and tested using a survey of 126 expatriate managers employed by a global pharmaceutical company. The survey was followed by a series of telephone interviews which offered further corroborative evidence of their attitudes before, during and after the assignments. This study also aimed to assess the impact of foreign assignments on expatriate manager Satisfaction by using instruments specifically developed by the researcher for this purpose.

Overall, the present findings offer support for the integrative conceptual model developed in the study. The present data suggest a mediating role of adjustment in the relationship between aspects of the manager's personality and satisfaction. Implications of the present findings for theory and practice are discussed. The final chapter of this dissertation discusses short term tactical actions and long term strategic changes on the part of employers to motivate and retain expatriate managers.

March 28, 2008

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Summary

Global competition and emergence of new world markets have made it imperative to identify and develop managers who can effectively cope with culturally dissimilar environments. Expatriate managers must live far away from their homes, adapt to alien settings, interact with culturally diverse constituents, continually respond to fast changing market requirements and be effective in their responses to various stakeholders. Financial investments made by typical organizations to enable expatriate assignments are high and often so is the failure rate of such assignments. A 2007 study by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP and Cranfield School of Management reported that 15 percent of managers who undertook an international assignment resigned within a year of completing their posting. Past research has shown significant relationships between expatriate manager satisfaction, turnover intentions and organizational commitment. Even when the expatriate managers continue to work for their organizations after returning from foreign assignments, reduced organizational commitment may be a major outcome in turn causing emotional retreat from their roles, resulting in decreased productivity and loyalty.

Past research findings indicate that successful expatriate managers share some common personality traits and attributes. Past research also suggests that the success of expatriate assignments, at least in part, is related to organizational practices. However, most such research has been conducted in piece-meal fashion. Few studies have looked at the impact of organizational and individual attributes on the satisfaction and commitment of the expatriate manager and on the outcome of the assignment integrally.

The present study attempted to formulate and test an integrative model of expatriate success, satisfaction and commitment. Eleven hypotheses linking manager and organizational variables to project success and expatriate manager satisfaction and commitment were formulated and tested using a survey of 126 expatriate managers employed by a global pharmaceutical company. The survey was followed by a series of telephone interviews which offered further corroborative evidence of their attitudes before, during and after the assignments. For the most part, the present study used currently available survey instruments with proven validity; in those instances where new measures had to be specifically designed for the survey, an effort was made to test their psychometric properties and refine them before their administration. As Deller (1997, p.112), after a review of the field concluded, there is "an urgent need for personality scales constructed specifically to measure aspects that seem critical for intercultural selection purposes". The present study also aimed to assess the impact of foreign assignments on expatriate manager satisfaction by using instruments specifically developed for the purpose rather than simply using instruments developed for the purpose of single-country research.

Overall, the present findings offer support for the integrative conceptual model developed in the study. The present data suggest a mediating role of adjustment in the relationship between aspects of the manager's personality and satisfaction. Implications of the present findings for theory and practice are discussed. The final chapter of this dissertation discusses short term tactical actions and long term strategic changes on the part of employers to motivate and retain expatriate managers.

CHAPTER ONE

THE NEW GLOBAL REALITY

“Be global or be gone” is a fitting motto for corporations in the 21st Century. Even the most innovative and well-managed companies will need to look beyond their national borders if they are to survive let alone prosper in the long term. As Michael Armstrong, the CEO of telecom giant AT&T noted, “in the future there will be two kinds of corporations; those that go global, and those that go bankrupt” (MacGillivray, 2006, p. 117). Increasingly organizations find it critical to establish affiliates around the world to take advantage of the benefits that cross border economic activity generates such as larger markets, less expensive production, economies of scale, and strategic sales locations. During the late 20th Century the number of multinational corporations (MNC) increased, at a previously unheard of rate, from 18,500 in the mid 1980s to 48,000 by close of the 1990’s. In August 2005 there were 64,000 MNCs employing 53 million people in over 800,000 affiliates around the world (UNCTAD GlobStat 2006) which is twice the number employed by MNCs just 15 years earlier.

This increase in the number of MNCs has been both a result of and a driver for phenomenal growth in world trade. World trade in goods as a share of world GDP increased from 33% in 1990 to 42% in 2003. The change for developing countries was dramatic with an increase of 21 percentage points during that time period compared with six percentage points in high income countries (UNCTAD GlobStat 2006). A growing share of total world consumption is accounted for by imports while a large percentage of total world production is now geared for export markets. Approximately 44% of Canada’s GDP is linked to exports (an increase from 27% one decade ago), making Canada the

biggest trader of the Group of 7 industrialized countries (Schwind et. al., 2007). The growth of the World Trade Organization and the establishment of trade groups such as the European Union and those established by the North American Free Trade Agreement have allowed goods, services, capital and labour to flow more freely. The adoption by Latin American and Asian countries of the free market system (Cateora et al., 2006) has further encouraged world trade. Combined with advances in communication and transportation a more global marketplace has emerged.

As the number of MNCs grows so is the number of expatriates, employees who relocate for years at a time to take part in foreign assignments at an organization's affiliate abroad. An expatriate manager is a resident of one country who is assigned to another country to work in a management capacity, usually for a pre-determined temporary time-frame (typically, 1-5 years). 80% of mid-size and large companies assign managers to work in foreign countries and nearly half plan to increase the number of expatriates taking part in such assignments (GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005). These assignments can be beneficial for both the expatriate manager and the organization but are also often associated with significant problems and risks for both parties involved. Both the benefits and drawbacks of deploying expatriates as well as how to plan for rewarding experiences abroad while avoiding the pitfalls of foreign assignments is a central focus of this research and will be discussed throughout the dissertation. However, to be better able to discuss the critical roles of expatriate managers one must first understand the contemporary push for globalization.

1.1 Why Organizations go Global

Most organizations branch out to foreign locations when the home market becomes saturated or if a sufficiently profitable foreign market exists. When key competitors who are on the cutting edge of an industry are based in a certain foreign market, a company can test and improve its business by competing in that market against expert rivals. A further advantage of this strategy is that by gaining market share in the foreign rival's home country that rival will have fewer resources with which to compete domestically and internationally (Usunier, 1996). A company may operate abroad to profit from a first mover advantage, a skilled work force, labour cost differentials, government incentives such as special tax rates for foreign businesses, or a strategic geographical location that offers certain logistical and transport advantages.

Indeed, the decision to globalize may be related to a firm's efforts to acquire a competitive advantage. Michael Porter outlines four reasons why certain countries or organizations dominate the world market (Porter et al., 1974; Usunier, 1996): i) *factor conditions* including natural resources needed to produce a product, the strategic geographical locations from which to market, sell, or transport the products, and appropriate infrastructure ii) *supporting industries* such as suppliers that can improve a company's product iii) *demand conditions* in the countries of operation referring to both the size and sophistication of the local markets being served and iv) *operating strategy* pertaining to the decision to adopt drivers such as price, quality, or innovation as well as the extent and nature of competition and the company's reaction to it. Seeking out foreign competition as opposed to shying away from it encourages a company to remain alert and ideally ahead of its rivals.

In the past, many companies were prevented from operating in specific foreign regions as a result of regulatory, legal, financial, or technical reasons. Today, economic globalization has taken the shape of vast increases in cross-border capital market flows, international trade, and foreign direct investment (FDI) – the latter two involving closer interaction between people living in different countries than the flow of shares, bonds, and other financial assets. Economic globalization is fostered by progresses in technology as well as policy changes. The increased speed and reliability of transportation have made it more feasible for both products and people to travel great distances. Innovations in methods of communication have created new global advertising and sales venues. The ever-increasing access to the cyber market has catapulted even remote manufacturers into the central world stage. Tools such as email, instant messaging, and online video-conferencing facilitate the communication and connect geographically dispersed customers, suppliers, and producers. Policy changes which decrease the barriers to cross border business activities have also acted as catalysts for rapidly increasing international trade and FDI.

As economic liberalization and political democratisation sweep the world, globalization has become a de-facto force that drives many large organizations. As noted by Jack Welch when he was CEO of General Electric, “Globalization has changed us into a company that searches the world, not just to sell or to source, but to find intellectual capital – the world’s best talents and greatest ideas.” (Welch, 2003, p.153). Welch, during his reign at General Electric, increased the corporation’s market capitalization from US\$ 13 billion in 1981 to US\$ 500 billion in 2000 — a growth rate that surpassed that of all its competitors. Much of the growth was attributable to new global initiatives made by Welch. Some organizations continue to expand abroad with the sole aim of acquiring

natural resources or to take advantage of lower labour costs. However, truly global firms integrate their activities with foreign cultures and markets to a greater extent by acquiring capital, materials *and* labour from global sources and by responding to local needs (Parker, 1995). Global firms build global interconnections (Hordes et al. In Parker, 1995) between affiliates' divisions, suppliers, producers, and customers and depend on 'internal integration techniques' (Trompenaars, 1994; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000) such as promoting a global corporate culture, establishing systems to enhance communication across country affiliates and seeking out diversity in the people hired and practices adopted (Trompenaars, 1994; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000). Barbara Parker in *Globalization and Business* summarizes the five characteristics of a global corporation as:

"1) acquires resources from a global pool; 2) views the world as its home [can relocate headquarters' functions, has regional headquarters in different countries, not identified with a single nationality]; 3) establishes a worldwide presence in one or more businesses; 4) develops a global business strategy for its businesses that operate worldwide; 5) and transcends internal and external boundaries [Internal are those between 'levels and ranks' and those between 'functions and disciplines'. External refers to national borders and fostering integrative activities between company and industry stakeholders across the world]" (Parker, 1995, p. 75.)

Globalization is relevant not only to multinational corporations or large firms. It also impacts small businesses in significant ways. Employees and employers alike are affected by increasing free trade, the outsourcing of jobs overseas, the opening of new markets, fewer trade barriers, and global economic integration in the form of movement of human resources across borders and the development of a more diverse workforce. Howard Shatz, an expert on the subject of foreign investment and multinational enterprise, in 2003 testified before the House Committee on Small Business that 94% of exporters in the western United States are small and medium sized businesses in various

sectors including manufacturing, wholesale and retail (Straus, 2004). While comparable figures for various Canadian centres are difficult to collect, the picture in this country is unlikely to be vastly different, especially for hi-tech and service firms. In fact the trend toward increased globalization of small business has led to the coining of the term “micro-multinational”, which is a start-up or small company that does business globally very early on in its company’s history (Campbell, 2007).

Most often corporations are not born global. Even those MNCs that begin conducting international operations from inception on are not ‘global’ in the true sense of the term. Typically, organizations planning to have operations abroad must choose from one of the following strategies: exporting, licensing, joint venture or foreign FDI. With the possible exception of exporting, the employment of some expatriate or third country managers will become imperative. Organizations often begin conducting business internationally through the relatively low risk, low investment and easily reversible method of exporting. A more long term and high risk method of conducting cross border business is the establishment of licensing agreements between a domestic company and a foreign licensee who produces and promotes the product or service abroad. Neither exporting nor licensing require much learning on the part of the company about the foreign market, the assignment of expatriate managers or the development of a global talent pool.

A foreign joint venture is a partnership between a domestic and foreign organization that results in an entirely new business entity. Such a venture is advantageous for a company if the foreign partner eases entry in to the new market, eliminates the need for import tariffs, or helps mitigate legal or cultural barriers. The joint

venture approach to conducting international business can result in the sharing of responsibilities where the local partner supplies much of the needed human resources locally. However, in most cases managers from both organizations work together in the host country. Therefore, this approach is more likely to require expatriate managers whose primary responsibilities are to control and report about host partner activities or to promote their home countries' processes and policies where desirable. With such an approach the presence of expatriate managers is not likely to decrease even as processes are adopted and accepted by host country managers as the controlling and monitoring functions will remain.

An approach to international business that requires an organization to accept high responsibility takes the form of FDI. This approach affords a company the highest level of control but also yields the greatest risk. In this case a company invests abroad by, for example, building a manufacturing plant, hiring employees, and opening offices, all with the view to long term location commitment. FDI, most often the domain of MNCs and global corporations, leads to increased physical presence abroad and to increased financial investment. In the large majority of cases expatriate managers are assigned by an organization that has committed to significant FDI. The prevalence of expatriate assignments and the responsibility of expatriate managers within the organization are likely to filter across the strategies for conducting international and global business discussed above. When one understands the critical role that expatriate assignments often play for MNCs, the importance of researching factors influencing the expatriate manager and the outcome of the assignment becomes increasingly evident. The results of this research will contribute to providing knowledge about both the individual and

organizational correlates of expatriate success, satisfaction and organizational commitment.

While globalization has, by and large, benefited many nations, it has not been without adverse consequences. While global trade and the number of MNCs are increasing exponentially, neither the world's income distribution nor overall standard of living has been growing uniformly. In fact inequality between the rich and poor, both within and between countries, grew between 1975 and the start of the 21st Century (Wade, 2001). This inequality has resulted in greater suspicion and distrust of multinationals, especially in the developing world, in turn making their projects ever more challenging for expatriate managers.

Globalization is a result of and driver for cross border labour movement. People who have the skills, education and talent to be an asset to an organization can now cast a wider net when looking for employment opportunities and demand a premium in remuneration from employers. In countries where talented labour is scarce, MNCs will have to hire expatriate managers or third party nationals at premium rates. There is a risk that persons can profit from such "global inequalities" (Micklethwait, J. and Woolridge, A. In Evans, 2006). Indeed an expatriate manager may be reluctant to train host country nationals to a level that would enable them to relieve expatriates of their posts. If however, one of the pre-set goals assigned an expatriate manager were the development of one's own replacement through local talent, the expatriate may be more likely to view a decrease in the knowledge gap between home and host employees more favourably. Needless to state, this requires senior executives in MNCs to promote a value system that looks beyond economic indicators of success to more social ones.

Emphasizing public good would require MNCs to pay greater attention to sustainable development of resources, development of local talent, mitigation of discriminatory practices, environmental management systems and the participation in philanthropic endeavours that help the local population (Dunning and Fortanier, 2007). Ideally, the activity of foreign affiliates in the host country should be positively linked to the rate of job creation and not limited to creation of a low-wage low-skill syndrome which is often what is observed in practice. In any event, MNCs should ensure that their activities do not damage indigenous businesses or lower labour standards (Griffith, 2007). MNCs can play a key role in developing public-private partnerships to improve cooperation between the organization and the government with the aim to positively influencing the lives of the organization's employees and the larger local population (Detomasi, 2007). MNCs can choose to be an example for other local and international organizations with regard to setting standards of behavior in such areas as labor rights, environmental management, and working conditions (Detomasi, 2007) to name a few.

For the pharmaceutical industry, from which the sample for this research study stems, a program of global business activities that benefits people beyond those working for the organization or its economically minded shareholders, could include a number of initiatives. Low cost access to research and development and to patents for certain indications are two examples of the many ways in which pharmaceutical organizations are increasingly concerning themselves with matters of corporate social responsibility. Other examples include the development, manufacture and free distribution of medicines for orphan diseases (that only a relatively small pool of people have); well aware of the fact that expenses incurred in the research and development stage will never be recouped. It is the responsibility of an MNC to take an interest in helping the community in which it

operates. In future, the role of an expatriate manager working for a socially aware organization may likely extend from the MNC in to the community surrounding it.

In summary, globalization can bring both beneficial and adverse consequences. When efficiently planned, globalization can bring about a host of economic and social benefits; however, often outcomes are defined only in terms of financial returns. In many instances, the specific outcomes of a foreign assignment may depend on the value system of the expatriate manager. The next section looks at the critical role of expatriate managers.

1.2 The Critical Role of Expatriate Managers

There are several reasons why MNCs, choose to deploy expatriate managers rather than use host country nationals or third country nationals. By positioning expatriates abroad the head office avoids problems that arise from purely centralized decision making. Expatriate managers can make decisions based on the host country practices that they come to know well, while maintaining a global perspective. Expatriates also help ensure use of global standards in business practices. In several instances, they can potentially inculcate home office values in the affiliate. The assignment of expatriates is also advantageous when they possess unique technical or managerial skills not found in the host country population – such as the ability to set up necessary infrastructure, train host country employees or redirect organizational policies and systems to better mirror affiliates elsewhere. Expatriates can be in a position to foster organizational culture in foreign operations, especially in operations that do not yet have a long local history, by demonstrating and communicating the culture of the parent organization.

Expatriate assignments can result in generating increased communication between the foreign subsidiary and headquarters. Such assignments can provide expatriate managers with the opportunity to learn first hand which issues affecting the business are country specific (Evans, 2002). The presence of expatriates during the early stages of a subsidiary's history can be especially important with regard to training local staff, communicating key organizational lessons from past experiences at both headquarters and other subsidiaries and transferring expertise. The rigor of selection and management development procedures differ considerably between MNCs. Organizations that carefully assign its managers to foreign projects not only encourage the completion of the assignment but also develop their managers, over time acquiring a talent pool of global managers. Ideas and innovations generated by colleagues from across the world become part of an organization's intellectual capital offering another crucial competitive advantage to the MNC.

Often expatriate managers are expected to enforce, develop and foster corporate ethical norms and behavioural standards, thus institutionalizing a global code of ethics. Such a process could include issues such as work ethic (e.g., office hours kept), gender in the workplace (e.g., accepted masculine and feminine behaviours), prejudice (e.g., against promoting someone based on their religious beliefs) or more broadly any systemic or overt discrimination whether related to race, sex, ethnicity, religion or physical characteristic.

Expatriate managers are required to live thousands of kilometres away from their homes, adjust to alien settings, continually react to fast changing market requirements and be effective in their responses to various national and international stakeholders. Rising global competition and the growth of emerging markets have made it critically important

for multinational corporations to recruit, select and train expatriate managers who are able to successfully cope with rapidly changing and culturally dissimilar settings. A recent global relocation trends survey shows that over 50% of responding companies expect an increase in the expatriate population growth rate in the next year, 35% expect the growth rate to remain constant and only 11% expect a decline (2005 Survey Report, GMAC Global Relocation Services in association with the Foreign Trade Council and the Society for Human Resource Management).

Given the advantages of deploying expatriate managers it is not surprising to see the vast and rapid increase in the number of expatriates. However, the use of expatriate managers is not without associated challenges. Expatriate managers often uproot their families to take part in such assignments or alternatively leave their families behind and move to the foreign country alone. Both options can lead to discontent on the part of the managers and their families. This is especially so if the move and the subsequent life style and living arrangements abroad are not satisfactory. Having taken on the personal sacrifice of burdening themselves and their families it is natural that the expatriate expects the assignment to have positive personal consequences. These expectations may often take the form of professional consequences such as a better position or increased reward but can, in some cases also be of a personal nature involving personal growth and development. To avoid disappointments, the expatriate manager and the employer must both agree on the terms of both the expatriate assignment as well as the events following completion of the assignment. Also, continuous monitoring of each assignment is required to ensure that expectations on both sides are realistic and converging. The discrepancy between expectations between parties can present a big challenge to the

organization and the manager; and can result in high attrition rate of expatriate managers following completion of the foreign assignment.

Expatriate managers often face the challenge of varying ethical standards across countries and cultures. Working in countries with corrupt governments or poorly developed legal infrastructure can pose serious ethical dilemmas. Expatriate managers must decide for themselves whether they subscribe to universal ethical standards or are willing to accept a degree of ethical relativism. An expatriate manager working for an organization that is unclear about what are unacceptable ethical compromises – for example, the offer of bribes when working in a country that is ranked high on the Transparency International Corruption Perception Index – may face frustration and uncertainty about proper behaviour. Expatriate managers often struggle to be true to a host country, personal and corporate ethical code simultaneously.

The assignment of expatriate managers can sometimes pose a challenge to the employing organization if their presence has a negative effect on the satisfaction and productivity of host country staff. If senior positions are consistently filled by expatriate managers, local managers may come to resent that their careers are not able to progress past a certain level of seniority. An expatriate manager is likely to be paid a considerably higher compensation and enjoy more perks such as housing and living allowances than their local counterparts who have comparable responsibilities (Evans, 2002). This is especially the case when the manager has moved from a developed to a developing country. An additional challenge for an organization is to convince local staff that expatriate managers serve a purpose that is important for the organization as a whole and should be valued. Local staff may view expatriates as solely executing a control function. They may also question the expatriate's commitment to the local (host) country and its

culture. Ever the outsider the expatriate manager faces serious challenges integrating with his or her new work environment and winning the respect and sympathies of host country colleagues.

Many of the challenges faced by expatriate managers have remained unchanged for decades, which explains why earlier findings from studies conducted by researchers such as Tung (1991, 1982) and Black (1988, 1990) remain relevant today. This is not to say that the expatriate landscape has not been evolving. This dissertation will go on to discuss headways made in supporting the expatriate leading up to, during and following an assignment as well as changes in the responsibilities of today's expatriate managers. However, what has not changed, and by definition can not change is the fact that expatriates (and often their families) are uprooted from their homes and their social and family networks to move away for professional reasons. Regardless of the global exposure managers may have today or the ability of organizations to replicate a manager's "home" environment abroad, the massive personal and professional changes an expatriate is faced with when taking on such assignments are unavoidable.

Despite the many challenges, organizations continue to deploy expatriate managers in large numbers. As discussed earlier the option of using third country or host country nationals is often less attractive to the MNC than the employment of expatriate managers. In many organizations, promotions to senior managerial positions occur only after a manager has gained experience successfully completing foreign projects. While some view expatriate assignments as a carry-over from the colonial era, expatriate managers in the 21st Century are just as likely to be sent abroad for what they can learn as for what they can teach. A manager can, by taking part in such assignments develop a

global mindset, learn to manage diverse teams and be part of an internal benchmarking system promoting the dissemination of best practices throughout the organization.

There is evidence (Evans, 2002) that the profile of the expatriate manager and of expatriate assignments is changing. Classically, the expatriate manager was a man, often Caucasian, who held a senior role in a multinational corporation, had technical expertise, and was posted for years together on a foreign assignment. Historically, the purpose of these assignments was to enable the parent company to maintain control of the subsidiary. In the 21st century expatriate managers as a group are becoming more heterogeneous. Expatriation is more frequently regarded in part as grooming for the future roles of the younger manager. There is also an increasing trend toward the deployment of females on foreign assignments. In the 1980's approximately 5% of expatriates were female, 20 years later their representation had increased to 17% of the entire expatriate workforce (Evans, 2002). Moreover, while selecting managers for foreign assignments the importance given to technical expertise has been reduced in favour of soft-skills. Soft-skills include but are not limited to communication skills, working well in diverse teams, feeling comfortable living and working in foreign cultures, being open to change, flexible and able to quickly adjust to new surroundings and people (Evans, 2002). Also, as a group expatriates are becoming younger. One reason could be the aforementioned training role of these assignments, another could be that by hiring younger expatriates certain issues of discontent are avoided. Younger expatriates are less likely to be married and have children, therefore avoiding the problems associated with moving dual career couples or entire families abroad.

In addition to the changing demographic of expatriate managers the structure of the assignment itself is changing. Two notable changes have been in the length of the

average assignment and the number of assignments carried out by a manager during the entire career. In general, expatriate assignments are becoming shorter. Up until the mid 1990's the average expatriate assignment lasted 2-3 years. Approximately one quarter of international assignments now last less than one year (Solomon, 1998). Short term assignments cost the employer less, are easier to plan and create fewer problems on re-entry at the end of the assignment. Further, dual-career couples find it easier to manage assignments that last less than one year because the manager often chooses to move alone and bridge the time away with company sponsored visits with his or her family.

1.3 Failure of Expatriate Managers

It is a frequently cited statistic that the average cost of a failed expatriate assignment is \$250,000 (Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou, 1987). However, it should be borne in mind that this statistic is 20 years old and needs to be upwardly revised. There are no published figures on the costs of failed expatriate assignments in the near past, but by using an inflation calculator one can calculate that what cost US\$ 250,000 in 1987 would be approximately equal to \$ 443,100 today. (www.westegg.com/inflation/infl.cgi). When expatriate assignments fail, the employing company suffers more than the financial loss incurred by relocation expenses and high salaries paid. Failure can result in damage to the company's image abroad, the alienation of business contacts in the host country, the loss of revenue and market share, or the dissolving of long standing business partnerships. These far reaching consequences of failed performance are an indication of the influential and visible nature of expatriate managers' roles which often involve interacting with and leaving an impression on a wide array of internal and external stakeholders. Negative repercussions of failed assignments for managers may include a

loss of self-esteem, feelings of emotional anxiety and stress, jeopardized career development and alienation from family members in cases where the manager's spouse or children are unhappy abroad.

A large minority of expatriates prematurely terminate a foreign assignment but continue to remain employed by the same company in their home country; this number has been reported to be between 25-45% (Tung, 1981) and as high as 70% for expatriates posted from high to low income countries (Tung, 1982). Expatriate managers cost employers upward of three times their annual salary (Andreason, 2003) once expenses such as travel, training, housing, private schooling for children and relocation bonuses are accounted for. Since the publication of early studies by Tung (1981, 1982), issues such as non-completion of foreign assignments and the relatively high attrition rates of former expatriate managers have remained current, as supported by results of more recent surveys discussed below, such as the large scale 2004 GMAC Survey or a 2007 PricewaterhouseCoopers report.

Moreover, parallel to the growth in the number of expatriate assignments there has been an increase in the expatriate attrition rate, which is now twice that of domestic employees. Fully 21% of expatriates leave their company during the foreign assignment and of those completing the assignment, 43% leave within two years of completion (Ten Years of Global Relocation Trends 1993-2004, GMAC GLS in association with NFTC and SHRM). Following an expatriate assignment returning managers are often faced with a lack of respect for acquired skills, a decrease in status and autonomy held in their next roles, unmet expectations, and reverse culture shock when re-entering their home countries (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2001). Expatriate managers face much uncertainty when they go abroad; about what awaits them in the new country and what will await

them once the assignment ends. There is still much research needed to better understand the high rate of dissatisfaction among expatriates with the foreign assignment experience and how best to optimize expatriate satisfaction, organizational commitment and assignment outcome.

A large scale study of over 3, 450 expatriates in 9 MNCs reports that only one-quarter of returned expatriates received a promotion within one year of completing their assignment (2007 Report by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP and Cranfield School of Management, UK cited in Human Resource Management International Digest). Moreover, 15% of employees who took part in a foreign assignment resigned within 12 months of completing their posting. While the report does not attempt to establish causal linkages, it is possible that those who are not promoted after completing their foreign experience were more likely to have left their employer. The aforementioned report states that an expatriate assignment costs a company an average of \$311,000 a year. The hidden costs of energy and manpower invested in caring for these managers should also be considered. In the large MNCs included in the report, expatriate managers were “supported by twice as many HR specialists (1:37) as employees who stay in their home country (1:70). One participating organization has one HR specialist dedicated to every 15 expatriate workers.” If the situation were such that managers were being sent abroad without any support from their company and without regard for their well-being, the negative repercussions associated with these assignments would not be surprising. However, in light of the time, energy, and financial investment made by organizations to ensure that such assignments are positive experiences for the manager and the organization as a whole, the above average attrition and the negative attitudes of these expatriate managers is worrying.

Reversing the high failure and attrition rates among expatriate managers is an important and challenging proposition. Since a failed assignment has serious negative repercussions for both the employer and the manager, minimizing the possibility of failure is a universal goal in the context of international management. However, no simple solution awaits the researcher or the practitioner who attempts to solve the puzzle. As a partial solution, past writings have indicated the importance of developing a global mindset for the expatriate manager. Below this construct is considered in greater detail.

1.4 Need for Global Mindset

An expatriate manager must have the requisite skills and attitudes to successfully interact and influence members of other cultures. In several contexts, ethnic or national culture surrounding the foreign office may exert significantly stronger influence on the behaviour of employees than corporate culture. An expatriate manager who is convinced that there is only one right way to conduct business will not value or respect differing management styles (task oriented versus relationship oriented or nurturing), leadership norms (high versus low power-distance), decision making practices (consensus versus edict), or alternate structures (hierarchical versus flat). Outside of the workplace, expatriate managers who believe that there is only one way to conduct themselves may face further hurdles related to living conditions, local foods, infrastructure, and available activities and entertainment. To excel, expatriates must have the necessary traits, skills and attitudes to align themselves with the new culture both within and outside the workplace and learn new behaviours, a potentially overwhelming challenge.

In today's global market place, it is critical for an expatriate manager to have a *global mindset*. The term 'global mindset' (Bartlett and Ghoshal, 1992) describes the

thoughts and actions of global executives whose success depends on an interplay between both cultural and business spheres. When a manager is described as having a global mindset reference is being made to specific skills and competencies required to conduct global business, but also less concretely to the kind of person that manager is and the perspective that he or she holds. It has been suggested that managers developing a global mindset are doing more than learning skills they are undergoing a transformation.

“This change goes far beyond a change in the skill set – it is a change in the *person*. We know that these deep changes in personal identity occur as a result of being confronted with a higher level of complexity in the environment....and that is precisely what happens in an international assignment....Not only does the person develop new perspectives, but he or she also *develops skills in the taking of new perspectives, and developing and holding multiple perspectives*. This ability to acquire and hold multiple, perhaps competing, perspectives i.e., the ability to see a situation through another person’s eyes is a quality of a more “evolved” identity.”

(Hall, Zhu, and Yan. In McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002, p. 105)

The differences between a domestic and a global mindset are not easily bridged, as moving from one to the other is a process and not a fast transformation. Managers with a domestic as opposed to a global mindset are likely to value functional expertise and technical skills more than soft skills such as flexibility, adaptability, and openness to new ways of working. A manager with a domestic mindset will be individual focussed, trained against surprises and will let structure orientate behaviour. The holder of a global mindset concentrates on the bigger, broader picture. The focus of the manager with a global mindset is on teamwork, he regards change as an opportunity, is open and encourages improvisation. Part of having a global mindset includes being better able to balance contradictions and to encourage and effectively manage diversity. The above attributes

make it more likely for a person with a global versus a domestic mindset to be relatively tolerant of ambiguity and to actively seek out novelty, both characteristics which are important in an expatriate function.

Some scholars devise 'recipes' for creating the complex transformation from domestic to global mindset that often seem over simplified. For example, it has been suggested that developing a global mindset requires having had international experiences, defined as speaking two or more languages, having lived in at least three countries and having worked in at least two. Surely, whether someone is transformed by living and working abroad also depends on that person's willingness and ability to learn, to adjust to foreign environments and to change his or her attitudes and behaviours as a result. A corporation that needs global managers with global mindsets can select for them if their distinguishing characteristics are understood and can be measured. Alternatively, by assigning employees to work abroad and appropriately preparing them, future global managers can be developed.

An expatriate manager with a global mindset will understand the new global logic and possess the analytical skills necessary to relate to alien cultures and be able to balance multiple allegiances (to home vs. host company, colleagues, and friends). These managers will be able to work across physical borders but also across organizational, functional and cultural ones (Evans, 2002). This special breed of expatriate manager will therefore possess skills that are transferable geographically and between organizations and roles. The talents and skills inherent to managers with a global mindset do not preclude their need for an appropriate organization support system to optimise their performance during and attitude toward the foreign assignment experience. Simply selecting managers with a global mindset to go abroad can not replace an organization's efforts in developing and

continually optimising human resource practices such as training and career development, performance appraisal and compensation and repatriation activities that support effective expatriation.

In summary, today's global economy requires organizations, big and small, to think beyond their traditional boundaries. The people who manage these organizations also require new skills, competencies and attitudes. The lack of requisite competencies on their part can spell failure for their employing organization. No wonder then that considerable research has been done to identify the profile of successful expatriate managers and organizational support systems that facilitate successful foreign assignments.

This chapter began by highlighting the ever-shrinking global borders. Today, business is becoming increasingly global, physical borders as well as non-tangible barriers becoming more porous and encouraging the international movement of products, services and labour. Developments in technology and transportation have, in many instances, contributed to movements of people and goods across borders. With competitors, customers and business partners moving abroad, organizations have often had to follow suit to remain competitive in the global marketplace. However, global operations have become increasingly critical for all organizations because the business landscape had changed with regard to where products are sourced from and sold to, the expectations of third party stakeholders and the rise of new foreign competitors.

This chapter discussed the importance of expatriate managers in today's global business setting. The poor engagement of these managers can be costly to both the expatriates and the organizations employing them, thereby making the identification or development of appropriate expatriate managers crucial. While a number of past studies

have attempted to identify the traits and characteristics of successful expatriates, no integrative model that explains the relationship between manager and organization related attributes to managers' attitudes and performance has been devised.

The present study is one attempt to fill some of the existing gaps in the study of expatriate managers. The next chapter looks at key past findings in this regard. Following this, an overall conceptual model is presented along with several testable hypotheses. Chapter 3 focuses on the research methodology used in the present study. Details of the measuring instruments, their psychometric properties and sample characteristics are discussed in this chapter. Chapter 4 presents the major findings in the study along with the results of the hypotheses tests; these results are then discussed in Chapter 5. The implications of the present findings for theory and practice are discussed in Chapter 6. The dissertation concludes by identifying the limitations of the present study and providing an overview of the future research needed in this area.

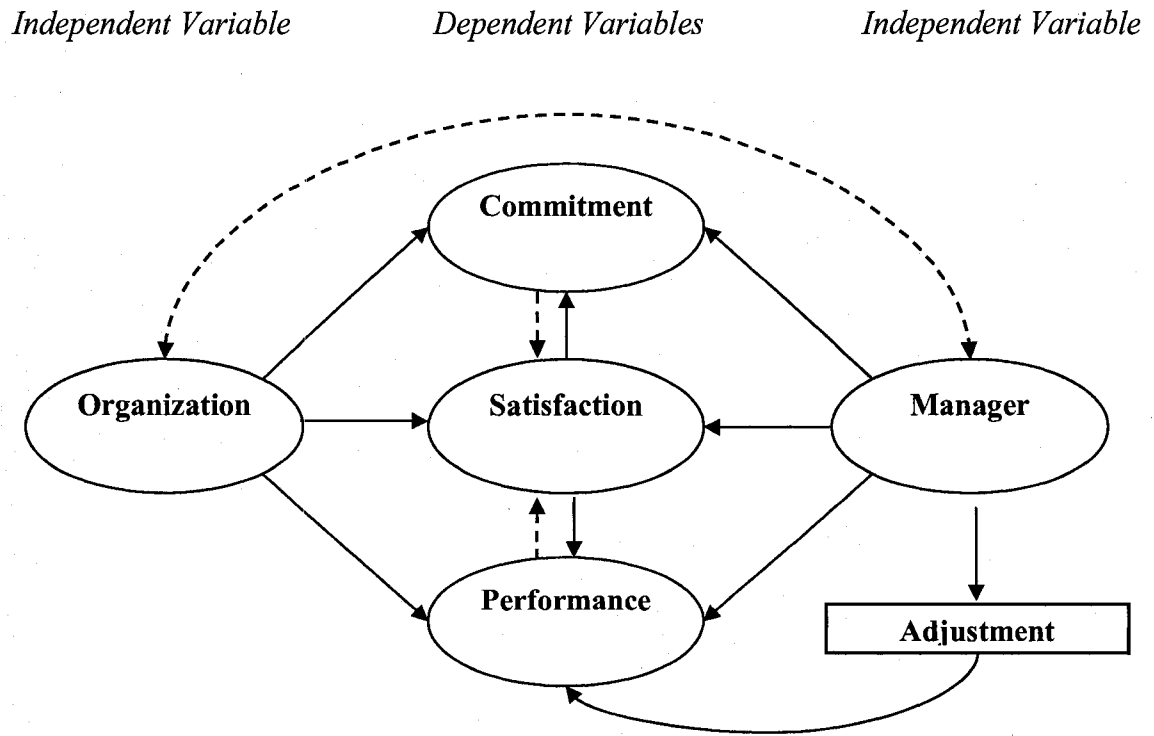
CHAPTER TWO

PAST RESEARCH FINDINGS ON EXPATRIATE MANAGER SUCCESS, SATISFACTION, AND ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT

As pointed out in the last chapter, when an expatriate assignment fails, considerable out of pocket and opportunity costs for the organization result. Past research shows that on average, 40% of expatriates fail, that is, return home before completing assignments. The replacement of expatriate managers costs the employer at least three times their salary (McFarland, 2006). A large majority of expatriate failures (86% according to McFarland) are due to poor candidate selection or development and inadequate preparation to work in the new cultural setting. This chapter begins with a definition of expatriate success and looks at a number of organizational and individual manager variables related to the outcome of foreign assignments. Past findings discussed throughout this chapter stem from a number of research studies and have shown that satisfaction, organizational commitment and success are influenced by specific organizational and manager related variables (see Figure 1). For a complete list of all figures included in this dissertation the reader is directed to Appendix 17.

Figure 1

Model of findings from multiple studies summarized



Integrally related to expatriate success are the satisfaction of expatriate managers and their commitment to the organization. A recurring research topic over the last four decades is the relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. While studies on job satisfaction began in earnest starting the 1950's, its relationship to a number of other organizational variables continues to be unclear. In the case of expatriate managers, the number of studies examining the inter-relationships among job satisfaction, job performance and job commitment have been few and piece-meal in nature (Gregersen and Black, 1990). This chapter begins with a look at the complex relationship among the three constructs and concludes by offering a conceptual model that integrates and builds on past research. Key past findings on job satisfaction of expatriate managers will be discussed. This will be followed by a discussion about another key variable relevant to the present study, organizational commitment. A discussion of factors influencing expatriate manager performance will follow. To begin this discussion, the construct "expatriate success" must first be defined, as attempted in the next section.

2.1 Past Findings on Expatriate Success

In most research studies focussing on expatriate managers, failure has been defined as premature termination of the assignment. Simply completing an assignment does not however mean that it has been completed well. Expatriate assignments that are completed are often not completed on schedule. The GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report states that in 2004 11% of assignments were completed in less time than planned, 58% were completed on schedule, and 31% needed more time to be completed than originally planned. Additional cost is a consequence of assignments running over schedule as well as future scheduling conflicts for the expatriate manager

and the organization. The factors that result in delays to assignment completion are not always under the control of the expatriate manager and include: “no return and reintegration plan set up in time”, “lack of succession plan”, “customer requirements”, or “project extension” (The GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report , p. 28).

Foreign assignments that are completed on schedule can still be considered as less than completely successful if they are carried out at costs significantly higher than budgets. Discrepancy between budgets and actual costs can indicate the absence of accurate planning on the part of the manager either in setting the budget, negotiating the budget, or working within the confines of a pre-set budget. A project that is completed under budget, while intuitively a welcome outcome, can still be an indication that the manager did not utilize the available opportunity (in select cases the budget may have been overestimated). For example, a marketing budget that goes unspent may save the expatriate Product Manager the effort of coordinating marketing activities, however this is to the detriment of product sales and overall profitability for the employing organization. The GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report states that in 2004, 53% of completed foreign assignments were completed on budget, 18% above budget, 26% were completed below budget, and 3% “much lower” than budgeted. Therefore, both the time frame in which the assignment was completed and adherence to budgets should be considered to determine the success of an expatriate assignment.

In the past, a number of researchers have attempted to quantitatively measure expatriate success. One approach looks at ‘time to proficiency’. This is a measure of the time taken by expatriates to fully establish themselves in their new function or role abroad (Waxin, 2004). This is a relative measure in that the time to proficiency can only be interpreted as being fast or slow based on the speed at which other managers master the

same role. An alternative measure of success is to determine whether the expatriate manager met the expectations of his or her superiors. This measure of success assumes that the expectations are realistic for the role at hand. Black and Gregerson (1997) report of an American survey which found that almost one third of expatriates do not meet the performance expectations of their superiors.

Since most researchers assess success of expatriate assignments from the view point of the manager (Evans, 2002; Black and Gregerson, 1999), it makes intuitive sense to further break down "success" into meeting the personal and professional expectations held by managers prior to the beginning of the assignment. Expatriate Managers who define success based more on personal development, growth and learning may gauge the success of their time abroad differently than those who consider success to be measured by the increased compensation and status that the assignment afforded them following its completion. The present study started out using a broader definition of expatriate success. The three critical components of success, namely completing the assignment in its *entirety*, completing it *on time* and completing it *within the budget* were incorporated in the measure of success. However, this definition had to be revised later on for practical reasons. More details on the operational definition of "success" are provided in the research methodology section.

2.2 Job Satisfaction

Even the most basic definition of expatriate success, namely completion of the assignment, can not be discussed in isolation of expatriate manager satisfaction. A manager who is not satisfied, with the assignment itself, life abroad or the personal consequences of the assignment may not last for the duration of the foreign assignment.

Despite the important link between satisfaction and success, few past expatriate studies have systematically studied the relationship between the two variables.

In several past studies, both job satisfaction and organizational commitment have been shown to determine employee turnover and performance (Glisson and Durick, 1988; Yavas and Bodur, 1999a, Williams and Hazer, 1986). However, much of the available literature pertains to domestic organizational settings as few studies have attempted to operationalize and measure these constructs in an international management context. The present discussion looks at available studies that examined expatriate job satisfaction and links this construct to job performance.

Job satisfaction is the most researched subject of organizational behavior (Spector, 1997). Job satisfaction has been found to be positively related to performance (Staw and Barsdale, 1993; Judge et al., 2001), organizational commitment (Johnston et al, 1990; Bateman and Strasser, 1984; Porter et al., 1974), and organizational citizenship behavior (McNeely and Meglino, 1994), and negatively related to withdrawal (Mitra, Jenkins, and Gupta, 1992), turnover (Crampton and Wagner, 1994), and absenteeism (Kohler and Mathieu, 1993). The idea that a happy worker is a productive worker has been tested time and again in a domestic context with conflicting results. Research has found the relationship between job satisfaction and performance to range from weak (Staw and Barsdale, 1993) to moderate (Judge et al., 2001). The fact that the relationship between job satisfaction and performance is not stronger has been explained by the theory that it is in fact performance that leads to satisfaction only when valued rewards are bestowed (McShane, 2004). The idea is that high performers who receive valued rewards for their performance will be more satisfied. For example, a manager who was motivated to accept a foreign assignment with the hope that its completion will result in career advancement

would, upon receiving a promotion, experience increased satisfaction. Job satisfaction has been found to be related to both employees' physical and mental health (Fox, Dweyer, and Ganster, 1993; Spector, 1997; Bluen, Barling and Burns, 1990). There is, regardless of performance effects, also an ethical component to being aware of worker satisfaction as an organization has a certain duty of care toward its employees.

The antecedents of job satisfaction are many, however they can be broadly classified in to environmental antecedents and individual antecedents.

2.2.1 Environmental Antecedents

Environmental antecedents are factors related to the organization and job. Organizational factors include items such as rewards, co-workers, professional support, systems and policies, career planning, training, work-family conflict (Stewart and Barling, 1996) and organizational constraints such as suboptimal budgetary support, restrictive time frames, poor infrastructure, and lack of access to information needed to perform the job (Peters and O'Connor 1980; Peters, O'Connor, and Rudolf, 1980). Environmental antecedents therefore also include job characteristics. Job Characteristics Theory (Hackman and Oldham, 1980. In Spector, 1997) explains that performing job tasks that meet certain criteria will motivate people to perform in line with their abilities and lead to desirable psychological states. The five characteristics included in this model are skill variety; task identity, significance, autonomy, and job feedback.

2.2.2 Individual Antecedents

Individual factors that contribute to increased job satisfaction are referred to here as manager related variables. These include items such as background variables, previous experiences, and overall personality and attitudes. Research has found that there is a personality component to job satisfaction (McShane, 2004) and that even when people

change jobs their level of job satisfaction remains constant. It should be noted that while personality may predispose people to experiencing a certain level of satisfaction this level can be significantly influenced by altering environmental variables (Newton and Keenan, 1991). Hence, it is critical to assess both organizational and manager related variables when attempting to understand an expatriate manager's satisfaction.

An additional factor that has been shown to contribute to job satisfaction is the nationality of those whose satisfaction is being measured. There is evidence that job satisfaction levels differ across nations (Spector, 1997; McShane, 2004). A 2000 survey of 9300 employees by Ipsos Reid (In McShane, 2004) found differences in the satisfaction of workers ranging from a high of 75% of workers in Brazil and Mexico being satisfied to a low of 42% of workers in Hong Kong being satisfied. This would mean that results from research that only involved people of one nationality may be strongly biased and not be generalizable. Researching a global sample from a single company could mitigate the restrictions of an otherwise limited range of job satisfaction levels reported by people belonging to a certain nationality.

Cultural differences between the host country and home office can create new challenges and conflicts for the expatriate manager. For example, nepotism or the exchange of presents to win business favours, which are considered unethical in North American and most European countries may be commonplace in certain countries in the Middle East or Latin America (Usunier, 1996). If employees have spent years working in an extremely regulated setting they may disapprove of the more lenient regulations encountered in another country where they are assigned. The expatriate managers may not feel comfortable changing their behaviour to conform to what they consider to be "unethical" standards. Indeed they may even resent being put in a situation where they

have to compromise their values, further eroding their satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Job satisfaction, as it pertains to the expatriate assignment, can be divided into three distinct components: the expatriate's satisfaction with the assignment itself, satisfaction with one's life abroad and satisfaction with the consequences of the assignment, especially the personal consequences for one's career and wellbeing. Each of these components is discussed in the following section.

2.3 Satisfaction with the Assignment

Much of the past research on expatriate manager satisfaction concentrates on job satisfaction (Bhuian and Menguc, 2002; Brown and Peterson, 1993; Testa, Mueller, and Thomas, 2003; Downes, Thoma, and Singley, 2002; Yavas and Bodur, 1999b). Job satisfaction is an attitudinal variable that can describe the extent to which an employee likes his or her job in its entirety or in individual facets such as pay, colleagues, job characteristics, work conditions, supervisor and company policies. By and large past research on job satisfaction of expatriate managers treated it as a single construct focusing on aspects such as an expatriate's authority in executing the project, relationships with colleagues, and working conditions in the foreign country.

It is not uncommon for discussions about managerial job satisfaction to begin by explaining its benefits for the individual and the employing organization. However, it is even more critical to talk about the impact of job *dissatisfaction*. In the past, the Exit-Voice-Loyalty-Neglect [or EVLN] model has been used to explain how employees deal with job dissatisfaction (Turnley and Feldman, 1999; Withey and Cooper, 1989). Dissatisfied employees may EXIT the organization, VOICE their concern, exhibit

LOYALTY by continuing to work for the employer or NEGLECT their duties because of feelings of alienation. From the point of view of the employer, the exit strategy may appear to be the most expensive coping strategy. However, the cost of retaining an alienated employee who works at far below capacity should not be underestimated. Often "voicing" takes the form of complaining about the organization to colleagues and friends which can have negative consequences for efficiency and morale. Employees who "neglect" can ignore their own responsibilities, decrease effort invested into their work, reduce the quality of work and take more unscheduled days off—all resulting in lower organizational and unit performance (McShane, 2004). The alienated employees may harm relations with suppliers, colleagues, and business partners and cost a company its reputation, market share and revenue. Research has found that satisfaction has a negative effect on expatriate withdrawal cognitions and a positive effect on assignment outcome (Shaffer and Harrison, 1998; Hom and Griffeth, 1991). Although much of an expatriate's time is spent in the work context, his or her attitudes to life outside of work should not be ignored in discussions about expatriate satisfaction.

2.4 Satisfaction with Life Abroad

While satisfaction with the assignment is an important part of a manager's overall satisfaction with the expatriate experience it represents only one dimension of expatriate satisfaction. Satisfaction with life abroad refers to satisfaction in a general as opposed to work context. A variety of items such as standard of living and free time activities, as well as adjustment of self and family to life and culture abroad is relevant to this dimension.

The way in which expatriate managers spend their time outside of the workplace and the type of experience they encounter affect their overall satisfaction with the assignment. This type of satisfaction is influenced by a variety of factors such as standard and quality of life, opportunities for outside activities, entertainment choices, food and shopping options, climate and overall comfort. Expatriates who are otherwise satisfied with the job components may still be dissatisfied with the standard and quality of life in the host country. The desired standard of living is subjective and highly variable across expatriate managers (Kwek, 2004). The discrepancy between the standard of living enjoyed at home and in the host country can play a key role in determining overall satisfaction.

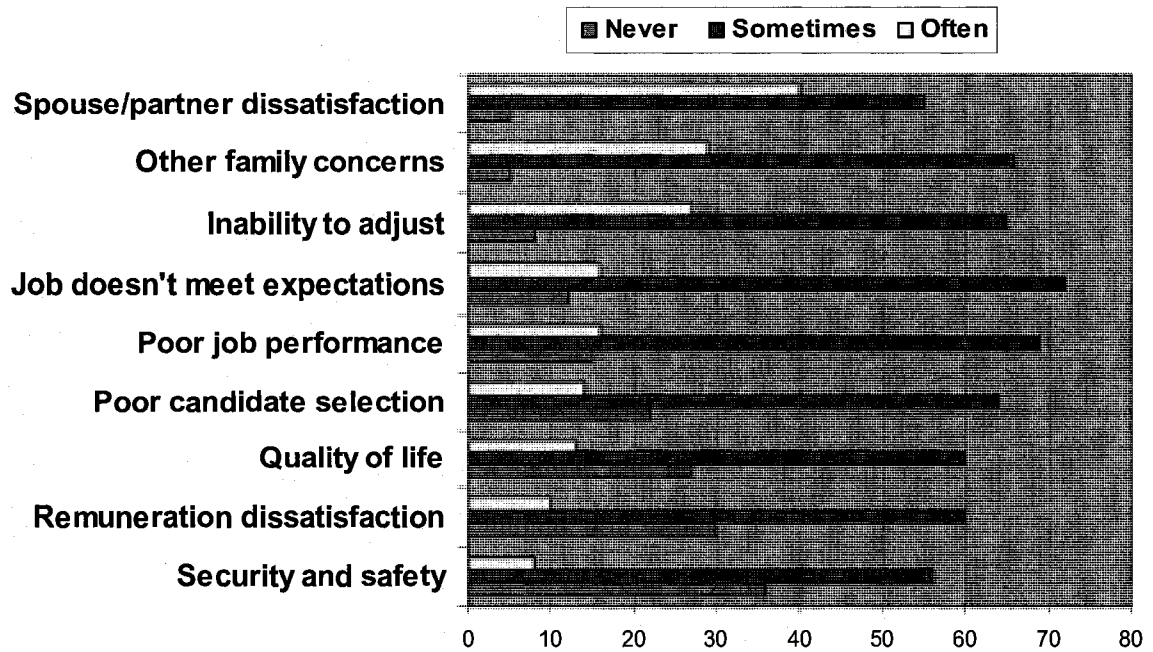
Satisfaction with life abroad may also be influenced by the number, variety and personal significance of non-work activities that are available in the new country. Often, after moving to a new setting, expatriates and their families find that activities they had enjoyed engaging in at home are no longer available. Depending on their personalities, expatriates may or may not welcome the opportunity to replace old activities with new locally available ones. Reinforcement substitution, the ability to substitute the familiar activities from the home country with different ones in the host country, facilitates an expatriate manager's extent of adjustment to the foreign environment (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985).

An expatriate manager's general satisfaction and success is influenced by the degree to which his or her family adjusts to the new country. Tung (1981) identifies the primary reason for expatriate failure as the failure of the expatriate's spouse to adjust to the new setting. Black and Stephans (1989) report that 16-40% of expatriate assignment failures are due to the inability of the expatriate manager's family to adjust (see also Fish

and Wood, 1997). Both the absence of available resources and laws that restrict activities can limit the range of activities for spouses. If the spouse is a woman, which is the case approximately 85% of the time (Adler, 1997, GMAC 2005), host country laws may restrict her from engaging in a number of the activities that she carried out in the home country such as driving a car. Other factors related to the wellbeing of the family are a spouse who is willing but unable to find work in the host country comparable to that carried out in the home country or children who feel uncomfortable in the host country environment. If an expatriate manager's family is unhappy abroad this will likely affect his or her satisfaction with the overall assignment experience (Black and Stephens, 1989). The GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report reports that of the principal reasons for not completing assignments in their entirety, 67% were family concerns, 32% were cultural adjustment challenges, 15% were security concerns and 10% were career concerns (respondents were permitted to provide multiple reasons which explains why the percentages total more than 100%). The same survey asked respondents to identify causes for assignment failure. Figure 2 shows the role played by family in determining overall job satisfaction of expatriate managers.

Figure 2

Causes for assignment failure as reported by the expatriate (%)



Source: GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005
A copy of The Global Relocation Trends Survey Report is
available at <http://www.gmacglobalrelocation.com/survey.html>.

2.5 Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Foreign Assignment

The final component of expatriate satisfaction is the impact of the assignment on career and personal development of the manager. It also includes attitudinal or behavioural changes that have occurred in the manager as a result of the stay abroad. The long term outcome of employee-employer relationships (Schein, 1978) and the success of the expatriate's repatriation depend on the degree to which personal expectations are met by an employer (Hammer, Hart and Rogan, 1998). Moreover, met expectations have been found to be positively correlated to both organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Naumann, Widmair and Jackson, 2000). Research to date indicates that certain expatriate expectations such as a positive career outcome (either in the form of a promotion or a better job assignment) following the expatriate assignment are often not met (Welch, 2003; Feldman and Thomas, 1992). Unmet expectations can be interpreted by expatriate managers as a violation of the psychological contract (Morrison and Robinson, 1997), the expectation on the part of the employee that a given level or quality of performance will lead to a certain outcome. Breaking the psychological contract by failing to meet expatriates' expectations is related to decreased satisfaction and a higher propensity to leave the organization (Welch, 2003).

Taking part in a foreign assignment is an opportunity for both career and personal development, often resulting in the acquisition of "valuable skills" (Tung, 1998). From the expatriate experience assignees learn to be "more sensitive to the challenges of working in another country" (Caligiuri, Di Santo, 2001, p. 27) and also learn to respect and value dissimilar cultures (Adler, 1986). Expatriate managers who value these outcomes are likely to have more positive feelings about their assignment.

A key reason for managers to accept expatriate assignments is the expected positive impact on their careers (Welch, 2003; Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987). However, the completion of a foreign assignment can have both positive and negative consequences for the expatriate. Expatriate managers who completed foreign assignments have encountered negative career outcomes such as the inability to find suitable work positions upon returning to their home countries, loss of autonomy in the next position assigned to them and being ignored for promotions while abroad (Howard, 1973. In Mendenhall, Dunbar, and Oddou, 1987). More recent research by Stahl and Cerdin (2004) based on a sample of French and German expatriates found that foreign assignments are considered a risky career move, a finding supported by Adler (1991) who reported that less than 50% of expatriates were promoted upon completion of their assignments. In Adler's study, 66% of expatriates reported that going abroad was a bad career move and approximately 50% of them considered their next assignment to be "not satisfying". This means that expatriates' expectations of career advancement as a result of participation in the foreign assignment are often not met. Welch (2003) reports findings from Feldman and Thomas (1992, p. 283) that "perceiving a connection between the expatriate assignment and long-term-career plans is significantly, and positively, related to overall performance, skill acquisition, intent to remain, and job satisfaction".

Welch (2003) reports that "there is an implicit assumption in the American expatriate management literature of the developmental potential of the foreign assignment per se; and that the individual expatriate's motive for accepting such a transfer is perceived career enhancement" (p.153). However, a recent study of 10,000 expatriate managers from 10 countries across Europe conducted by PriceWaterhouseCoopers (PWC) which explored managers' motivation to take part in a foreign assignment yielded

contrary results. In decreasing order of importance the motivators for this European sample were: improve pay/income, improve living standard, experience life abroad, develop skills, new employment opportunities, enhance career opportunities, and commitment to employer. Since there are significant differences among motivators across cultures, it is likely that the above rankings would show marked differences in a non-European sample. This theory is supported by a 2004 report by the consultancy Cartus, which is based on survey results from 548 expatriates taking part in assignments in 52 countries across the world. The Cartus report found strikingly different results to the European PWC survey and states that only 1.8% of respondents accepted a foreign assignment to improve pay and that career development remains the primary driver. These conflicting reports of what motivates managers to go abroad would support the notion that developing standardized global relocation policies would not be as successful at motivating employees as adapting them regionally would be (Kwek, 2004).

In 2004, 85% of respondents to the largest annual relocation survey worldwide stated that their companies standardize international assignment components (GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report). Cross national results could be used to help companies understand whether employees in different regions are more motivated by factors such as pay and benefits or by the promise of career opportunity in the form of skill development and promotions.

Personal consequences of time spent on foreign assignments also include changes to the relationships that were formed by the manager in the home country before leaving. When managers take part in foreign assignments they may leave behind everyone they know and value when they move to the new country. Not being able to stay connected to their network of contacts both in the home country office and in their personal sphere

would be an unfortunate personal consequence of being abroad. It has been suggested that the longer the time span the expatriate manager spends abroad the greater his or her adaptation to the host country cultural norms and practices and the more difficult the re-entry in to the home country (Hammer, Hart, and Rogan, 1998). Research by Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall (1992) found that the longer expatriate managers are away from their home-countries the less accurate their expectations regarding re-entry become, either because they have changed while abroad or because changes have taken place in the home country environment during their absence. These inaccurate expectations hinder re-entry adjustment and re-entry satisfaction (Hammer, Hart, and Rogan 1998). While the most important personal consequence of a foreign assignment is perhaps linked to career progress, the assignment's impact on their personal development and human relationships should also be recognized when assessing expatriate satisfaction and morale.

2.6 Organizational Commitment

The loyalty, affinity, and bond that employees have for their organization are parameters of their organizational commitment (Meyer, Allen, and Smith, 1993). Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) defined Organizational Commitment as "a strong belief in and acceptance of the organization's goals and values; a willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organization; and a strong desire to maintain membership in the organization" (Meyer and Allen, 1997, p.27). Organizational Commitment has been found to be significantly and positively related to productivity, motivation to perform, job performance, job attendance, and job satisfaction (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Meyer and Allen; 1991, Meyer, Allen and Smith, 1993) and negatively

related to absenteeism (Samad, 2005; Hackett and Bycio, 1996) and voluntary turnover (Griffeth and Hom, 1995).

There have been studies conducted about a wide array of potential antecedents to Organizational Commitment, some broad and qualitative, others measuring one specific factor such as whether the number of promotions received is positively related to commitment (Salancik, 1977, in Nauman, 1993). There have been hundreds of articles published in management literature that explore the antecedents and consequences of Organizational Commitment and several that explore the expatriate manager's commitment to the organization. These studies included measuring expatriate manager's commitment to the head office compared with that of host country nationals (Gegersen and Black, 1992); determining the antecedents and results of commitment among expatriate managers (Naumann, 1993); and measuring the effect of job satisfaction on expatriate commitment (Yavas and Bodur, 1999). The high failure rates of foreign work assignments make Organizational Commitment, especially as it pertains to an employee's wish to remain with an organization, an important measure for expatriate manager research.

Meyer and Allen (1997) describe a three component model of commitment:

“Affective commitment refers to the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization. Employees whose primary link to the organization is based on continuance commitment remain because they *need* to do so. Finally, normative commitment reflects a feeling of obligation to continue employment. Employees with a high level of normative commitment feel that they *ought* to remain with the organization.”

(Meyer and Allen, 1997 p.11)

In the expatriate literature, researchers have advised Affective Commitment to be used as the primary definition of commitment when what needs to be measured is the desire to remain in an organization even when alternative job opportunities exist elsewhere (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Bhuian and Menguc, 2002, Harrison, Gowan and Neill, 2004). One could argue that individuals with different value systems or personalities will show different types of commitment, and that therefore it is unwise to focus solely on one measure of commitment. However, the relative homogeneity of the respondents, with regard to seniority and industry of employment (and therefore to some extent employability), allows the assumption to be made, that for the most part these individuals would be able to find alternative employment. The research sample for this present study is composed of senior managers working in a high growth industry (pharmaceuticals) in constant need of qualified talent. Hence, it is the desire to stay as opposed to the need or obligation to stay with the organization that is most relevant in understanding the motivations of the present research sample to remain with the organization. The three measures of commitment explore fundamentally different attitudinal phenomena (Solinger et al., 2008); the desire to stay employed is measured by affective commitment (Meyer and Allen, 1997). Therefore, for the purposes of this research study, affective commitment was implemented as the measure with which to investigate individual organizational commitment.

Affective commitment has been found to be an important predictor of an expatriate's intent to stay with an organization and has been shown to have the most positive consequences for an organization (Gregersen and Black, 1990; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). A meta-analysis that set out to estimate the correlation between attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance found affective commitment did not have

a significant moderating effect on this relationship (Riketta, 2002). The main effect of Affective Commitment was not examined. In the same meta-analysis the corrected mean correlation between attitudinal organizational commitment and job performance was 0.20. More recent research (Parish et al., 2008) explored the influence of affective, normative and continuance commitment on the perceptions of employees in situations involving organizational or role change. It was found that affective commitment had the highest impact on the employee's perceptions of individual learning and implementation success of the change. The finding is relevant for this research as an expatriate assignment represents a significant change for the manager. The authors state that when researching commitment in the scope of change the antecedents to affective commitment are more important than those to both normative and continuance commitment (Parish et al., 2008)

In addition to the substantial financial investment made in expatriate managers, there are other less apparent costs as well. Many organizations spend considerable time and money to foster close relationships with employees. Activities aimed at knowledge transfer between employees are also pursued by many organizations, irrespective of whether the employee is likely to be assigned to foreign assignments or not. These investments are lost when the manager decides to leave the organization.

Factors promoting organizational commitment, and thereby encouraging employees to remain in the organization can be divided in to personal and organizational. Personal characteristics that influence organizational commitment can be further divided in to personality traits and background variables. For the purposes of this research, unless otherwise specified the terms organizational commitment and affective commitment will be used interchangeably.

IMPACT OF ORGANIZATIONAL AND INDIVIDUAL VARIABLES ON SUCCESS, SATISFACTION AND COMMITMENT

Past research has revealed the influence of a number of individual and organizational variables that impact on expatriate manager success, satisfaction and commitment. This section provides an overview of the key findings in the area.

2.7 Individual Variables

Individual manager related variables are those inherent to the person. These variables impact on assignment outcomes, regardless of the location of assignment. Early models of selection methods for expatriate managers focused on hard skills of the manager. Technical expertise was treated as foremost selection criterion for participation in a foreign assignment (Harvey and Novicevic, 2001; Tung, 1982). More recently the personal characteristics of potential expatriate managers have been included for consideration in the selection methods applied. Two manager related variables that may help organizations select expatriate managers are internationality of their background and manager personality.

2.7.1 Internationality of Background

There are a number of aspects that help to describe the internationality of a person's background; some of these can be measured using descriptive information. Internationality includes aspects such as the number of languages that a person speaks, the extent to which they have travelled abroad, and whether they have lived and worked in different countries. The reasons why each of these aspects contribute to describing how international a person is are discussed below.

2.7.1.1 Multilingualism

Expatriate managers' language proficiency is likely to be of benefit for practical reasons. Ability to speak with host country nationals can be an immense advantage to a newly arrived expatriate manager. Further, knowledge of foreign languages can also influence manager attitudes. Language is a central component of culture. By being proficient in two languages it follows that a person understands aspects of at least two cultures and is therefore aware that significant differences between national cultures are likely to exist. Such an understanding alone prepares managers to anticipate and observe cues from a foreign culture about appropriate behaviour in specific situations.

Expatriate managers who speak the language of the host country are able to directly communicate with colleagues, business partners, officials, and social contacts. This direct communication mitigates the risk of miscommunication and may also yield more opportunities for interpersonal interaction (Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993; Andreason, 2003). Being proficient in a language also better enables the expatriate manager to learn about a culture by understanding jokes told, the meaning behind foreign sayings, and at least the gist of popular culture as seen and heard through the media. There is some debate about the nature of the work positions for which language proficiency is especially important. Research conducted by Rosalie Tung (1982) found that positions that were operative (for example, planning corporate events or designing commercial materials) required that the person speak the host country language more so than for senior management positions in which general communication skills were more important. A study by Shaffer et al., showed host country language proficiency to be most important for the interaction adjustment of people holding technical jobs (Shaffer et al. In Andreason, 2003).

Language proficiency when consciously attained, as opposed to passive learning, can be an indicator of having taken an interest in another culture. By making an effort to learn to speak the language of the host country, one is better able to understand the perspectives, views, and values of members of the host culture (Ashamalla, 1998, Hogan and Goodson, 1990). For example, someone who speaks German in addition to his or her native English, knows that when speaking German one must choose whether to address someone with the informal *Du* or the formal *Sie*. Learning about the criteria with which to make this single decision will teach the language student about the role of social hierarchy, seniority and formality in Germany. Making an effort to learn the host country's language may ease interpersonal interaction because the host country nationals will assume that the foreign guest values learning about and understanding the host country culture and therefore be more likely to welcome interaction.

Being multilingual can positively influence adjustment to a foreign country even when the guest does not speak the language spoken in the host country. Language is a central component of culture. By being proficient in two languages it follows that a person understands aspects of two cultures and therefore is at least aware that significant differences between national cultures are likely to exist. Alone this understanding prepares multilingual people to anticipate and observe cues from a foreign culture about how best to behave. Going back to the above example of the German speaker but this time imagining that the speaker was raised to be bilingual in English and German at an early age; in a country in which a third language is spoken he or she will instinctively understand the importance of gauging the role of formality in the new culture by virtue of knowing that at least two cultures exist in which this dimension differs.

Host country language proficiency has been found to promote interpersonal interaction in the host country (Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993), be positively related to satisfaction (Yavas and Bodur, 1999a) and to assignment outcome (Ashamalla, 1998). The willingness to communicate in the language of the host country, regardless of proficiency, has been found to affect expatriates' success (Katz and Seifer, 1996; Holopainen and Bjoerkman, 2005). Research has shown that attempting to communicate to host nationals in their spoken language helped decrease culture shock and increased the chance of successful cross-cultural adjustment (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Sims and Schraeder, 2004). Host nationals appreciate the effort that is made by the foreign guest to communicate or rather understand their language and so it seems that it is also the willingness as opposed to the ability to communicate in a foreign language that influences adjustment.

2.7.1.2 Extensive Foreign Travel

Extensive personal foreign travel is an indicator that a person has taken a proactive interest in exploring foreign cultures. In countries that are very different to their own, visitors must often replace activities enjoyed at home with different local ones (Harrison, 1994). In cases where travel to cultures similar to that of the host country took place the expatriate may benefit from improved anticipatory adjustment. However, regardless of the characteristics of the countries visited, travel is an indication that the expatriate has coped with a culture unlike his or her own and that the process of 'learning a culture' took place. A person who is open to experiencing new and different behaviours and activities demonstrates cultural flexibility, which has been found to be important to adjusting to foreign cultures and crucial to expatriate success (Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Black, 1990).

It is unlikely that expatriate managers would have travelled for personal purposes to every country to which they are later posted for business purposes. However, even having visited a country that is culturally similar to the expatriate's host country can contribute to feelings of familiarity and preparedness while on future foreign assignments. First hand previous knowledge about countries that share similarities with the host country increases the expatriate manager's anticipatory adjustment. Anticipatory adjustment occurs when expatriates have knowledge about the culture that is awaiting them, especially what is considered appropriate behaviour. As uncertainty about what to expect in the host country decreases adjustment is supported (Black, Mendenhall and Oddou, 1991; Selmer, 2002). "The more accurate expectations expatriates can form, the more uncertainty will be reduced and the better their adjustment will be" (Selmer, 2002, p.74). Extensive foreign travel to similar cultures will have enabled more accurate expectations to be formed. Those who have travelled extensively may have experienced situations in which even though they thought they were prepared for what awaited them in a new country they experienced culture shock. Finding out that one's expectations about a country and its people will not always be met is in itself an important learning for the international traveller and the expatriate manager.

A different perspective from which to consider the role of extensive foreign travel in influencing an expatriate manager's success and attitudes, is not to focus on the nature (the rules, customs, behaviours, beliefs, values) of the cultures visited but instead on the fact that familiarization and coping with a culture unlike one's own took place (Bell and Harrison, 1996; Selmer, 2002). Those who have undergone the "process of having learned a different culture" (Selmer, 2002, p. 75) "could capitalize on the decreasing

marginal effort associated with acquiring skills in another culture” (Niyekawa-Howard, 1970. In Selmer, 2002, p.75).

2.7.1.3 Experience Living and Working Abroad

Previous international experience has been found to enable expatriates to more accurately anticipate the challenges and experiences linked to moving to and living in a foreign country that is culturally dissimilar to the expatriate’s home country (Black et al., 1999; Torbion, 1982). This more accurate anticipation coupled with the expatriate’s ability to draw on lessons from previous experiences helps both manager and family function abroad. These lessons include the mundane such as how best to pack and organize one’s belongings as well as issues of wellbeing such as coping with extreme climates and providing for the welfare of the travelling family, for example, selecting the best way to discuss the upcoming relocation with children. Accurate anticipation leads to decreased uncertainty about living in a foreign country regardless of its location (Sims and Schraeder, 2004; Nicholson, 1984) which in turn yields lower culture shock and a faster and more complete cross-cultural adjustment process compared to those who have only ever lived in one country (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh, 1999; McEvoy and Parker, 1995; Shaffer and Harrison, 1998). Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou (1991) propose that international work experience is likely to facilitate accurate expectations about what is awaiting the expatriate in the workplace, while international experience made outside of the workplace will facilitate the development of accurate expectations about the general culture and daily life in the host country.

Whether previous international experience is related to an expatriate manager’s level of adjustment and performance can depend on where that prior experience was acquired and the location of the foreign assignment that followed. Researchers have

posited that the more similar the cultures of the countries in which international experience was gained and the country of the expatriate assignment the higher the manager's anticipatory adjustment (Black, Gregersen, Mendenhall and Stroh, 1999). Research by Selmer (2002) concludes that experiences made in a country that is culturally dissimilar to the expatriate manager's host country will not aid adjustment. In cases where experience was made in a culturally similar country there was weak support for improved adjustment in the workplace and none for interpersonal adjustment or adjustment to the general environment. The sample in this research by Selmer (2002) was located entirely in Hong Kong. Further research involving expatriates who took part in assignments outside of Asia is needed to conclude whether the relationship between international experience and expatriate adjustment and attitudes is significant. International experience has been praised by researchers as an important prerequisite for the selection of expatriate managers (Tung, 1988; Mendenhall, Dunbar and Oddou, 1987) and has been found to be positively related to satisfaction and organizational commitment (Naumann, Widmer, and Jackson, 2000). However, research has also been conducted which concluded that the relationship between such foreign experience and satisfaction and organizational commitment is insignificant (Selmer, 2002).

There is promising but little research that investigates the role that having lived in different countries, independent of having international work experience, has on the attitudes of employees. Research from the area of Adult Third Culture Kids (ATCKS) may be relevant in understanding the role that having lived abroad has on an expatriate manager's success. Adult Third Culture Kids (Shaetti, 2006) are men and women born in one country and having spent one or more years growing up in a second country before moving to a third. Alternatively "third" culture refers to familial roots that the adult has

that are not native to the countries he or she lived in. Research has found that ATCKs have acquired traits and skills that would be desirable in expatriate managers (Lam and Selmer, 2004a; Lam and Selmer, 2004b) including being diplomatic, multilingual, being at ease and accepted in varied social spheres, being non judgmental and being tolerant toward people from different backgrounds (Useem, 2001; Gerner and Perry, 2000; Hayden et al., 2000). It has been found that these advantageous traits and skills are significant effects of having lived in different countries (Lam and Selmer, 2004a). This research lends itself to supporting the hypothesis that having lived in different countries facilitates expatriate success.

While the internationality of a manager's background may influence his or her attitudes about working abroad and toward the organization this aspect should not be explored in isolation from other manager related factors such as personality. Having an international background but not possessing appropriate personal traits to function well abroad can limit the success, satisfaction and commitment of a manager.

2.7.2 Personality Traits

Aspects of personality and character that can affect expatriate attitudes and performance include ethnocentricity, tolerance of ambiguity, self-monitoring, and novelty seeking.

2.7.2.1 Ethnocentricity

Ethnocentricity refers to a person's conviction about the superiority of his or her own culture, national group, or belief structure over that of others. Ethnocentric managers do not value cultural diversity; they believe there is a superior culture for employees to belong to which has superior ways of working and behaving. It is not surprising that a person's first instinct is to interpret the actions and beliefs of others based on the lens

modelled by his or her own culture and experiences. In that sense being ethnocentric can not easily be avoided and is not a negative trait that should be corrected. However, an ethnocentric person's conviction about the *superiority* (Gage, 1983; Shenkar and Luo, 2004; Sims and Schraeder, 2004) of his or her own culture, national group, or belief structure over that of can propel their belief that it is the "others" that would be wise to adapt.

In a business context, the more ethnocentric managers are, the less likely they are to value cultural diversity. An ethnocentric manager believes there is a superior culture for employees to belong to, that has superior ways of working and behaving, and that hiring members of a different culture leads to suboptimal results and should be avoided. The strategy applied by an ethnocentric manager, for whom the perceived impact of cultural diversity is by definition negative, will be to decrease the influence of cultural diversity in the company by only hiring people who share his or her culture (Adler, 1986). These ethnocentric managers will, by reducing cultural diversity, reduce problems that were in fact the result of poorly managed diversity in the workplace (Adler, 1986). Simultaneously, the opportunity to develop a competitive advantage through workplace diversity is also reduced. Research studies found that ethnocentrism both on the part of the expatriate and the organization is negatively related to adjustment of the expatriate in the workplace (Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001), to interpersonal adjustment (Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001; Black, 1990) and to assignment outcome (Mayrhofer and Brewster, 1996)

Ethnocentric expatriate managers differ from their ethnocentric domestic counterparts because the former typically have to work in environments in which most members of the society do not share their national culture, upbringing or background.

Unlike the ethnocentric domestic manager the ethnocentric expatriate manager may not be able to select a mono-cultural work team because of the lack of availability of qualified people or because the expatriate manager has 'inherited' the team from his or her predecessor. Ethnocentric expatriate managers are likely to socialize their work teams in to patterns of behaviour that reflect their home country culture and resist alternate ways to organize, lead or communicate that are prevalent in the host country. These managers do not believe that there can be several right ways to manage and that the 'best way' to do so is contingent on the culture of those being managed. When host country nationals behave as they are encouraged to by the expatriate manager, but against their natural inclination, the outcome can be a decrease in organizational commitment, motivation to perform, and job satisfaction and an increase in turnover. These managers by means of their position of authority may be able to influence 'how things are done around here'. However, their expectations that others happily conform to their culture, values and ways of operating will lead to an increased likelihood of experiencing culture shock (Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001) and decreased work adjustment and interaction adjustment. An expatriate with high levels of ethnocentrism in the workplace will also be ethnocentric with regard to his or her views about non work interactions and experiences. The interaction with neighbours, shopkeepers, teachers and social acquaintances will be influenced by a person's ethnocentricity and his or her adjustment will be hindered (Black, 1990).

2.7.2.2 Tolerance of Ambiguity

People who have high tolerance of ambiguity are able to respond constructively to situations which can only be sub-optimally understood or categorized because of insufficient cues and are more confident making decisions with access to less information

than people with lower tolerance of ambiguity. Someone who possesses high tolerance of ambiguity is able to respond positively and constructively to situations “which can not be adequately structured or categorized by an individual because of the lack of sufficient cues” (Budner, 1962, p.30). For a variety of reasons expatriate managers often have to make decisions based on less information than they would require to comfortably make such decisions in their home country. Some examples of situations that can lead to increased ambiguity for an expatriate manager in a work setting include, the manager who is newly posted at the foreign affiliate and does not know the history of business dealings or major players involved; the manager confronted with gatekeepers to information who resent headquarter-country management; the manager who can glean only limited first hand information from documents because of language barriers; or the manager who is not confident about interpreting signals and cues in high context cultures.

Research indicates that people with a high tolerance of ambiguity are confident making decisions with access to less information than those with lower tolerance of ambiguity (Teoh and Foo, 1997) and that their decisions and actions stem from more creative and original thinking (MacDonald, 1970 in Teoh and Foo, 1997). In a work situation that is very different to that of one’s home culture, there is an excess of stimulus to process, information is often perceived to be more complex, and the environment is more unpredictable. Successful expatriate managers with high tolerance of ambiguity attempt to cope with ambiguity while trying to decrease it (Whetten and Cameron, 2002). Managers with high tolerance of ambiguity cope better with ambiguity because they are able to process more information, better analyze cues, and quickly learn to correctly interpret foreign situations. These managers are more flexible and able to adapt their behaviours to suit their surroundings and are therefore well suited for positions where

frequent and unpredictable organizational change should be expected and where tasks are not routine or structured (Timothy et al., 1999), such as those of a manager in general and an expatriate manager specifically.

Teoh and Foo (1997), while studying the moderating effect of tolerance of ambiguity on the performance relationship, found that this trait has a significant main effect on performance and cultural adjustment. Tolerance of ambiguity can be learned, especially someone's ability to process large amounts of information. Therefore, if this trait is indeed related to cross-cultural adjustment it would be a relevant factor for international Human Resource Managers to incorporate in to plans for the development of successful expatriate managers.

Tolerance of ambiguity has been suggested to be a multi-dimensional construct. An often cited scale with which to measure Tolerance of ambiguity is the "Intolerance of Ambiguity Scale" (Budner, 1962. In Robinson and Shaver, 1973) which incorporates three dimensions. The dimension entitled 'novelty' indicates how well someone copes with new, unfamiliar situations, the complexity dimension measures a person's ability to process a high amount of complex, often seemingly contrary, information that stems from different sources and may or may not be related. The third dimension is the insolubility dimension which describes whether the participant is comfortable coping with problems that are not easily solved due to insufficient information or because of the complexity or overload of information.

2.7.2.3 Self-Monitoring

Self-monitoring refers to the ability to consistently alter ones behaviour, after reading and correctly interpreting social cues, in a way that serves to improve ones standing in a given situation (Snyder, 1974, Barrick et al. 2005; Day and Kilduff, 2002;

Day and Kilduff, 2003; Day et. al., 2002; Black and Gregersen, 1991). High self-monitors can influence the impressions that people have of them by altering their own behaviour to better fit any given situation. Low self monitors are not as likely to alter their behaviour to change others' perceptions; there is more consistency between their personality and the behaviours they exhibit. Substantial research has found that personality is neither learned nor likely to change significantly over the course of one's life. However, some individuals can change their behaviour to better suit different environments and situations. There are five prerequisites to consistently successfully changing one's behaviour to positively influence outcomes for oneself. Firstly, one must be concerned about presenting one's self in a socially appropriate manner. Next, one must be able to identify when it is necessary to change what would be one's natural or instinctive behaviour. Thirdly, one must be able to know how to behave to one's advantage. It will not be enough to change one's behaviour for the sake of it, the type or direction of change must be correctly gauged. Fourthly, a person will need to be willing to alter his or her behaviour. There are people who know that by behaving in a certain way they will be more positively received or be able to influence a situation to their advantage but choose not to, to avoid what they consider to be compromising their personal views about how to correctly behave. Finally, a person must have the ability to change behaviour in an authentic way and across situations. People who know a change of behaviour is in order, how one should best behave, and are both willing and able to alter this behaviour consistently and across situations are high self monitors (Snyder, 1974).

One speaks of high and low self-monitors because peoples' ability to self monitor lies at different points along a continuum. The prerequisites of self-monitoring that were identified earlier illustrate the complex nature of this trait. High self monitors can

influence the impressions that people have of them by altering their behaviour to better fit any given situation. The ability to self monitor is not context bound. For example, high self monitors modify their behaviour to suit a foreign cultural context better than low self monitors regardless of the nature of that new culture. It can be assumed that the better the impression made by a person the more likely it will be that those impressed by it will welcome interpersonal interaction. This impression management may directly influence the success of interaction between expatriate managers who are high self monitors and those people they encounter in both a personal and work context. Indirectly the quality of work that is dependent on such interpersonal interaction is also likely to be positively influenced.

Barrick et al. (2005) state that, because low self-monitors are not as likely to change their behaviour to change how they are perceived by others, “there is greater fidelity between their personality traits and the behaviours they exhibit” (p. 746). Developing employees by providing them with training about the most acceptable ways to behave in a new culture is of little use if these same managers are unable or unwilling to successfully change their behaviour.

Studies show that a high self-monitor is more likely to work in a management or sales position, to be well connected both in and outside of a work group context, to get promoted relatively frequently, and to be a leader (Day and Kilduff, 2003). It is the negative aspects of high self monitors’ attitudes and behaviours that may explain findings from a meta-analysis claiming that there is only a low correlation of this trait to job performance (Day et al., 2002; Barrick et al., 2005). These negative aspects include lower organizational commitment (Day, et al., 2002; Barrick et al., 2005) and a higher rate of voluntary turnover than is found in low self monitors (Kilduff and Day, 1994; Barrick

et al. 2005). However, for a variety of reasons, such as high self monitors welcoming the chance to 'perform' in social situations and the fact that they "attach high psychological meaning to opportunities for interaction with others", (Barrick et al., 2005, p. 750.) high self-monitoring may positively influence interpersonal adjustment and intercultural interaction (Graf, 2004). Research findings about the relationship between self-monitoring and adjustment are conflicting, Shaffer et al. (1999) and Black (1988) concluded that there was a positive relationship while Selmer (2002) and Black and Gregersen (1991) were less supportive of a relationship. In a domestic environment this adjustment may not play as important a role in contributing to job performance as it does for an expatriate manager.

Although the most commonly used measure of self-monitoring was not constructed with the expatriate in mind (Snyder, 1974), it's focus on one's ability to adapt and adjust to situations to encourage a favourable outcome seems predestined for the study of people whose primary reason for professional failure has consistently been found to be failure to adjust to their new environment. With the exception of a study by Day, Schleicher, Unckless and Hiller (2002) which found that high self monitors have lower organizational commitment and a higher rate of voluntary turnover, this personality trait has not been tested empirically with samples of expatriate managers.

2.7.2.4 Novelty Seeking

Novelty seeking measures an individual's optimal arousal level. When arousal levels are too low an individual will search for novelty. When the arousal level is too high individuals will behave in a way to reduce it. Preferences for environments are determined by novelty seeking tendency. Arousal can be sought from change, unusual stimuli, arousal from risk, and arousal from new environments. There has been neuro-

cognitive and neuropsychological research conducted about differences between people with regard to their desire to seek out new stimuli (Schweizer, 2006), such as experiences to be had, places to be visited, jobs to be held or relationships to be formed. Organizations that rely on creativity and the generation of innovative ideas have started referring to research conducted about novelty seeking to support their recruiting processes. Organizations that rely heavily on the deployment of expatriate managers could similarly be advised to examine the benefits of identifying this characteristic in members of its workforce. However, the many available scales with which to measure novelty seeking or similar constructs such as arousal seeking do not include questions that are specific to seeking out unfamiliar places or working at a job that involves travelling to or living in unfamiliar locations. Examples of scales that explore the extent to which people welcome or actively pursue novelty are: Novelty Generation Model (NGM), Optimum stimulation level (OSL), Change Seeker Index, Sensation Seeking Scale-V, Arousal Seeking Tendency-II, and Novelty Experiencing Scale. These scales have been used to research topics such as decision making under risk, exploratory consumer tendencies and curiosity motivated purchasing behaviour (Steenkamp, 1992). However, in the field of expatriate manager research the role of determining an expatriate manager's optimum level of novelty seeking has received little attention.

Agreeing to take part in a foreign assignment as an expatriate manager involves accepting a certain amount of risk, often more so than would have been encountered by continuing to work in the home country. Managers are often unaware of the life that awaits them abroad and unclear about the professional consequences of such an assignment on their careers. Expatriates also face uncertainties regarding everyday financial matters that even a temporary move entails (e.g., tax implications, exchange rate

fluctuations). Findings show that there is an established relationship between sensation seeking and different levels of financial risk taking (Wong et al., 1991).

2.8 Organizational Variables

Organizational variables are those that are initiated or carried out by the organization with the goal of positively influencing the outcome of a foreign assignment either directly or by maximizing the manager's adjustment to a new environment. These variables provide a person with information and tools necessary to maximize the adjustment to living and working in the foreign country and thereby improve the chance of project success – they include pre-departure training, continuous organizational support and planning for the expatriate manager's next role following completion of the foreign assignment. Organizational support has been shown to affect the attitude of expatriate managers toward the foreign assignment, the retention of employees (Lazarova and Caligiuri, 2001) and more specifically for this study the retention of repatriates (Black and Gregersen, 1999).

2.8.1 Pre-departure Training

Pre-departure training includes all activities carried out or facilitated by the organization prior to the start of the foreign assignment with the primary purpose of enhancing the expatriate manager's knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours relevant to working in the foreign country and carrying out the assignment successfully. Research has found that there is a significant and positive relationship between pre-departure training and an expatriate's adjustment to a new environment (Brewster and Prickard, 1994; Black and Mendenhall, 1990). Studies have shown that the cross-cultural training component of pre-departure training reduces culture shock, thereby improving adjustment

(Harrison, 1994; Katz and Seifer, 1996). The results of a meta-analysis of empirical studies about organizational training published in 1992 by Deshpande and Viswesvaran (In Sims and Schraeder, 2004) indicate that training is positively related to decreasing culture shock, increasing cross cultural adjustment and developing skills that will further the adjustment process. Moreover, some researchers have found that it is the act of making available a training program and encouraging employees to participate, more so than the content of the training, which improves a manager's satisfaction with the expatriate experience (Griffin, in Spector, 1997, p. 37). Precautions taken by the organization, such as providing training, are perceived as signs of caring for employees which in turn improves the expatriate's attitude about the organization.

It is surprising that, despite considerable evidence about the benefits of pre-departure training only a minority of companies provide it to employees selected to take part in foreign assignments. Some studies found that less than one third of people sent abroad on foreign assignments received such training (Ashamalla and Crocitto, 1997). A survey conducted in 1997 about organizational training practices of Fortune 500 companies showed that of the 40% of expatriates who received training before being posted abroad, most received only limited information about the country's political and economic status and non-social environment such as infrastructure, climate and living conditions (Dunbar and Katchen, 1990, in Ashamalla and Crocitto, 1997). Reasons provided to explain a lack of training are the high cost, doubt about the usefulness of results, the length of the programs which is perceived to be excessive, and that the manager has already proven that he or she is resilient and adjustable in the home country (Tung, 1981; Baker and Ivancevich, 1971, in Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Mendenhall, 1987).

Different researchers and international Human Resource Managers have recommended a collection of pre-departure training packages. The depth and content specifics of the training varies between courses but for the most part the material taught falls in to two categories, briefing and cross cultural training. The briefing process includes informing managers about the administrative (e.g. entry related documents to be completed, tax implications of the new residency status), the logistical (e.g. relocation and housing, schooling options for children) and the compensatory (e.g. expatriate bonus, isolation pay, home visit flight allowances). A thorough briefing also includes information about the social, political and economic situation of the host country. Employees learn about the norms of behaviour when conducting business, the commonly accepted values and beliefs of the host country population, information about local customs and common cultural taboos, and are given a general introduction in to 'how things are done over there'. Some companies encourage the manager to visit the foreign country before commencement of the assignment. While visiting, the manager is introduced to the host city by a professional guide, a relocation officer, or a future colleague. It is thought that this exposure to the host country culture and environment will decrease the stress that the manager feels prior to and during the assignment (Holopainen and Bjoerkman 2005; McCall and Hollenbeck, 2002).

Cross cultural training provides a more in-depth look at the host country culture than the data oriented and matter of fact nature of briefing does. Such training aims to raise the awareness of participants about the fact that differences between cultures exist and illustrates how culture influences the ways in which people interact with one another both professionally and personally. Differences between cultures are highlighted with the aim of training managers about how to appropriately behave in the host culture and

helping them to understand and respect the reasons for this behaviour. Ashamalla (1998) suggests that cross cultural training should also be used to explain to the manager his or her part in the globalization and overall staffing strategy of the company. The implementation of pre-departure training for the spouse and family of the expatriate manager may also be beneficial. Family discontent is a major contributor to a manager's early voluntary termination of an assignment. If this extended training has a positive effect on the satisfaction of the manager's family, the additional cost of these measures could prove worthwhile (Sims and Schraeder, 2004).

One potential moderator of the impact of pre-departure training on success that has received little attention is the background of the expatriate manager, specifically the nationality of the manager. Research shows that American companies compared to Japanese or European ones provide relatively little pre-departure training (McDonald, 1993). There is insufficient research exploring whether differences in levels of cross cultural adjustment exist between employees of the same company, who do not receive in-depth pre-departure training, as a result of their nationality. Certain groups of employees may adjust more poorly to foreign cultures either due to too little training or potentially because they possess a background or set of personal traits that dissuades their adjustment. For example, the effect of training on the attitude and performance of a manager may be less if that manager has high levels of ethnocentrism, lacks sufficient levels of cultural flexibility and is not internationally versed.

2.8.2 Organization Support Before and During the Assignment

Organization Support refers to all activities, policies, systems and procedures provided by the employing organization to facilitate the expatriate manager's stay abroad and the assignment execution. It includes activities carried out by the Line Manager to

facilitate two-way communications and to foster a comfortable and successful stay abroad. There is evidence that organization support received prior to and during a foreign assignment can positively influence both satisfaction and performance (Kirmeyer and Lin, 1987). Perceived support is defined as how much expatriate managers feel they are cared about by the organization or line manager and how valued they feel (Punnett, 1997). Organization support can stem from both the home and host country. Support includes being asked about one's wellbeing, concern for the ease with which the manager has settled in to the new location and visits by a home country 'support contact person' to increase 'face time' (Cohen and Wills, 1985). High levels of support result in higher levels of affective commitment and assignment success (Black and Gregersen, 1992). It has been argued by Sims and Schraeder (2004), but not empirically tested, that an increase in affective commitment would make expatriates modify their behaviour to better suit their new environment, which in turn would increase their adjustment.

When there is a high level of perceived organization support the expatriate manager feels the company is sensitive to those issues exclusive to the expatriate experience which need to be dealt with to help ensure satisfaction and a positive assignment outcome. These issues can include the availability of cross cultural training programs, the compensation received, relocation procedures, and the need for ongoing contact between headquarters and the manager abroad. Some organizations have had very positive results from offering family support processes. This support, geared toward the spouse and children of the expatriate can include help finding the manager's spouse a job in the host country or sponsoring training to keep the spouse up to date on developments occurring in his or her profession while in the host country, so that when the couple returns home the manager's spouse has remained employable and up to date about

changes in his or her profession (Guzzo et al., 1994; Lueke and Svyantek, 2000). Support can also be more informal including connections being made to other expatriates from the home country who have been at the affiliate longer, establishing opportunities for spouses of expatriate managers to meet to share new found knowledge about the host country, or contact initiated by a patriate 'buddy' who can give advice regarding shopping, entertainment and local travel.

A manager's job performance may be very good even if he or she perceives the foreign assignment to be a negative experience. If the manager's family is unhappy in its new environment or the manager's own experiences with non-job related aspects of the foreign assignment are poor, these negative experiences may be sufficient to overshadow the satisfaction of enjoying a job and performing it well. There are cases in which the home country only hears about a manager's dissatisfaction with an assignment when it is too late to recover the situation, when the manager has informed the home country that he or she is prematurely terminating the assignment and maybe even the company. A well designed feedback loop initiated at regular intervals between the home country affiliate and the manager posted abroad could gauge overall satisfaction, and potentially the intention to terminate the assignment. Based on feedback from the manager the home country affiliate may be able to help the manager solve problems such as access to health care, transportation for the manager's spouse or alternative school options for the manager's children which may otherwise have led the manager to end the assignment early. In addition to potentially helping solve a problem the continuous feedback may increase the manager's perception of being well taken care of by the employer. This perceived support may further improve the manager's overall satisfaction with the foreign assignment.

Performance reviews about foreign assignment progress should take place at the start of the assignment and then again at a later stage during the assignment. This way discrepancy between planned and actual progress can be discussed and changes to the planned outcome of foreign assignments made (Treven, 2006; Croft, 1995; Ashamalla, 1988). Multiple performance reviews are one way to keep the communication between home country and expatriate manager open and home country supervisors abreast of the new skills that the expatriate manager is acquiring as a result of the foreign assignment experience. This knowledge enables the home country team to better plan for job placement after the expatriate's return home, ensuring that the manager can utilize these newly acquired skills.

While all the facets of organization support leading up to or during the foreign assignment discussed above are critical, equally important is planning for the future. The importance of preparing managers for their next roles is discussed in the next section.

2.8.3 Preparation for Next Role

Preparation for next role refers to organizational policies and practices that are aimed at preparing the expatriate manager for his or her next role. This preparation includes the timely development and implementation of career progression plans and efforts to use the manager's newly learnt skills and competencies. Past evidence indicates that organizations which have systematic and clearly communicated plans for re-entry of their expatriate managers are able to retain their managers longer. For example, an early study found that 82% of expatriate managers "were highly satisfied with the expatriate assignment, but only 35% felt satisfied with the repatriation process" (Gomez-Mejia and Balkin, 1987). Another study done almost a decade later found that 72% of returning expatriates could not use their newly acquired skills in their new position in the home

country and that 20% of these managers left the company within one year of returning while up to half left the company within three years (Schneider and Asakawa, 1995). Even after an assignment is successfully completed and both the expatriate manager and local colleagues are satisfied with the outcome, the manager's overall satisfaction with the expatriate experience can be significantly impeded by a poor repatriation and reintegration experience. Managers, not knowing what position they will be returning to or those whose accomplishments abroad go unrecognized or unrewarded, may be left regretting their decision to work at the foreign subsidiary. This dissatisfaction may lead the returned manager to actively discourage colleagues from going abroad by warning them about the pitfalls they risk facing upon return to the home country.

Upon re-entry to home office, expatriate managers may often feel that while they were out of sight they were also 'out of mind' of their colleagues. If a foreign assignment takes longer than planned, the expatriate manager may be passed over for a lucrative position in the home country that needs to be filled immediately. After returning to the home country if the expatriate manager's supervisor is no longer employed by the company, promises made about the manager's return may not be honoured. Skills that were arduously and conscientiously acquired in the host country are not always considered advantageous in the home country (Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2001) or simply not put to use. Research found that American managers returning home were less likely than Japanese or European managers to feel that their company placed value on international experience (Ashamalla, 1998). Also, returning expatriates often find that their hopes of promotion following completion of the foreign assignment are not met. These disappointments lead to job dissatisfaction and voluntary turnover. Upon returning home, the managers may be uncertain about whether a foreign assignment benefited or

hindered their career within the company. This uncertainty may also contribute to decreased satisfaction with the expatriate experience.

Several factors can influence the manager's satisfaction with re-entry. Satisfaction may be influenced by the number of years spent on foreign assignment and the extent of cultural difference between the home and host country (Tung, 1988) or by the difference in the lifestyle between the home and host countries. There are cases in which the lifestyle abroad was far more luxurious than that afforded the manager at home. Luxuries may have included a corporate residence, free private education for the children, household staff, chauffeur services, memberships to exclusive expatriate clubs, a travel budget and a variety of additional perks. These perks are more often offered to expatriates assigned to Asian, Middle Eastern, or Latin American countries than to North America or Europe. Aspects such as a discrepancy between lifestyles in the home and host country can not realistically be remedied. However, the ambiguity and disappointment that an expatriate manager feels leading up to and during repatriation, as a result of not knowing which position he or she will return to in the home country, can be mitigated by a sensible repatriation plan. Managers will have expectations about the consequences of taking part in a foreign assignment. Whether these expectations are met upon re-entry may influence a manager's overall satisfaction with the expatriate experience and his or her organizational commitment.

Past research studies on commitment, satisfaction and success of expatriate managers have produced important but not always convergent findings. In most cases factors related to expatriate attitudes and success have been researched in piece meal fashion focusing only on a few variables at a time. Much of the research linking organizational commitment and satisfaction to other variables was conducted using

samples of local managers; their generalizability to expatriate managers is hence suspect. Many of the past studies have also attempted to link manager related variables to outcome variables directly.

It is suggested here that the impact of organizational and individual variables on job performance and attitudes is mediated by the level of adjustment of the expatriate manager involved as discussed below.

2.9 Adjustment—A Mediating Variable

The literature about the adjustment of expatriates to living and working in the foreign country is voluminous because adjustment is often studied as a multidimensional construct (Black, 1988; Gregersen and Black, 1990; Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001). In studying the adjustment of expatriates, researchers acknowledge that to understand the manager's overall adjustment in the foreign country, his or her adjustment to both work and non-work issues must be considered. In broad terms, to adjust to something means to get used to it, to not mind the process of adjusting or the resulting arrangement. One hears of people 'adjusting well' which is taken to mean that the adjustment occurred relatively quickly, the person adjusting did not resist the process, and that he or she understood and did not resent the reasons why adjustment was necessary. Much of the literature about cross cultural adjustment treats this variable as a single construct based on the process of adjusting to one's general environment. The construct has been defined in terms of *psychological well being* in a new environment (Ruben and Kealy, 1979. In Black, 1990; Hawes and Kealy 1971); *acquisition of knowledge* about aspects such as national history, traditions, holidays, languages, and customs (Adler, 1975); and *social adjustment* defined in terms of the extent of an expatriate manager's interaction with host

country nationals and the enrichment felt on the manager's part from such interaction (David, 1972).

The practice of defining adjustment as a single construct has been criticized by researchers who empirically showed that cross cultural adjustment is composed of multiple constructs which may influence each other but are independent (Black, 1988, Black, 1990). For example, how well a person adjusts to interacting with people from a foreign culture (interaction adjustment) may influence how well he or she adjusts to a work situation (work adjustment) if working involves interpersonal interaction as is usually the case. However, there are factors shown to directly correlate to interaction but not work adjustment. Certain factors are related neither to interaction nor work adjustment and instead to general adjustment. To be better able to discuss the effect that an expatriate manager's adjustment has on satisfaction and assignment outcome the differences between these three constructs must be understood. *Work Adjustment* in the case of an expatriate manager involves how well managers are able to adjust to their new work life abroad, to their job and work responsibilities (Black, 1990). Work life encompasses aspects such as hierarchical system of the subsidiary, how tasks are prioritised, the accepted work/life balance, temporal aspects such as expectation to work to a strict deadline, technical expertise, the level of responsibility and authority held, and in some cases even physical dangers linked to the new work role. *Interaction Adjustment* (Black, 1990) refers to the extent, nature, and agreeableness of interaction between the expatriate manager and the host nationals, regardless of whether this interaction takes place at or outside of a work context. *General Adjustment* is not a social construct and refers to the adjustment of the expatriate manager to non human factors such as climate, food, laws and infrastructure (Black, 1988; Hawes and Kealey, 1981).

There are different stages of adjustment. Hence, the length of the expatriate's stay at the time when the construct of "adjustment" is measured is important. Perceived adjustment can be significantly different at different times during a stay abroad. The four stages of adjustment are illustrated by the U-Curve Theory of Adjustment that is credited to Sverre Lysgard's 1955 work (Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Torbion, 1982). The first stage is the "Honeymoon Stage" during which the manager is fascinated by the new culture which he or she views as exotic and interesting. The second stage is described as "Culture Shock" and is one disillusionment, during which the reality of a day to day life that is due to continue for months and possibly years to come sets in. Culture shock is followed by "Adjustment" during which a manager gradually functions smoothly in the new culture as there are fewer surprises. By stage four, "Mastery", managers are adept to effectively functioning in the new culture and the additional lessons that contribute to functioning smoothly are incremental. Participants in this research study will have returned from the foreign assignment and therefore will have completed the four stages of adjustment.

Past research has assumed that the impact of cultural distance (the differences between two cultures as measured by a set of criteria) on expatriate adjustment is symmetrical. The person moving from country A to B will find the adjustment just as easy or difficult to master as the person moving from country B to A. Recent research by Selmer (2007) found that controlling for aspects such as length of the assignment German expatriates in the USA were better adjusted, both socio-culturally and psychologically, than American expatriates in Germany. If further results support this finding, researchers would be well advised to include samples that stem from more than one country in their studies to mitigate acculturation-bias stemming from the respondents nationality.

This study will investigate whether adjustment mediates the relationship between the manager related variables and satisfaction and organization commitment. Researchers have acknowledged that although adjustment is not a direct indicator of performance, it is likely that performance suffers if an expatriate manager is not adjusted to working and living in the host country (Selmer, 2002). It has been accepted by reputed management researchers that socio-cultural adjustment is not a one-dimensional construct and does include the three dimensions work, interaction, and general adjustment. The division in to three dimensions is an academic one when one considers that both general and work adjustment are to some extent linked to interaction adjustment and can therefore not be entirely separated (Selmer, 2003; Bell and Harrison, 1996).

Chapter One explained how political, technological and economic developments have led to and been fostered by an increase in cross-border business activities. Parallel to an increase in the number of MNCs there continues to be a rise in the number of expatriate managers deployed. The failure and attrition rate of expatriate managers remains high relative to domestic rates. Because of the many important roles that the expatriate plays for an organization, these assignments can not easily be foregone and ways in which to mitigate the failure of such assignments becomes an increasingly important issue. To research how best to decrease expatriate failure the challenges leading up to, during and following a foreign assignment must be understood. Chapter One highlighted some of these challenges, for example, working in a new culture with people who may speak a different language, coping with new living conditions, feeling detached from important contacts in one's home country affiliate, concern about the career consequences of having taken part in the foreign assignment, appraisal and compensation that is perceived to be inappropriate, as well as suboptimal organizational

support received. It seemed plausible that the attitudes of the expatriate manager would be tied to the extent of these and other challenges faced abroad.

Chapter Two looked at a number of Organization and Manager related variables with a view to better understanding how these could influence the satisfaction, commitment and performance of expatriate managers. The areas of satisfaction and commitment were explored based on prior findings linking these attitudinal variables to failure and increased turnover. Based on the research available about challenges of an expatriate assignment, different organizational practices tied to such challenges were considered as potential antecedents of satisfaction and commitment. Moreover, the decision was made to look at which factors inherent to the manager, specifically his or her personality and internationality of background, would potentially be related to the satisfaction, commitment and performance of expatriate managers. The personality traits to be explored were selected based on common situations in which expatriate managers often find themselves abroad. These situations include being faced with ambiguity and uncertainty about aspects such as new processes, unfamiliar modes of operation, and appropriate interaction outside of the workplace; therefore tolerance for ambiguity was considered to be a relevant personality aspect to further explore. Also, expatriates must face much that is new abroad, both in and outside of the workplace, hence the investigation of the novelty seeking tendency of these managers. How well people adapt their behaviour to improve their chances of being well received abroad, their self-monitoring ability, was selected as an aspect of an expatriate manager's personality that was important to explore further. The extent to which the manager harbours feeling of superiority, his level of ethnocentricity, was also investigated as a potential negative influence on the manager's attitude about the expatriate experience.

As discussed in Chapter Two, not much research has been conducted about the internationality of an expatriate manager's background as it pertains to his or her satisfaction, commitment and performance. One of the aims of this research is to contribute to the dialogue about this subject. Again, the factors that were selected for further examination were based on challenges reported by the expatriate manager, for example, the challenges of adapting to living in a foreign country and struggling to communicate with people who speak a different language. Having selected personality and background variables to further explore in the research study as potentially relating to manager satisfaction, commitment and performance, a further manager related aspect was explored, the ability of an expatriate manager to adjust to living and working in a foreign country. Past research had identified a relationship between adjustment and satisfaction abroad, however there has been little research conducted about the indirect relationship that adjustment could have on satisfaction. One of the key aims of this study will therefore be to determine whether adjustment mediates the relationship between a manager's personality and his or her satisfaction with the foreign assignment experience.

2.10 Hypotheses in the Present Study

Based on available research findings discussed above and logically extending them, 11 hypotheses were formulated for testing in the present study. These hypotheses explore the relationship between organization and manager related variables with an expatriate manager's satisfaction, affective commitment and success.

Organizational Variables

Hypothesis 1

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's affective commitment.

- H1a: Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment
- H1b: Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment
- H1c: Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment

Hypothesis 2

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment

- H2a: Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment
- H2b: Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment
- H2c: Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment

Hypothesis 3

Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment.

- H3a: Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad
- H3b: Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment

Hypothesis 4

Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment

Manager Related Variables - Personality

Hypothesis 5

Novelty Seeking and Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment

- H5a: Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad

- H5b: Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad
- H5c: Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment
- H5d: Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment

Hypothesis 6

Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment and to Interaction Adjustment

- H6a: Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment
- H6b: Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Interaction Adjustment

Hypothesis 7

Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment

Manager Related Variables - Background

Hypothesis 8

Multilingualism, Foreign Travel, and Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad, Satisfaction with the Assignment, and to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment

- H8a: Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad
- H8b: Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment
- H8c: Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment
- H8d: Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad
- H8e: Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment
- H8f: Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment
- H8g: Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad
- H8h: Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment
- H8i: Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment

Hypothesis 9

Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment

Relationship between Satisfaction and Performance**Hypothesis 10**

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will positively influence the completion of the assignment

- H10a: Satisfaction with Life Abroad will positively influence the completion of the assignment
- H10b: Satisfaction with Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment
- H10c: Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment

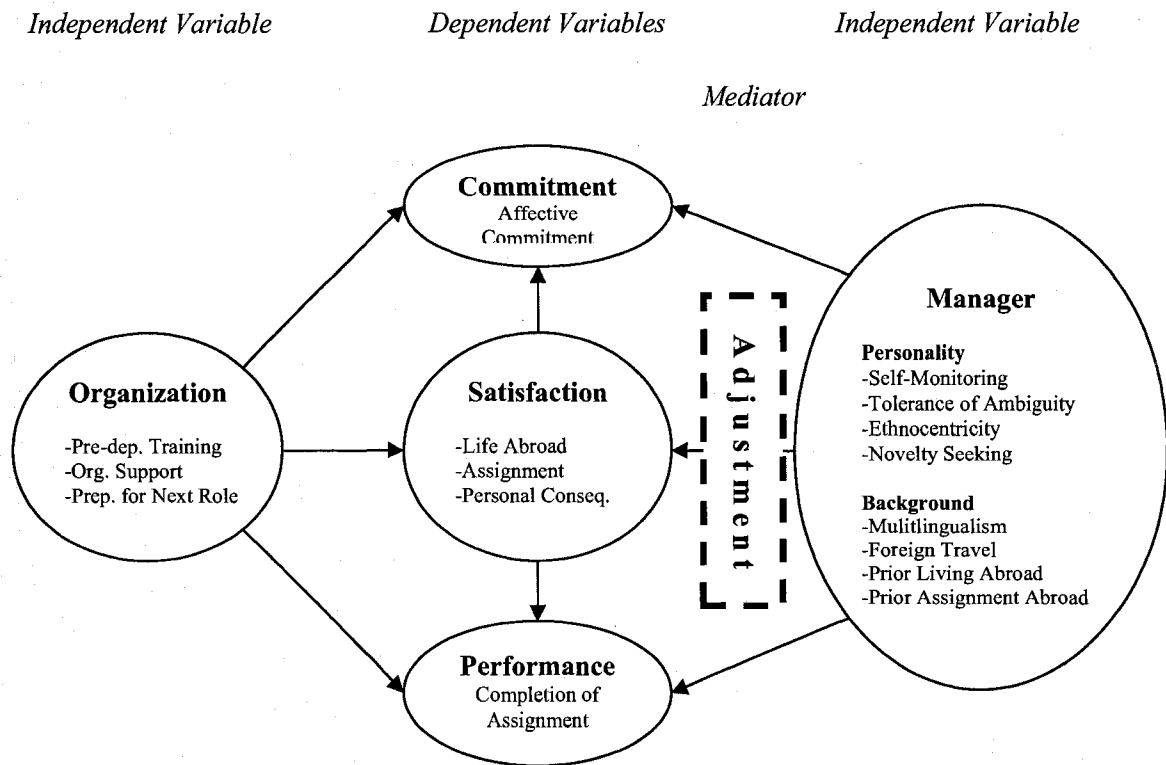
Relationship between Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment**Hypothesis 11**

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment

- H11a: Satisfaction with Life Abroad will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment
- H11b: Satisfaction with Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment
- H11c: Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment

This chapter looked at key research studies on expatriate success, satisfaction and commitment and linked them to a host of individual and organizational variables. An outline of an integrative model linking success, satisfaction, affective commitment and relevant variables is shown in Figure 3. It is believed that such an integrative model will help gain better insight into the complex constructs of expatriate success, satisfaction and commitment. The various steps taken by the researcher to operationalize variables and collect data are discussed in the next chapter.

Figure 3
Outline of integrative model for the present study



CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

As detailed in Chapter 2, three variables that are of considerable interest to both researchers and practitioners are expatriate manager satisfaction, commitment and success. These were chosen as the dependent variables in the present study. A number of manager-related and organizational variables were used in this study to predict expatriate managers' attitudes and the success of the foreign assignment. This chapter outlines the research design, instrumentation, psychometric testing of instruments and sampling in the present study. This chapter begins by detailing the stages carried out to develop the survey instrument. The survey instrument and all supporting texts, for example letter of invitation to participate in the survey, were subject to an ethical review prior to the commencement of data collection.

3.1 Stages in Survey Instrument Development

The development of the survey instrument had five major stages: identification of a pool of items based on extant literature, refinement of scale items, retranslation, validity check and pilot survey and refinement of final instrument. Each stage in the instrument development is detailed below:

Stage 1- Identification of a Pool of Items Based on Literature Review

After a review of the relevant literature the researcher under the guidance of the thesis supervisor formulated statements to be included in the first draft of the survey. To measure the personality traits, several existing measures were used. An existing scale with proven validity was used to measure the dependent variable organizational

commitment. For measures specifically designed for the present study, scale items were refined through a multi-stage process beginning with steps detailed in stage 2 below.

Stage 2 – Refinement of Scale Items

Eight students in Saint Mary University's Doctoral Program in Management, who had already completed three research methodology courses participated in this part of the study. Each student was given a hardcopy of the statements to be included in the survey identified in Stage 1. On this form sets of questions were grouped by construct, for example, eight statements pertaining to Pre-departure Training, seven statements pertaining to Preparation for Next Role, twelve to Satisfaction with Life Abroad and so on. The participants were asked to rate each statement on a scale ranging from 1 (Irrelevant) to 4 (Very relevant) for its relevance in assessing the construct indicated. For example, "to what extent is Statement 1 relevant for measuring the construct X?" Participants were informed that they could rate each item anywhere on the scale provided, and that there would be no wrong answers for any item.

Means and standard deviations of the ratings were then computed. Statements with an average score of 3.5 or higher were retained in the survey, statements with a mean greater than 3.00 but less than 3.50 were marked for future analysis and potential deletion, and statements with a mean less than or equal to 3.00 were deleted. Additionally, any statement, regardless of its mean value was marked for future analysis that had a standard deviation greater than 1.00 (there were only two statements with a mean greater than 3.00 had a standard deviation greater than 1.00). In total this exercise led to sixteen items being deleted from this original version of the survey. Statements to be included in the survey were deleted or rewritten in accordance with the results of this

first round of testing. In cases where a statement was re-written it was done so based on the comments provided by the test sample of PhD students.

Stage 3 – Retranslation of Scale Items into Construct Categories

As a check on the validity of the instrument, eight students in the same doctoral program (who were not involved in Stage 1) were presented with statements, but without listing their category affiliation. Participants were presented with a list of statements and another list containing various constructs (for example, Satisfaction with Life, Satisfaction with the Assignment, or Satisfaction with Personal Consequences) and asked to label each of the statements using construct titles. Participants were permitted to label a statement with more than one construct if they deemed it appropriate but were asked to circle the construct they thought the statement was best housed under. Next, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which the statement reflected the construct using a four point scale of 1 (Irrelevant) to 4 (Very Relevant). If more than one construct had been assigned by participants, they were asked only to rate the one that they had previously circled as being the best fit. Statements with a mean of 3.5 or higher were retained in the instrument, statements with a mean greater than 3.0 but less than 3.5 were marked for future analysis and potential deletion, and statements with a mean less than 3.00 were to be deleted (there were none in this category). Additionally, any statement, regardless of it's mean value was marked for future analysis that had a standard deviation > 1.00 (only one statement with a mean > 3.00 had a standard deviation > 1.00). In total this exercise led to a further three items being deleted.

Stage 4 – Validity Check by Experts

A six-member panel of experts in the international management and marketing fields was used to assess the face and content validity of the newly designed instrument.

The panel of experts consisted of business people who were all at the top of their respective fields and who had taken part in expatriate assignments in the past. In some instances the expert was involved in selecting employees for foreign assignments in their firms. These managers worked in a wide array of industries, namely banking (n=2), shipping (n=1), electronic navigation (n=1), art gallery management (n=1), university administration (n=1), healthcare (n=1) and real-estate (n=1). The extent of their foreign experience ranged from two continuous years spent working abroad to twenty years spread out over a thirty-year career. The seven men and one woman were asked to read the statements and to rate them for their relevancy for the purpose of assessing the different aspects of the expatriate manager experience. Statements were rated using a four point Likert scale that ranged from 1 (Irrelevant) to 4 (Very Relevant). Based on the results generated none of the questions were excluded. Following completion of the rating exercise, members of the expert panel were asked to answer the following questions:

- Now that you are familiar with the various statements, considering all statements, what is your overall rating of the relevancy of this instrument for the purpose of assessing expatriate manager performance and satisfaction? (A continuum ranging from 1 = Irrelevant to 10 = Very Relevant)
- To what extent are the questions in this questionnaire easy to understand? (A continuum ranging from 1 = Irrelevant to 10 = Very Relevant)
- Which questions were the most difficult to understand? What should be done to make them more understandable?
- Does this questionnaire take in to account all major facets of expatriate satisfaction? (A continuum ranging from 1 = It looks at only a few facets to 10 = Yes, it looks at all major facets)
- What other facets/aspects of expatriate satisfaction should have been included here? Please specify.

For each of the three above questions, for which scores ranging from 1 to 10 had been assigned the mean score was 7.25. The mean score was lowered by one participant who gave a score of just 4 to each of the three questions asked. Without this participant the mean score for each of the questions would have been 8. When asked about the low scores given, the respondent explained that surveys in general are “bogus” because they are not interactive, do not encourage an exchange of ideas and can therefore never get to the core of issues. Surveys, according to this CEO, that rely on self-report answers are not answered reliably and so regardless of how questions are phrased the answers are weak indicators of the respondent’s true feelings and behaviour. However, overall the reaction of the expert panel was overwhelmingly positive. The questions included in the survey were reported to be relevant and to encompass the most important aspects of the foreign assignment experience.

Stage 5 – Pilot Survey and Refinement of the Final Instrument

The survey was piloted using a sample of 35 members of an internet network called A Small World (ASW) (www.asmallworld.net). The network is geared toward the internationally mobile professional and can potentially reach respondents who have expatriate managerial experience and belong to a range of ages and ethnic backgrounds. In the discussion forum an invitation to participate in the online survey was posted with a link to the survey instrument. The invitation ensured anonymity of responses and explained the purpose of this exercise. The online invitation is included in Appendix 1. 422 people viewed the invitation before the preset goal of receiving 35 responses was reached; a response rate of 12%.

The results from the pilot survey were analyzed using Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS). Particular attention was paid to missing data and to detecting any

confusing terminology or wording. The pilot survey was developed using the five stages described above. The Cronbach's alpha was calculated for each of the scales as was the Mean, and the Standard Deviation (See Appendix 2).

3.2 Operational Definitions and Reliability Analysis of Constructs

3.3 Independent Variables -Organizational

Pre-departure Training (TRG), Preparation for Next Role (RE), and Organization Support (SS) were tested with measures that were composed using the development method described above. The mean, standard deviation and reliability of each of these measures is reported below as are the psychometric properties of the measures.

3.3.1 Pre-Departure Training

Pre-departure Training refers to all activities carried out or facilitated by the organization prior to the start of the foreign assignment with the primary purpose of enhancing the expatriate manager's knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours relevant to working in the foreign country and carrying out the assignment successfully. Specifically, in the present study pre-departure training explored the extent to which the training sufficiently prepared managers for the cultural differences they would face in the host country, as well as for the day to day challenges they would encounter. Additionally, the statements also provided information about whether the training adequately prepared managers for the etiquettes and communication appropriate for the host culture. In the present study the training assessment scale contained three items. The items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). The questions contained in the Pre-departure Training scale are shown in Table 1.

3.3.1.1 Reliability and Validity of the Pre-Departure Training Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.92, the mean value 11.79, and the SD 4.33 as seen in Table 9. The reliability and validity tests were performed using the five stages of survey development listed above.

Table 1

Items forming part of the scale: "Pre-Departure Training" ($\alpha=.920$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1.	The training sufficiently prepared me for cultural differences I would experience in the host country.	.890	.793	.840
2.	The training sufficiently prepared me for the day-to-day challenges that myself and my family would face in the host country.	.822	.707	.898
3.	The training adequately prepared me in etiquettes and communication appropriate for the host culture.	.804	.671	.912

3.3.2 Preparation for Next Role

Preparation for Next Role refers to the policies and practices implemented by an organization to facilitate entry by the expatriate manager in to his or her next role following completion of the foreign assignment. The word 'preparation' implies that the foreign assignment was a necessary step in helping the expatriate managers master the skills and responsibilities they would need to call on during their next role. Statements included in this scale referred to aspects such as efforts made by the organization to use the manager's newly learnt skills and competencies in his or her next role and the timely development and implementation of career progression plans. In the present study the Next Role scale contained five items as can be seen in Table 2 below. The items were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree).

3.3.2.1 Reliability and Validity of the Preparation for Next Role Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for this scale was 0.85, the mean value 22.04, and the SD 7.70 as seen in Table 9. The reliability and validity tests were performed using the five stages of survey development listed above.

Table 2

Items forming part of the scale "Preparation for Next Role" ($\alpha=.845$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Before my foreign assignment ended. I was told what my next position/assignment would be.	.402	.187	.878
2	In my next role (directly following the foreign assignment) I was provided with a position where I could use my newly acquired skills and knowledge.	.718	.633	.795
3	My Line Manager in my next role (directly following the foreign assignment) was keen on utilizing my newly acquired skills and knowledge for the benefit of the larger company.	.812	.779	.770
4	My Line Manager was keen on learning about my experiences abroad.	.749	.646	.788
5	My Line Manager ensured that while abroad. I was kept aware of promotions and other career development opportunities in the organization.	.614	.412	.824

3.3.3 Organization Support

In its broadest sense Organization Support refers to all activities, policies, systems and procedures provided by the employing organization to facilitate the expatriate manager's stay abroad and the assignment execution. For the purposes of this study items captured in the scale entitled Organization Support include activities carried out by the Line Manager to facilitate two way communications and to foster a comfortable and successful stay abroad, the assignment of a "support contact person" abroad who could be contacted when difficulties were faced, the compensation and benefits offered by the

employer while abroad, and the appropriateness of the performance appraisal procedures used by the employer during the stay abroad.

In the present study the Organization Support scale contained five items that could be rated by all respondents. The items, shown in Table 3, were rated on a scale ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Strongly Agree). In addition to the five items two items were included that were only to be rated by managers who were accompanied on assignment by a spouse*. These statements were included strictly for the purpose of being descriptively analyzed and the results provided the participating organization.

3.3.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Organization Support Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for this 5 item scale was 0.50, the mean value 24.18, and the SD 4.61 as seen in Table 9. The reliability and validity tests were performed using the five stages of survey development listed above.

Table 3
Items forming part of the scale "Organization Support" ($\alpha=.502$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	In the new country I was kept abreast of developments occurring within the organization internationally.	.151	.030	.520
2	My employer had assigned a "support contact person" whom I could reach at any time when I faced a difficulty.	.359	.145	.385
3	My employer frequently gauged my overall satisfaction with the foreign assignment and life-style in the foreign country.	.401	.196	.353
4	The compensation and benefits offered by my employer were satisfactory.	.266	.078	.456
5	The performance appraisal procedures employed by my employer during my stay abroad were appropriate.	.214	.088	.483

*My employer took active efforts to help my spouse and my children settle in the new country (e.g., helping my spouse find a job, suggesting schools for our children)

*My employer helped my spouse and myself to meet with other expatriates and their spouses in the new location.

3.4 Independent Variables - Manager Related

Four key dimensions of manager personality, namely, Self-Monitoring, Tolerance of Ambiguity, Ethnocentricity and Novelty Seeking were assessed in the present study, using existing instruments for which prior psychometric data was available. The remaining four Manager Related factors (Prior Assignment Abroad, Prior Living Abroad, Extent of Foreign Travel and Multilingualism) were assessed using scales specifically designed in the study.

Together, these personality factors and factors determining the internationality of a manager's background compose the latent Manager Related variable in the structural equation model. Thus, personality was combined with internationality of background to represent the construct of openness to global experience. The decision was made to combine personality and background in one variable because separating a manager's past experiences from their personality would have been an artificial distinction that could not have been replicated in real life.

The following section details the measures used to assess the eight components of openness to global experience.

3.4.1 Self-Monitoring

Snyder (1974) defined Self-Monitoring as "self-observation and self-control guided by situational cues to social appropriateness" (In Bearden, 1993 p. 45). These cues are learned by the high self-monitor by being sensitive to and guided by other people's behaviour. High self monitors can influence the impressions that people have of them by altering their own behaviour to better fit any given situation. Low self monitors are not as likely to change their behaviour to change how they are perceived by others; there is more

similarity between their personality and the behaviours they exhibit. Substantial research has found that personality is neither learned nor likely to change significantly over the course of one's life. Certain people can however change their behaviour to better suit different environments and situations. The measure contains twenty-five items as can be seen in Figure 4 below. Participants have the choice between responding to these items with True or Mostly True (a score of 1) and False or Mostly False (a score of 0). The maximum score that a respondent can receive is 25.

3.4.1.1 Reliability and Validity of the Self-Monitoring Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for the test and test-re-test for this scale were .70 and .83 (Snyder, 1974, Beardon, 1993). When the reliability was tested with a separate sample it decreased to .63. The reliability and validity of this scale has been continuously tested since its development. One test of this measure was conducted with a sample of fraternity brothers which resulted in a Cronbach's alpha of .43 (Beardon, 1993). A different test compared the scores of actors to those of psychiatric patients. The assumption was made that actors would score significantly higher as a result of their readiness to assume roles and their sensitivity to observing and imitating the behaviour of others (Beardon, 1993). The mean score of actors was 18.41 and that of psychiatric patients 10.19. These scores were significantly above and below those of the original student sample used for the development of the scale and can be interpreted as being high or low values respectively. In the present study the Cronbach's alpha was 0.43, the mean value 39.56, and the SD 2.86 as seen in Table 9.

Figure 4

Items forming part of the scale "Self-Monitoring" ($\alpha=.43$)

	Scale Item
1	I find it hard to imitate the behaviour of other people.
2	My behavior is usually an expression of my true feelings, attitudes and beliefs.
3	At parties and social gatherings, I do not attempt to do or say things that others will like.
4	I only argue for ideas which I already believe.
5	I can make impromptu speeches even on topics about which I have almost no information.
6	I guess I put on a show to impress or entertain people.
7	When I am uncertain how to act in a social situation, I look at behaviour of others for cues.
8	I would probably make a good actor.
9	I rarely need the advice of my friends to choose movies, books, or music.
10	I sometimes appear to others to be experiencing deeper emotions than I actually am.
11	I laugh more when I watch a comedy with others than when alone.
12	In a group of people I am rarely the center of attention.
13	In different situations and with different people, I often act like very different persons.
14	I am not particularly good at making other people like me.
15	Even if I am not enjoying myself, I often pretend to be having a good time.
16	I'm not always the person I appear to be.
17	I would not change my opinions in order to please someone else or win their favor.
18	I have considered being an entertainer.
19	In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to rather than myself.
20	I have never been good at games like charades or improvisational acting.
21	I have trouble changing my behaviour to suit different people and different situations.
22	At a party I let others keep the jokes and stories going.
23	I feel a bit awkward in company and do not show up quite so well as I should.
24	I can look anyone in the eye and tell a lie with a straight face (if for a right end).
25	I may deceive people by being friendly when I really dislike them.

Scale published in:

Snyder, M. (1974). Self-monitoring of expressive behavior. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 30, (4), 562-537.

3.4.2 Intolerance of Ambiguity

Budner (1962) defined Intolerance of Ambiguity as “the tendency to perceive ambiguous situations as sources of threat”. Ambiguous situations are those that are interpreted as novel, complex or insoluble. People who have high tolerance of ambiguity are able to respond constructively to situations which can only be sub-optimally understood or categorized because of insufficient cues and are more confident making decisions with access to less information than people with low tolerance of ambiguity. This scale, developed by Budner (1962) contains sixteen items, eight positively worded and eight negatively worded as can be seen in Figure 5 below. The scale is scored using a 7 point Likert scale with a score of 7 indicating strong agreement.

3.4.2.1 Reliability and Validity of the Intolerance of Ambiguity Scale

Robinson and Shaver (1973) summarize many reliability and correlation studies that have been conducted using Budner’s measure and report Cronbach’s alpha values ranging from .39 to .62 depending on the sample the measure was administered to. Robert and Shaver’s summary was that “although the alpha reliabilities appear lower than the more common split-half coefficients, the instrument seems to have acceptable reliability considering its probable multidimensionality.” (Robert and Shaver, 1973). In the present study the Cronbach’s alpha was 0.55, the mean value 50.91, and the SD 8.39 as seen in Table 9.

Figure 5

Items forming part of the scale “Intolerance of Ambiguity” ($\alpha=.55$)

	Scale Item
1	An expert who does not come up with a definite answer to a problem does not know too much.
2	There is really no such thing as a problem that cannot be solved.
3	A good job is one where what is to be done and how it is to be done are always clear.
4	In the long run, it is possible to get more done by tackling small, simple problems rather than large, complicated ones.
5	What we are used to is always preferable to what is unfamiliar.
6	A person who leads an even, regular life in which few surprises or unexpected happenings arise, really has a lot to be grateful of.
7	I like parties where I know most of the people more than ones where all or most of the people are complete strangers.
8	The sooner we all acquire similar values and ideas, the better.
9	I would like to live in a foreign country for a while.
10	People who fit their lives to a schedule probably miss most of the joy of living.
11	It is more fun to tackle a complicated problem than to solve a simple one.
12	Often the most interesting and stimulating people are those who don't mind being different and original.
13	People who insist upon a yes or no answer just don't know how complicated things really are.
14	Many of our most important decisions are based upon insufficient information.
15	Teachers or supervisors who hand out vague assignments give a chance for one to show initiative and originality.
16	A good teacher is one who makes you wonder about your way of looking at things.

Scale published in:

Budner, S. (1962). Intolerance of Ambiguity as a Personality Variable. *Journal of Personality*, 30, 29-50.

3.4.3 Ethnocentricity

Ethnocentricity is an indication of the extent to which people view their own (in-) group, in most cases a group based on nationality, race, or ethnicity, in a position of “centrality and worth” (Neuliep and McCrosky, 1997) compared to (out-)groups that are viewed as inferior. Ethnocentricity refers to a person’s conviction about the superiority of his or her own culture, national group, or belief structure over that of others. Ethnocentric managers do not value cultural diversity; they believe there is a superior culture for employees to belong to, which has superior ways of working and behaving. Participants completing the fifteen item Revised Ethnocentrism Scale were asked to score each item within a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) to describe the extent they felt the statement applied to them.

3.4.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Ethnocentrism Scale

The scale’s authors state that reliability estimates in the range of .80-.90 should be expected. The results from this research sample yielded a Cronbach’s alpha of .83, which is in line with the authors’ expectations, a mean value of 26.39, and a SD of 6.27 as seen in Table 9. The fifteen items composing Neuliep and McCrosky's Ethnocentrism Scale are included in Figure 6.

Figure 6

Items forming part of the scale “Ethnocentrism” ($\alpha=.83$)

	Scale Item
1	Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture.
2	My culture should be the role model for other cultures.
3	Life styles in other cultures are just as valid as those in my culture.
4	Other cultures should try to be more like my culture.
5	People in my culture could learn a lot from people in other cultures.
6	Most people from other cultures just do not know what is good for them.
7	I respect the values and customs of other cultures.
8	Other cultures are smart to look up to our culture.
9	Most people would be happier if they lived like people in my culture.
10	People in my culture have just about the best lifestyles of anywhere.
11	Lifestyles in other cultures are not as valid as those in my culture.
12	I do not cooperate with people who are different.
13	I do not trust people who are different.
14	I dislike interacting with people from different cultures.
15	I have little respect for the values and customs of other cultures.

Scale Published in:

Neuliep, J.W. & McCroskey, J.C. (1997). The Development of a U.S. and Generalized Ethnocentrism Scale. *Communication Research Reports*, 14, (4), 385-398.

3.4.4 Novelty Seeking

Novelty seeking measures an individual’s optimal arousal level. When arousal levels are too low an individual will search for novelty. When the arousal level is too high individuals will behave in a way to reduce it. The development of the nine item Novelty Seeking scale used in the present study was based on an amendment of the existing forty item Arousal Seeking Tendency (AST) scale (Mehrabian and Russell, 1974). For the original forty item scale the reader is directed to Appendix 3.

Not all forty items belonging to the five factors of novelty seeking behaviour were considered relevant for the present purpose. However, there is no published information available on the item-factor linkage. The AST scale is based on the theory that a person’s

preference for an environment is correlated to the level of arousal it provides. For some people higher levels of such arousal lead to improved preference and for others the reverse is true. The scales' authors cite novel, complex, and unfamiliar settings as providing arousal. The scale is scored using a nine point Likert scale ranging from -4 (strong disagreement) to 4 (strong agreement) and contains five factors. The five factors are arousal from unusual stimuli, arousal from sensuality, arousal from risk, arousal from change, and arousal from new environments.

The forty item scale was sent to a convenience sample of ten respondents who were selected either because they were experienced in conducting primary quantitative research, these were Saint Mary's PhD Candidates, or because they had first hand experience working as expatriate managers. Participants were sent the forty item scale together with a brief description of the research and background information about the attached scale explaining what it measures and why the scale needed to be revised. The sample was asked to rate each item listed for its relevance in assessing whether a manager is likely to perform successfully and be satisfied with the foreign assignment experience. Scores were based on a four point Likert scale ranging from 1 (Not Relevant) to 4 (Very Relevant). The nine items that had a mean ≥ 3.5 and a SD ≤ 0.75 (all items with a mean ≥ 3.5 had a SD ≤ 0.75) were included in the resulting scale entitled Novelty Seeking. Items 2 and 4 of this nine item scale were reverse coded for the purposes of analysis. The instruction provided for raters who took part in this exercise are included in Appendix 4. For the statistical analysis of the nine items the range of scores -4 to 4 was recoded in to a range of scores from 1 to 9. This was done for the sake of consistency with the scores

reported for other scales which did not include negative scoring. The nine items in the Novelty Seeking Scale are included in Table 4 below.

3.4.4.1 Reliability and Validity of the AST Scale and the Novelty Seeking Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for the forty item AST is reported by the authors to be .87 (Mehrabian and Russel, 1974), the mean score 39 and SD 34. For the Novelty Seeking Scale used in the present study the Cronbach's alpha was 0.79, the mean value 60.32, and the SD 8.33 as seen in Table 9.

Table 4
Items forming part of the scale "Novelty Seeking" ($\alpha=.786$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	I am continually seeking new ideas and experiences.	.476	.361	.768
2	I much prefer familiar people and places.	.280	.147	.794
3	When things get boring, I like to find some new and unfamiliar experience.	.461	.331	.768
4	I prefer a routine way of life to an unpredictable one full of change.	.559	.399	.752
5	I prefer an unpredictable life full of change to a more routine one.	.646	.494	.737
6	As a child, I often imagined leaving home just to explore the world.	.490	.294	.770
7	I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.	.615	.407	.750
8	I like meeting people who give me new ideas.	.434	.265	.773
9	I like a job that offers change, variety, and travel even if it involves some danger.	.441	.284	.770

3.5 Mediating Variable

3.5.1 Adjustment

In broad terms to adjust to something means to get used to it, to not mind the process of adjusting or the resulting arrangement. The practice of defining adjustment as a

single construct has been criticized by researchers who empirically showed that cross cultural adjustment is composed of multiple constructs which may influence each other but are independent (Black, 1988, Black, 1990). *Work adjustment* in the case of an expatriate manager involves how well managers are able to adjust to their new work life abroad, to their job and work responsibilities (Black, 1990). *Interaction adjustment* (Black, 1990) refers to the extent, nature, and agreeableness of interaction between the expatriate manager and the host nationals, regardless of whether this interaction takes place at or outside of a work context. *General adjustment* is not a social construct and refers to the adjustment of the expatriate manager to non human factors such as climate, food, laws, and infrastructure (Black, 1988, Hawes and Kealey, 1981). The three facets of adjustment, Interaction Adjustment, General Adjustment, and Work Adjustment were measured using an existing eleven item scale composed in 1988 by J. Stewart Black. The eleven items can be seen in Figure 7 below. Each of items measuring the three facets of adjustment, shown in Figure 7, were scored on a seven point Likert scale ranging from 1 (not adjusted) to 7 (completely adjusted).

3.5.1.1 Reliability and Validity of the Adjustment Scale(s)

In early studies conducted by Black (1990) General Adjustment, which measures adjustment to aspects of living abroad such as climate, food, entertainment, shopping and travel produced a Cronbach's alpha of .90. The reliability of the items measuring Interaction Adjustment, interacting with non work related contacts as well as with colleagues outside of the workplace, was .88. Work Adjustment, a person's adjustment to job responsibilities, the work environment, and working with host country nationals, produced a Cronbach's alpha of .90. Later studies consistently confirmed the reliability of these adjustment scales but produced lower Cronbach's alpha, for example, of .78, .88,

and .68 respectively (Selmer, 2003). For this study the reliability results were .81 for General Adjustment with a mean of 32.86 and a SD of 6.13, .82 for Interaction Adjustment with a mean of 10.36 and a SD of 2.73, and .79 for Work Adjustment with a mean of 16.61 and a SD of 3.17 as seen in Table 9. In this study the Cronbach's alpha for the overall measure of adjustment was .87 with a mean value of 59.82 and a SD of 10.15 as can also be seen in Table 9.

Figure 7

Items forming part of the scale "Overall Adjustment" ($\alpha=.871$)

	Scale Item
1.	How adjusted were you to your job and responsibilities?
2.	How adjusted were you to working with host-country co-workers?
3.	How adjusted were you to the transportation system in the host country?
4.	How adjusted were you to working with host-country nationals outside your company?
5.	How adjusted were you to the food in the host country?
6.	How adjusted were you to the weather in the host country?
7.	How adjusted were you to interacting with host-country people in general?
8.	How adjusted were you to shopping in the host country?
9.	How adjusted were you to supervising host-country subordinates?
10.	How adjusted were you to generally living in the host country?
11.	How adjusted were you to the entertainment available in the host country?

Scale Published In:

Black, S.J. (1990). The Relationship of Personal Characteristics with the Adjustment of Japanese Expatriate Managers. *Management International Review*, 30, (2), 119-134.

3.6 Dependent Variables

3.6.1 Affective Commitment

The authors of the Affective Commitment Scale define the attitude as "the employee's emotional attachment to, identification with, and involvement in the organization. Employees with a strong affective commitment continue employment with the organization because they *want* to do so Meyer and Allen (1997)". The eight items

included in the scale can be seen in Figure 8 below. Employees with high affective commitment remain with the organization because they want to as opposed to staying because they have to or feel that they ought to. The Affective Commitment Scale (ACS) by Meyer and Allen (1991) asks respondents to rate items on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) to reflect the extent to which the items pertain to their personal relationship with their employer and their reasons for remaining at their organization.

3.6.1.1 Reliability and Validity of the Affective Commitment Scale

The median for reliabilities across studies for the ACS is .85, aside from some exceptions the Cronbach's alpha for these studies was greater than .70 (Meyer and Allen, 1991; Meyer and Allen 1997). The Cronbach's alpha for the ACS stemming from the population sample in this study was .87 and therefore in line with the above stated median reliabilities. The mean value reported in this study is 39.37 and the SD is 8.06 as seen in Table 9.

Figure 8

Items forming part of the scale "Affective Commitment" ($\alpha=.870$)

	Scale Item
1.	I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career in this organization.
2.	I enjoy discussing my organization with people outside it.
3.	I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.
4.	I think I could easily become as attached to another organization as I am to this one.
5.	I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization.
6.	I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organization.
7.	This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.
8.	I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Scale Published In:

Meyer, J.P., Allen, N.J. & Smith, C.A. (1993). Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78, 538-551.

There is no shortage of highly reliable job satisfaction scales. However, almost all the available scales were not developed to assess an expatriate manager's satisfaction with the foreign assignment. A number of scales measuring job satisfaction were considered. Based on past research, feedback from expatriate managers and own personal experience, it was felt that a national or domestic level measure of job satisfaction would be unable to validly represent the several concerns important to an expatriate manager in defining satisfaction. Hence, a new measure of satisfaction of expatriate managers was developed using the five stage approach discussed earlier. The following pages discuss the key components of the expatriate satisfaction assessed in the present study.

3.6.2 Satisfaction with the Assignment

Satisfaction with the Assignment is a measure of the manager's feeling toward the job done or position held, it relates specifically to the manager's satisfaction with work related issues. The scale measures aspects such as how interesting the work carried out was, whether the assignment was considered challenging by the manager, and whether the manager had the desired authority and autonomy in the workplace. The scale was composed to include nine items as can be seen in Table 5 below. Each item is scored within a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) according to the extent that the respondent felt the statement applied to them.

3.6.2.1 Reliability and Validity of the Satisfaction with the Assignment Scale

The Cronbach's alpha for the scale in its entirety is 0.70, the mean value reported in this study is 54.45 and the SD is 5.89 as seen in Table 9.

Table 5

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with the Assignment" ($\alpha=.704$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Overall, the foreign assignment was interesting.	.534	.415	.668
2	I did not feel challenged in my last foreign assignment.	.354	.332	.688
3	I found my last foreign assignment satisfying.	.648	.571	.634
4	I felt pressurized to develop my career to work abroad.	.103	.091	.768
5	I definitely disliked my last foreign assignment.	.503	.328	.666
6	I regret that I ever chose to go abroad on the last foreign assignment.	.547	.382	.656
7	I had all the necessary authority and autonomy to carry out the foreign assignment successfully.	.450	.285	.664
8	I enjoyed my colleagues in the host country.	.398	.291	.678
9	At times, the foreign assignment required me to engage in unethical practices which I would not have dreamt of engaging in in my home country.	.365	.279	.681

3.6.3 Satisfaction with Life Abroad

Satisfaction with Life Abroad investigates an expatriate manager's satisfaction with various aspects of life abroad such as standard of living, the nature of free time activities available abroad and in the broadest sense the non-work related life lived in the foreign culture. The scale contained six items. However, four of these items were only to be rated by expatriate managers who were accompanied abroad by their spouses and/or children*. Statistical analysis was carried out to determine whether there was a significant difference in the satisfaction of expatriate managers who had a spouse accompany them on assignment compared to those who did not have a spouse at the time of the assignment. For the purpose of the overall model investigated in this study only those statements relevant to all respondents, regardless of the presence of a spouse on

assignment, are included in the analysis, these are listed in Table 6. This imposed limitation reduced the number of items in the overall Satisfaction with Life scale to two items. Each item is scored within a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) according to the extent that respondent felt the statement applied to them.

3.6.3.1 Reliability and Validity of the Satisfaction with Life Abroad Scale

The Cronbach's alpha of the two item Satisfaction with Life scale was 0.51, the mean value reported in this study is 10.48 and the SD is 2.48 as seen in Table 9.

Table 6

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with Life Abroad" ($\alpha=.510$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation
1	My standard of living in the host country was as good as or better than at home.	.343	.118
2	There were adequate number of activities for me and my family to keep ourselves occupied while abroad.	.343	.118

*In the host country, my spouse was restricted from engaging in a number of activities that (s)he normally carried out at home.

*My spouse felt comfortable with his/her life in the host country.

*My children found it difficult to adjust to their new surroundings.

*Life as an expatriate posed special problems for me because of my spouse's career orientation.

3.6.4 Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment

The scale for Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment includes items describing positive and negative repercussions of the foreign assignment for the expatriate manager. The original scale included ten items that explored aspects such as whether the expatriate assignment was an important part of the managers' personal development, whether participation in the assignment led to a promotion, whether the challenging nature of the assignment helped the managers improve their competencies and whether upon completing the foreign assignment the expectations that the managers had from their organization were met. After considering the nature of the items included

in the scale and conducting a confirmatory factor analysis using LISREL it was decided to delete the first two items of the ten item scale. For the resulting eight item scale each of the items is scored within a range of 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) according to the extent that respondent felt the statement applied to them.

3.6.4.1 Reliability and Validity of the Satisfaction with Personal Consequences Scale(s)

The Cronbach's alpha of the ten item scale was 0.59, with a mean value of 51.12 and the SD is 7.37 as indicated in Table 7. The statements included in the eight item scale, which was used in the survey instrument, are shown in Table 8. The Cronbach's alpha for the eight item scale was 0.63, with a mean value of 40.61 and the SD is 6.68 as summarized in Table 8.

Studying the correlation and reliability results for the eight item measure of Satisfaction with Personal Consequences two issues are apparent. The Cronbach's alpha for the measure decreased from .730 in the pilot to .630 in the main sample. The reason for this decrease could be the different make-up of the two sample groups with regard to industry employed in, compensation packages, non-work context in which the pilot received the survey or any other number of variations. The issue of between sample differences and their potential impact on the reliability of measures is discussed further in the limitations section of this dissertation. The second issue that should be discussed with regard to the information provided in Table 8 is the relatively low inter-item correlation between the eight items that compose the measure. Five of the eight items pertain to the professional (career) consequences that the assignment had; these items are moderately correlated. The scale items 1, 2 and 7 that have only low inter-item correlation pertain more to private and less to professional consequences. This discrepancy between the private versus professional nature of the two groups of questions (those with low vs.

moderate inter-item correlation) may account for the differences in the levels of inter-item correlation. The SRMR (.098), CFI (.080) and GFI (.089) measures all reflect an adequate fit, although the RMSEA value is higher than acceptable. By reducing this satisfaction measure from ten to eight items each of the goodness of fit indices Chi-square, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI and GFI improved as can be seen in Table 10.

Table 7

Items forming part of the scale “Satisfaction with Personal Consequences” ($\alpha=.588$)

Original set comprised of 10 items

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	I found that my last foreign assignment provided me with an opportunity to gain skills in managing a diverse workforce.	.010	.294	.612
2	I found that on returning from my foreign assignment, I had become a foreigner in my own home country.	.107	.239	.610
3	Living abroad has made my family and myself more sensitive to other cultures.	.015	.172	.602
4	Because of the foreign assignment, I have less contact now with a number of my family members and friends.	.008	.192	.647
5	The foreign assignment was an important part of my personal development.	.277	.242	.571
6	Because of the foreign assignment, I received a promotion.	.458	.447	.502
7	Because of my experience abroad, I am more likely to be considered for a promotion in the future.	.588	.515	.465
8	During my stay abroad, I was by-passed for a number of interesting career advancement opportunities in my organization.	.582	.468	.472
9	The challenging nature of my foreign assignment helped me improve my overall competencies.	.133	.313	.587
10	On completion of the foreign assignment, the expectations that I had from my organization regarding my next role were met.	.540	.403	.473

Table 8

Items forming part of the scale “Satisfaction with Personal Consequences” ($\alpha=.625$)

Revised set comprised of 8 items

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Living abroad has made my family and myself more sensitive to other cultures.	.036	.117	.644
2	Because of the foreign assignment, I have less contact now with a number of my family members and friends.	.001	.135	.709
3	The foreign assignment was an important part of my personal development.	.301	.230	.609
4	Because of the foreign assignment, I received a promotion.	.495	.433	.532
5	Because of my experience abroad, I am more likely to be considered for a promotion in the future.	.569	.484	.510
6	During my stay abroad, I was by-passed for a number of interesting career advancement opportunities in my organization.	.567	.435	.515
7	The challenging nature of my foreign assignment helped me improve my overall competencies.	.161	.269	.626
8	On completion of the foreign assignment, the expectations that I had from my organization regarding my next role were met.	.525	.396	.520

3.6.5 Success

For the purpose of this research “success” is defined as having completed the assignment in its entirety. Originally, when developing the survey instrument, “success” was to be determined based on three factors; whether an assignment was completed, completed on time and completed on budget. The rationale for this three pronged approach to the measurement of success was explained in section 2.1 of this dissertation; in short an assignment that was completed must not have been completed well. By determining whether an assignment was completed in a timely fashion and within a pre-defined budgetary constraint, one learns more about the quality and efficiency of the work conducted. The data analysis showed that of the respondents 87% claimed to have

completed the assignment on schedule and 90% on budget. There were 126 respondents in total, however when asked whether schedule and budget goals were met only 104 and 97 people responded to the respective questions. The relatively small sample size coupled with the high percent of people who completed the assignment on time and on budget, led the researcher to change the definition of "success". During the post-survey interviews, participants were asked to define success from a personal and professional perspective.

The mean, standard deviation, and Cronbach's alpha for each of the independent, mediating and dependent variables are summarized in Table 9 below. For the bivariate correlation table of each of the measures used the reader is directed to Appendix 5. Appendix 6 summarizes measurement levels of the various scales, reliability and validity information, and the data analytical tools used in the study test various hypotheses.

Table 9

Mean, Standard Deviation and Cronbach's Alpha for Scales

Scales	Mean	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Pre-departure Training	11 .79	4.33	0.92
Next Role	22.04	7.70	0.85
Organization Support	24.18	4.61	0.50
Self-Monitoring	39.55	2.86	0.43
Intolerance of Ambiguity	50.91	8.39	0.55
Ethnocentricity	26.39	6.27	0.83
Novelty Seeking	60.32	8.33	0.79
Work Adjustment	16.61	3.17	0.79
Interaction Adjustment	10.36	2.73	0.82
General Adjustment	32.86	6.13	0.81
Overall Adjustment	59.82	10.15	0.87
Affective Commitment	39.37	8.05	0.87
Satisfaction with the Assignment	54.45	5.89	0.70
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	10.48	2.48	0.51
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences	40.61	6.68	0.63

As can be seen in Table 9 above five of the measures used in the research had a Cronbach's alpha below 0.70. In the Social Sciences an alpha of 0.70 is often considered by researchers to be acceptable for a set of items to form a measure, however some researchers use 0.80 as a cut-off while others are more lenient setting the critical value at 0.60 (Meyers et al., 2006). There are three main reasons why the tests were used in the research. Firstly, Self-Monitoring and Intolerance of Ambiguity are measures that had been heavily in use and much cited for 34 and 44 years respectively. The reliability and validity information available for these measures and existing test and re-test results supported their use in the current research. Secondly, the researcher was reluctant to forsake using the three newly developed measures because items included in the Organization Support measure and both measures of satisfaction had undergone three separate rounds of testing to refine the items, to retranslate the items in to constructs and to be checked for validity by experts in the area of expatriate manager assignments. In some cases deleting certain items included in a measure would have significantly improved its reliability, however potentially at the risk of negatively impacting the measure's content validity. Finally, each of the five measures that had a reliability < 0.70 had a higher Cronbach's alpha when tested using the pilot sample; Organization Support (0.69 vs. 0.50), Self-Monitoring (0.86 vs. 0.43), Intolerance of Ambiguity (0.82 vs. 0.55), Satisfaction with Life Abroad (0.71 vs. 0.51) and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences (0.73 vs. 0.63). The discrepancies between the results of the pilot and main sample may be explained by differences between the two groups of respondents, an issue discussed in detail in the limitations section of this dissertation. Relevant limitations also include issues of social desirability and the location of certain measures in the survey instrument.

Correction for attenuation was completed for each hypotheses that included one or more of the five measures that had a Cronbach's alpha < 0.70. The results of the correction for attenuation are shown in Appendix 7, Table 63. In cases where reliability is less than 1.00 the proportion of the "true score" in the scale is less than 100%, which results in the correlation between the measure and the criterion being attenuated (smaller than the real correlation). This calculation was carried out to determine the correlation between the true values of the independent and dependent measures. The correction of attenuation did not impact the results of the hypotheses testing.

3.7 Confirmatory Factor Analysis of Newly Developed Measure

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted for all scales developed in the present study. LISREL software was used to conduct the CFA the results of which are summarized in Table 10 below.

Table 10
Results of CFA of Newly Developed Scales Using LISREL

Measure	Number items	Factor	Chi-Square	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	GFI
Pre-departure Training	3	1	Perfect Fit	Perfect Fit	Perfect Fit	Perfect Fit	Perfect Fit
Preparation for Next Role	5	1	13.10	0.09	0.038	0.98	0.96
Organization Support	5	1	39.25	0.17	0.15	0.15	0.88
Satisfaction with the Assignment	9	1	47.80	0.077	0.063	0.95	0.92
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	2	1	15.65	0.33	0.20	--	0.89
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences	10	1	127.68	0.15	0.12	0.71	0.82
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences	8	1	65.32	0.13	0.098	0.80	0.89

Acceptability of fit measures (Meyers et al., 2006): CFI: good fit >.90, adequate fit >.80-.89, poor fit >.60-.79, very poor fit < .60; GFI: perfect fit = 1, acceptable fit >.90; RMSEA: acceptable fit < .10; SRMR < .10

3.8 Sample

The present study surveyed a sample of expatriate managers in a large multinational pharmaceutical organization with operations in 117 countries and employing over 100,000 employees including approximately 12,000 managers. In 2006 36% of the company's managers and 22% of its senior managers were women. The organization, a leader in the pharmaceutical industry, routinely transfers its managers abroad to complete specific assignments as well as a management development tool. For the purpose of the present discussion, we shall call the organization PharmaCorp.

All managers who had taken part in a foreign country assignment while at PharmaCorp constituted the population from which the present sample was based. The head of the Global Foreign Assignments Department in the company provided the researcher with a list of 355 email addresses of managers who had completed their foreign assignments within the last five years. Five years was chosen as the cut off point for 2 reasons i) PharmaCorp came into being a few years ago following the merger of two large pharmaceutical companies. After the merger, processes were homogenized. The researcher wanted to ensure that all respondents had taken part in foreign assignments as employees of the same company; ii) Given the survey research format employed in the study, it was reasonable to believe that the reliability and accuracy of events which transpired longer than five years ago would be suspect.

A web-based survey was used for the purpose of collecting data. The researcher sent an email to the address block explaining the nature of the research and requesting that these potential participants click on the attached link to access and then complete the survey (Appendix 8). Participation in the survey was voluntary. The participants were also assured of anonymity. When accessed, the link directed the respondent to an online

web based survey housed on the Saint Mary's University server. At the site, the potential participant was greeted with an introductory note, signed by the researcher and the thesis supervisor, which again explained the nature of the research that was being conducted (Appendix 9). The survey took approximately 30 minutes to complete. Of the 355 managers, 82 were not reachable since they no longer had an active email address as a result of name changes, or departure from the company. Of the 273 people remaining 72 had participated within one week of having been sent the invitation. An email was sent to the 273 people to thank those who had completed the survey and to remind those who had not to please take part (Appendix 10). The email reminder resulted in the number of respondents increasing to 126 or 46% of the respondents who were successfully contacted.

The findings that emerged from the study are discussed in the next chapter.

CHAPTER FOUR

FINDINGS

This chapter presents the findings of the survey. It begins with the steps taken to verify the accuracy and appropriateness of the sample. This is followed by results of statistical tests for the eleven hypotheses listed in Chapter 2. Following this, the results of a Structural Equation Model that relates expatriate satisfaction, organizational commitment and success to various independent variables and the mediating variable are detailed.

4.1 Sample Profile and Adequacy Check

The survey generated 126 responses (from 273 potential participants). The required sample size to achieve a 95% confidence level and $\pm 3\%$ confidence interval for a pool of 273 potential participants would have been 218 (with finite correction). Even acting on the assumption that 80% successfully completed their foreign assignments, the required sample only drops to 196 respondents, still well above the 126 that participated in the present study. The sub-optimal number of responses generated for the study increases the importance of the role that potential non-responder bias could play in further limiting the accuracy and generalizability of results.

To decrease potential non-response bias, attempts were made to increase survey participation by repeatedly sending reminder emails to all available email addresses. It was not possible to statistically measure non-response bias retrospectively, as the surveys were conducted anonymously and so there was no way of knowing which PharmaCorp employees had chosen not to participate. Even if this information had been known, the researcher would have had to rely on PharmaCorp to provide information about potential

distinguishing features of the non-responders. Other methods by which to mitigate potential non-response bias are discussed in the limitations section of this dissertation.

Based on information provided by PharmaCorp's Global Foreign Assignments department, it can be assumed that most PharmaCorp expatriate managers (including members of the 273 person email pool composed of responders and non-responders) are comparable with regard to the seniority of their positions, their level of education, their age and the time spent on their last foreign assignment. These similarities, while they tell us little about the attitudes of the non-responders toward the expatriate experience, may have contributed to limiting non-responder bias. The fact that the surveys were sent to potential participants during the summer holidays may have limited the number of responses received. A number of out of office replies were received by the researcher after emailing the initial invitation to participate in the online survey and again after sending out both reminder emails. Therefore, one feature distinguishing between responders and non-responders - not likely to influence results - could be their holiday schedules.

Before proceeding with the analysis an effort was made to check the sample profile and its adequacy by comparing it to the population of expatriate managers in the company.

4.2 Demographic Profile of Sample

The head of PharmaCorp's Global Foreign Assignments department was able to provide the researcher with an approximate profile of the company's expatriate managers. About three quarters of the current expatriate workforce are men, a large majority of them in the age group of mid-thirties to late forties. It was predicted that the overwhelming

majority are university educated. The sample gathered in the study matched this profile; 72.8% of the sample was male, the mean age of the total sample was 37.99 years (SD=6.15, Range=24-53) and 94% had received a university education. Key respondent characteristics are provided directly below. For a complete breakdown of the sample's demographic background the reader is directed to Appendix 11.

4.2.1 Demographic Profile Prior Assignment Abroad

Table 11 shows the number of expatriate assignments by respondents in this study 68.7% of survey participants had only been on one such assignment while the remaining 31.3% had taken part in two or more expatriate assignments with PharmaCorp.

Table 11

How many foreign assignments lasting longer than one year have you been on with this organization? (N=126)

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent without missings
Missings	11	8.7	
1	79	62.7	68.7
2	23	18.3	20.0
3	9	7.1	7.8
4	1	.8	.9
5	1	.8	.9
>5	2	1.6	1.7

Tests were conducted to determine whether there were group differences between respondents who had taken part in one foreign assignment at the time of completing the survey and those who had taken part in multiple foreign assignments, with regard to the dependent variables Completion of the assignment, Affective Commitment and Satisfaction. The sample size of participants who had taken part in three or more foreign assignments was too small to allow for rigorous statistical testing. Therefore, data was recoded to form two groups before further testing was completed i) respondents who had

taken part in one foreign assignment; ii) respondents who had taken part in multiple foreign assignments. To investigate potential differences between the two groups with regard to Completion of the Assignment and Affective Commitment independent t-tests were carried out. The decision to carry out univariate as opposed to multivariate testing was made because the independent variable (Prior Assignment Abroad) had two levels and moreover, because Completion of the Assignment and Affective Commitment were not correlated to each other and not correlated to any of the satisfaction variables. Meyers et al. (2006) recommend that for multivariate testing to be considered, the dependent variables should ideally be moderately correlated within the .20-.30 range.

The first of the two independent sample t-tests that would be conducted compared the mean Affective Commitment score for subjects having completed one foreign assignment ($M = 38.71$, $SD = 8.64$) with those subjects having completed multiple foreign assignments ($M = 40.11$, $SD = 6.77$). This comparison was not found to be statistically significant, $t(113) = -.861$, $p < .391$. This result indicates that having taken part in a prior foreign assignment did not influence the manager's Affective Commitment. The second independent sample t-test conducted compared the mean completion score for subjects who had completed the foreign assignment in its entirety ($M = 1.09$, $SD = .286$) with those who had not ($M = 1.31$, $SD = .467$). This comparison was found to be statistically significant, $t(47) = -2.58$, $p < .013$. This result indicates that managers who had taken part in more than one foreign assignment prior to completing the survey had a higher rate of completion than those who had only taken part in one such assignment. The group statistics and further results from the independent samples test are included in Appendix 12.

A two-group between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance was conducted on the three dependent variables Satisfaction with Life Abroad, Satisfaction with the Assignment and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment. The independent variable was Prior Foreign Assignment. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($p = .000$) indicated that there was sufficient correlation between the dependent variables to continue with the analysis. Using the Wilk's criterion, the multivariate effect of Prior Foreign Assignment on Satisfaction was not significant (Wilks λ , $F [2, 113] = 1.12$, $p = .346$, partial $\eta^2 = .029$). Tests of between-subjects effects were conducted to determine whether having previously taken part in a foreign assignment had a significant effect on any of the three individual dependent variables; no univariate effect of Prior Foreign Assignment was found to be significant. Whether or not a manager had taken part in a prior assignment did not influence his or her satisfaction. Means and standard deviations of the two groups are presented in Appendix 12 with accompanying test results.

4.2.2 Demographic Profile Prior Living Abroad

Table 12 shows the number of respondents who had lived abroad for more than half a year prior to taking part in their last foreign assignment with PharmaCorp. The majority of the respondents had lived in a country other than the one in which they were born. Prior experience living abroad is one of the 4 variables that describe the internationality of the managers' background.

Table 12

Prior to the foreign assignment had you lived in a country (for six months or longer) other than the one in which you were born? (N=126)

Reponse	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	66	52.4
No	60	47.6

4.2.3 Demographic Profile Extent of Foreign Travel

Table 13 shows the extent to which survey respondent had engaged in foreign travel prior to taking part in their last expatriate assignment with PharmaCorp. Of those who answered this survey question everyone had travelled outside of their own country and almost 79.8 had travelled to two or more foreign continents. The large majority of the research sample was very well travelled.

Table 13

Which of the following statements applied to you at the time you went on your last foreign assignment? (N=126)

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	2	1.6	
I had not traveled outside of the country of my origin before my foreign assignment	0	0	0
I had traveled some, mainly in countries closest to the country of my origin	10	7.9	8.1
I had traveled to one foreign continent	15	11.9	12.1
I had traveled to two or more foreign continents	99	78.6	79.8

4.2.4 Demographic Profile Multilingualism

Table 14 shows the number of languages that members of the research sample speak. The majority of respondents are multilingual with only 37.9% speaking one language. The number of languages an expatriate manager speaks, in addition to the three aforementioned indicators, is a measure of the internationality of a manager's background.

Table 14

Number of languages you speak (N=126)

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	2	1.6	
1	47	37.3	37.9
2	50	39.7	40.3
3	22	17.5	17.7
4	4	3.2	3.2
5 or more	1	.8	.81

4.3 Data Refinement

Data was examined for its completeness and appropriateness for statistical analysis.

Missing data analysis and examination of outliers were conducted to verify the data.

4.3.1 Missing Data Analysis

A confirmatory check was conducted to ensure correct recoding by comparing the SPSS frequency table output "0" versus the missing values. This was done for each of the scales included in the survey. An excerpt of the output of the analysis is shown in Table 15 below using one statement from the Pre-Departure Training scale as an example.

Table 15

Missing Value Analysis for the item
"Training prepared me for cultural differences"

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	1	8	6.3	6.5	6.5
	2	16	12.7	13.0	19.5
	3	20	15.9	16.3	35.8
	4	32	25.4	26.0	61.8
	5	17	13.5	13.8	75.6
	6	28	22.2	22.8	98.4
	7	2	1.6	1.6	100.0
	Total	123	97.6	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.4		
Total		126	100.0		

Missing values were estimated using Expectation Maximization. The Expectation Maximization was carried out four times, once for each set of scales. A set of scales refers to the number of points on which the scale is scored. The measures used were either dichotomous or scored using a Likert Scale ranging from 1- 5, 1-7 or 1-9. This process was chosen because, initially the Expectation Maximization including all survey statements (without grouping the sets of scales) resulted in values being generated that were less than one and greater than even the highest value measuring nine points. By first grouping the sets of scales and then conducting an Expectation Maximization the generation of such outliers were limited. An important assumption for such estimation is that the missing data are random in nature.

MCAR test by Little was used for the purpose of the above estimation. The MCAR test results in a χ^2 distributed critical value which allows for the determination of a significance level p . The null hypothesis is that values are missing totally at random. A significant result ($p < .05$) would indicate that the data are not missing completely at random. For the present data set the MCAR test for each of the sets of scales was non-significant as can be seen in Table 16, thus ensuring that the data set was appropriate for further analysis.

Table 16
MCAR Test Output

MCAR Test	Chi-square	DF	Sig.
9 Point Scale	29.368	32	.600
7 Point Scale	2786.858	2672	.060
5 Point Scale	173.342	190	.801
2 Point Scale	256.534	261	.566

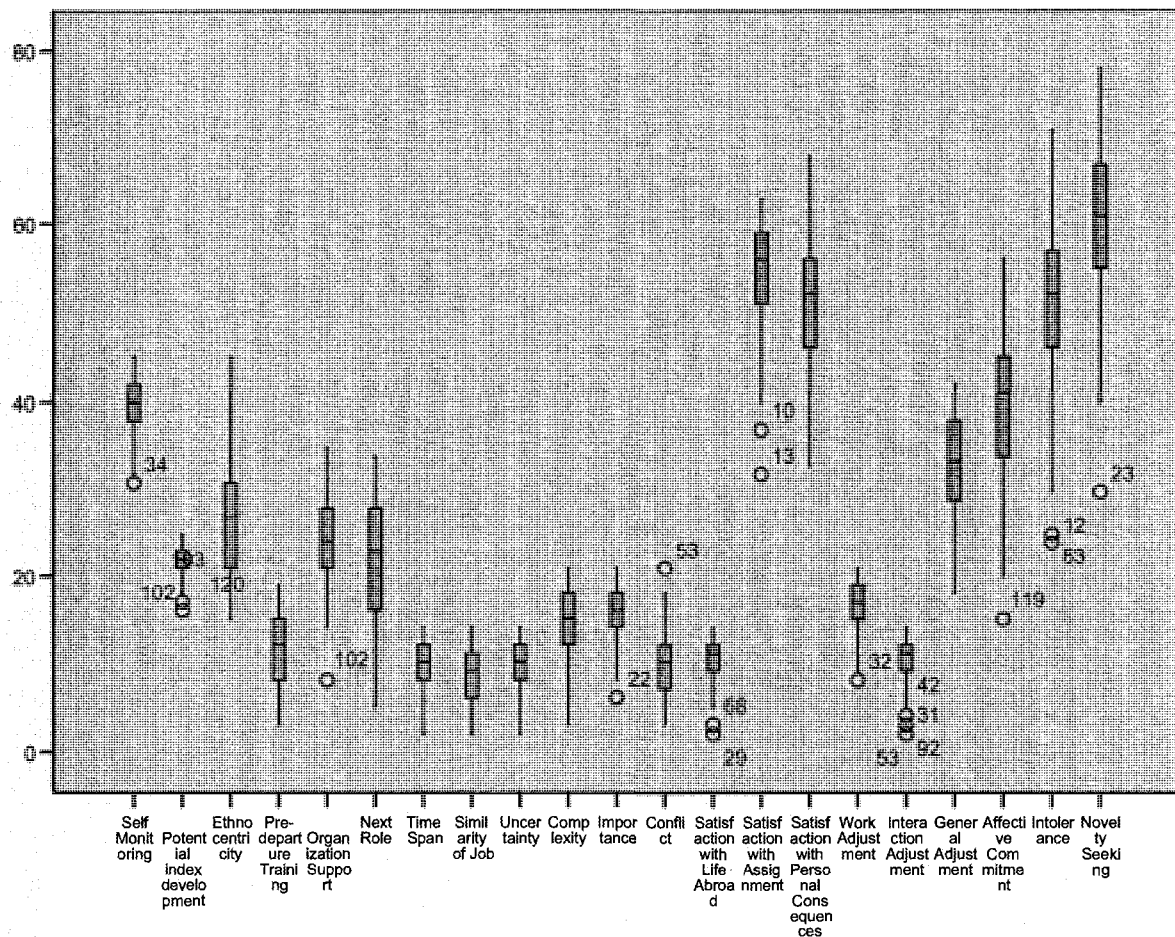
Following the above analysis, a three step approach to data cleaning was carried out. First the minimum and maximum scores for each of the survey items were analysed to ensure that no mistakes had been made on the part of the respondent when scoring an item. For example, for a rating scale which was scored using a Likert scale that ranged from 1-7 any score below 1 or above 7 would have been outside of the permitted range. Next, histograms were created for each of the survey items to determine whether normal distribution could be assumed. Finally, the central tendency of items (the mean) was analysed. The scores provided by the survey respondents met with the requirements of each of the three above steps.

4.3.2 Test for Outliers

Boxplots of Scales were created for the entire sample and summaries of separate variables were analysed. In Figure 9 below each circle represents a score that is below the lower fence or above the upper fence for each of the scales shown (Meyers at., 2006). The boxplot also shows the respondent number of a given outlier for a given variable. Based on this information the Excel data file was returned to and the answers from each of these respondents carefully studied to determine whether there were trends present that would indicate non-sensical responses which would potentially need to be deleted, for example scoring statements arbitrarily or misunderstanding the directions. The review of individual respondent's data failed to indicate that the scores provided were not a reflection of the respondent's feelings and the data was therefore permitted to remain in the data set for further analysis. Results from the boxplot show that there are no extreme outliers, which would have been positioned at greater than three times the inter-quartile distance and been represented on the boxplot by a star. Tests of univariate kurtosis and skewness as well as multivariate normality were also conducted. The results of the

analysis, the statistics and the Q-Q plots - supporting the normality of the measures are included in Appendix 13.

Figure 9
Boxplots of Survey Scales



4.4 Data Analytical Procedures

To test the hypotheses, a number of data analytical procedures were employed. Correlational and contingency analyses were used to test the hypotheses and structural equation modelling was used to explore the absolute and relative fit of the proposed models.

4.4.1 Correlational and Contingency Analysis

A series of bivariate correlations were computed on the data to explore the relationships between the constructs included in the hypotheses. All relevant correlation coefficients were calculated using SPSS software. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was measured to determine the strength of the association between variables. There is however some question about the appropriateness of using a parametric test to analyse results for a nominal level variable. Therefore, for hypotheses in this study that included a nominal variable, the non-parametric Chi² test was carried out to confirm results. Specifically, a Chi² test was carried out in two cases i) when quantitative values were assigned to qualitative data, for example the recoding of yes and no in to 1 and 2 respectively; ii) when re-coding categories in to numerical values. A further non-parametric test, the Fisher's Exact Test of Independence was conducted when a Chi² test could not correctly be carried out because of the presence of a categorical dependent and independent variable. An example from the present study for which the Fisher's Exact Text was an appropriate choice is for testing the relationship between whether a manager had previously lived abroad and whether he or she had completed the foreign assignment. Both the independent and dependent variables in this example are categorical with only two possible answers each (yes and no). Results of both the parametric, and where relevant the non-parametric tests that were carried out to test the various hypotheses are reported. Table 38 summarizes whether the researcher was able to reject the null hypothesis for each of the 11 cases.

In testing bivariate relationships the potential impact of other correlated independent variables has to be recognized. One way to measure for such impact is to conduct partial correlations in addition to the above mentioned zero-order correlations.

Partial correlations were conducted for each of the hypotheses to determine the relationship between the two test variables when the influence of the other variables is statistically controlled for. Partial correlations were calculated using the SPSS software for statistical analysis. Conducting partial correlation testing had implications for the interpretation of the results of four of the hypotheses. Three of the eight relationships that were found to be significant using zero-order testing, were non-significant using partial correlation testing (H1b, H1c, H3b). The independent and dependent correlates included in these three hypotheses were each further explored in the post-survey interviews and discussed in Chapter 5. Table 71 in Appendix 14 compares the results of zero-order and partial correlations.

Bonferroni Correction was carried out for each of the eight hypotheses for which the null hypothesis had been rejected. The correction was carried out because multiple sets of independent hypotheses were tested in this research using the same set of data (Collis and Rosenblood, 1985). To reduce the likelihood of Type 1 error occurring, a very conservative alpha value (.007) was set. The previous alpha level (.05) was divided by 7 because the eight hypotheses for which the null hypothesis had previously been rejected involved a total of seven variables. At the revised alpha level of .007, it was no longer possible to reject null for five of the eight hypotheses. There is some debate about the use of the Bonferroni Correction when highly conservative alpha levels are set (Meyers et al., 2006). While such a correction reduces the risk of a Type 1 error it may encourage the rate of false negative results or Type 2 errors. The decision was therefore made to also conduct a False Discovery Rate (FDR) correction, which is less conservative than the Bonferroni method and enables a balance to be struck between the identification of statistically significant relationships and the limitation of false positive results or Type 1

errors (Benjamini and Hochberg, 1995). The results of the FDR correction did not contradict any of the findings from earlier hypothesis testing; the decision to reject null for the eight aforementioned hypotheses was upheld. The FDR alpha value was set at .0262 (which corresponds to an $n=20$), a stringent setting considering there were only seven correlates included in the hypotheses. However, the decision to use the more stringent cut-off was intended to counter balance the less conservative nature of the FDR correction. Table 72 in Appendix 15, shows a comparison the results of the hypotheses testing using different alpha values established for both the Bonferroni and the FDR corrections.

4.4.2 Structural Equation Modelling

The research conducted in this study required estimating multiple interrelated dependence relationships, accounting for measurement error in the estimation process as well as representing unobserved concepts in these relationships. Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) was selected as the primary method of analysis of the overall and the mediation models because it met these requirements. SEM measures a series of dependence relationships simultaneously and allows the researcher to transition from exploratory to confirmatory analysis (Meyers et al., 2006).

The importance of sample size should not be ignored when considering the implementation of different data analysis methods in general and confirmatory factor analysis specifically. There are rules of thumb regarding sample size, for example, that it should be roughly equivalent to eight times the number of defined parameters plus 50 (Meyers et al., 2006). Most often for cases in which CFA is used the sample size reported is 200 or more (Meyers et al., 2006). However, some sources recommend the use of CFA when sample sizes exceeding 100 are available (Loehlin, 2004).

4.5 Findings – Tests for Hypotheses in Study

Hypothesis 1 in this study was:

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment.

Since all the variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables of interest was computed and significance tested. Table 17 shows the results of the analysis. As is seen, Organization Support ($r=0.23$, $p < .01$) and Preparation for Next Role ($r= 0.22$, $p < .05$) were significant and in the predicted direction. However, Training was not significantly related to Affective Commitment.

Table 17
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 1

		TRG	SS	RE	Comm.
TRG	Pearson Correlation	1	.397(**)	.082	.154
	Significance (2-tailed)		.000	.364	.086
SS	Pearson Correlation	.397(**)	1	.427(**)	.226(*)
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000		.000	.011
RE	Pearson Correlation	.082	.427(**)	1	.217(*)
	Significance (2-tailed)	.364	.000		.014
Comm.	Pearson Correlation	.154	.226(*)	.217(*)	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.086	.011	.014	

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed), * Correlation is significant at 0.05 (2-tailed)
Pre-departure Training (TRG), Organization Support (SS), Preparation for Next Role (RE),
Affective Commitment (Comm.)

Hypothesis 2 in this study was:

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment.

Since the variable 'completion of assignment' is dichotomous the researcher could not rely on Pearsonian correlation among the variables of interest. To compute the relationship between the three interval level independent variables and 'completion of assignment' a number of non-parametric tests were also carried out. Table 18 through

Table 21a show the results of the analysis. As is seen, none of the three predicted relationships was significant.

Table 18
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 2

		Comp.	TRG	SS	RE
Comp.	Pearson Correlation	1	-.048	-.016	.128
	Significance (2-tailed)		.593	.857	.153
TRG	Pearson Correlation	-.048	1	.397(**)	.082
	Significance (2-tailed)	.593		.000	.364
SS	Pearson Correlation	-.016	.397(**)	1	.427(**)
	Significance (2-tailed)	.857	.000		.000
RE	Pearson Correlation	.128	.082	.427(**)	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.153	.364	.000	

** The correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

Completion of Assignment (Comp.)Pre-departure Training (TRG), Organization Support (SS), Preparation for Next Role (RE)

Table 19
Pre-departure Training (Banded High Low) * Was FA completed in entirety
Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Pre-departure Training	<= 12	62	12	74
	13+	46	6	52
Total		108	18	126

Table 19a.
Non-Parametric Tests for Hypothesis 2 (Pre-departure Training * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.546(b)	1	.460		
Continuity Correction(a)	.231	1	.631		
Likelihood Ratio	.557	1	.456		
Fisher's Exact Test				.607	.319
Linear-by-Linear	.541	1	.462		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.43.

Table 20
 Organization Support (Banded High_Low) * Was FA Completed in entirety
 Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Organization Support	<= 24	59	8	67
	25+	49	10	59
Total		108	18	126

Table 20a
 Non-parametric Tests for Hypothesis 2 (Organization Support * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.643(b)	1	.423		
Continuity Correction(a)	.299	1	.585		
Likelihood Ratio	.642	1	.423		
Fisher's Exact Test				.455	.292
Linear-by-Linear Association	.638	1	.425		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.43.

Table 21
 Preparation for Next Role (Banded High Low) * Was FA completed in entirety
 Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Preparation for Next Role	<= 22	53	8	61
	23+	55	10	65
Total		108	18	126

Table 21a

Non-parametric Tests for Hypothesis 2 (Preparation for Next Role * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.132(b)	1	.716		
Continuity Correction(a)	.012	1	.913		
Likelihood Ratio	.133	1	.716		
Fisher's Exact Test				.802	.457
Linear-by-Linear Association	.131	1	.717		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.71.

Hypothesis 3 in this study was:

Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment.

Since all the variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables of interest was computed and significance tested. Table 22 shows the results of the analysis. As is seen, the correlation between Organization Support and Satisfaction with Life Abroad ($r=0.38$, $p < .01$) and that between Organization Support and Satisfaction with the Assignment ($r=0.23$, $p = .01$) were significant and in the predicted direction.

Table 22

Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 3

	SS	SL	SP	Divided by 2 where sig.
SS Pearson Correlation Significance (2-tailed)	1	.384(**) .000	.230(**) .010	
SL Pearson Correlation Significance (2-tailed)	.384(**) .000	1	.283(**) .001	.000
SP Pearson Correlation Significance (2-tailed)	.230(**) .010	.283(**) .001	1	.005

** The correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

Organization Support (SS), Satisfaction with Life Abroad (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP)

Hypothesis 4 in this study was:

Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.

Since both variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables was computed and significance tested. Table 23 shows the results of the analysis. As is seen, the correlation between Preparation for Next Role and Personal Consequences of the assignment ($r=0.598$, $p < .01$) was both significant and in the predicted direction.

Table 23
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 4

		PC	RE
PC	Pearson Correlation	1	.598(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.000
RE	Pearson Correlation	.598(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.000	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed) – 8 item scale.
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC),
Preparation for Next Role (RE)

Hypothesis 5 in this study was:

Novelty Seeking and Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment.

Since all the variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables was computed and significance tested. Table 24 shows the results of the analysis. As is seen, neither of the independent variables Organization Support and Novelty Seeking were significantly correlated to the two dependent variables.

Table 24

Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 5

		Ambig.	Novelty	SL	SP
Ambig.	Pearson Correlation	1	-.349(**)	-.036	-.106
	Significance (2-tailed)		.000	.689	.238
Novelty	Pearson Correlation	-.349(**)	1	-.118	.068
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000		.190	.450
SL	Pearson Correlation	-.036	-.118	1	.283(**)
	Significance (2-tailed)	.689	.190		.001
SP	Pearson Correlation	-.106	.068	.283(**)	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.238	.450	.001	

** The correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

Tolerance of Ambiguity (Ambig.), Novelty Seeking (Novelty), Satisfaction with Life (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP)

Hypothesis 6 in this study was:

Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment and to Interaction Adjustment.

Since all the variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables was computed and significance tested. Table 25 shows the results of the analysis. The correlation between Ethnocentricity and Satisfaction with the Assignment ($r=-0.34$, $p < .01$) was significant and in the predicted direction. However, Ethnocentricity was not significantly related to Interaction Adjustment.

Table 25

Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 6

		Ethno.	SP	Int. Ad.	Divided by 2 where Sig.
Ethno.	Pearson Correlation	1	-.335(**)	-.147	
	Significance (2-tailed)		.000	.100	
SP	Pearson Correlation	-.335(**)	1	.259(**)	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.000		.003	.000
Int. Adj	Pearson Correlation	-.147	.259(**)	1	
	Significance (2-tailed)	.100	.003		.050

** The correlation is significant at 0.01 (2-tailed)

Ethnocentricity (Ethno.), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP), Interaction Adjustment (Int. Adj.)

Hypothesis 7 in this study was:

Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment.

Since the variable 'completion of assignment' is dichotomous the researcher could not rely on Pearsonian correlation to test the relationship between the variables of interest. To compute the relationship between the interval level independent variable and 'Completion of Assignment' a number of non-parametric tests were also carried out. Table 26 through Table 27a show the results of the analysis. As is seen the predicted relationship was not significant ($r=.057$, $p=.527$).

Table 26
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 7

		Self M.	Compl.
Self M.	Pearson Correlation	1	.057
	Significance (2-tailed)		.527
Compl.	Pearson Correlation	.057	1
	Significance (2-tailed)	.527	

Self-Monitoring (Self M.), Completion of Assignment (Compl.)

Table 27
Self Monitoring (Banded Low High) * Was FA completed in entirety Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Self Monitoring	≤ 40	52	6	58
	41+	56	12	68
Total		108	18	126

Table 27a
Non-parametric Tests for Hypothesis 7 (Self-Monitoring * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.363(b)	1	.243	.310	.181
Continuity Correction(a)	.832	1	.362		
Likelihood Ratio	1.392	1	.238		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.352	1	.245		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.29

Hypothesis 8 in this study was:

Multilingualism, Foreign Travel, and Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad, Satisfaction with the Assignment, and to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.

Since the independent manager related variable 'Prior Living Abroad' is measured at nominal level, non-parametric tests had to be carried out to determine its correlation with the 3 dependent variables. Table 28 through Table 31a show the results of the analysis. With the exception of the significant relationship between Prior Living Abroad and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences ($r = 0.216$, $p < .05$) none of the predicted correlations were significant.

Table 28
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 8

		Lang.	Travel	Living	SL	SP	PC
Lang.	Pearson Correl.	1	-.013	-.043	-.041	-.090	.040
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.881	.629	.651	.318	.654
Travel	Pearson Correl.	-.013	1	-.263(**)	-.136	-.142	-.125
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.881		.003	.128	.112	.161
Living	Pearson Correl.	-.043	-.263(**)	1	.115	-.044	.216(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.629	.003		.199	.627	.015
SL	Pearson Correl.	-.041	-.136	.115	1	.283(**)	.129
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.651	.128	.199		.001	.151
SP	Pearson Correl.	-.090	-.142	-.044	.283(**)	1	.311(**)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.318	.112	.627	.001		.000
PC	Pearson Correl.	.040	-.125	.216(*)	.129	.311(**)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.654	.161	.015	.151	.000	

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed), * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
Multilingualism (Lang .), Extent of Foreign Travel (Travel), Previous Living Abroad (Living), Satisfaction with Life (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP), Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC)

Table 29

Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth * Satisfaction with
Life Abroad (Banded High Low) Crosstabulation

		Satisfaction with Life Abroad		Total
		<= 10	11+	
Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth	1	29	37	66
	2	21	39	60
Total		50	76	126

Table 29a

Non-parametric tests for Hypothesis 8 (Lived Abroad * Sat. with Life)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	1.049(b)	1	.306		
Continuity Correction(a)	.709	1	.400		
Likelihood Ratio	1.052	1	.305		
Fisher's Exact Test				.363	.200
Linear-by-Linear Association	1.041	1	.308		

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 23.81.

Table 30

Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth * Satisfaction with Assignment (Banded) High Low Crosstabulation

		Satisfaction with Assignment		Total
		<= 54	55+	
Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth	1	25	41	66
	2	28	32	60
Total		53	73	126

Table 30a

Non-parametric test for Hypothesis 8 (Lived Abroad * Sat. with Assignment)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.996(b)	1	.318	.368	.207
Continuity Correction(a)	.668	1	.414		
Likelihood Ratio	.996	1	.318		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.988	1	.320		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 25,24.

Table 31

Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth * PC8 (Banded High Low) Crosstabulation

		PC8 (Banded High Low)		Total
		<= 40.61	40.62+	
Prior to the FA had you lived in a country other than that of your birth	1	37	29	66
	2	20	40	60
Total		57	69	126

Table 31a

Non-parametric tests for Hypothesis 8 (Lived Abroad * Sat. with Personal Consequences)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	6.553(b)	1	.010		
Continuity Correction(a)	5.668	1	.017		
Likelihood Ratio	6.623	1	.010		
Fisher's Exact Test				.013	.008
Linear-by-Linear Association	6.501	1	.011		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 27.14.

Hypothesis 9 in this study was:

Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.

Since both variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables was computed and significance tested. Table 32 shows the results of the analysis. As is seen, the correlation between 'Prior Assignment' and Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment ($r=-0.08$, $p=.37$) was not significant.

Table 32

Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 9

	Prior. Ass	PC
Prior Ass. Pearson Correlation	1	-.080
Sig. (2-tailed)		.371
PC Pearson Correlation	-.080	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	.371	

Prior Assignment Abroad (Prior Ass.),

Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC)

Hypothesis 10 in this study was:

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will be positively related to completing the assignment.

Since the variable 'Completion of Assignment' is dichotomous the researcher could not rely on Pearsonian correlation to test its relationship with the three interval level Satisfaction variables. To compute the relationship between 'Completion of the Assignment' and the other variables a number of non-parametric tests were carried out. Table 33 through Table 36a show the results of the analysis. As may be seen none of the predicted relationships were significant.

Table 33
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 10

		SL	SP	PC	Compl.
SL	Pearson Correlation	1	.283(**)	.129	-.098
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.151	.274
SP	Pearson Correlation	.283(**)	1	.311(**)	.023
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000	.801
PC	Pearson Correlation	.129	.311(**)	1	.085
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151	.000		.343
Compl.	Pearson Correlation	-.098	.023	.085	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.274	.801	.343	

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

Satisfaction with Life (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP), Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC), Completion of Assignment (Compl.)

Table 34
Satisfaction with Life Abroad (Banded High Low) * Was FA completed in entirety
Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	<= 10	40	10	50
	11+	68	8	76
Total		108	18	126

Table 34a

Non-parametric Tests for Hypothesis 10 (Satisfaction with Life * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.211(b)	1	.137		
Continuity Correction(a)	1.505	1	.220		
Likelihood Ratio	2.162	1	.141		
Fisher's Exact Test				.193	.111
Linear-by-Linear Association	2.193	1	.139		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.14.

Table 35

Satisfaction with Assignment (Banded) High Low * Was FA completed in entirety

Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Satisfaction with Assignment	<= 54	46	7	53
	55+	62	11	73
Total		108	18	126

Table 35a

Non-parametric tests for Hypothesis 10 (Sat. with Assignment * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.087(b)	1	.768		
Continuity Correction(a)	.001	1	.971		
Likelihood Ratio	.087	1	.768		
Fisher's Exact Test				.803	.489
Linear-by-Linear Association	.086	1	.769		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 7.57.

Table 36

Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (Banded High Low) * Was
FA Completed in entirety Crosstabulation

		Was FA completed in entirety		Total
		yes	no	
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences	<= 40.61	49	8	57
	40.62+	59	10	69
Total		108	18	126

Table 36a

Non-parametric tests for Hypothesis 10 (Sat. with Personal Consequences * Completion)

	Value	df	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (2-sided)	Exact Sig. (1-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	.005(b)	1	.942	1.000	.574
Continuity Correction(a)	.000	1	1.000		
Likelihood Ratio	.005	1	.942		
Fisher's Exact Test					
Linear-by-Linear Association	.005	1	.942		
N of Valid Cases	126				

a Computed only for a 2x2 table

b 0 cells (0%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is 8.14.

Hypothesis 11 in this study was:

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective organizational commitment.

Since all variables involved were measured at interval level, Pearsonian correlation among the variables of interest was computed and significance tested. Table 37 shows the results of the analysis. As may be seen, Satisfaction with Personal Consequences was significantly correlated to Affective Commitment ($r=0.23$, $p < .05$). However, neither Satisfaction with Life nor Satisfaction with the Assignment were significantly related to Affective Commitment.

Table 37
Pearsonian Correlations for Hypothesis 11

		SL	SP	PC	Comm.
SL	Pearson Correlation	1	.283(**)	.129	.097
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001	.151	.278
SP	Pearson Correlation	.283(**)	1	.311(**)	.121
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001		.000	.178
PC	Pearson Correlation	.129	.311(**)	1	.228(*)
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.151	.000		.010
Comm.	Pearson Correlation	.097	.121	.228(*)	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.278	.178	.010	

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

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Satisfaction with Life (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP), Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC), Affective Commitment (Comm.)

In Table 38 below the results of hypotheses tests are summarized. The table shows whether it was possible to reject null for the individual hypotheses. In cases where it was only possible to reject null for one or more (but not all) parts of a hypothesis the result is a partial rejection of null. Of the eleven hypotheses null was rejected in two cases, the testing of four hypotheses resulted in a partial rejection of null, while for the remaining five hypotheses the tests resulted in the failure to reject null.

Table 38
Summary of Results of Hypotheses Testing

Hypothesis 1: Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's affective commitment		Partial rejection null
H1a	Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	Not Supported
H1b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	Supported
H1c	Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	Supported

Hypothesis 2: Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment		Failure to reject null
H2a	Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	Not supported
H2b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	Not supported
H2c	Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	Not supported
Hypothesis 3: Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment.		Reject null
H3a	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad	Supported
H3b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment	Supported
Hypothesis 4: Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.		Reject null
H4	Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.	Supported
Hypothesis 5: Novelty Seeking and Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment.		Failure to reject null
H5a	Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad	Not supported
H5b	Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad	Not supported
H5c	Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment	Not supported
H5d	Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment	Not supported
Hypothesis 6: Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment and to Interaction Adjustment.		Partial rejection null
H6a	Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	Supported
H6b	Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Interaction Adjustment	Not Supported
Hypothesis 7: Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment.		Failure to reject null
H7	Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing The assignment.	Not Supported

Hypothesis 8: Multilingualism, Foreign Travel, and Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad, Satisfaction with the Assignment, and to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment.		Partial rejection null
H8a	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	Not Supported
H8b	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	Not Supported
H8c	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment	Not Supported
H8d	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	Not Supported
H8e	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	Not Supported
H8f	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment	Not Supported
H8g	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad.	Not Supported
H8h	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	Not Supported
H8i	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Personal Conseq. of the Assignment	Supported
Hypothesis 9: Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.		Failure to reject null
H9	Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment	Not Supported
Hypothesis 10: Expatriate managers' satisfaction will positively influence the completion of the assignment		Failure to reject null
H10a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will positively influence the completion of the assignment	Not Supported
H10b	Satisfaction with Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment	Not Supported
H10c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment	Not Supported
Hypothesis 11: Expatriate managers' satisfaction will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment.		Partial rejection null
H11a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	Not Supported
H11b	Satisfaction with Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	Not Supported
H11c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	Supported

4.6 Findings from Post Survey Interviews

While several of the hypotheses formulated in the study found support, there were a number of them that did not. To find out reasons for the discrepancy, telephone interviews were conducted with a sample of randomly selected respondents. Ten managers were selected randomly from the original list of 355 email addresses that the researcher had been provided by PharmaCorp. The decision to first write ten people from the list was made arbitrarily with the aim to getting an impression of the response rate, knowing that more people could be contacted as needed. To ensure that the ten email addresses were active these were compared to the list of 82 email addresses that were no longer valid. The researcher used the PharmaCorp email system to write individual messages requesting a time window of approximately 45 minutes for a telephone interview. The email reminded potential participants who the sender was and about the nature of the research being conducted. The recipients were informed that regardless of whether they had participated in the online survey their participation in the telephone interview would be welcome. Several 'out of office' messages were returned notifying the researcher of the amount of days that the person would be out of the office. Six people wrote back to suggest times at which they could be reached by phone for the interview.

An interview script with which to conduct the semi-structured interviews was developed by the researcher with the help of the thesis supervisor (Appendix 16). The questions formulated in the script focussed on better understanding the outcome of research findings that had been contrary to those hypothesized (for the most part pertaining to hypotheses for which the researcher failed to reject null). The respondents' answers to the questions asked were repetitive to a mixed degree. Each of the interviews

provided some new information that had not been mentioned by previous interviewees (decreasingly so as the number of interviews progressed). Therefore the decision was made to conduct further interviews until new and relevant information was no longer being provided. In total seven men and three women were interviewed, a split that roughly mirrored that of the survey respondents.

The information gathered during the interviews provided invaluable corroborative evidence with which to evaluate the results of hypotheses tests. The results of the interviews are included in Chapter 5.

4.7 Tests for the Integrative Overall Model

The use of Structural Equation Modelling (SEM) permitted the researcher to test the overall integrative model developed in the study. It also offered an opportunity to separate the impact of latent and observed variables. SEM improves statistical estimation and provides superior representation of theoretical concepts (Hair et al., 1998). There are two types of SEM techniques, covariance-based (e.g. LISREL, EQS or AMOS) and component-based SEM techniques (e.g. Partial Least Square). Given the nature of data and research question, covariance based AMOS was selected for the purpose of data analysis.

Confirmatory Factors Analysis (CFA) was used to test goodness of fit of the model developed. According to Chin, Marcolin, and Newsted (In Meyers et. al, 2006) in cases where the theory development is still in “the formative stage” the decision whether to use exploratory vs. confirmatory analysis is not always clear. The goal of CFA is to determine the extent of similarity between the relationships (the covariance) in the proposed model and the observed model. What is being measured in CFA is the construct

validity of a model, which is an indicator of whether the measure being analyzed actually measures the construct it is said to. Construct validity is determined by how good the model fits the data.

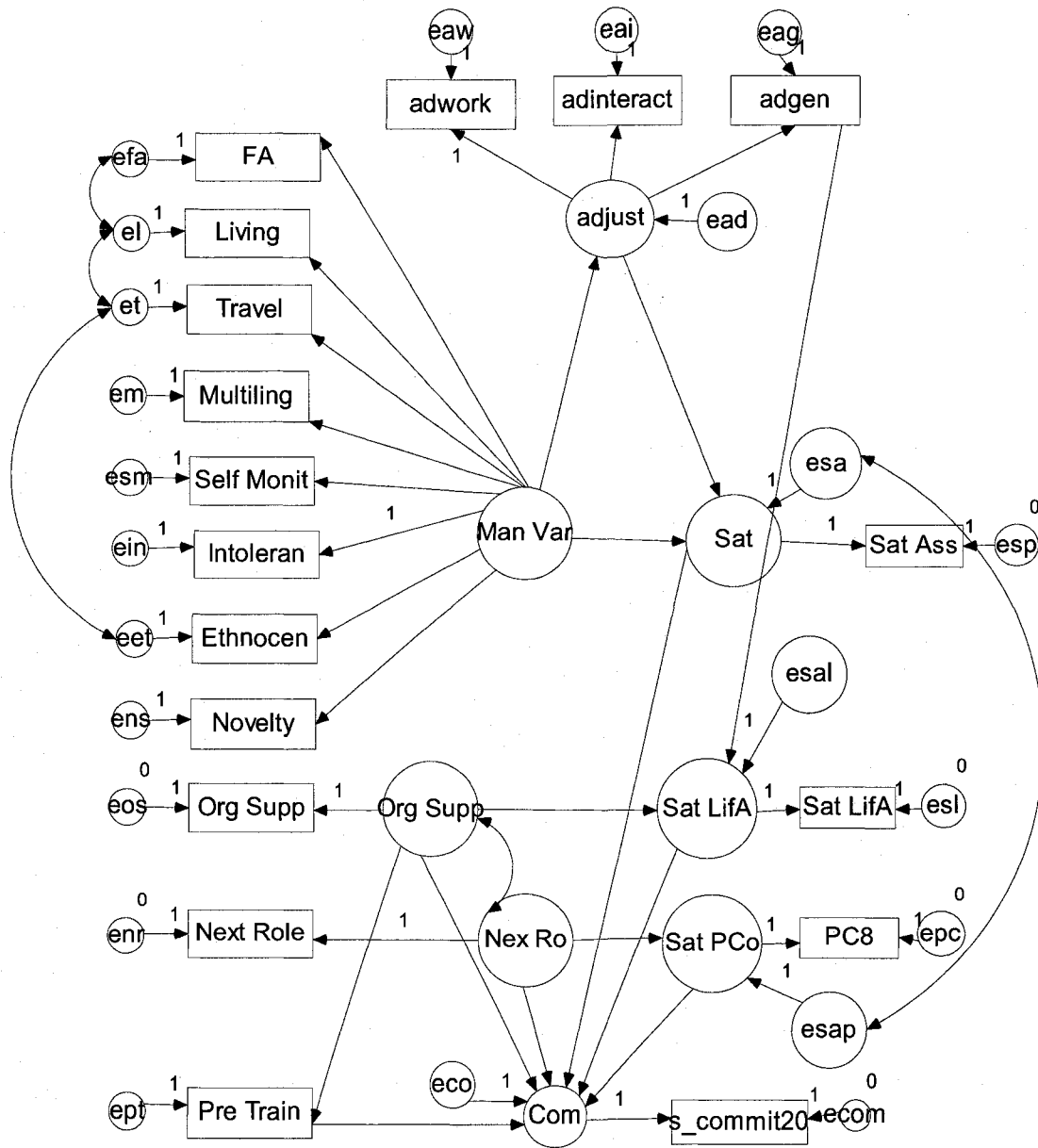
CFA (maximum likelihood) was conducted using Analysis of Moment Structures (AMOS) Version 6. The major objective of any CFA is to examine whether the relationships between variables in the hypothesized model mirror those in the observed data set. AMOS Version 6 estimates missing data by use of full information maximum likelihood as opposed to other “ad hoc” methods such as mean imputation or listwise and pairwise deletions. AMOS also has a graphical interface (Bühner, 2006) which facilitates iterative building and testing of models using “drag and drop boxes (manifest variables) and eggs (latent variables) on the screen” (Cunningham, 2005 p. 2). After the user runs the model, the parameter estimates are recorded directly on the path diagram. Results from analyses (in addition to the hypothesized model itself) are displayed in a visual framework making results easier to interpret. The user friendliness and widely adopted use of AMOS has led some to describe the approach as a “natural mode of thought” (Cunningham, 2005).

All scores were recoded such that high scores express high performance or emotion. The results of the Mardia Test showed that the assumption of multivariate normality could not be confirmed (multivariate kurtosis=19.115, c.r.=3.998, $p < .05$). Therefore the next step was conducting a Bollen-Stine bootstrap procedure (1000 samples) to generate a corrected p value for the Chi-square test ($p = .114$). The recommendation of Hu and Bentler (1999) was followed and the global goodness of fit of the tested model was determined using the Standardized Root Mean Square Residual

(SRMSR) and the Root Mean Squared Error of Approximation (RMSEA). Hu and Bentler (1999, p.27) set $RMSE \leq 0.06$ and $SRMR \leq 0.11$ as the critical values when assessing the global goodness of fit. However, the critical value for RMSEA has been set as high as ≤ 0.08 by other researchers (Meyers et al., 2006). Global goodness of fit was also assessed by attaining the Comparative-Fit Index (CFI) (as per Beauducel and Wittmann, 2005). Hu and Bentler (1999) set the critical value for the CFI at approximately 0.95. The critical values set by Hu and Bentler that were stated above have been questioned (Marsh, Hau, and Wen, 2004). Marsh, Hau, and Wen (2004) support the use of the χ^2 -test with which to evaluate the model. It was therefore decided to use both the fit indices as well as the χ^2 -test. The estimates in the overall model were calculated using Maximum Likelihood Estimation (MLE). MLE calculates those estimates that will result in the highest chance of the proposed model fitting the actual data.

For the purposes of this research the structure of the model should be regarded as being composed of two main parts. The upper half of the model is dedicated to evaluating the predicted mediation between the independent manager related variables and the dependent variable manager satisfaction. The lower half of the model evaluates a number of relationships between the independent organizational related variables and the dependent variables Manager Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment. The integrative overall model is shown in Figure 10 below

Figure 10
AMOS Integrative Overall Model



4.8 Tests for the Mediation Model

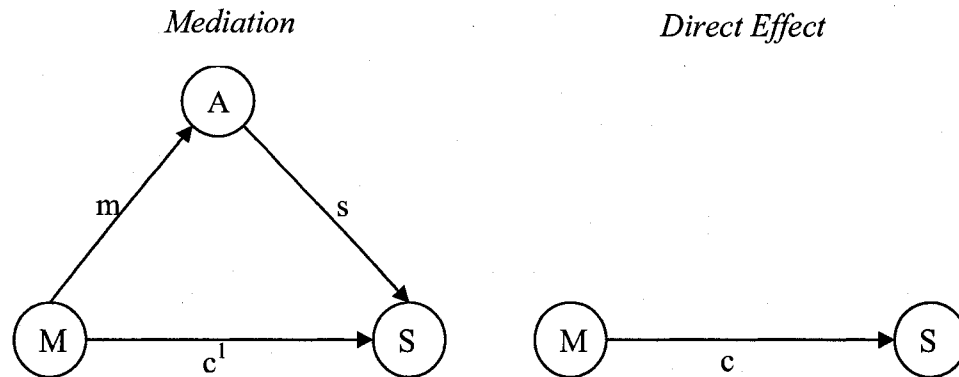
It was predicted that the relationship between the independent manager related variables and the dependent variable Manager Satisfaction would be mediated by the expatriate manager's adjustment. The latent variable Adjustment is composed of Work Adjustment, Interaction Adjustment, and General Adjustment. The manager related variables tested included the four personality variables Self-Monitoring, Tolerance of Ambiguity, Ethnocentricity, and Novelty Seeking and four factors related to manager background, Multilingualism, Prior Travel Abroad, Prior Living Abroad, and Prior Assignment Abroad.

All mediational models are causal ones. The potential mediator Adjustment is presumed to cause the outcome variable Satisfaction with the Assignment. There are different methods of estimation with which to determine mediation, however all involve the same three steps. First it is established whether there is a correlation between the initial variable and the outcome variable; in this case the Manager Related variable and Satisfaction with the Assignment. This step establishes whether there exists an effect to be mediated and whether the potential mediator is related to both of the other variables. In a second step, the outcome variable is regressed on the independent variable to establish the direct effect. To ensure that the mediator and outcome variables are not only correlated as a result of both having been caused by the initial variable Manager Related, the initial variable is controlled for. Finally, the mediator is entered in to the model and thus an indirect path from the independent to the dependent variable is constructed. Mediation occurs if that final step decreases the direct path. A full mediation is said to

occur when the relationship between the Manager Related variable and Satisfaction with Assignment, after having embedded the mediator, is zero.

Figure 11

Mediation vs. Direct Effect



The size of the mediation, also referred to as the indirect effect, is the reduction of the effect of the initial variable (M or Manager Related) on the outcome variable (S or Satisfaction with the Assignment), in Figure 11 above $c - c'$. This difference in coefficients is the same as the product of the effect of M on A (Adjustment) times the effect of A on S or ms ; thus it holds that $ms = c - c'$. The two are equal when i) structural equation modelling is used but there are no latent variables, ii) no data is missing and iii) the same covariates are in the equation. However, ms and $c - c'$ only approach equality for a structural equation model with latent variables. For such cases researchers are advised against computing c from the above described step (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002).

For such cases, the Sobel Test (1982) has been commonly used (MacKinnon, Lockwood, Hoffman, West, & Sheets, 2002) to determine whether a mediator influences the relationship between an independent variable and a dependent variable. The test

multiplies the standard error of m or s_m and the standard error of s or s_s to determine the standard error of ms and then uses this value in a further calculation to determine the significance of the indirect effect. The standard error can however also be provided by other tests. The derivation of the Sobel standard error presumes that m and s are independent, something that is true when the tests are multiple regressions but not true when other tests are used (e.g., logistic regression, structural equation modelling, and multilevel modelling). Also, the Sobel test works well only in large samples and is often used when the researcher has no access to raw data. When raw data is available for use bootstrapping offers a much better alternative that imposes no distributional assumptions. Until recently, researchers wishing to test the significance of indirect effects had little option but to use Sobel's (1982) large-sample test. Now however, developments in statistical theory provide alternative methods for testing direct and indirect effects in mediation models. One particularly useful approach is the bootstrap framework, which can be applied even when sample sizes are moderate or small, that is, in the range of 20-80 cases (Efron & Tibshirani, 1993). In what has been called a groundbreaking article, Bollen and Stine (1990) showed that bootstrap methodology is recommended for studying the sampling variability of estimates of indirect effects in mediation models.

In cases where there are latent variables present in a mediation model the analysis should be carried out using one of several structural equation modelling options, in this case AMOS. If two models are estimated, one containing the mediator and the other not containing it, the paths c and c^1 are not comparable because the factor loadings would differ. It then becomes necessary to measure the relative fit of the two structural models.

Figure 12
AMOS Direct Effect Model

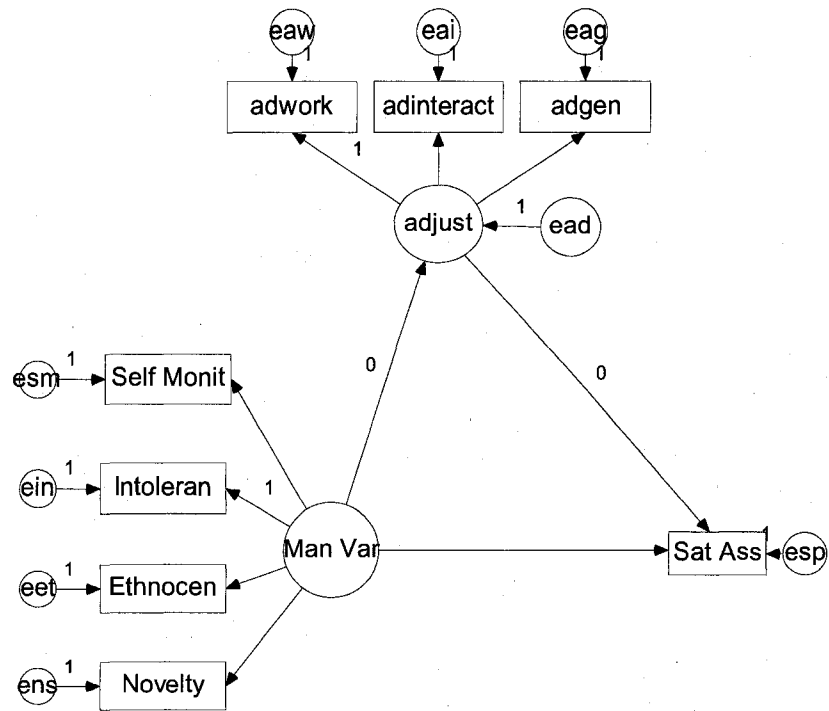
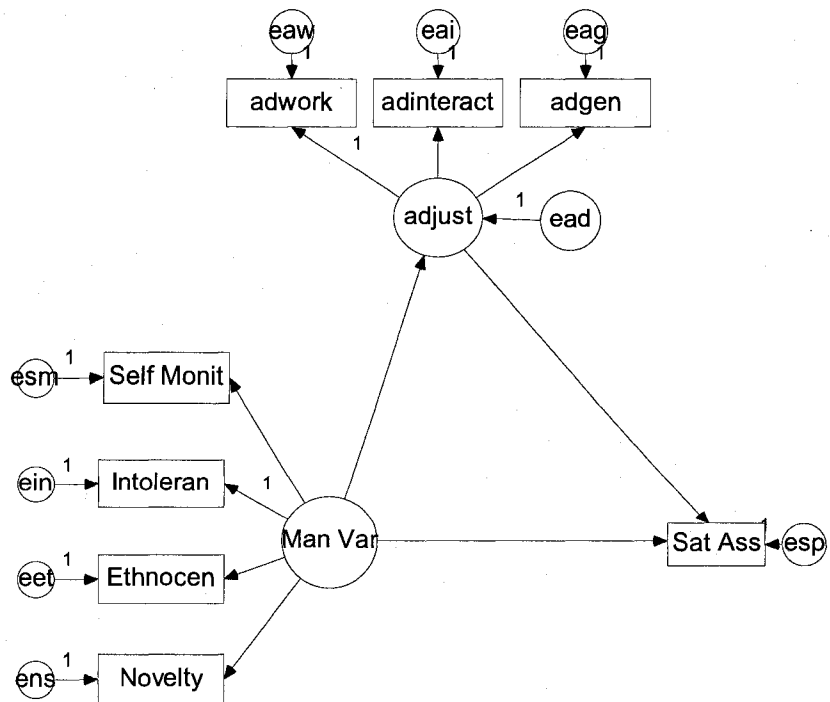


Figure 13
AMOS Mediation Model



4.9 Overall Fit of Models

The goodness of fit indices for the Structural Equation Models of the integrative overall model and the direct effect vs. mediation models are presented below.

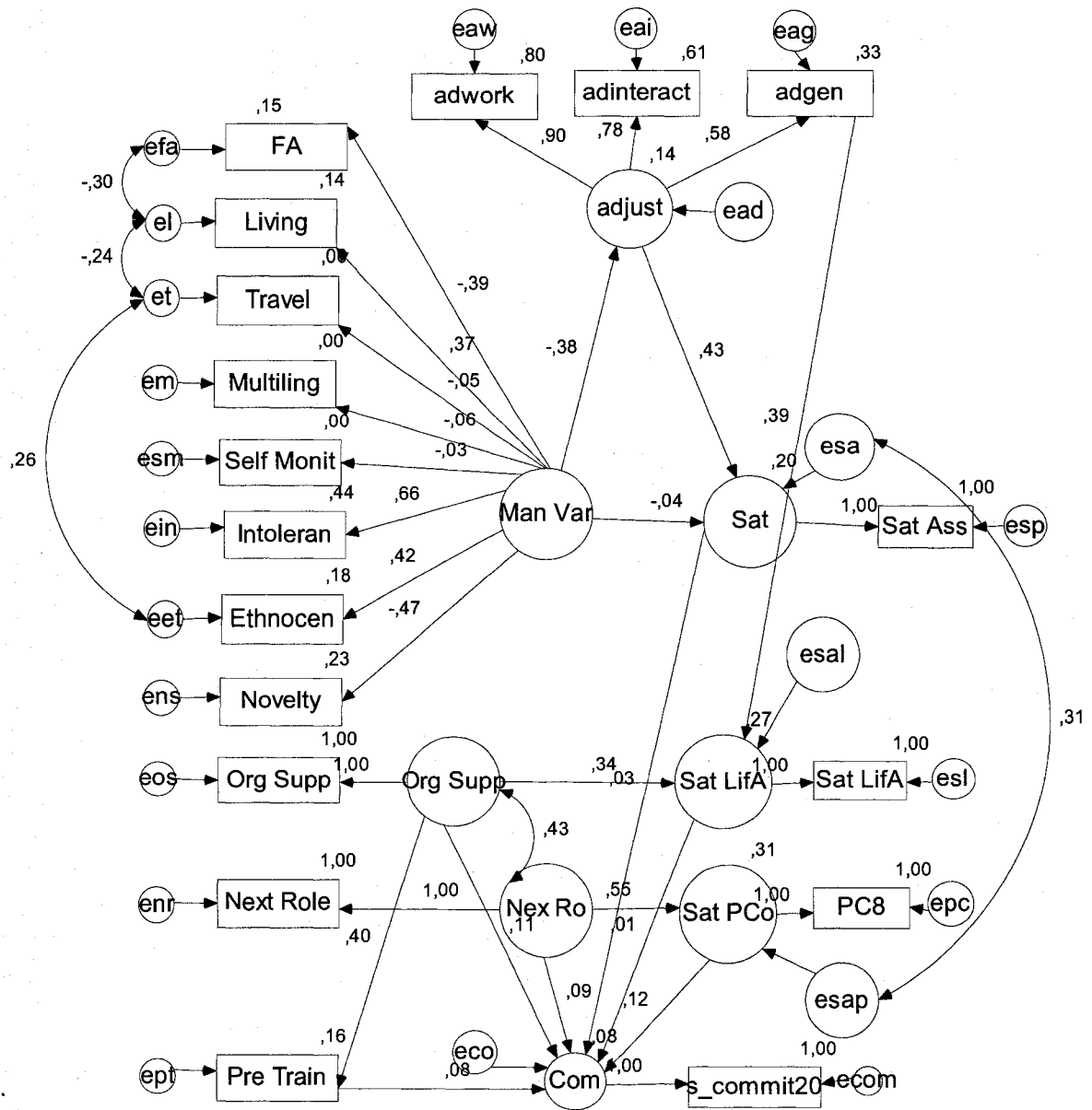
4.9.1 Fit of Integrative Overall Model

To determine the goodness of fit of the integrative overall model both absolute and relative fit measures were calculated using AMOS 6 software. The absolute fit measures chi square (X^2), RMSEA and SRMR provide an indication of how well the correlation of the model proposed by the researcher fits the correlation of the actual data (Meyers et al., 2006). The relative fit measure CFI measures where the model is positioned along a continuum that extends from worst possible fit (the independence model) to perfect fit (the saturated model). The results of the fit analysis are presented below in Table 39. A discussion about the meaning of the values calculated in judging the fit of the model is provided in Chapter 5.

Table 39
Fit Measures for Integrative Overall Model

X^2 [124]	161.346, p .014 (n.s. as p > .001)
RMSEA	.049 [.023, .069]
SRMR	.0883
CFI	.910
Bollen-Stine Bootstrap p	.114

Figure 14
AMOS Integrative Overall Model with Results



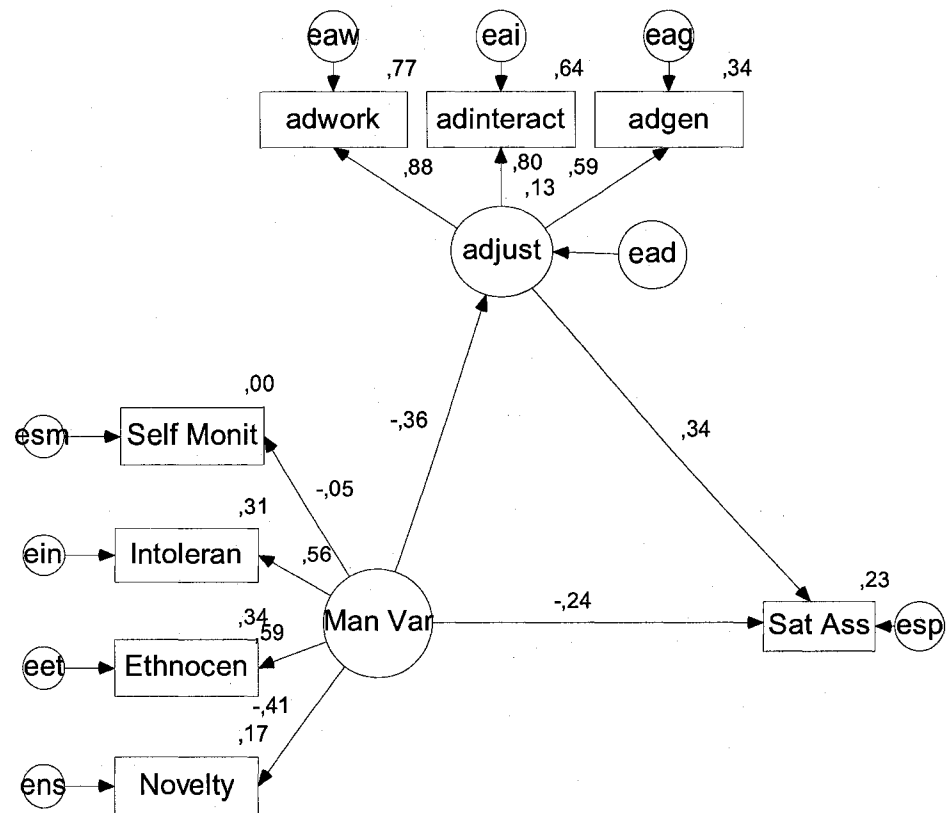
4.9.2 Fit of Mediation Model

The goodness of fit of the mediation model was measured using model estimation calculations carried out with AMOS 6 software. As in the measurement of fit of the overall integrative model both absolute and relative fit measures were calculated. However, because in this case it is the fit of a mediation model that was being tested and additional measure of fit, the Bollen-Stine Bootstrap was calculated. The bootstrap value is an indication of the the amount of mediation, or the indirect effect (Shrout and Bolger, 2002; Hair et al., 1998,).The results of the fit analysis are presented below in Table 40. Interpretations of the meaning of the values calculated in judging the fit of the model are provided in Chapter 5.

Table 40
Fit Measures for Mediation Model

Fit Measures for Mediation Model	
X ² [18]	30.87, p .03 (n.s. as p >.001)
RMSEA	.076 [.024, .120]
SRMR	.0637
CFI	.931
Bollen-Stine Bootstrap p	.071

Figure 15
 AMOS Mediation Model with Results



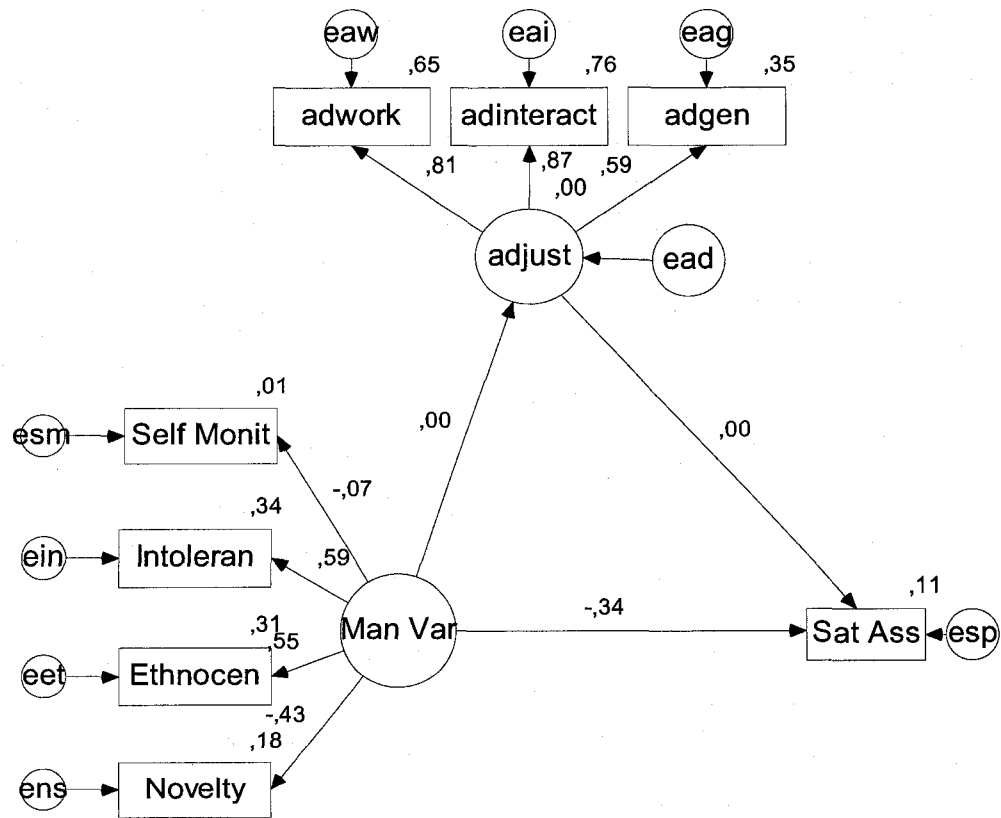
4.9.3 Fit of Direct Effect Model

To determine the fit of the direct effect model the method used to measure both the integrative overall model and the mediation model was adopted. The absolute and relative fit measures are included below in Table 41 and the model is shown in Figure 16. The implications of the present findings for theory and practice are discussed in the following chapter.

Table 41
Fit Measures for Direct Effect Model

Fit Measures for Direct Effect Model	
X ² [20]	52.56, p .00 (n.s. as p >.001)
RMSEA	.114 [.76, .152]
SRMR	.1304
CFI	.828
Bollen-Stine Bootstrap p	.002

Figure 16
 AMOS Direct Effect Model with Results



CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This chapter begins with a discussion of the results of Structural Equation Modelling. This is followed by a discussion on the implications of the results of hypotheses testing.

5.1 Discussion of Results of the Structural Equation Modelling

5.1.1 SEM Integrative Overall Model

The model revealed a good overall model fit. The $\chi^2 [124] = 161.346$, n.s.; the Chi-square value quantifies the difference between the observed correlation matrix and the matrix implied by the model. The expectation is that when the two sets of results closely fit the Chi-square value should not be significant. At 124 degrees of freedom, the likelihood of a Chi-square of 161.346 occurring is .014 with $p > .001$ and therefore not statistically significant at that default alpha value. However, at a default value of .05 this Chi-square value would be significant. Conducting a Bollen Stine Bootstrap with 1000 iterations yielded in a new p value for the Chi-square term ($p = .14$), at which Chi-square was not significant. It is important to note that researchers (Bentler, 1990. In Meyers et al., 2006) have advised against the use of the Chi-square value as the sole indicator of the goodness of fit of a model. The power of the Chi-square calculation is so great that it can detect differences between the covariances of models that although statistically significant, are in fact “trivial”. To avoid the risk of rejecting a model which is in fact a good fit, the use of alternative goodness of fit tests such as the commonly used absolute fit measures RMSEA and SRMR and the relative fit measure CFI are recommended.

The root mean square residual of the model or RMSEA = .049 [.023, .069]. The RMSEA is a measure of the difference between the means of the residuals between the correlation or covariance of the proposed model versus the observed data. Values $<.08$ are acceptable and values $>.1$ are often considered unacceptable (Meyers et al. 2006). Bühner (2006) states that for samples smaller than 250 the RMSEA cut off value should be $\leq .06$ where as for samples greater that 250 the cut off value should be $\leq .08$. The RMSEA for this model, with data based on a sample of 126 participants, is therefore clearly acceptable.

The Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .0883. This value represents the standardized difference between the covariance in the observed data (model) and the predicted covariance (in the predicted model). The closer the value is to zero the better the model fit. A value $\leq .11$ is commonly stated as the cut-off value for a good fit (Bühner, 2006). The SRMR for this model clearly indicates a good model fit.

The Comparative Fit Index of the model (CFI) = .910. According to Byrne (in Meyers et al., 2006) the CFI is the choicest measure of fit in the SEM research. The index is recommended for samples between 75 and 200 in size (In Kenney at www.davidakenney.net). CFI measures the actual fit relative to the independence model (the independence model assumes that the model does not support any relationships between data) and the saturated model (the saturated model assumes that the model has a perfect fit). The CFI value represents the level of fit between no fit and perfect fit. Meyers et al. provide recommendations from a series of researchers who deem a CFI $> .90$ to indicate a good fit, a CFI .80 to .89 to be an adequate fit, CFI .60 to .79 to be a poor fit, and CFI $< .60$ to be very poor fit. Hu and Bentler (1999) are more conservative and only

deem CFI > .95 to be a good fit. The CFI for this model is clearly sufficient to be called acceptable or even good depending on which cut off value is adopted.

5.1.2 Pattern Structure Coefficients and Covariances of Integrative Overall Model

The overall model depicts the relationships between observed and latent variables and those among the independent, dependent and mediating variables. In the model there are two latent variables, Manager Related Variables and Adjustment.

Table 42
Manager Related Variables
Standardized Regression Weights

Manager Related Variables			Estimate	P
Novelty Seeking	<---	Man Var	-,474	.001
Ethnocentricity	<---	Man Var	,423	.002
Tolerance of Ambiguity	<---	Man Var	,661	1
Self-Monitoring	<---	Man Var	-,030	.793
Multilingualism	<---	Man Var	-,061	.592
Extent Foreign Travel	<---	Man Var	-,046	.693
Previous Living Abroad	<---	Man Var	,368	.006
Previous Foreign Assignment	<---	Man Var	-,392	.004

The eight loadings on the Manager Related variable ranged from low to moderately high as can be seen in Table 42 above. The four manager related variables Novelty Seeking, Ethnocentricity, Previous Living Abroad, and Previous Working Abroad were all significant ($p < .05$). Tolerance of Ambiguity has the highest loading on to the manager related factor (0.661) and was therefore set at 1 in AMOS as the reference variable. A reference variable is set in Structural Equation Modelling to assign a metric to the analysis. By restricting the path from the latent to the indicator variable the other paths can be measured. In other words the variable was chosen as the reference variable because it had the largest path coefficient.

Manager Related Variable is made up of four background measures and four personality measures. Meyers et al. (2006) state that the pattern structure coefficients achieve meaningful significance, which is further defined as practical significance, with coefficients $>.30$. The three personality measures Novelty Seeking ($-.474$, $P.001$), Ethnocentricity ($.423$, $p.002$) and Tolerance of Ambiguity ($.661$, reference variable) are therefore meaningful while Self-Monitoring ($-.030$, $p .793$) is not. The latent factor Manager Related Variable is not as highly indicated by Novelty Seeking and Ethnocentricity as it is by Tolerance of Ambiguity for which the beta weight (pattern coefficient) is greater. For every one standard deviation increase in Manager Related Variable, Novelty Seeking decreases by $.474$ standard deviations, Ethnocentricity increases by $.423$ standard deviations and Tolerance of Ambiguity increases by $.661$ standard deviations while there is no significant or practically relevant change in Self-Monitoring.

Considering the nature of the Self-Monitoring measure it is surprising that the pattern coefficient for this personality measure is neither meaningful nor significant. High self-monitors are able to accurately gauge how changing their behaviour would be advantageous for them and are able to undertake this change in a given situation. According to the findings this personality trait is not a meaningful filter through which the Manager Related Variable can be defined.

Intuitively it would make sense to assume that if one's behaviour is more advantageously received in a work context the manager's satisfaction with the assignment would be positively influenced. Interestingly the results of the hypotheses testing show that Self-Monitoring failed to correlate with the dependent variable completion of the assignment as predicted (Hypothesis 7) and furthermore that two personality measures

Novelty Seeking and Tolerance of Ambiguity also did not correlate with satisfaction as expected. The results of the telephone interviews can be applied to explain the statistically insignificant and practically irrelevant role that Self-Monitoring has in helping the researcher define Manager Related Variable. Without exception interviewees thought that personality traits play an important role in the foreign assignment experience and were able to present varied reasons why certain personality traits observed did not prove to be good predictors of assignment outcomes. The explanations provided for the lack of relationship found will be provided during the discussion of results of the hypotheses testing.

Similarly to the personality measures the four background measures Multilingualism, Extent of Foreign Travel, Previous Foreign Assignment and Previous Living Abroad, yielded predictor coefficients which varied in their meaningfulness. The former two measures were not good indicators of the Manager Related Variable while the latter two were. Thus, the number of languages spoken by a person is not relevant in determining the Manager Related Variable. Instead, it is possibly more likely that the commitment shown by the manager in trying to learn or speak a new language is more important than the actual number of languages spoken (Evans et al., 2002). Also, if it can be assumed that in the host country affiliate almost all colleagues are able to speak English this may make the number of additional languages a person speaks less important. Had the managers' positions required them to interact with local customers, suppliers, or colleagues who did not speak English the relative importance of multilingualism compared to the other measures of Manager Related Variable may have been greater.

The pattern coefficient of another variable, Extent of Foreign Travel by the expatriate managers, was well below the generally accepted lower bound of .30 and therefore not a meaningful result. There are two likely explanations for this finding. The survey question as it was phrased attempted to assess the extent of foreign travel but not the *nature* of the travel. A manager may have reluctantly travelled the world because it was expected of him by his employer even though he would have rather stayed in his home country and not been subjected to foreign cultures. Some managers may have travelled extensively as children as part of family trips. In both these cases the act of travelling was not voluntary and therefore cannot be interpreted as a sign of actively wanting to engage with people and cultures different to one's own. An alternative explanation is the disproportionately high percentage of managers who had travelled extensively prior to taking part in the foreign assignment. Of the responding managers 92% had travelled to at least one foreign country and 80% to two or more, reducing the variance and hence the utility of this variable as a predictor.

The value of the coefficients for the two background measures Previous Living Abroad and Previous Foreign Assignment, .368 and -.392 respectively, were both above the cut-off value of .30. It is important to note that the two loadings are of opposite signs. Again, it is likely that the wording of the survey question could explain these findings. Managers who had previously worked abroad had by nature of that position also previously lived abroad. The wording of the question "How many foreign assignments lasting longer than one year have you been on with this organization" presents an issue that only became evident after closing the survey. Answers to the question only give an indication of foreign work experience with the current company. Managers who had taken part in foreign assignments prior to joining PharmaCorp would not be able to reflect

this experience through their survey participation. It could be that the 69% of respondents who had only taken part in the one foreign assignment with PharmaCorp had in fact had far more foreign assignment experience gained at other organizations than the 31% of respondents who had taken part in two or more foreign assignments with PharmaCorp.

The measure of whether a manager had lived abroad prior to taking part in the foreign assignment with PharmaCorp does not provide any information about the nature of the experience of living abroad. Similar to the issue faced with the measure Extent of Foreign Travel the researcher is not provided with information about whether living abroad was a voluntary decision and if so whether it was made for personal or professional reasons. It follows that anyone who has worked abroad on an assignment lasting longer than one year has also lived abroad. From the data it is not possible to conduct a frequency analysis of managers who lived abroad but had never taken part in a foreign assignment. These peoples' experiences of life aboard may have been very different because their reasons for living abroad were not work related.

Not all of the variance of the observed variables is associated with the latent or independent variable, the remaining variance of the measured variables being accounted by error. Three correlated errors were included for measures of Manager Related Variable.

Table 43

Correlated Errors for the Manager Related Variable

			r	P
Ethnocentricity (eet)	<-->	Travelled Abroad (et)	.257	.007
Traveled Abroad (et)	<-->	Lived Abroad (el)	-.243	.006
Lived Abroad (el)	<-->	Previous Foreign Assignment (efa)	-.300	.004

The three covariances shown above in Table 43 are similar with regard to size of correlation, and all significant at $p < 0.01$ level. The two observed variables are connected by bi-directional arrows indicating a relationship without a defined causal direction.

The seemingly contrary significant correlation between ethnocentricity and extent of foreign travel (.257, $p = .007$) has at least two possible explanations. First, people who have not travelled extensively may romanticize the notion of living or spending time in foreign countries. There may be a tendency to think that somewhere else everything is better, for example the climate, the culture, and the available opportunities and that this view is only changed once relatively extensive foreign travel has taken place. Travel provides an understanding that each country has its own set of challenges. Indeed, many of the problems one faces at home may also be encountered elsewhere. This more balanced view of the advantages and disadvantages of foreign life may result in more ethnocentric attitudes. Second, the respondents may not have travelled extensively voluntarily. The questions pertaining to foreign travel did not enquire about the nature of the travel conducted. It is possible that a significant proportion of respondents did not travel because they valued the foreign experience but because they had no choice but to travel. Whether it was a voluntary or obligatory activity can hence affect the way the respondent viewed the travel experience.

Table 44
Adjustment
Standardized Regression Weights

			Estimate	P
Adjustment General	<---	Adjustment Overall	,576	.001
Adjustment Work	<---	Adjustment Overall	,895	1
Adjustment Interaction	<---	Adjustment Overall	,784	.001

The three loadings on Adjustment were moderately high or high as can be seen in Table 44 above. The three components of adjustment, namely Work Adjustment, General Adjustment, and Interaction Adjustment had statistically significant ($p = .001$) loadings. Work Adjustment had the highest loading on the Adjustment factor (0.895) and was therefore set at 1 in AMOS as the reference variable. No correlated errors were permitted among the loadings because the modification indices did not indicate that such correlated errors would significantly change the Chi-square or the model fit.

One of the major findings of the research was the important role that Adjustment plays in the overall model proposed. The pattern structure coefficient between the Manager Related Variable and Adjustment is both statistically ($-.38, p = .007$) and practically significant. So is the structure loading between Adjustment and Satisfaction with the Foreign Assignment ($.43, p = .001$). Hence, the present findings indicate a meaningful and significant relationship between the factors that define the latent Manager Related Variable and a manager's adjustment abroad. Based on the loading on the Manager Related Variable, one can deduce that Novelty Seeking, Ethnocentricity, Tolerance of Ambiguity, Previous Living Abroad, and Previous Foreign Assignments have the greatest influence on the relationship between Manager Related Variable and Adjustment. The latent variable Adjustment was defined in the present study by three observed variables, Work Adjustment, Interaction Adjustment and General Adjustment with loadings of .90 ($p = .001$), .78 ($p = .001$) and .58 ($p = .001$) respectively. While each of these pattern coefficients is both practical and significant, Work Adjustment had the closest relationship to the construct.

The results of this study show that a manager's adjustment to living abroad is practically and significantly related to his satisfaction with the foreign assignment. The

better adjusted managers are more satisfied with their assignments. This is consistent with several past findings which reported significant and positive correlation between these two variables (Caligiuri et al., 1998; Black et al., 1999). The modification indices stated in the AMOS output reported a significant improvement in the loading of Adjustment on Satisfaction with the Assignment if a covariance between Satisfaction with the Assignment and Satisfaction with Personal Consequence of the Assignment is permitted. Theory supports this correlation and therefore it was permitted. Most of the statements included in both of these satisfaction scales are related to the effect that the foreign assignment has on a manager's career. The covariance of .31 ($p = .001$) represents a practical and significant relationship medium in size and without a defined direction.

There is more to be said about the role that adjustment plays for an expatriate manager than can be deduced from the pattern structure coefficients for this latent variable. Adjustment also acts as a mediator between latent variables. An early indication of the potential mediating role of Adjustment in the relationship between the Manager Related Variable and Satisfaction with the Assignment was that the loading of Manager Related Variable on to the satisfaction variable ($-.04$, $p=.71$) was non-meaningful and insignificant, while both variables had fairly significant loadings on the latent variable adjustment. Manager Related Variable loaded on Adjustment with a Pattern Structure Coefficient of $-.38$ ($p=.007$) and Adjustment loaded on to Satisfaction with the Assignment with a Pattern Structure Coefficient of $.43$ ($p=.001$).

Table 45
Standardized Regression Weights for Affective Commitment

			Estimate	P
Commitment	<--	Satisfaction Life Abroad (Sat LifA)	,011	.903
Commitment	<--	Satisfaction with the Assignment (Sat)	,033	.717
Commitment	<--	Sat. with Personal Consequences (Sat PCo)	,116	.281
Commitment	<--	Preparation for Next Role (Nex Ro)	,086	.442
Commitment	<--	Organization Support (Org Supp)	,109	.307
Commitment	<--	Pre-departure Training (Pre Train)	,081	.385

The relationship between the three satisfaction variables and Affective Commitment was not statistically significant nor practically useful for predictive purposes (Table 45). Similarly, the three independent organizational variables (Preparation for Next Role, Organization Support, and Pre-departure Training) had only small and non-significant relationships with Organization Commitment (Table 45). The Organizational factors could not be combined to form a latent variable. Hence, these are retained as individual factors. The same holds true for the satisfaction variables.

Even if managers are satisfied with their experiences abroad, this attitude need not translate in to satisfaction with their next role in the company. This discrepancy in satisfaction levels pre and post assignment has been explained by the “profound” differences between the managers’ foreign assignments and their assignments after returning (Black et al., 1992, p.234). Most expatriates report more autonomy, authority and standing in their jobs abroad compared to home country positions that preceded it (Black et al., 1992; Oddou and Mendenhall, 1991; Tung, 1988). This makes the foreign assignment a positive change. However, after an assignment ends, the home-bound manager has fewer job options and limited career opportunities. This change in fortune perhaps explains the low correlation between satisfaction and commitment found in the

study. Had the managers been just as satisfied in their next role, which they were already working in when the survey was completed, then the relationship to Organizational Commitment may have been more pronounced. Organizational Commitment has been credited as “the critical factor for keeping high-performing repatriates in the firm after global assignments” (Black et al., 1992, p. 263).

The absence of any significant relationship between Satisfaction with Personal Consequences and Organizational Commitment can be explained by findings of a 2007 report by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP and Cranfield School of Management, entitled ‘Measuring the Value of International Assignments’. The report suggests that “expatriate performance is surprisingly high during the assignment, and again twelve months after return. It is in the twelve months when they return that they are most at risk of leaving a company. Turnover in the second and third years after repatriation is below domestic levels (p.29)”. The survey also found that of the 3,450 expatriates stemming from nine organizations who were tracked over a span of three years 15% resigned within one year of completing the assignment. The lack of relationship between Satisfaction with Personal Consequences and Organizational Commitment could be explained by the fact that of the 126 PharmaCorp respondents, 73.8% had completed their foreign assignment over twelve months ago (see Appendix 11, Question 4). Therefore their attitudes toward staying with the company may have had less to do with the events directly following completion of the assignment (e.g., promotion received) and more with more recent developments that were independent of the foreign assignment.

The findings from this study failed to show significant relationships between the three independent Organization Related Variables, (Preparation for Next Role, Organization Support and Pre-departure Training) and the dependent variable

Organizational Commitment. The independent variables refer to organizational activities that affect an expatriate manager after, during and before the foreign assignment respectively. Research findings from the 2007 report by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP and Cranfield School of Management suggest that expatriation and repatriation should not be strictly divided into two separate phases, but instead expatriation should be considered the start and repatriation as the completion of the same phase. It is the combination of these independent variables that ensure high retention after repatriation. This study measured the relationship between each of the variables and organizational commitment in isolation, but was not designed to express the overall effect of ex- and repatriation on the dependent variable.

Table 46
Correlated Errors for Organizational and Satisfaction Variables

			r	P
Organizational Support (Org Supp)	<-->	Next Role (Nex Ro)	.427	.001
Satisfaction with Assignment (esa)	<-->	Satisfaction with Personal Consequences (esap)	.311	.001

The decision to accept the two modification indices shown in Table 46 was based on existing theory. One of the correlated errors was admitted between the 2 independent organizational variables, Organization Support and Next Role ($r = .427$, $p < .001$). The decision to accept this modification index is supported by the fact that for a manager to be able to respond favourably to statements about the Preparation for Next Role that he or she received a certain level of support from the organization would be necessary. The statement "In my next role (directly following the assignment) I was provided with a position where I could use my newly acquired skills and knowledge" is part of the measure for Preparation for Next Role, and for this statement to be scored highly some

form of organization support would have had to have been provided. The measure Organization Support includes the statement “The performance appraisal procedures employed by my employer during my stay abroad were appropriate”, if performance is accurately measured and employee development correctly gauged it is more likely that employers know which position to provide the expatriate following completion of the assignment that will enable use of newly acquired skills and knowledge.

One correlated error was admitted between Satisfaction with the Assignment and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences ($r = .311$, $p < .001$). This mediation is supported by the fact that more than half the items that make up the scale Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment involve the effect that participating in the assignment had on the manager’s career. It is therefore theoretically sensible that these two work related measures of satisfaction should be allowed to covary.

Table 47
Satisfaction with Life Abroad
Standardized Regression Weights

			Estimate	P
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	<--	Organizational Support	.344	<.001
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	<--	General Adjustment	.388	<.001

Two dependent variables, Organization Support and General Adjustment were practically and significantly related to the independent variable Satisfaction with Life Abroad as can be seen in Table 47 above. The pattern structure coefficients for both Organization Support (.344, $p = <.001$) and General Adjustment (.388, $p = <.001$) as they relate to Satisfaction with Life Abroad would be considered to be of medium size in the absence of context (Meyers et al., 2006), however relative to the size of other relationships in the model both loadings are relatively high.

The organization support that expatriate managers receive can enable them to feel satisfied living abroad. If the compensation and benefits that a company offers its expatriates is considered satisfactory by the expatriate (an example of an item explored in the scale Organization Support) then it is more likely that he or she will be able to afford to live to a standard that is desirable (explored in the scale Satisfaction with Life Abroad). Past research has shown that the extent of organizational support expatriates feel they are receiving once on assignment coupled with the perceived value of that support influences the culture shock they experience (Sims and Schraeder, 2004; Punnett, 1997). Culture shock as discussed earlier is a negative occurrence that leaves a person feeling anxious, unwell, worried and unsatisfied with life abroad. The scale Satisfaction with Life Abroad included only two statements, one referring to satisfaction with the standard of living abroad and the other to the activities that were available. The Organization Support measure enquires about whether the expatriate manager was provided with a “support contact person” to contact when difficulties were faced and also whether the employer frequently gauged overall satisfaction with the foreign assignment and “life-style” abroad. The greater the extent that these two items in the Organization Support scale apply to an expatriate manager’s situation abroad, the greater the chance that issues and concerns regarding standard of living and access to activities (the two items in the Satisfaction with Life scale) would be identified and remedied.

Table 48
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences
Standardized Regression Weights

			Estimate	P
Satisfaction with Personal Conseq	<--	Preparation for Next Role	.554	<.001

The final relationship that was identified in the overall integrative model was that between the independent organizational variable entitled Preparation for Next Role and the dependent variable Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (.554, $p < .001$). The pattern structure coefficient was the highest loading of any organizational variable on to a dependent variable (Table 48). This finding confirms that there is a strong and positive relationship between the preparations for an expatriate manager's next role and the manager's satisfaction. If the extent and appropriateness of preparations are positively perceived by the expatriate manager and communicated to him in a timely fashion (items included in the measure Preparation for Next Role) then the manager will be more likely to be satisfied with the consequences that the assignment has for him. The career related consequences of this preparation will be that the expatriate manager feels that the position he is entering meets his expectations and is advantageous from a career standpoint.

Past research has focussed on the role of the psychological contract between expatriate manager and employer in a manager's attitudes toward the organization (Connelly et al., 2007). The most common expectation of an expatriate manager's psychological contract is that in return for his or her efforts abroad (s)he will be rewarded by the company through further grooming and development, by receiving important postings in the future and more often than not being promoted (Yan et al., 2002). If the company does not hold up its end of this contract and the expatriate manager's expectations are not met the company risks losing that manager (Feldman and Thomas, 1992; Connelly et al., 2007). If the preparations for expatriate managers' next roles are carried out well it follows that the next roles held by the managers' are more likely to

meet their expectations, which in turn will contribute to their positive attitude toward the career related consequences that the foreign experience had for them.

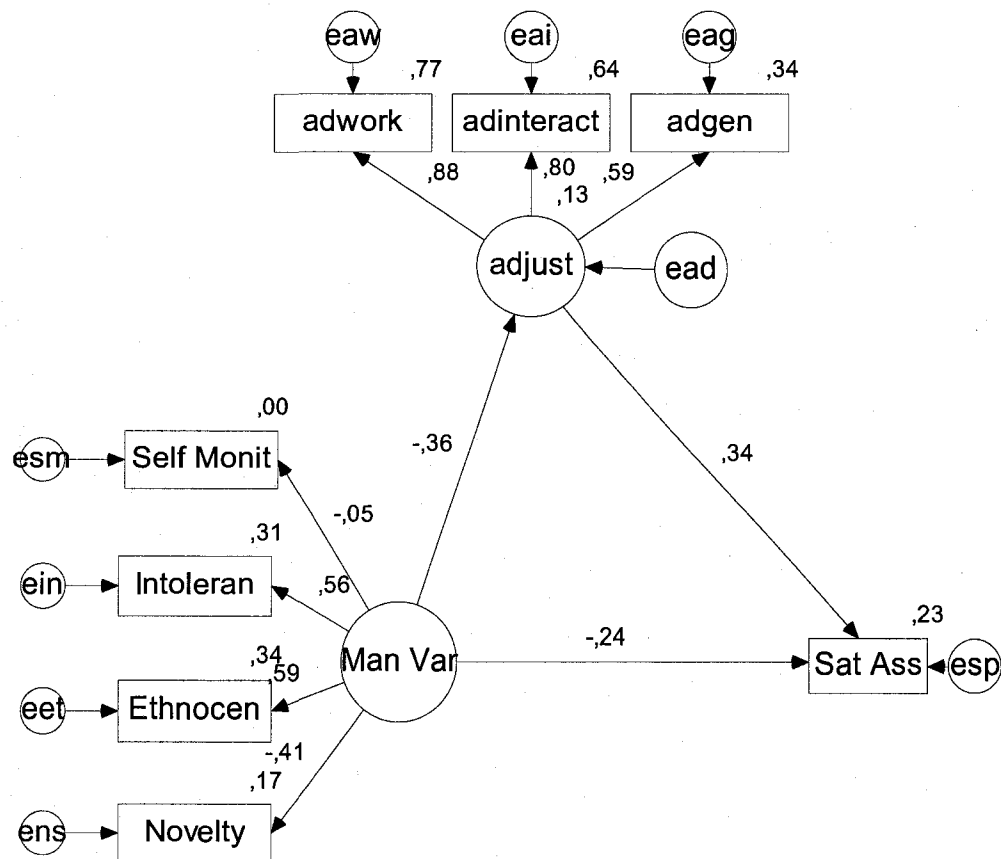
5.1.3 Relative Fit of the Mediation Model vs. the Direct Effect Model

The overall model, which also included the mediation paths, yielded a good fit as described earlier. In the overall model the latent Manager Related Variable is defined by eight manifest indicators, four of these are personality scales and 4 are items related to the manager's background. All eight indicators were included in the Manager Related Variable in the overall model. To investigate the potential mediation role of Adjustment a model was developed that only contained the four personality indicators of the Manager Related Variable. The decision was made to reduce the Manager Related Variable to include only the four personality factors, even though the overall model which had contained all 8 was not rejected, for three reasons. Firstly, it is not advisable to combine scales and items in one latent variable when testing for a mediation effect. Next, one of the items, Previous Foreign Assignment, was dichotomous which Bollen (1990) advises against using as part of an indicator in a test for mediation. Finally, the overall model showed that only some of the indicators can be explained by the latent variable. In other words, only those indicators were kept which truly can be predicted by the latent variable. With the exception of Self-Monitoring, the latent variable causes significant correlation between the personality measures (ranging from .423 to .661). Standardised regression weight estimates showed that the variance in the variable Manager Related can not be explained by variance in two of the background items (Travel = -.046; Multilingualism = -.061). The issue of the presence of one dichotomous background item (Previous Foreign Assignment) coupled with two background items that had minimal and insignificant relationships with the latent variable led to the decision to exclude the background items

in the mediation model. Before the final decision was made to exclude the background variables from the mediation model the overall fit of the models, with and without background variables was compared. The model containing only the personality measures had a superior fit, however the difference was not statistically significant.

Figure 17

AMOS Mediation Model with Results



Degrees of Freedom = 18; Chi-square = 30.87; Bollen-Stine Bootstrap p = .071

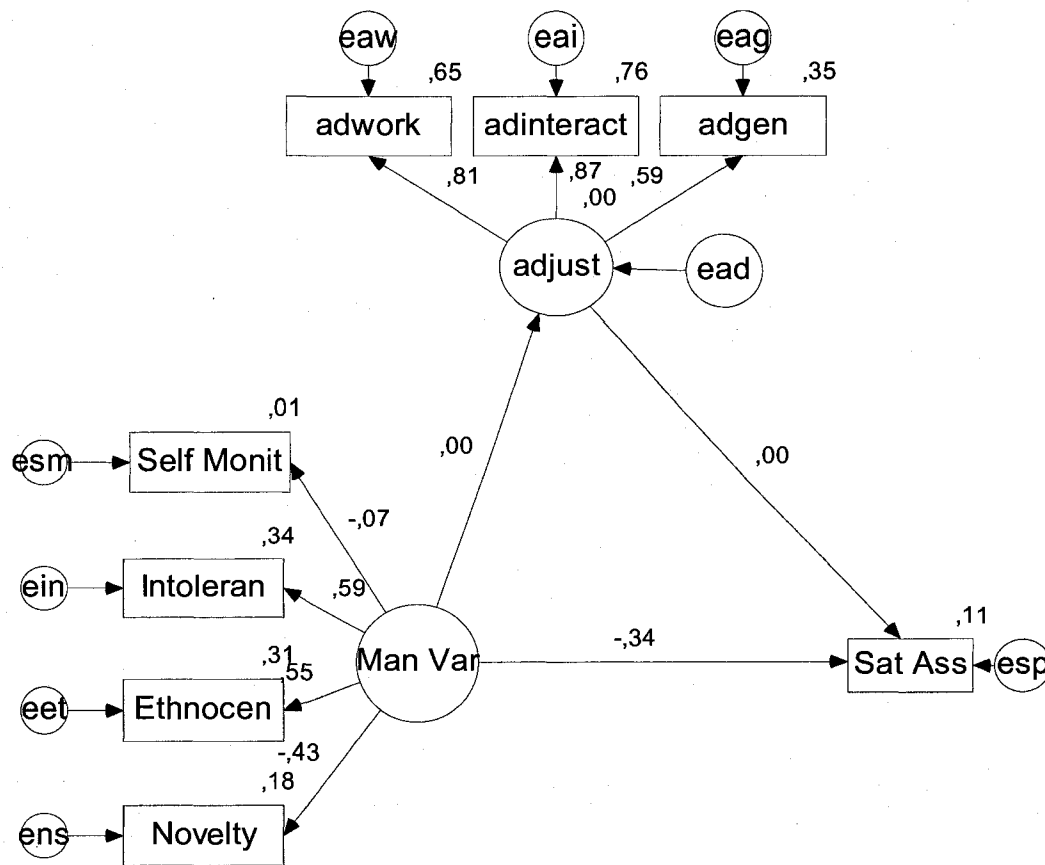
From the above model (Figure 17) one can see that 23% of a Manager's satisfaction with the Assignment is explained by the Manager Related Variable and by the manager's ability to adjust to his or her host environment

An efficient method with which to measure the amount of mediation, or the indirect effect, is bootstrapping (Shrout and Bolger, 2002; Hair et al., 1998). The Bollen-Stine bootstrap for the above model yielded a result of $p = .071$ which is not significant and therefore an indication that the mediation model can be accepted by the researcher. However, as stated during the discussion of the results of the integrative overall model, researchers are advised against relying on a single fit index with which to judge model fit. The results of alternative fit measures also show the mediation model to be acceptable. The model's RMSEA of .076 [.024, .120] is below the cut-off value of .80 and therefore within the bounds of acceptability, the SRMR of .063 is well below the critical value for a good fit of .11 (Bühner, 2006), and the CFI of .931 is below the critical value commonly set at 0.95 (Beauducel and Wittmann, 2005; Hu and Bentler, 1999).

The model revealed overall a good fit. The $\chi^2 [18] = 30.87$ and was statistically not significant. At 18 degrees of freedom, the likelihood of a Chi-square of 30.87 occurring is .03 with $p > .001$ and therefore not statistically significant at that default alpha value. However, it should be mentioned that at a default value of .05 this Chi-square value would be significant. Researchers (Bentler, 1990. In Meyers et al., 2006) have advised against the use of the Chi-square value as the sole indicator of the goodness of fit of a model. The power of the Chi-square calculation is great enough to detect differences between the covariances of models which although statistically significant, are in fact "trivial". To avoid the risk of rejecting a model which is in fact a good fit, the use of alternative goodness of fit tests such as the commonly used absolute fit measures RMSEA and SRMR and the relative fit measure CFI discussed above are recommended.

Figure 18

AMOS Direct Effect Model with Results (m and s fixed at 0)



Degrees of Freedom = 20; Chi-square = 52.26; Bollen-Stine Bootstrap $p = .002$

From the above model (Figure 18) one can see that 11% of a Manager's satisfaction with the Assignment is explained by the Manager Related variable.

When the indirect paths leading from Manager Related Variable to Adjustment, and from Adjustment to Satisfaction are fixed at "0" the Bollen-Stine bootstrap $p = .002$ is significant at $p < .05$ which is an indication that the model must be rejected. Further support for this decision is provided by the alternative goodness of fit indices. The absolute fit measure RMSEA of .114 [.76, .152] is above the critical value of .08. Moreover, the absolute fit measure SRMR at .13 also exceeds the upper bound set at .11

(Bühner, 2006). The relative fit measure CFI at .828 could at best be described as adequate (Meyers et al., 2006). Finally, the $\chi^2 [20] = 52.56$ and was statistically significant at a level of $p > .001$ which also supports rejection of the direct effect model.

The first step in determining which of the two models has a superior fit was to calculate the difference between the Chi-square and the degrees of freedom of the two nested models ($\Delta\text{Chi-square } 52.26 - 30.87 = 21.39$; Degrees of Freedom $20 - 18 = 2$, $p < .001$). A table was then referred to that shows critical values of Chi-square at different degrees of freedom and at different probabilities of exceeding the critical value (Meyers et al., 2006). At DF 2 the largest critical value of Chi-square reported is 13.816. This value corresponds to a probability of exceeding the critical value of .001 which is the highest attainable significance level stated in the table. According to these results the two models differ significantly (at a level greater than $p = .001$). The mediation model has a significantly superior fit than the direct effect model. Moreover, it can be seen that the path coefficient from the independent variable to the dependent variable decreases when the mediator is embedded in the model. Even though the path remains significant the information reported here shows that the relationship between Manager Related Variable and Satisfaction with the Assignment is partially mediated by Adjustment.

Adjustment is a partial mediator of the relationship between Manager Related variable and Satisfaction with the Assignment. When the indirect effect does not equal the total effect but is smaller and of the same sign, the effect of Manager Related Variable on Satisfaction with the Assignment is partially mediated by Adjustment. In this case, the path from Manager Related Variable to Satisfaction with the Assignment is significantly different from zero. These results support that managers' ability to adjust to living and

working in a foreign country mediates their satisfaction with the foreign assignment. The extent to which a manager adjusts with regard to work, interaction with others, and living abroad in general explains in part his level of satisfaction with the foreign assignment.

These findings indicate that although there is a significant direct relationship between personality variables and satisfaction with the assignment part of this positive relationship is a result of the influence that personality has on a manager's ability to adjust to a work role abroad.

5.2 Discussion of the Results of the Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis 1

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's affective commitment

Hypothesis 1 suggested that Organization Support and Preparation for Next Role would be positively and significantly correlated to a manager's organizational commitment. However, Pre-departure Training was not found to be related to a manager's commitment in the present study. The nature of the questions asked about a respondent's pre-departure training were related to the extent to which it prepared the person for differences faced in the new country, the daily challenges that would be encountered, and the appropriate way to behave (etiquette and communication) in the new country. Results from this study show that respondents neither agreed nor disagreed that the training received prepared them for life and work abroad and also that this training was in fact not related to their organizational commitment. This finding is contrary to the domestic research finding by Griffin (Spector, 1997) that it is the act of making available training which improves an expatriate's commitment and satisfaction with the foreign assignment experience regardless of whether the training was considered useful. It was assumed that

offering training would be perceived as a sign of caring for employees which it was wrongly hypothesized would improve the expatriate's attitude about and affective commitment to the organization.

The organization support received by expatriate managers significantly influenced their organization commitment. This support included monetary aspects such as compensation but also the interest that the employer took in the manager's satisfaction and performance. Similarly to the above discussion about the role of pre-departure training on organization commitment the organization support that managers received could be a surrogate parameter for the interest or care that a manager perceives the employer feels for them. Training and Organization Support are significantly correlated at 0.397 in this study, another reason why it was expected that both independent variables would similarly relate to organization commitment.

The findings of this study show that managers' preparation for their next role following a foreign assignment is positively and significantly related to the extent to which they want to continue to work for the organization after the assignment ends. The perception that experience acquired abroad was justified preparation for the next role within the company contributes to managers' commitment to the organization. Preparation in this context refers to feeling that newly acquired skills were valued, utilised and capitalised on in the next position.

Hypothesis 2

Pre-departure Training, Organization Support, and Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment

Completion of the foreign assignment was not related to any of the three organizational variables. Whether an expatriate manager completes an assignment or not

is not related to whether he or she received pre-departure training, organization support, or preparation for their next role. Results showed that from the sample of 126 respondents 108 completed the assignment and only 18 did not. Completion of the assignment had originally been determined to be a parameter of the success of an assignment. However, the high percentage of managers who completed the assignment prevents sound intergroup statistical analysis. One of the reasons for this exceptionally high completion rate could be that managers who did not complete the assignment were no longer employed by the organization and therefore did not receive the survey link. Past findings have shown that in addition to the 20%-40% (Tung, 1981) of expatriate managers prematurely voluntarily terminating their foreign assignments the attrition rate of these expatriate managers is twice that of domestic employees. Survey participants were not asked why they completed the foreign assignment only whether or not they did.

To better understand the factors that separate successful from unsuccessful assignments, interviewees were asked to define “success” of a foreign assignment both from a personal and a professional perspective. Interviewees used different criteria to gauge whether the assignment had been successful from a personal perspective. These personal criteria can be grouped in to personal development, personal acceptance and career development. Personal development of the manager includes but is not limited to gaining new experiences, working on one’s flexibility and improving one’s skill for understanding “small” or “mild” signals as one interviewee put it. Other signs of personal development included whether the manager thought the experience to be enriching and “broadening”, for example if the foreign assignment helped the manager learn a new language or overcome barriers. One manager said that from a personal perspective an assignment was successful when “you found something that you liked while away” in

these different cultures and countries. A senior manager when asked how he would define “success” answered that a foreign assignment was a personal success if he could answer yes to “Did we meet the timing?”, “Would we do it again?” and “Did we enjoy it?”.

Being accepted by people they met abroad was stated as a measure of personal success by three of the ten interviewees. This subject was talked about in terms of “integrat[ing] well in the new group” or as another interviewee phrased it “being accepted by new colleagues...receiving positive feedback officially and not officially”. Interviewees seemed to have different standards that had to be met for an assignment to be deemed personally successful, for one manager not having the feeling of “God, I want to get out of here” was a sign of success.

Career development as a result of taking part in the foreign assignment was used as an indicator of personal success by some respondents. Specifically, whether one moved “upward” upon completion of the assignment as opposed to returning to the same position. Interestingly, the effect that the foreign assignment had on career development is explored in the survey questions that pertain to the scale Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment. Yet, respondents also view it as a measure of the personal success of the assignment.

When asked to define success from a professional as opposed to a personal perspective, interviewees’ responses were unanimous. The single most important indicator of professional success is meeting preset business objectives. Two interviewees expanded on this criterion by stipulating that the objectives be met within a set time frame. While some participants referred to objectives that had been set specifically for the foreign assignment others were more concerned with meeting objectives that were not set

on an “assignment-level” but instead for a certain role, for example the objectives to be met by all who had a certain job such as Group Product Manager, Marketing Director or Head of Sales, regardless of where that job is carried out. In addition to meeting business objectives some respondents said that receiving positive feedback from one’s superior, usually in an official capacity such as during an annual review, was an indicator of professional success of an assignment as was completing the foreign assignment. While completion of the foreign assignment is a valid indication of a manager’s success in cases where a relatively large number of managers do not complete an assignment, more indicators are needed to better distinguish successful from less successful assignments.

Hypothesis 3

Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager’s Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment

The findings from this study show that the organization support managers receive positively influences their satisfaction with both life abroad and with the foreign assignment. These findings confirm that it is in an organization’s power to positively influence a manager’s satisfaction both inside and outside of the workplace while abroad. By ensuring that managers enjoy a good standard of living abroad and by enabling them to engage in activities that they enjoy an organization encourages expatriate managers too feel satisfied with the lives they lead while in the foreign country. An organization has the social responsibility to care for the wellbeing of its employees while abroad, results from this study show that organization support helps provide for this wellbeing as it pertains to the project itself, the work carried out and the responsibilities held, as well the manager’s non-work related life abroad.

Hypothesis 4

Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment

As hypothesized, the results from this study indicate that the nature and extent to which expatriate managers are prepared for their next role affects how satisfied they are with results of the foreign assignment as they pertain to them personally. This finding is contrary to the research findings cited earlier which found that 82% of expatriate managers "were highly satisfied with the expatriate assignment, but only 35% felt satisfied with the repatriation process" (Gomez-Mejia and Balkin, 1987). The findings from this study show that preparation for the role one starts following completion of the foreign assignment is in fact directly related to manager satisfaction. It should however be noted that Gomez-Mejia's work focuses on repatriation to the home country and that in the context of this study preparation for next role is not limited to resuming work in the country in which the manager was working prior to the foreign assignment.

This research sample is composed of expatriate managers who were still employed by the organization following the foreign assignment. The study was therefore not able to explore the attrition rate of expatriate managers who left the organization after completing or prematurely terminating the foreign assignment. The findings of Schneider and Asakawa (1995) show that not being able to utilise newly acquired skills following the expatriate assignment is directly related to one fifth of these managers leaving the company within one year of returning and up to half leaving the company within three years. If those findings hold across samples the importance of preparation for the next role ceases to be important solely to the managers' satisfaction with personal

consequences of the assignment and becomes of interest to the organization with regard to retaining employees.

Hypothesis 5

Novelty Seeking and Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment

The findings from this study show that the extent to which a manager seeks out novelty or tolerates ambiguity is not related to how satisfied he or she will be with a foreign assignment and life abroad. It seems contrary to believe that someone who is averse to novel surroundings, people, or activities would be just as satisfied in a foreign country where much is new as someone who actively seeks out novelty. These contrary findings were explored in more depth in individual interviews. During the interviews three questions were asked, the answers to which help explain why the results of the survey analysis fail to reject this particular null hypothesis.

In response to the question "What competencies are critical for an expatriate manager?" each respondent provided a number of answers. There was very little overlap between the competencies spontaneously mentioned in response to the question and those items included in the measures Tolerance of Ambiguity and Novelty Seeking. In some cases competencies were mentioned that were not personality related for example, having seniority in the organization and understanding the organization's different business functions. However, the overwhelming majority of responses to this question focussed on personal traits and behaviour of the expatriate manager. Without exception respondents said that it was of critical importance for an expatriate manager to be "flexible" or a variation of flexible such as, "adaptable", "open-minded", "not rigid", "ability to change", "be able to fit in" and "willing to learn". These competencies may at first seem similar in meaning to the two

hypothesized about. However, while Novelty Seeking determines the extent to which a person wants and actively seeks out situations that are new it does not determine how well managers deal with novel situations that are not actively sought. Just because a person would not seek out novelty does not mean he or she can not deal with it in a flexible, open-minded manner when it is encountered. Results from the interviews promote further investigation of the idea that it is the ability to deal with novelty as opposed to the desire to deal with it that is critical for an expatriate manager's satisfaction abroad.

It is reasonable that results of the study found Novelty Seeking to be significantly negatively correlated to Tolerance of Ambiguity ($-0.349, p < .001$). Someone who welcomes novelty is instinctively more likely to be tolerant of uncertainty. The relatively strong correlation between these two variables suggests that their relationship with satisfaction should differ. Therefore, it seems contrary that just as Novelty Seeking is not related to Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment neither is Tolerance of Ambiguity. In the interviews conducted, ambiguity was not mentioned by any of the respondents as negatively affecting their life abroad. Many examples were given for dissatisfaction with aspects of life abroad but these were not tied to uncertainty. In fact the managers almost always knew why something was done of which they did not approve or which was foreign to them. Similarly to the situation with Novelty Seeking it seems that a person's ability to deal with the ambiguous may be more important than their tolerance of it.

The other two questions that respondents were asked in individual interviews to help understand the failure to reject the null hypothesis were: "What role do you think personality traits play in the foreign assignment experience?" and as a follow-up question "Our research found that certain personality traits explored were not good predictors of the assignment outcomes. In your opinion why might this have happened?". Interestingly, all interviewees

responded to the first question by saying that personality plays an important role in the foreign assignment experience. Interviewees described personality attributes such as being “proactive and energising”, “professional”, “happy-go-lucky” (explained to mean “extroverted and outgoing”), “broad mind[ed]”, being “tolerant and patient”, and “type-A”. A follow-up question had been prepared because it was predicted that interviewees would not deny that personality is related to how things are experienced, regardless of whether the context is domestic or foreign.

When the follow-up question was asked several plausible explanations were given for why the research found that certain personality traits were not good predictors of a manager’s experience abroad. One former expatriate manager explained that “there is a stereotype that people like to see themselves as. If you ask people, ‘do you like discovering new things’ everyone will say ‘yes’ even if really they do not like exploring things out of their frame of reference.” A different interviewee said “asking someone about [their] own personality it is hard to be objective. During this interview I’ve been thinking of others, not myself.” According to these comments the reason why some of the results were surprising is tied to self-report issues. While this is a very understandable argument it does not seem likely in this case because, even if respondents scored survey questions seemingly favourably to seem more open to novelty tolerant of ambiguity it does not explain the failure to detect a relationship.

A more plausible explanation is that while certain personality traits are important for managers to have it “doesn’t mean they won’t succeed without those traits...they are however factors”. Along similar lines one former expatriate manager who said it is favourable to have a personality that leads one to be outgoing, extroverted, and to instigate

communication explained that the importance of those traits depends on the job one is being sent abroad to do. For example, a person who has a very technical job to carry out on assignment, one that does not focus on interacting with colleagues, may be satisfied with their assignment even if they do not have personality traits thought to be important for an expatriate manager. The point was also raised that while personality is important it may not be as important as background; if a “guy has lived in 4 countries....he will be able to manage [life abroad]. He has lived with diversity...this is actually more important than personality”. If this comment applies to the sample of this study then the managers’ backgrounds (explored in hypotheses 8, 9 and 10) should be related to manager satisfaction even when personality is not.

Two very pragmatic and rational explanations were presented during the interviews to explain why the results of the survey analysis, contrary to the hypothesised relationships, showed that Tolerance of Ambiguity and Novelty Seeking were not good predictors of a manager’s attitude toward the experience abroad. One reason was that the survey instrument was too long and that “at the end I really had to hurry. I did not have time [and toward] the end was not that accurate.” Had the personality related survey items appeared closer to the start of the survey it is possible that respondents would have scored the statements differently thereby affecting the relationships measured between the variables. The second reason that was presented was that “the survey came very much as a work survey and was completed in a work frame of mind. Much of satisfaction has to do with activities and life outside of work in [the] foreign country. But [you] are thinking of your office-time as you complete the survey in your office sent by a colleague”. Had the order of the survey statements been scrambled,

some of the issues identified by these interviewees may have been mitigated, an issue discussed in the limitation section of this paper.

Hypothesis 6

Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment and to Interaction Adjustment

Results of the research show that there is a significant negative relationship between ethnocentricity and managers' satisfaction with the foreign assignment but not between ethnocentricity and interaction adjustment. Managers convinced about the superiority of their own culture or national group over that of others are likely to believe there is a superior culture for employees to belong to, which has superior ways of working and behaving. These beliefs will influence the way in which managers view actions that are foreign to them and tied to the completion of a professional assignment in the host country. Interviewees supported the need for a manager to value diversity explaining "don't bring all your attitudes from your domestic market – same corporate flag but different ways of working. For example, in Country X much more consensus driven and slower management by consensus – it is a new country with less parental experience". Advice given by three interviewees that reiterated the finding that ethnocentricity will negatively impact the foreign assignment experience is "don't see them only as a market, understand how people tick. Try to understand your colleagues" and "don't assume your Englishness will triumph" and "don't impose home country norms".

Coping with cultural diversity was explained in some interviews to be the single most challenging issue while abroad. Another challenge was "finding it difficult when operating systems operate differently. PharmaCorp is global and the expectation is that it

will be the same in [every country] but it is not.” While people might find new operating systems frustrating to (re-)learn regardless of their ethnocentricity, the ethnocentric manager would assume that in addition to being different the foreign systems are also inferior and would therefore be less satisfied to have to learn how to use them during the foreign assignment.

Out of line with research conducted about the role of ethnocentrism on manager adjustment abroad (Caligiuri and Di Santo, 2001; Black, 1990) the results of this study found that contrary to the hypothesis, ethnocentrism is not significantly related to interaction adjustment. How well a person adjusts to interacting with people from a foreign culture is related to how ethnocentric that person is. This finding opposes previous research which found that with increasing levels of ethnocentricity the extent, nature, and agreeableness of interaction between the expatriate manager and the host nationals, regardless of whether this interaction takes place at or outside of a work context, is negatively affected (Black, 1990).

During the interviews that were conducted following the quantitative data analysis, comments were made that highlighted the skills and competencies that are important for a person to have to interact well with members of a host country culture. Many of these competencies would intuitively be more likely to be expressed by less ethnocentric people. However, the scale measuring ethnocentricity does not include items mirroring the essence of these interviewee statements. Interviewees said that it was critical for managers to “Read books about the culture. Do your homework. Be open-minded. Don’t expect things to be like they are at home or impose home country norms. An ‘it must work here too [attitude]’ is wrong”. Results of the interviews indicated that

ethnocentric managers will not adjust as well to their foreign setting, as was hypothesized. As one manager explained, it is important that the expatriate “be willing to learn about the culture they’re moving in to better support and understand their team; recognizing that different countries have different cultures even if they speak the same language – no better no worse, just different.” Another response included the advice “do ask many questions, even personal questions” and “enjoy listening” to what you are told by host country nationals about their culture and ways of working. One listens when one is open to hearing new things explained, this too is an important facet of interaction. It is possible that the ethnocentrism scale implemented did not capture those nuances that help to differentiate two open, cultured, experienced, worldly managers with regard to their levels of ethnocentricity. Reflecting on the items included in the scale, they are blunt in their description of ethnocentric behaviour e.g. “Most other cultures are backward compared to my culture” or “I do not cooperate with people who are different”. Had the items assumed a relatively open (less) ethnocentric position, different shades and subtleties of the managers’ views about cross-cultural interaction may have been explored and potentially a relationship to adjustment found. In the present study the maximum score that can be achieved for this 15 item measure of ethnocentricity is 75.00, however the overall mean score was shown to be 26.39. It seems that agreement with the items included in the measure was very low. It can be assumed that even those people who agree with one of the blunt statements criticized above, may be swayed by norms of social desirability when rating their agreement.

An alternative explanation for the inability to reject the null hypothesis entirely may be that even the most ethnocentric manager did not have problems adjusting abroad.

If in a sufficiently senior position, it is possible that those people interacting with the manager were the ones who were left no choice but to adjust.

The importance of networking was highlighted by half of the people interviewed in spontaneous response to the question “What was the single most positive outcome of your stay abroad?”. Advice was given that expatriate managers “build a network, be active in building relationships in the foreign country....[with people] from all departments and from outside the country”. Networking without interacting is of course not possible. The importance of adjusting to interacting with host nationals was expressed by one former expatriate manager as “go with the attitude of ‘I will generate good working relationships’ and be prepared for cultural differences as even subtle differences can be very important.” Adjusting to interacting with host country nationals was seen to be important enough for one former expat to say “I made a conscience decision to avoid joining expat communities. I think it makes a difference to how satisfying the whole thing becomes, how many [local] people you know. Other expats never get to understand locals”. Interestingly, in the interviews the respondents who stressed the importance of open-mindedness and understanding host country cultures also spontaneously mentioned good relationships with local colleagues to have been one of the most positive outcomes of the stay abroad. However, how one thinks (in this case expressed by the ethnocentricity score) and how one acts must not always be complementary. Potentially, even the most ethnocentric managers know how to behave in a way that conceals their feelings.

Hypothesis 7

Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment

Results of the survey show that there is no relationship between the personality measure Self-Monitoring and the performance measure Completion of the Assignment. However, only 18 out of 126 survey participants failed to complete the foreign assignment therefore preventing rigorous statistical testing of completers vs. non-completers. Self-Monitoring had previously predominantly been explored in domestic management literature. In one study involving expatriate managers Day et al., (2002) found high self monitors to have lower organizational commitment and a higher rate of voluntary turnover. Unfortunately, the results from this current study could neither support nor help dispute those findings.

Although the scale used to measure self-monitoring was not constructed with the expatriate in mind its focus on one's ability to adapt and adjust to situations to encourage a favourable outcome seems predestined for the study of people whose primary reason for professional failure has consistently been found to be failure to adjust to their new environment. Certain abilities that a high self monitor possesses play an important role in having a positive expatriate experience. This was expressed during an interview conducted with a former expatriate manager who stressed that a manager who succeeds at working in a foreign country "understands mild signals...[and] must understand quickly". This ability to observe and understand signals is in fact one of the five prerequisites of self-monitoring. Instead of focussing on obvious or major differences between cultures most of the former expatriate managers interviewed explained that it is the subtle differences between cultures that are often most important. A high self-

monitor would be more likely to pick up on these subtleties and respond to them appropriately therefore potentially improving his or her performance. Had the split between completers and non-completers been less skewed the effect of Self-Monitoring may have been demonstrated.

Hypothesis 8

Multilingualism, Foreign Travel, and Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad, Satisfaction with the Assignment, and to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the assignment

The present findings indicate that having lived abroad prior to the foreign assignment is significantly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment. Interestingly, the experience of living abroad however was not related to the other two satisfaction variables. It seems managers who had lived in a foreign country feel that they benefited from the expatriate assignment on a personal level. With the exception of two statements the seven item Satisfaction with Personal Consequences Scale focuses on the personal career implications for the manager of having taken part in a foreign assignment. An argument explaining the relationship may be that living abroad provided the managers with skills and competencies that helped them work successfully in the host country for which they were subsequently rewarded with positive developments to their careers.

This finding can be further explained by previous research (Naumann, Widmer, and Jackson, 2000; Black et al., 1999; Torbion, 1982) which found managers who had lived abroad were more able to accurately anticipate the challenges and experiences associated with living in a country that is culturally dissimilar to their home country. This more accurate anticipation coupled with the expatriate's ability to draw on lessons from previous experiences helps the manager function both in and outside of the workplace.

None of the other hypothesized correlations between managers' backgrounds and different aspects of satisfaction proved significant. The two questions that were included in the Satisfaction with Life Abroad scale pertained to standard of living and activities available in the host country. It is possible that even a person who speaks several languages and has lived in or travelled to many countries has never had to experience a change in standard of living. Their international experiences may help them appreciate different cultures and styles of interaction while not influencing their acceptance of changes made to their standard of living. Moreover, one reason why multilingualism did not significantly correlate as hypothesized may be the nature of which aspect of language proficiency was explored in the survey. The survey enquired about the number of languages that managers spoke but not about their willingness to learn these or other languages. It may have been more important to ask about their readiness to learn new languages in preparation for a move abroad as opposed to their language proficiency (Sims and Schrader, 2004).

An unexpected significant result was that while previously having lived abroad was significantly positively related to Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (.216, $p < .05$), having travelled extensively was significantly negatively related to Satisfaction with Life Abroad (-.263, $p < .01$). There are two plausible explanations for this finding. One explanation could be that the low level of heterogeneity of the sample with regard to travel experience precluded this factor from being used as a distinguisher. Every single one of the participants had travelled outside of the country of their origin, with 8% having travelled only to countries close to their country of origin and 92% having travelled to at least one foreign continent. An alternative explanation could be that survey participants were not asked about the nature of this foreign travel

experience. If travel had not been voluntary, for example a child accompanying parents on trips, and the conscious decision to explore foreign countries and cultures was not made, it is possible that the respondent was a reluctant traveller. This situation would prevent the association from being made that well travelled people are well versed in and open to different cultures. It is also possible that extensive foreign travel is the sole result of business related travel, during which a manager spent time in foreign countries with only minimum exposure to the host country culture, living and eating in hotels and interacting only with fellow expatriate business colleagues.

Hypothesis 9

Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment

Whether or not a manager had worked abroad previous to his or her last foreign assignment was not significantly related to that manager's satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment. Intuitively this may seem like a contrary finding if one considers that results of the survey found that previous experience living abroad was in fact related to this same satisfaction variable. However, the population of managers who have worked abroad does not overlap completely with those who have lived abroad. 31% of the survey respondents had worked abroad previous to their last assignment, which in turn means that they had also lived abroad previous to commencing the assignment. Far more respondents, 52% of the total research sample, had lived abroad preceding their foreign assignment.

In retrospect the survey question enquiring about previous foreign work experience was sub-optimally phrased. The question read "How many foreign assignments lasting longer than one year have you been on with this organization". The

69% of managers who answered that they had only been one such assignment may however have taken part in several such assignments with a different organization. Therefore, the results only capture whether previous work experience with the *current* employer is related to Satisfaction with Personal Consequences.

Hypothesis 10

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will positively influence the completion of the assignment

There was no significant correlation between Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment, Satisfaction with Life Abroad, or Satisfaction with the Assignment and completing the assignment in its entirety. As was the case in the discussion of results pertaining to Hypothesis 2, the extraordinarily high rate of assignment completion for this survey sample precluded 'completion' from being a distinguishing measure of success. Therefore, as stated in the discussion of Hypothesis 2, interviews were conducted to determine what previous expatriate managers consider to be parameters of a successful assignment from both a personal and a professional perspective.

Hypothesis 11

Expatriate managers' satisfaction will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment

As hypothesized, Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment was significantly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment. There was no relationship shown between Affective Commitment and both the case for Satisfaction with Life Abroad or Satisfaction with the Assignment.

The items included in the scale Satisfaction with Personal Consequences focus mainly on the effect that taking part in the foreign assignment had on the nature of the managers' career development. The findings show that there is a significant positive relationship between being satisfied with these consequences of the foreign experience and wanting to remain employed by the organization. It is plausible that while Satisfaction with Life Abroad, which takes in to account aspects such as standard of living in the host country, relates to whether a manager completes the assignment (the extraordinarily high assignment completion rate of the sample precluded this from being adequately explored) it does not relate to whether the manager wants to stay with the organization after completion of the foreign assignment. Managers who are satisfied with Personal Consequences have had their expectations met regarding career implications of the foreign assignment and feel that their time as an expatriate manager had a positive influence on their career development.

The interviews conducted provided some explanations about why Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment were not found to be related to Affective Commitment. When interviewees were asked "What in your opinion would result in greater loyalty and commitment on the part of expatriates toward PharmaCorp upon their return?", responses for the most part focussed on career issues, which reinforces the finding that personal consequences are related to affective organizational commitment. Not one interview participant mentioned items that were included in the scales measuring Satisfaction with the Assignment or Satisfaction with Life Abroad.

Managers lamented when there were no plans in place outlining where they would or should be professionally in the next few years. They mentioned how important it is for the organization's Human Resource Department to be "closer" to the expatriate manager

at all stages of the expatriate assignment, ideally before the assignment ends. Knowing which Human Resource Department is responsible for steering and monitoring personal development also contributes to manager commitment; it was reported that “from an HR-perspective some people feel like they are in limbo-land whilst away, for example basic administration – not logistics and living but career dialogue and planning. Home office thinks [the] local host is taking care of it –leads to ‘why am I here?’”. One manager when asked to provide some dos and don’ts for a successful stay abroad responded “When the foreign assignment comes to an end start making moves to secure the future...the professional future. I assumed the company would do this for me but three months before the end I did not know what I would be doing after the end of the assignment.” These statements show that both career planning and its taking place in a timely fashion are of great importance to expatriate managers.

The importance of career planning is linked to the effect that met expectations has on the satisfaction of managers with the expatriate experience. From the interviews conducted it became clear that one of the most common expectations is to “get a more senior position” upon completion. Having this expectation met was repeatedly mentioned as an important factor in increasing the loyalty and commitment of expatriates toward the organization. It was explained that as an expatriate manager “my expectation of career development and increase is to get everything quicker and better because I went away”. However, it is not solely a question of being assigned a new title but also the skills one utilises in the new position that influence the manager’s loyalty and commitment to the organisation; “Recognition of coming back and utilising your new skills. Personal Development is the reason most people leave the organization.”

The focus on development and met expectations that is discussed above was expanded on by some former expatriate managers who talked about their organization commitment being influenced by additional factors. One manager explained that “commitment stems from being able to go in the first place. These assignments are high value and so being selected is being recognized.” Another manager praised the fact that “the move and logistics were managed efficiently and in a short space of time”, which made him feel appreciative toward the organization. The link between appreciation and organization commitment was made by one respondent who said “It comes down to personality, I am appreciative of the time and money invested in me....this makes me more committed.”

5.2.1 Separate Group analysis of satisfaction of managers with and without spouse

The important role of family on an expatriate’s decision to prematurely come home was an issue raised in chapter one during the discussion about failure rates of expatriate assignments. Although not a primary focus of this research the questions asked in the survey instrument (see Appendix 11, Questions 24d1 and 24d2) enabled the researcher to explore whether marital status, or rather whether the manager was accompanied abroad by his or her spouse, had an influence on expatriate manager satisfaction.

The survey asked participants to identify whether they had a spouse at the time of their last foreign assignment. Using this information, the researcher could determine whether there was a significant difference between the satisfaction of managers who were not married at the time of their last foreign assignment and those who were married and were accompanied abroad by their spouse. The survey also identified a group of managers who had a spouse who stayed in the home country and did not accompany the manager on

foreign assignment. However, this group was too small ($n=22$) to be included in the statistical analysis which needed to be conducted to identify significant differences between groups.

In order to determine whether the two groups differed significantly with regard to any of the three dependent variables, Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment and Success (Completion of the Assignment) a sequential procedure was used. In the first step, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to secure an overall effect. MANOVA was selected because the analysis included a categorical independent variable with two levels (spouse or no spouse) and more than one quantitative, conceptually related dependent measure (Meyers et. al., 2006). Next, pair wise comparisons (ANOVA) for each of the three dependent variables were conducted. Statistical significance was determined by a F-test in both cases. Moreover, the relevance of the effect was judged by the effect size partial eta (η^2). Partial eta describes the amount of variance explained by group membership. The investigation of group differences was conducted with a MANOVA and three ANOVAs. The MANOVA yielded a moderate and significant difference ($F[3;106] = 4.61, p < .01, \eta^2 = .12$) indicating that the two groups of participants differed in their levels of satisfaction. The Partial Eta-squared of .12 (which is an indication of the difference between the mean values of the two groups) indicates that 12% of the difference between the satisfaction of the two groups can be explained by whether the participant had a spouse accompany him or her on the foreign assignment. According to effect size conventions by Cohen (1988), in the absence of context .12 is a practical but small effect size (Meyers et al., 2006). The results for the pair wise comparisons can be found in Table 49. The table shows that while for each text the differences between groups were small they were each significant at $p < .01$.

Table 49
Overall Effect
Multivariate Tests

	Value	F	Hypothesis df	Error df	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Pillai's trace	,116	4,616(a)	3,000	106,000	,004	,116
Wilks' lambda	,884	4,616(a)	3,000	106,000	,004	,116
Hotelling's trace	,131	4,616(a)	3,000	106,000	,004	,116
Roy's largest root	,131	4,616(a)	3,000	106,000	,004	,116

Each F tests the multivariate effect of spouse. These tests are based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means.

a Exact statistic

From the results of the Wilks Lambda test it was concluded that the mean values of the two groups of participants differed significantly. However, further univariate testing had to be conducted to determine whether the groups differed significantly for each of the three measures of satisfaction and to determine which group was more satisfied. The results summarized in Table 50 below show that the two groups differed significantly for the measures Satisfaction with Life ($p = .004$), Satisfaction with the Assignment ($p = .027$) and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences ($p = .027$). From the partial Eta-squared it is known what percent of the difference between the two groups can be explained by whether the manager had a spouse at the time of the foreign assignment; 7.3% of the difference in Satisfaction with Life Abroad, 4.4% of the difference in Satisfaction with the Assignment, and 4.5% of the difference in Satisfaction with Personal Consequences. To determine which of the two groups, those with versus those without a spouse, were more satisfied the descriptive statistics, specifically the mean values of the two groups, must be considered. The managers who did not have a spouse at the time of their last foreign assignment showed significantly higher mean values being more satisfied than those who had a spouse.

Table 50
Pairwise Comparisons
Univariate Tests

Dependent Variable		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
SL	Contrast	51,526	1	51,526	8,495	,004	,073
	Error	655,065	108	6,065			
SP	Contrast	150,182	1	150,182	5,013	,027	,044
	Error	3235,281	108	29,956			
PC	Contrast	233,228	1	233,228	5,039	,027	,045
	Error	4998,736	108	46,285			

F tests the effect of spouse. This test is based on the linearly independent pairwise comparisons among the estimated marginal means. Satisfaction with Life (SL), Satisfaction with the Assignment (SP), Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment (PC), Completion of Assignment (Compl.)

The survey included six statements to be commented only by participants who were accompanied on the foreign assignment by a spouse and if relevant by children. For these six statements only descriptive results were calculated (see Table 51 below). Results pertaining to these statements are not included in other statistical analyses.

Table 51
Statements for Participants with Spouse

	N Valid	N Missing	Mean	Std. Error Mean	Std. Deviation
My employer took active efforts to help my spouse and children settle in the new country (SS9)	80	46	4.45	.244	2.18
My employer helped my spouse and myself to meet with other expatriate managers and their spouses in the new location (SS10)	80	46	3.25	.222	1.98
In the host country, my spouse was restricted in engaging in a number of activities that (s)he normally carried out at home (SL3)	77	49	3.49	.219	1.92
My spouse felt comfortable with his/her life in host country (SL4)	77	49	5.09	.178	1.57
My children found it difficult to adjust to their new surroundings (SL5)	55	71	5.16	.220	1.63
Life as an expatriate posed special problems for me because of my spouse's career orientation (SL6)	75	51	4.47	.213	1.85

The above analysis showed that managers who did not have a spouse at the time of their last foreign assignment were overall more satisfied. These results may be more statistically than practically relevant as none of the between group differences for the three satisfaction measures were above 7.3%. There could be reasons for this discrepancy that have less to do with marital status and more with other aspects such as age or seniority at the time of assignment (with the unmarried manager likely to be younger and less senior). However, one should also not be quick to dismiss the meaning of these results in supporting past research that found spousal issues to be a major contributing factor to an expatriate manager's satisfaction.

CHAPTER SIX

IMPLICATIONS AND AREAS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Over the years several research studies have focused on variables related to optimal expatriate outcomes and expatriate experience. Despite such research, turnover of expatriate managers continues to baffle researchers as well as organizational policy makers. A recent report summarizing data from large scale studies indicates that approximately 15% of expatriate managers leave their employers within a year of completing the foreign assignment (Report by PricewaterhouseCoopers LLP and Cranfield School of Management, UK appeared in Human Resource Management International Digest in 2007). The failure to reverse this long-standing trend could be partially explained by the time lapse between the publication of academic research findings and practical policy making. An alternative explanation is that the focus of these recommendations may have been sub-optimally assigned. Most of the research that has been conducted about how best to improve the success rate of expatriate assignments and to ensure employee satisfaction and commitment has focussed on the expatriation process. More specifically, it has focussed on how to prepare the manager for what awaits him or her abroad. Admittedly, preparation for expatriation was initially also a major focus of this research study. However, results from the hypotheses testing coupled with interviews conducted with former expatriate managers revealed that it is the repatriation process, its preparation and execution, that is a central issue in determining a manager's commitment to the organization and satisfaction with the assignment.

6.1 Conclusions from the Present Study

The present findings indicate that the two organizational variables, namely, Organization Support and Preparation for Next Role are related to an expatriate manager's organizational commitment, especially the affective component of commitment. Organizational commitment has been shown to be the best indicator of voluntary employee turnover. It should therefore follow that by providing both types of organizational support, an organization can increase the probability of retaining its returning expatriate managers. However, both correlations, while significant, were relatively small (.217 for Preparation for Next Role and .226 for Organization Support). The majority of the variance in the affective commitment of a former expatriate manager must therefore be otherwise explained.

Additional variance in affective commitment was explained by managers' satisfaction with the personal consequences that a foreign assignment had for them ($r=.228$, $p<.01$). The personal consequences of the assignment, as defined in this research study, relate primarily to positive career developments that were a direct result of foreign assignment participation and to managers having experienced personal growth and development while abroad. Responses to the survey statement about the primary motivation for accepting a foreign assignment showed that the two most important motivating factors were opportunity for personal development (Mean 4.61, SD 0.55) and the opportunity for career advancement (Mean 4.28, SD 1.00). These two sets of findings, both stemming from analysis of survey data, complement one another and allow the logical conclusion to be drawn that because personal and career development are important motivators for managers to go abroad, their satisfaction with the extent to

which these expectations of personal and professional development were met will influence their affective commitment to the organization. In turn, it is important for an organization to learn how best to improve an expatriate manager's satisfaction with the personal consequences of the assignment.

The results of the hypotheses testing show that managers' satisfaction with the personal consequences of their experience abroad is significantly related to the nature and extent of preparation that an organization provides expatriate managers for the roles that they will fill following completion of the foreign assignment ($r=.598$, $p<.001$). Companies invest time and money in, among other things, training expatriates for what awaits them abroad, in providing a high standard of living in the host country, and in providing organization support while there. The return on this investment is limited to the execution of that one foreign assignment unless companies plan wisely for the career path that these expatriate managers will take after completing the assignment. If timely planning does not take place the expatriate manager will either leave the company or will remain but not be maximally committed to doing so. A company is therefore well advised to take the following 4 precautions:

- 1) While abroad an expatriate should be kept aware of promotions and other career development opportunities in the company
- 2) Before an expatriate's foreign assignment ends he or she should already know what his next role in the company will be
- 3) Following completion of the foreign assignment the expatriate's next role should be one in which he or she can use his newly acquired skills and knowledge
- 4) The expatriate's line manager in his next role should make an active effort to utilize the newly acquired skills for the benefit of the larger company

From the interviews conducted and the analysis of the survey results it becomes apparent that the managers were satisfied with life abroad (Mean 5.24, SD 2.30) and with the assignment itself (Mean 6.05, SD 1.04). Both of these measures of satisfaction were significantly and positively related to the measure Organization Support. According to the survey results the nature of the time spent abroad, including aspects such as the tasks carried out during the assignment, the activities available outside of work, the authority held at work, one's colleagues and the standard of living do not leave much room for improvement. However, these are all aspects that do not relate to the manager's personal and professional life once the assignment ends. Of the three measures of satisfaction that were examined the only one that was significantly correlated to Affective Commitment was Satisfaction with Personal Consequences of the Assignment. This measure of satisfaction is also the only one that investigates aspects of a manager's attitude *after* completion of the assignment.

Satisfaction with Life Abroad and Satisfaction with the Assignment were not found to be related to Affective Commitment. Two of the facets of satisfaction that the survey asked managers to reflect about were related to their attitudes while abroad, namely their satisfaction with life abroad (where they were no longer living) and their satisfaction with the foreign assignment (that they were no longer working at). Current levels of satisfaction, rather than satisfaction at the time abroad is, perhaps, a better predictor of affective commitment. Affective Commitment, in contrast, focuses on present feelings of the manager, not how a manager felt immediately after completion of the assignment. The events occurring during the time interval between completing the assignment and the time at which the survey was completed may have had significant influence on the present attitudes. The data collected reflects the relationship between

past satisfaction and current organization commitment, an issue discussed in the limitations section of this dissertation.

In addition to the conclusions stemming from the analysis of the hypotheses testing discussed above further findings result from the structural equation modelling carried out to test the integrative overall model, the direct effect model and the mediation model. Four key conclusions can be drawn from the analysis of the structural equation models. Firstly, the results of testing the overall integrative model for a relationship between Preparation for Next Role and Satisfaction with Personal Consequences (.554, $p < .001$) lent further support to the significant relationship found during hypothesis testing. The high loading found, supports organizations that care about the satisfaction of their expatriate managers and spend time and resources to ensure the appropriateness of preparations for an expatriate manager's next role.

The second conclusion that can be drawn pertains to the loadings on the Manager Related Variable. The size of loadings on to the Manager Related Variable for the four factors pertaining to the internationality of the manager's background were smaller than those for the personality factors (with the exception of Self-Monitoring which had the smallest loading of any of the eight manager related factors). It can be concluded that a manager's personality, irrespective of how many languages he speaks, how extensively he has travelled, or whether he has lived and worked abroad, determines how well he adjusts to the foreign assignment more so than the internationality of his background. When the overall integrative model was tested without the four background factors, the goodness of fit indices improved slightly but the difference between the models did not prove to be statistically significant.

The third finding stemming from the analysis of structural equation models is that Adjustment acts as a mediator between the Manager Related Variable and the expatriate manager's satisfaction. More specifically, a manager's personality has a direct effect on his satisfaction with the assignment and a direct effect on his adjustment to the foreign assignment. However, this adjustment also mediates how satisfied a manager is with the assignment. The strong relationship between adjustment and satisfaction with the assignment was further supported by the highly significant bivariate correlation between this measure of satisfaction and each of the measures of adjustment (Overall Adjustment $r=.370$, $p=.000$; Work Adjustment $r=.401$, $p=.000$; Interaction Adjustment $r=.259$, $p=.003$; General Adjustment $r=.305$, $p=.001$).

The confirmation of the important role that adjustment plays in determining a manager's satisfaction lends support to further research being conducted about the antecedents of General Adjustment, Work Adjustment and Interaction Adjustment in the context of a foreign assignment. Of the factors explored in this research one organizational variable, two personality variables, two aspects of the manager's background, and two measures of satisfaction were significantly correlated to adjustment: Pre-Departure Training was related to both Overall Adjustment and Interaction Adjustment, Ethnocentricity was related to work, general and overall adjustment; Tolerance to Ambiguity was related to Work Adjustment, Prior Living Abroad was related to Work Adjustment, Prior Foreign Assignment was related to both work and interaction adjustment, Satisfaction with Life Abroad was related to Overall Adjustment and General Adjustment while Satisfaction with the Assignment was related to everyone of the adjustment measures. These preliminary findings could be regarded as list of

potential antecedents of adjustment. However, future research must be conducted to determine causality and define the relative importance of those factors.

A further conclusion that can be drawn from exploring the results of the integrative overall model is that while the model in its entirety showed a very respectable goodness of fit, individual segments of it are weak at best in their support for expected relationships. An illustrative example of such a segment is that tied to Affective Commitment. None of the six pattern structure coefficients for Affective Commitment that were included in the model were of relevance in size or statistical significance. It can be concluded that in the context of the overall model, as opposed to individual Pearsonian correlations that were explored in the hypotheses, the antecedents of Affective Commitment remain elusive.

During the analysis of study results a number of findings were made that were not part of either the hypotheses testing or the SEM but were instead serendipitous. Originally, success was to be defined as completing a foreign assignment on time and on budget. However, as discussed earlier the fact that nearly all respondents reported to have completed the assignment on time and on budget prevented the statistical analysis of group differences. Moreover, it was calculated that of the 126 respondents only 18 had failed to complete the assignment, again an insignificant sample size for robust statistical analysis. Combined, these two realisations led to the original "success variable" and even it's lesser version "completion of the assignment" to all but fall away in the analysis of results and in the development of the overall integrative model. Only after results confirmed the central role that repatriation plays in the satisfaction and affective commitment of the expatriate manager did the importance of an earlier event become clear. Originally the researcher was provided with 355 email addresses of people who had

completed a foreign assignment. Upon sending the initial email invitation to participate to the entire email block of 355 people, 87 messages were returned because of failure to transmit. A certain number of the email addresses may have changed (through name changes) but the remaining transmission failures are likely to have been because these addresses were deactivated after people left the organization. If that was indeed the case several questions arise: How soon after completing the assignment did they leave? Did they leave of their own volition? Were aspects related to the foreign assignment experience directly related to their departure from the company? A request has been made to PharmaCorp's Global Foreign Assignments department to provide the researcher with information regarding the employment history and employment status of the people to whom the 87 now defunct email addresses had once been assigned. There are issues of data protection and access that must be cleared before a decision is made about providing the requested information. Moreover, personnel resources may not allow for this relatively time consuming exploration in to the employment history of 87 people to be carried out in the near future.

The content of the telephone interviews that were conducted with former expatriate employees was primarily used to explain findings from the hypothesis testing. Therefore, much of the information gleaned from these interviews flowed in to the discussion of the individual hypotheses. However, in addition to the statements that were made in response to specific questions in these interviews, two conclusions can be drawn that do not relate to any specific interview question posed or research hypothesis examined. One of these conclusions is that interviews provided a richness of data that was not gained from the results of the survey. Even in situations in which interviewees were asked a direct question that they would have had the option to respond to only in brief

they chose to comment at length. It seems that the topic being discussed, their experiences with the expatriate assignment, was one that they were more than keen to go in to depth about. Without prodding from the interviewer, stories and anecdotes were recited by interviewees that enabled the researcher to gain a better understanding of their attitudes toward the foreign assignment experience. The second conclusion is somewhat related to the first. It was concluded from these interviews, that taking part in the expatriate assignment was a major event in people's lives. The joys of life abroad and similarly the trials and tribulations were recounted with an emotionality that left no doubt about the importance that the event had in the manager's professional and personal life. Hearing about such experiences first hand conveyed the importance that company decisions have on the lives of the employees affected. A company would be well advised to interview expatriates after completion of a foreign assignment to learn about their experiences and to use this information to further optimise their expatriate assignment practices.

6.2 Implications of Findings for Organizational Strategy

To be better able to understand the transferability of the findings and their implications for other organizations, the extent to which the research sample is representative of other expatriate populations must be considered. Much information was collected about the demographic background of the survey participants; readers of this research are encouraged to compare and contrast the make-up of this research sample to expatriates in their organization of interest. The characteristics of the organization itself must also be considered, the growth of the industry it operates in, the pre-requisites of employment, as well as the nature of the foreign assignments that are carried out (e.g. based on technical expertise versus learning based).

Within the pharmaceutical industry there can be significant differences between organizations in terms of their culture, market domination, financial strength and focus on innovation. However, because of the similarities that large innovative pharmaceutical companies share, the results of this research should be relevant for the industry beyond PharmaCorp. There are no inter-country descriptive statistics available about pharmaceutical industry employees; however there exist a number of North American indicators. For example, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics states that in 2006 70% of employees in the industry had a bachelor's, master's, or Ph.D. degree (not specifically managers, who it may be assumed are more likely to be university educated) and that 90 percent of the positions in the industry in 2006 were in organizations that employed more than 1000 employees; both indices levels are reflected by PharmaCorp.

The research and development costs that are incurred by innovative pharmaceutical organizations before a drug is marketed can rarely be recouped unless it is made available to multiple markets, which in turn involves cross border business activities. It should be assumed that large pharmaceutical companies are global in their scope with regard to many of their business activities, thereby offering a platform for expatriate assignments to take place. It can further be assumed that for the most part large pharmaceutical companies have established HR systems in place because much of the employee base must possess a certain standard of technical expertise and educational or professional background. These individuals must be selected for or developed, both responsibilities that call for HR functions. The pharmaceutical industry as a whole is not as sensitive to changes in economic conditions as other industries, with employment opportunities remaining relatively stable. It can therefore be safely assumed that employees have alternative employment options within the industry. Therefore the choice

of measures selected for the research, for example, Affective Commitment (the desire to remain employed by an organization) and satisfaction are relevant to HR departments beyond PharmaCorp.

Of the top twenty pharmaceutical companies (by sales), eighteen, including PharmaCorp, are publicly listed companies. These companies publicly release information about employment practices to their shareholders and internal stakeholders. The information released can be scrutinized for compliance with a number of standards of corporate social responsibility. It seems plausible that these organizations have a vested interest in employing safeguards to prevent employee discrimination and that therefore, the proportion of women in management positions, the pool from which expatriate managers for this research were selected, will be comparable in the industry across these organizations.

As discussed earlier, the most common methods with which to conduct international business are, exporting, licensing, joint venture and foreign direct investment (FDI). In the case of exporting and licensing agreements, the deployment of expatriate managers is relatively unlikely. Therefore the findings and implications of this research will be less relevant for organizations that limit their international business activities to the adoption of these two methods. The joint venture approach to conducting international business can result in the sharing of responsibilities where the local partner supplies much of the needed human resources locally. However, in most cases managers from both organizations work together in the host country. Therefore, this approach, as opposed to FDI, is more likely to require expatriate managers to serve a control function or to promote their home countries processes when needed. The nature of the expatriate assignment may vary depending on the model in place with which to conduct

international business, but many of the findings from this research are relevant regardless of the business model adopted because the challenges faced by expatriate managers are not restricted to a specific model of conducting international business. Whether Joint Venture or FDI, managers leave their homes, relocate abroad, work together with new colleague, live in a foreign culture, interact with people who speak a different mother tongue, and are introduced to new processes, structures and ways of interacting. Therefore, the findings from this research about how to influence managers' attitudes should be applicable across international business models.

The findings that resulted from this research have implications for the strategy and operations implemented by organizations. The translation of these findings in to tactics that will benefit an organization depends on the larger goals an organization sets with regard to conducting business internationally and on the strategic direction adopted to reach those goals.

6.2.1 Expatriation Strategy Based on Motivation for International Assignments

The selection of expatriate managers should be based on the organization's primary motivation for orchestrating international assignments. The list of attributes that the expatriate should have and the type of support that the organization should provide depends on whether the assignment is demand driven or learning driven. Demand driven assignments involve sending someone abroad to solve a specific problem or to initiate a given project that can not be dealt with using local personnel. Other demand driven assignments involve expatriates in corporate agency roles. In such roles they either serve a control function or are sent abroad to transfer knowledge (from home to host or vice versa).

For demand driven assignments the managers sent abroad are usually experienced and possess certain technical skills needed to solve specific problems. Both organization and expatriate know what function the manager is to serve abroad. If the goal of an assignment is to fill a specific position then a human resource department can implement well established tools such as job analysis to determine exactly which technical skills a person needs to have to be suited for the position. Granted, the soft skills needed to operate abroad successfully are not as easily identifiable as the professional ones. It is these assignments which for a long time were associated with expatriate managers. As discussed in this dissertation the goals of expatriate assignments have been changing and with them the face of the expatriate manager. What has been slower to change are the international human resource practices in place to support these newer learning driven assignments.

Learning driven assignments as opposed to demand driven ones are usually part of an organization's larger strategy of developing a workforce with a global mindset. These assignments either serve career enhancement or career development. The reasons for initiating these assignments, by their very nature, are to meet goals that are more long term. The organization invests time and resources in sending a manager abroad because it thinks that by enabling managers to gain international experience, in the long run the organization as a whole benefits. Benefits include having a pool of talent that is able to be placed internationally as the need arises, practicing internal international benchmarking and any number of other advantages of expatriate assignments discussed earlier.

Whether an assignment is demand or learning driven should have consequences for the international human resource strategies adopted. Recruiting candidates for a learning driven assignment, the goal of which is not to fill a certain position, a human

resource department is looking for desire and ability to learn more so than the ability to do their current job. As an organization moves away from the more technical strategies such as cost cutting and technology development to softer ones such as promoting a learning organization or developing a labour force with a global mindset, the setting of concrete goals for a manager to meet while abroad and the measuring of goal attainment become more complex. The shift in expatriate assignments from demand to learning driven is well underway with more expatriates than ever being sent abroad as an exercise in personal and professional development. However, the shift in dealing with the preparation and follow-up of these assignments from an human resource perspective has in many cases not followed.

Organizations for the most part exist to generate a profit, there exist other goals not directly related to profit generation, but short of charities and non-governmental organizations the importance of a business' bottom line is clear. Therefore, with all the discussion about sending managers abroad to learn and develop, the benefit to the organization must be significant for the substantial investments it makes to be worthwhile. There is little use in sending managers abroad if what they learn is not transmitted back to the organization. The failure of an organization to benefit from such assignments results from two possible scenarios. An organization does not gain the knowledge acquired by the expatriate because it does not ask the manager about his experiences abroad. Alternatively, an organization does not access the knowledge because it cannot access the manager; this is the case when a manager leaves an organization either during or directly following a foreign assignment. Therefore, to create a global learning organization where both manager and organization benefit from foreign experience specific operational plans and tactics must be established.

6.3 Implications of Findings for Operational Systems

Simply formulating optimal strategies will not suffice. Appropriate tactical systems must also exist to deliver and implement such strategies. For instance, the strategy adopted has implications for the specific human resource actions needed. These actions, which will be discussed below include: the recruitment and selection of expatriate managers, their training and development, and most importantly ensuring the sustainability of the knowledge acquired by the expatriate abroad. Together, these operational plans and systems support the continued development of a global learning organization.

6.3.1 Recruitment and Selection

The recruitment and selection of expatriate managers must take in to consideration the technical *and* soft skill required for a given role as well as the desire of the manager to be assigned internationally. If the goal of the assignment is to fill a certain position that can not be filled locally, then the technical skills required will be part of the pre-requisites that will need to be met by candidates. If however, the goal is to support organizational development, for example by establishing informal networks and socializing foreign colleagues, technical skills may not feature as prominently.

Regardless of the purpose of the expatriate assignment the organization should make the recruitment and selection process transparent and one that encourages dialogue between the human resource department (or Line Managers) and potential candidates. From early on in their careers within the organization, employees should be given the opportunity to actively inform human resources about their desire but also their reluctance to be posted abroad. The status of these attitudes should be regularly updated. By

allowing people to proactively take part in the recruitment process has two benefits. Such dialogue prevents an organization from putting people in the position of having to decline a foreign assignment; it also prevents managers apprehensively accepting such an assignment only because they feel they are not in a position to decline an offer once made without jeopardising their further career development.

The second advantage of transparency and dialogue during the recruitment and selection process is that the organization learns of managers who want to go abroad who it may not have considered because they lack certain skills or experiences needed to be considered for such an assignment. The organization, having been made aware of motivated individuals, can develop these employees to become candidates for such assignments in the future. By creating and updating talent lists of people to develop internationally and by making clear the process of inclusion in such lists, an organization can better plan for the development of managers with international experience. This process identifies who must be trained to be considered for such an assignment, those who need assignment specific training once selected and those who need to be developed using methods that do not involve the participation in foreign assignments.

6.3.2 Training

It is important that both the employer and the employee are clear about the expectations that the other has about taking part in the assignment. By avoiding the development of false expectations both sides can mitigate the risk of expectations being unmet during and following the foreign assignment. This dialogue can be considered a form of training as it educates the manager about the goals and strategies that an organization has with regards to global business. A manager who understands where he

fits in to this strategy will have a better idea about his role and the meaning that such an assignment will have for his development and for the larger organization.

With regards to taking part in a foreign assignment, there are those managers who are 'ready now' and those who are 'ready later'. There is different training required for each of these two groups. For the group that is ready now and has been selected to go abroad, the training required will be assignment and location specific. Whether to standardize training provided to expatriates before they go abroad depends very much on the countries and types of assignments planned. In most cases, organizations will be faced with situations where the background of the managers, the countries they are assigned to, and the assignments they will be carrying out will differ. There must be enough flexibility in a training program to allow the needs of the individual, and also the needs of their family, to be catered to.

The managers who have expressed interest in going abroad but are 'ready later' will need to be developed to qualify for future assignments. It is important to communicate which pre-requisites must be met to be considered for such an assignment, examples may include aspects such as, understanding the organization's processes and policies, having carried out certain projects domestically or having experience leading teams. Other pre-requisites may be less easy to measure such as showing versatility and awareness of global issues, being aware of and sensitive to cross-cultural challenges or being able to operate with people from different social backgrounds. The key is to identify what the musts for a given assignment are, to communicate these and to ensure that people are trained and developed to meet these requirements.

6.3.3 Sustainability

An expatriate manager undergoes major life changes during a foreign assignment. An employer has the responsibility to ensure that such an assignment benefits the organization but also has positive personal consequences for the manager. Fortunately, the tools needed to generate advantages for the organization overlap with those needed to improve the manager's perception of the professional consequences of the assignment for his career. Companies that follow a strategy of developing a labour pool with a global mindset believe that what a manager learns abroad is of value to the larger organization. To access this information the organization must ensure three criteria; that the manager i) remains on assignment for its duration to maximise his learning; ii) remains with the organization after completion of the assignment to disseminate what he has learned; iii) is provided a position following the expatriate assignment that allows him to utilise and build on his newly acquired skills.

To ensure that a manager remains on the assignment at all costs should not be an organization's goal. As discussed earlier, a dissatisfied manager abroad can be more costly for an organization than no manager at all. Regular communication between the organization and the manager is necessary to determine whether the manager is satisfied with the assignment and life abroad and views the experience to be positive. It must be made clear to the manager who is responsible for his personal and professional wellbeing while abroad. Often a lack of communication is due to the home country and the host country both thinking the other side is handling matters. The implementation of continuous feedback loops and regular telephone conferences with the home country contact are only two examples of how such communication can be assured.

Organizations continue to deploy expatriates and fail to capitalize on the investments made by losing talented managers as a result of poor planning for both repatriation and further professional development. Managers want to know that the time they spent abroad was worthwhile for their careers or at the least that the skills they learned are valued by their organization and will be used in their next role. Organizations should provide managers with the opportunity to build on their existing knowledge after completion of the foreign assignment. This repatriation should not be carried out as an afterthought driven by time pressure but should instead be as much a part of the foreign experience as the expatriation and be carried out in a timely fashion (ideally before the manager starts the foreign assignment). If the expatriate manager terminates the assignment early or repatriation does not prove to be successful and the expatriate manager leaves the organization, an effort should be made to transfer as much of the manager's knowledge as possible. Exit interviews are one way for organizations to gain information that enables them to continually optimise the ex- and repatriation experience. Ideally, the manager should have been tied in to a communication and feedback loop initiated early in the expatriate assignment through which to provide regular input about the lessons learned abroad and issues valuable for future optimization of such assignments.

6.3.4 Summary of Findings and Recommendations

Five major conclusions resulted from the research, based on which recommendations for actions can be made.

1. The adjustment of expatriate managers is critical to their satisfaction with the assignment. Organizations are advised to assess the degree of managers' adjustment abroad. The factor loadings for the overall integrative model showed that Interaction Adjustment, Work Adjustment and General Adjustment each had

high loadings on the construct Adjustment. Therefore, ideally an organization would measure all three forms of expatriate manager adjustment with the aim of continuously improving the managers' scores.

2. A manager's personality influences his or her overall adjustment. Specifically, a person who has the tendency to seek out novel situations and displays low ethnocentrism are two personality traits that should be considered selecting for. If selecting for low ethnocentrism is not a viable option an organization may consider developing for it in its future expatriate managers. Even though Self Monitoring and Tolerance of Ambiguity did not yield significant results in this study, these traits may be worth revisiting if future studies with expatriate managers find the measures to have more acceptable reliability.
3. The internationality of managers' backgrounds is less important to their satisfaction with personal consequences of the assignment (mainly career related) than is their personality. Organizations should be wary of recruiting and selecting expatriate managers based on the number of languages they speak or the extent to which they have undertaken foreign travel. However, having previously lived abroad or taken part in a foreign assignment did have moderately high loadings on the manager related latent variable which in turn was positively related to satisfaction with personal consequences of the assignment and also directly related to how well a manager adjusts abroad.
4. Organizational Support positively influences a manager's satisfaction with life abroad. An organization should spend time and resources: Informing expatriate managers about developments in the home country affiliate, assigning a contact person abroad, gauging overall satisfaction with the assignment and life abroad,

offering satisfactory compensation and benefits for the challenges faced, and appraising performance throughout the assignment.

5. The preparation for a manager's next role following the expatriate assignment influences satisfaction with the personal consequences of the assignment. These consequences pertain mainly to whether managers interpret the assignment to have helped or hindered their careers. To improve this aspect of satisfaction an organization is advised to take 4 precautions: i) before the current foreign assignment ends, inform the expatriate manager what his or her next role will be; ii) provide the returning expatriate manager with a position that utilizes his or her newly acquired skills and knowledge; iii) encourage line managers to take and interest in the experiences of the returning expatriate manager; iv) keep expatriates abreast of career opportunities that are available throughout the organization on both a national (home country) and international level.

The field of expatriate manager research is large and growing. In 2007 approximately thirteen new research articles were published in academic journals that focussed on understanding and improving different facets of the expatriate experience. Most of these articles use measures that were developed for domestic management research and research samples stemming from only one or two different countries. Interestingly, these articles continue to focus more on how to select or develop managers who will adjust well in a foreign culture, how to improve life for the expatriate abroad and how to ensure that the manager once abroad completes the assignment in its entirety, and less on the importance of creating sound repatriation plans.

Toward the end of this research process after the data had been gathered and analysed the researcher returned to the interview scripts to re-read the comments made by

former expatriate managers. Overall it can be said that the opportunity to go abroad was valued, the time spent working on the foreign assignment was considered enriching, and the extent and nature of care provided by the company in preparation for and during the assignment was well received. The large majority of negative feedback regarding the experience of working as an expatriate manager related to the time directly following the assignment. Managers talked about the frustrations they experienced while waiting to hear what their next role in the organization would be and about the anxious time following the assignment when they were not yet sure whether having taken part in it would end up aiding or hindering their careers. Such comments gave the researcher the impression that there had been a window of time, however brief, following completion of the assignment when these managers could have been tempted away with a secure offer from another organization for a position that provided the improved recognition they felt foreign experience entitled them to. In the end the managers involved in this study are those who chose to remain with the organization and for the most part were rewarded for doing so. What happened to the managers who left the organization will remain unknown.

6.4 Limitations of the Present Study

A major limitation of the present research emanates from the correlational research design employed in the study. Participants were asked to score statements regarding their satisfaction with aspects of a foreign assignment which had already ended, and these results were then correlated with their *current* feelings of affective commitment to the company. Ideally, a sample of expatriate managers' Affective Commitment would be measured during the assignment and then again after they started in their new roles to identify discrepancies between their attitudes toward the company. However, given the

cross-sectional nature of the present study, this was unavoidable in the present instance. A more controlled, longitudinal study is very likely to generate more robust relations among the measured variables. .

The disappointing loadings on Affective Commitment in the overall integrative model caution readers to interpret results carefully. It should be assumed that a research sample that is composed of highly qualified people, working in a growth sector who all completed their assignment (with almost three quarters of respondents having completed the assignment more than two years ago) and remained at the company are likely to have a relatively high level of affective commitment; second, when combining measures of past satisfaction with present commitment levels, the causal link in the respondent's mind may be tenuous. In such cases statements pertaining to affective commitment should be amended to make the search for causality more explicit, for example "Participating in the foreign assignment has made me feel more emotionally attached to this organization" or "Participating in the foreign assignment has contributed to this organization holding a great deal of personal meaning for me".

From the interviews conducted it was learned that toward the end of the survey some of the respondents were less concentrated than toward the start. The items to be scored that related to a manager's personality were among the last to be rated. It is possible that, had the personality scales been closer to the front of the survey, the results may have differed. For future survey development, especially in the case of relatively long surveys, it may be wise to scramble the order of the measures to be rated.

Further limitation of study design included using a sample that precluded statistical analysis of certain factors due to the overwhelming within group similarity. Specifically, the overwhelming majority of the participants reported having completed the

assignment and having done so both on time and on budget, therefore precluding between group analyses of data. Also, differences between the attitudes of male and female expatriates could not be statistically analysed as the number of female expatriates was too small to conduct such analysis.

Had Self-Monitoring been investigated using the Self-Monitoring scale by Lennox and Wolfe (1984) as opposed to the one by Snyder (1974), the resulting reliability may have been higher (O'Cass, 2000). During the pilot stage of the research the Cronbach's alpha of the Snyder scale was found to be .86 which led the researcher to include it in the PharmaCorp survey. However, in the PharmaCorp survey the Cronbach's alpha measured was only .43. Only after this significant difference in reliability was identified did the researcher further investigate possible issues with the measure and learn that Lennox and Wolfe had attained much higher levels of reliability, factor independence and better test re-test relationships (Cramer and Gruman, 2002; O'Cass, 2000).

The self-monitoring measure was shown to have a higher Cronbach's alpha during the pilot stage of the study compared with results from the PharmaCorp survey. Organization Support (.69 vs. .50) and Intolerance of Ambiguity (.82 vs. .55) also saw their Cronbach's alpha values decrease from the pilot to the main study. One explanation for this discrepancy could be differences between the two sample groups. The ASW sample did not receive the survey in a work context and may therefore have answered the questions in a different frame of mind. It can be assumed that the heterogeneity of the ASW sample, with regard to industry of employment, nature of the position held and expatriate compensation packages received, was greater than in the main sample. Therefore, the differences between the reliability of these measures may be a result of differences between the samples – in size and composition. In future, it would be wise to

use the same pool of potential respondents for the pilot stage of the survey. For the purposes of the present study this was not done because the researcher was concerned that piloting the survey using PharmaCorp employees would decrease the already limited pool of potential respondents who could take part in the wider post-pilot survey.

A further limitation of the use of Snyder's Self-Monitoring measure is the issue of the applicability of North American attitudinal measure for conducting multi-cultural research. This limitation is not restricted to the Self-Monitoring measure. Ideally, such measures would be formulated and tested specifically for the nationality of the sample on which they are applied. However, for reasons of practicality, for example when wanting to compare across cultures using a standardized instrument with reliability and validity information that has been tested and re-tested, it is not always possible to use a measure that has been developed with such country research in mind. For the measures Self Monitoring and Intolerance of Ambiguity it was felt that the benefits of using validated tests far outweighed the drawbacks of their mono-cultural heritage.

To mitigate the potential for non-response bias a number of additional procedures could have been carried out. One such procedure would have been to apply reasonable sample weights based on different levels of participation (Pearl and Fairley, 1985). For example, the researcher could have allocated respondents who took longer to participate in the survey (relative to other respondents) a higher weighting on the assumption that these participants would have more in common with non-responders. Alternatively, had the anonymity regulation been less stringent, the researcher could have asked the representative of the PharmaCorp Global Foreign Assignments department whether the list on non-responders shared any distinguishing features such as, pre-mature termination of a foreign assignment or a certain level of managerial seniority. In addition to relying on

the identification of such features by the Global Foreign Assignments department, case record reviews for all non-respondents could have been carried out, if the names of these persons had been applied for and released.

Finally, potentially also related to the issues of scale development and selection, are the limitations of the Structural Equation Models. Non-significant p values, with regard to Chi-square values, are one indication of a good model fit. As stated in the discussion of results in Chapter 5, the Chi-square values for the SEM models, while not significant at a $p < .001$ level were, for the most part significant at a $p < .05$ level. Coupled with the fact that the CFI values for the SEM integrative overall model (.91) as well as for the SEM mediation model (.93) did not exceed .95, the model fit is sub-optimal. However, it should be recalled that a number of fit measures were investigated to determine model fit in addition to Chi-square and CFI, as recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). Limitations discussed above such as, the (relatively low) reliability of some scales, the less than desirable sample size and potential non-response bias may have prevented better model fit.

6.5 Areas for Further Study

Recent findings have failed to significantly relate job satisfaction to an employee's intent to remain with an organization (Hung-Wen Lee, 2007). A potential reason for such findings could be that the more satisfied managers are abroad the less likely they will be satisfied and committed to the organization following a negative repatriation experience. To date there are no studies that set out to find evidence in support of this seemingly contrary prediction.

A 2006 Mercer Human Resource Consulting study that surveyed 200 companies (www.imercer.com/mercerpassport) reports that half of those companies expect the number of female assignees to continually rise over the next five years, 35% believe the number of female managers abroad will not change. The survey also found that Asian organizations report having 16 times female expatriates in 2006 compared with five years earlier; North American organizations have increased the number of female expatriates four-fold and in Europe two-fold. If this increase in the absolute and relative number of female expatriate managers over the next years transpires, researchers would be better able to access female expatriate to participate in survey research in numbers that would enable meaningful statistical analysis to be carried out.

Considering the investment made in expatriate assignments it is time that organizations be given the tools with which to measure a return on their investment. Aspects that must be considered in such measurements are the monetary expense of international moves, the quantitative measurement of whether business drivers were met, and the satisfaction or increased commitment of returning managers. To date there has been no academic work published in this area. Most organizations would know what an expatriate assignment costs, but not how to calculate the return on investment remains elusive.

Organizations have started to explore alternatives to expatriate assignments with the aim of fulfilling the same goals as with the traditional foreign assignment but with less of the drawbacks such as expenses, failure rate and discomfort of managers (Jackson, 1997). In an article entitled "Time's up for the Man from Head Office" Jackson (1997) predicted that, as new technologies and methods of communication increase, the

expatriate assignments would become an outdated model. Interestingly, eight years later, the results of large scale surveys of MNCs employing expatriates (GMAC Global Relocation Trends 2005 Survey Report) project a continued increase in such assignments. Alternatives to expatriation could include “virtual expatriation” (Evans, 2006) in which a manager has inter-country responsibility but manages colleagues and responsibilities from his or her home affiliate. Video-conferencing and web-communication are also potential alternatives to personal face to face contact. Implications of such virtual alternatives could be a decrease in expatriate assignments and an increase in international business trips, an alternative that managers may find unsettling. However, the extent to which virtual can replace personal interaction in international management requires further research. Whether interacting with select people from a given culture is comparable to being fully immersed in that culture seems unlikely. The effect of full time immersion in a foreign culture versus temporary virtual contact has not yet been determined.

Finally, as expatriate managers face new challenges, research should be carried out to determine exactly how these new challenges can be managed in the interest of the expatriate and the organization. Examples of new challenges include, dealing with a developing set of corporate social responsibility guidelines which may lead managers to experience a conflict of interest between those they work for and host country stakeholders. As organizations embrace the expatriate assignment as ground on which to build a global talent pool with a global mindset, the relevance of technical skills and operational experience may become less of a priority on which to base the selection of candidates. As the world becomes increasingly global and borders disappear the

movement of labour is becoming less restrictive. Those managers, who wish to gain international work experience but are not sponsored to do so by their organization, may now become more likely to “go it alone” abroad. As previously restricted markets are hosting MNCs, for example former eastern European countries, there may be a shift of the expatriate manager to these emerging markets with managers being given the task of gaining knowledge that can be used to educate headquarters about the issues unique to this “new” geographic area. Emerging markets are not likely to offer the same standard of comfort that managers from the west are potentially used to. Organizations should begin thinking in the medium and long term, as opposed to the short term, when planning foreign assignments. Contingency plans should be created for each assignment and outcome. To do this effectively, research must be conducted on an on-going basis about the industry, about foreign markets and about expectations of own managers. No simple, proven recipe of actions is likely to meet the requirements of all employers.

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Appendix 1

Online Invitation to A Small World Community (ASW) Posted on the ASW Website

Expatriates I need you. Please help.

Hello fellow ASW members,

Here's hoping you'll help me if you have ever been an EXPATRIATE in your career. Expatriates are people who have been assigned by their employer from their home country to a different country because of a professional assignment.

As a partial requirement for my PhD degree I am conducting research about factors that influence expatriate satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance.

Attached is the link to an online web-based survey that I composed. You will not be required to actually write anything because you can answer questions by clicking on score buttons.

All information is anonymous and confidential. There will be no way for me to identify you and no codes or such are being used.

The only way that I can have any results to analyze is if people who have been expatriates complete the survey and these people are very hard to find. I am really in a bind and would so value your help.

Please copy and paste this link to access the survey.
<http://athena.smu.ca/survey/assignments/one.htm>

A sincere thank you and all the best,
Natalie

Appendix 2

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for the Pilot 'A Small World' Sample

Table 52
Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates
Pilot ASW Sample (n=35)

Scales	M	SD	Cronbach's Alpha
Pre-departure Training	12.57	5.04	.961
Next Role	17.57	7.27	.819
Organization Support	18.26	6.40	.693
Self-Monitoring	40.83	7.86	.863
Tolerance of Ambiguity	50.49	12.71	.819
Ethnocentricity	83.57	8.06	.699
Work Adjustment	20.89	5.38	.884
Interaction Adjustment	10.14	2.87	.776
General Adjustment	31.34	7.81	.862
Overall Adjustment	56.77	13.95	.931
Affective Commitment	28.6	7.62	.593
Satisfaction with the Assignment	21.71	5.61	.595
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	5.86	3.34	.712
Satisfaction with Personal Consequences (8 item scale)	21.31	7.53	.726

Table 53
Items forming part of the scale: "Pre-Departure Training" ($\alpha=.961$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	The training sufficiently prepared me for cultural differences I would experience in the host country.	.906	.860	.950
2	The training sufficiently prepared me for the day-to-day challenges that myself and my family would face in the host country.	.954	.912	.915
3	The training adequately prepared me in etiquettes and communication appropriate for the host culture.	.890	.819	.962

Table 54

Items forming part of the scale "Preparation for Next Role" ($\alpha=.819$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Before my foreign assignment ended, I was told what my next position/assignment would be.	.470	.264	.836
2	In my next role (directly following the foreign assignment) I was provided with a position where I could use my newly acquired skills and knowledge.	.666	.476	.767
3	My Line Manager in my next role (directly following the foreign assignment) was keen on utilizing my newly acquired skills and knowledge for the benefit of the larger company.	.619	.515	.782
4	My Line Manager was keen on learning about my experiences abroad.	.732	.628	.749
5	My Line Manager ensured that while abroad, I was kept aware of promotions and other career development opportunities in the organization.	.615	.475	.783

Table 55

Items forming part of the scale "Organization Support" ($\alpha=.693$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	In the new country I was kept abreast of developments occurring within the organization internationally.	.642	.446	.568
2	My employer had assigned a "support contact person" whom I could reach at any time when I faced a difficulty.	.099	.116	.814
3	My employer frequently gauged my overall satisfaction with the foreign assignment and life-style in the foreign country.	.699	.533	.544
4	The compensation and benefits offered by my employer were satisfactory.	.419	.341	.656
5	The performance appraisal procedures employed by my employer during my stay abroad were appropriate.	.565	.470	.588

Table 56

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with the Assignment" ($\alpha=.595$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Overall, the foreign assignment was interesting.	.735	.760	.507
2	I did not feel challenged in my last foreign assignment.	-.197	.100	.733
3	I found my last foreign assignment satisfying.	.552	.623	.503
4	I felt pressurized to develop my career to work abroad.	.278	.136	.578
5	I definitely disliked my last foreign assignment.	.749	.856	.484
6	I regret that I ever chose to go abroad on the last foreign assignment.	.465	.646	.560
7	I had all the necessary authority and autonomy to carry out the foreign assignment successfully.	.334	.215	.552
8	I enjoyed my colleagues in the host country.	.174	.474	.593
9	At times, the foreign assignment required me to engage in unethical practices which I would not have dreamt of engaging in in my home country.	.375	.248	.538

Table 57

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with Life Abroad" ($\alpha=.712$)

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	My standard of living in the host country was as good as or better than at home.	.555	.308	N/A
2	There were adequate number of activities for me and my family to keep ourselves occupied while abroad.	.555	.308	N/A

Table 58

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with Personal Consequences" ($\alpha=.768$)

Original set comprised of 10 items

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	I found that my last foreign assignment provided me with an opportunity to gain skills in managing a diverse workforce.	.532	.510	.743
2	I found that on returning from my foreign assignment. I had become a foreigner in my own home country.	.383	.529	.762
3	Living abroad has made my family and myself more sensitive to other cultures.	.246	.591	.769
4	Because of the foreign assignment. I have less contact now with a number of my family members and friends.	.256	.348	.780
5	The foreign assignment was an important part of my personal development.	.440	.674	.755
6	Because of the foreign assignment. I received a promotion.	.403	.581	.755
7	Because of my experience abroad. I am more likely to be considered for a promotion in the future.	.645	.655	.721
8	During my stay abroad. I was by-passed for a number of interesting career advancement opportunities in my organization.	.604	.470	.723
9	The challenging nature of my foreign assignment helped me improve my overall competencies.	.510	.589	.750
10	On completion of the foreign assignment. the expectations that I had from my organization regarding my next role were met.	.594	.632	.724

Table 59

Items forming part of the scale "Satisfaction with Personal Consequences" ($\alpha=.726$)

Revised set comprised of 8 items

	Scale Item	Item-Total Correlation	Squared Multiple Correlation	α if item deleted
1	Living abroad has made my family and myself more sensitive to other cultures.	.271	.555	.723
2	Because of the foreign assignment, I have less contact now with a number of my family members and friends.	.152	.145	.767
3	The foreign assignment was an important part of my personal development.	.447	.660	.705
4	Because of the foreign assignment, I received a promotion.	.444	.477	.694
5	Because of my experience abroad, I am more likely to be considered for a promotion in the future.	.630	.610	.654
6	During my stay abroad, I was by-passed for a number of interesting career advancement opportunities in my organization.	.587	.431	.657
7	The challenging nature of my foreign assignment helped me improve my overall competencies.	.490	.554	.700
8	On completion of the foreign assignment, the expectations that I had from my organization regarding my next role were met.	.560	.562	.664

Appendix 3

Table 60

Existing 40 Item Measure of Arousal Seeking Tendency

1.	I seldom change the pictures on my wall.
2.	I am not interested in poetry.
3.	It is unpleasant seeing people in strange weird clothes.
4.	I am continually seeking new ideas and experiences.
5.	I much prefer familiar people and places.
6.	When things get boring, I like to find some new and unfamiliar experience.
7.	I like to touch and feel a sculpture.
8.	I don't enjoy doing daring foolhardy things just for fun.
9.	I prefer a routine way of life to an unpredictable one full of change.
10.	People view me as quite an unpredictable person.
11.	I like to run through heaps of fallen leaves.
12.	I sometimes like to do things that are a little frightening.
13.	I prefer friends who are reliable and predictable to those who are excitingly unpredictable.
14.	I prefer an unpredictable life full of change to a more routine one.
15.	I wouldn't like to try the new group therapy techniques involving strange body sensations.
16.	Sometimes I really stir up excitement.
17.	I never notice textures.
18.	I like surprises.
19.	My ideal home would be peaceful and quiet.
20.	I eat the same kind of food most of the time.
21.	As a child, I often imagined leaving home just to explore the world.
22.	I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
23.	Shops with thousands of exotic herbs and fragrances fascinate me.
24.	Designs and patterns should be bold and exciting.
25.	I feel best when I am safe and secure.
26.	I would like the job of a foreign correspondent of a newspaper.
27.	I don't pay much attention to my surroundings.
28.	I don't like the feeling of wind in my hair.
29.	I like to go somewhere different nearly every day.
30.	I seldom change the decor and furniture arrangement at my place.
31.	I am interested in new and varied interpretations of different art forms.
32.	I wouldn't enjoy dangerous sports such as mountain climbing, airplane flying, or sky diving.
33.	I don't like to have lots of activity around me.
34.	I am interested only in what I need to know.
35.	I like meeting people who give me new ideas.
36.	I would be content to live in the same house for the rest of my life.
37.	I like continually changing activities.
38.	I like a job that offers change, variety, and travel even if it involves some danger.
39.	I avoid busy, noisy places.
40.	I like to look at pictures that are puzzling in some way.

Sacle Published In:

Mehrabian, A. & Russell, J.A., (1974). *An Approach to Environmental Psychology*, Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Appendix 4

Existing 40 Item Measure of Arousal Seeking Tendency

INSTRUCTION TO RATERS

The existing 40 item scale below measures a construct entitled 'Arousal Seeking Tendency' or AST. Different people prefer different levels of arousal e.g. a calm and regulated setting as opposed to a novel, changing, or unpredictable setting. By measuring people's AST their preferred arousal levels can be determined.

My PhD research focuses on aspects of personality related to the success and satisfaction of expatriate managers, these are managers posted on foreign assignments.

I predict that aspects of personality related to AST will influence the expatriate manager experience. However, this existing 40 item scale can not be administered in its current state. As it is, the scale incorporates questions that comprise a number of different factors, some of which may not be relevant to assessing whether an expatriate manager is likely to be successful and/or satisfied.

This is where you come in!

Please rate each item listed below for its relevance in assessing whether a manager is likely to perform successfully and be satisfied with the foreign assignment experience. Please indicate your rating by placing a "X" mark in the appropriate column. You may rate each item anywhere on the scale provided. There are no right or wrong answers for any item. What we are interested in knowing is your assessment of the relevance of each statement to measure the construct in question.

Thank you so much for taking the time to help me and for sharing your insights.

Your participation is much appreciated!

Natalie Vladi

Appendix 5

Bivariate Correlation Table of All Measures Used in the Study

Table 61

Descriptive statistics, internal consistency values and inter-correlations for variables in Study

		M	SD	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
1	Pre-departure Training	11,79	4,33	.92	1													
2	Organization Support	24,18	4,60	.50	.40**	1												
3	Preparation for Next Role	22,04	7,70	.85	.08	.43**	1											
4	Self Monitoring	39,55	2,86	.43	.02	.10	.13	1										
5	Tolerance of Ambiguity	50,91	8,39	.55	.13	.05	.06	-.03	1									
6	Ethnocentricity	26,39	6,27	.83	-.08	-.12	-.01	-.03	.31**	1								
7	Novelty Seeking	60,32	8,33	.79	.06	.02	-.00	.04	-.35**	-.17	1							
8	Work Adjustment	16,61	3,17	.79	.15	.02	-.04	-.06	-.19*	-.25**	.15	1						
9	Interaction Adjustment	10,36	2,73	.82	.18*	-.01	-.08	-.08	-.03	-.15	.05	.71**	1					
10	General Adjustment	32,86	4,33	.81	.14	.12	-.10	-.06	-.14	-.24**	-.05	.48**	.52**	1				
11	Sat. Life Abroad	10,48	4,33	.51	.18*	.38**	.06	-.05	-.04	-.16	-.12	.07	.14	.42**	1			
12	Sat. Assignment	54,45	5,89	.70	.07	.23**	.21*	.07	-.11	-.34**	.07	.40**	.26**	.31**	.28**	1		
13	Sat. Personal Conseq.	40,61	6,68	.63	.15	.31**	.60*	.15	-.00	-.13	.13	-.07	-.15	-.09	.13	.31**	1	
14	Affective Commitment	39,37	8,05	.87	.15	.23*	.22*	.02	.11	.02	-.07	.14	.10	.11	.10	.12	.23*	1

Appendix 6

Measurement Scales

Table 62

Scales of measurement involved in the research study

Variables Involved	Measurement Level	Scaling Used	Reliability/Validity Information	Data analysis to test hypotheses involving this variable
Independent Variables-Organizational				
Pre-departure. Training (3 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.92 Chi-square, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, GFI: Each is a perfect fit	Pearsonian Correlation
Preparation for Next Role (5 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.85 Chi-square 13.10, RMSEA 0.09, SRMR 0.038, CFI 0.98, GFI 0.96.	Pearsonian Correlation
Organization Support (5 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.50 Chi-square, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, GFI.	Pearsonian Correlation
Independent Variables-Manager Related				
Self-Monitoring	Ordinal	True/Mostly True False/Mostly False	Cronbach's alpha 0.43	Pearsonian Correlation
Tolerance of Ambiguity	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.55	Pearsonian Correlation
Ethnocentricity	Summative Response Scale	5 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.83	Pearsonian Correlation
Novelty Seeking	Summative Response Scale	9 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.79	Pearsonian Correlation

Multilingualism	Ordinal	5 point rank order	N/A	Non-parametric: Pearson Chi-Square
Extent of Foreign Travel	Ordinal	4 point rank order	N/A	Non-parametric: Pearson Chi-Square
Prior Experience Working Abroad	Ordinal	6 point rank order	N/A	Non-parametric: Pearson Chi-Square
Prior Experience Living Abroad	Nominal (Categorical)	Dichotomous	N/A	Non-parametric: Pearson Chi-Square
Mediating Variable				
Work Adjustment	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.79	Pearsonian Correlation for the hypothesis test. In the test of mediation Bollen-Stine Bootstrap is measured as are X^2 , RMSEA, SRMR, and CFI.
Interaction Adjustment	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.82	
General Adjustment	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.81	
Overall Adjustment	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.87	
Dependent Variables				
Affective Commitment	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.87	Pearsonian Correlation
Satis. with the Assignment (9 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.70 Chi-square 47.80, RMSEA 0.077, SRMR 0.063, CFI 0.95, GFI 0.92.	Pearsonian Correlation
Satis. with Life Abroad (2 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.51 Chi-square, RMSEA, SRMR, CFI, GFI	Pearsonian Correlation
Satis. with Personal Consequences (8 items)	Summative Response Scale	7 point Likert	Cronbach's alpha 0.63 Chi-square 65.32, RMSEA 0.13, SRMR 0.098, CFI 0.80, GFI 0.89.	Pearsonian Correlation
Completion of the Assignment	Nominal (Categorical)	Dichotomous	N/A	Non-parametric: Pearson Chi-Square

Appendix 7
Correction for Attenuation

Table 63
Correction for Attenuation for relevant hypotheses

		Partial Correlation	Zero- Order Correlation	Correction Attenuation
H1b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	.104 (.249)	.226 (.011)	.343
H2b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	-.060 (.505)	-.016 (.857)	-.023
H3a	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad	.341 (.000)	.384 (.000)	.760
H4	Prep. for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Sat. with the Personal Consequences of the Ass.	.598 (.000)	.598 (.000)	.817
H5a	Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction Life Abroad	-.155 (-.086)	-.118 (190)	-.186
H5b	Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction Life Abroad	.076 (.401)	-.036 (.689)	-.068
H7	Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment.	.057 (.527)	.057 (.527)	.087

H8a	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	-.014 (.881)	-.041 (.651)	-.057
H8c	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.086 (.349)	.040 (.654)	.050
H8d	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	-.068 (.455)	-.136 (.128)	-.190
H8f	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.018 (.846)	-.125 (.161)	-.157
H8g	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	.104 (.255)	.115 (.199)	.161
H8i	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.230 (.011)	.216 (.015)	.272
H10a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will positively influence the completion of the assignment	-.113 (.210)	-.098 (.274)	-.137
H10c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment	.088 (.333)	.085 (.343)	.107
H11a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment.	.059 (.518)	.097 (.278)	.146
H11c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	.200 (.026)	.228 (.010)	.308

Appendix 8

PharmaCorp Email Invitation to Entire 355 Person Address Block

Dear Colleagues,

Allow me to briefly introduce myself before I jump in and ask for your help.

My name is Natalie Vladi and I have been working for GlaxoSmithKline in Munich, Germany since early 2001 in the areas of marketing and product management. Currently I am in the process of earning my PhD in Business Administration at Saint Mary's University in Canada. I am on a short academic leave from GSK to complete my doctoral thesis work.

I invite you to participate in my research which explores factors that influence the satisfaction of managers working on foreign assignments and the assignment outcome.

PharmaCorp provided me with the email addresses of all colleagues who completed a foreign work assignment within the last five years. This study involves completing a web-based survey asking you to respond to statements relating to your most recent foreign assignment. Your expertise is needed! The results of this research will contribute to helping organizations optimise managers' satisfaction with foreign assignments as well as assignment outcome.

All information obtained will be kept strictly anonymous. Your participation is completely voluntary. I will not be able to or attempt to match responses to individuals. The results of this study will be presented as group findings. To ensure the integrity of the data sets I kindly ask that you do not omit items when answering.

Please respond to this survey by September 12th 2006. The expected survey completion time is 30 minutes. Of course I know that helping me with my research takes time out of your already busy schedules – all the more reason why I would so appreciate your participation.

By February 1st 2007 the results from this survey should have been analyzed and compiled at which time I would be happy to provide you with a summary of findings. I can be contacted by email at natalievladi@hotmail.com (I will not be able to access my GSK email account while on academic leave).

I am required to inform you that this research has been reviewed and approved by the Saint Mary's University Research Ethics Board and that you may contact Dr. Veronica Stinson (Chair of the Research Ethics Board) at ethics@smu.ca. Should you have any questions regarding the ethics approval process, I am so hoping that you will agree to help me.

Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,
Natalie Vladi

You should be able to enter the web-based survey by clicking on the link below.

Should this not be the case I kindly ask that you copy and paste the link in to your internet address window.

<http://athena.smu.ca/survey/assignments/gsk.htm>

Appendix 9

Introduction to the Survey Instrument – Signed Thesis Supervisor and Doctoral Candidate

The Foreign Assignment Experience

Ever increasing global competition and emergence of new world markets have made it imperative to identify and develop managers who can effectively cope with turbulent and culturally dissimilar environments. Today's expatriate managers must live thousands of kilometers away from their homes, adapt to alien settings, continually learn and respond to fast changing market requirements and be effective in their responses to various constituents.

Past research findings indicate that successful expatriate managers share some common attributes and training. Research studies also indicate that successful expatriate assignments share specific organizational systems and practices. However, most such research has been done in piece-meal fashion. Very few studies, if any, have looked at the impact of organizational, individual and assignment attributes on the successful completion of foreign assignments. The present study aims to fill this gap. The present study also attempts to assess the impact of foreign assignments on the expatriate managers—how the assignment changed their lives and attitudes and how successful the employer was in taking advantage of their new learning. Hopefully, the findings from this study will help your employer to fine tune own systems and contribute to the discipline of management by providing additional information on successful foreign assignments.

It will only take approximately 30 minutes to complete the survey. No one except the research staff shall see your responses. You are not required to provide your name or other identifying information anywhere in this survey. You may also choose not to answer specific questions in the survey.

There are no right or wrong answers for any of the questions in this survey. We are interested in your frank opinions and learning about your experiences. The more varied the responses, the more likely they represent the reality.

We hope you will decide to participate and find the time to complete the entire survey. A brief summary of key findings will be available from the researcher after January 1, 2007. This survey is a part of the doctoral dissertation of Natalie Vladi. If you need any additional information on this research you can contact her or her thesis supervisor at the address below.

Thank you for your assistance.

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Although we believe it is extremely unlikely, some people may experience adverse effects as a result of participation in this research. Should you have this experience, the Saint Mary's University Research Ethics Board suggests you contact your health care provider and requests that you notify the primary researcher.

By clicking on the button at the bottom of this page ("Next") you are confirming your agreement to participate in this study, and acknowledge that you have read and understand the information regarding participation in this research study. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigators, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities.

Thank you again for your assistance in filling out this survey.

Appendix 10

PharmaCorp Reminder and Thank You Email sent to 273 Valid Addresses

Dear Colleagues,

One week ago, you received an email invitation from me to participate in web-based survey research. The research focuses on the impact of organizational, individual, and assignment attributes on the successful completion of foreign assignments. This research also attempts to assess the impact of foreign assignments on the expatriate managers.

Since the survey results are received anonymously, I can not know whether or not you completed the survey.

If you did complete the web-based survey, I sincerely thank you for your willingness to help me with my doctoral research work. I realize that completing the survey was time consuming and cut in to what I know is your extremely busy work schedule. I very much appreciate your efforts. Your contribution will help to ensure the validity and generalizability of the findings to all expatriate managers in this company.

If you did not yet complete the web-based survey, I kindly remind you that there is still time. Since you are part of a carefully selected sample of respondents, your response to this survey is critical for formulating valid conclusions. The link to the web-based survey is attached below.

You should be able to enter the web-based survey by clicking on the link. Should this not be the case I kindly ask that you copy and paste the link in to your internet address window.

<http://athena.smu.ca/survey/assignments/gsk.htm>

Many thanks.

Sincerely,

Natalie Vladi

Appendix 11

Demographic Breakdown of Sample

Question 1 (N=126)

How many foreign assignments lasting longer than one year have you been on with this organization?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent without missings
Missings	11	8.7	
1	79	62.7	68.7
2	23	18.3	20.0
3	9	7.1	7.8
4	1	.8	.9
5	1	.8	.9
>5	2	1.6	1.7

If you have taken part in more than one foreign assignment, please continue. Otherwise, please go to question 3.

Question 2 (N=39)

How was your LAST [completed] foreign assignment compared to previous foreign assignments you had taken part?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
It was a lot harder than previous assignments	6	15.4
It was harder than previous assignments	12	30.8
It was about the same in overall difficulty as previous ones	11	28.2
It was easier than previous assignments	7	17.9
It was a lot easier than previous assignments	3	7.7

Question 3 (N=126)

How long were you employed in this organization (in any capacity) when you began your LAST foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	1	.8	
Less than 1 year	3	2.4	2.4
1 Year	5	4.0	4.0
2 Years	7	5.6	5.6
3 Years	8	6.3	6.4
4 Years	6	4.8	4.8
5 Years	12	9.5	9.6
6-9 Years	39	31.0	31.2
10 Years or longer	45	35.7	36.0

Question 4 (N=126)

How long ago did you complete your LATEST foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
Less than 1 year	1	.8
1 year	32	25.4
2 years	12	9.5
3 years	30	23.8
4 years	36	28.6
5 years	14	11.1
More than 5 years	1	.8

Question 5a (N=126)

What was the duration of your last foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
Less than 1 year	29	23.0
1 year	17	13.5
2 years	32	25.4
3 years	30	23.8
4 years	8	6.3
5 years	6	4.8
More than 5 years	4	3.2

Question 5b

If it is less than 1 year, approximately, how long was the duration in months?

Months: _____

Question 6a (N=126)

What is your opinion about the duration of your last foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
It was too long	5	4.0
It was just the right length	93	73.8
It was too short	28	22.2

Question 6b

If you do not consider the length of your last assignment to have been appropriate, what in your opinion would have been an ideal length to achieve assignment goals?

Years: _____

Months: _____

Question 7 (N=126)

Did your organization enable you to visit the country of your last foreign assignment **BEFORE** your decision to take part in the assignment had to be made?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	1	.8	
Yes	97	77.0	77.6
No	28	22.2	22.4

Question 8 (N=126)

Did you complete your last foreign assignment in it's entirety?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	108	85.7
No	18	14.3

Question 9 (N=126)

Did you complete your last foreign assignment on schedule? (N=126)

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	22	17.5	
Yes	90	71.4	86.5
No	14	11.1	13.5

Question 10 (N=126)

This question concerns the budget that was allocated by your employer for the foreign assignment. Did you stay within the limits of the allocated budget for the foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	29	23.0	
The assignment ended up being over budget	3	2.4	3.09
The assignment ended up being on budget	87	69.0	89.7
The assignment ended up being under budget	7	5.6	7.2

Question 11

Which country were you employed in BEFORE taking part in your last foreign assignment?

Country: _____

Question 12

Which country did your LAST foreign assignment take place in?

Country: _____

Question 13

Which country did you move to AFTER completing your last foreign assignment?

Country: _____

Question 14a

Which of the following types of training did you receive in connection with your LATEST foreign assignment? Please choose the relevant items. Do not include any training you received for earlier assignments.

	Before departing	After departing	Summed
Language training	12	51	63
Orientation to socio-cultural norms (e.g., role of women) in the new (host) country	23	42	65
Etiquettes (e.g., shaking hand) in the host country	23	27	50
Information on economic facts (e.g., standard of living)	40	22	62
Appropriate leadership styles in light of country culture	14	29	43
The norms or 'rules' of team interaction	14	26	40
Information for everyday living, (e.g., quality of schools)	43	42	85

Question 14b

Were there any other types of training that you received in connection with your LATEST foreign assignment that are ***not on the above list***? If yes, please list them below:*

- 1 Driving lessons
- 2 Language lessons
- 3 Financial management course/Tax equalization
- 4 Resilience training
- 5 Setting up house
- 6 Building a network

*The researcher has included the top 6 answers that were given in random order

Question 15

Are there other topics on which you would have liked to receive training but you did not? If yes, please list them below:*

- 1 Cultural training – general and business
- 2 Language lessons
- 3 Leadership/Rules of team interaction
- 4 Driving lessons
- 5 How expenses work
- 6 Economic facts/Tax situation

*The researcher has included the top 6 answers that were given in random order

Question 16

In your decision to go on the LAST foreign assignment, to what extent did the following factors influence your choice? Please choose your rating by selecting the appropriate response to the right of each item. There are no right or wrong answers to any question as different people value different things.

Responses could range between 1 (not important) and 5 (extremely important)

Motivating Factor	Mean	Standard Deviation
Pay and other monetary rewards (e.g. salary adjustment, relocation bonus)	2.87	1.24
Opportunity for career advancement as a result of international experience	4.28	1.00
Opportunity for personal development	4.61	.55
The challenge associated with doing a project or assignment abroad	4.18	.96
Opportunity to learn about other cultures and to meet diverse people	3.95	1.09
Opportunity to fulfill my wish to live abroad	3.23	1.42
Opportunity to fulfill my family's wish to live abroad	1.93	1.32

Questions 17-23 (incl.): Tabular results for these previously discussed measures are included in the main body of the paper.

Question 24a

What was your age at the start of you LAST assignment?

Factor	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Standard Deviation
Age	24	53	37.99	6.15

Question 24b (N=125)

Sex	Frequency	Valid Percent
Male	91	72.80
Female	34	27.20

Question 24c

What is your nationality?

Nationality: _____

Question 24d1

Did you have a spouse at the time of your last foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	4	3.2	
Yes	89	70.6	73.0
No	33	26.2	27.0

Question 24d2

*If "Yes", did your spouse accompany you on your last foreign assignment?**

Response	Frequency
Yes	77
No	22

*Theoretically if only 89 managers had a spouse it is not sensical to get 99 responses

Question 24e1

Did you have a child at the time of the foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	5	4.0	
Yes	61	48.4	50.4
No	60	47.6	49.6

Question 24e2

*If "Yes", did your child accompany you on the foreign assignment?**

Response	Frequency
Yes	52
No	20

*Theoretically if only 61 managers had a spouse it is not sensical to get 72 responses

Question 24e3

If you had a child [or children] at the time of your last assignment, approximately, what were their ages?

Child 1 _____
 Child 2 _____
 Child 3 _____
 Child 4 _____
 Child 5 _____
 Child 6 _____

Question 24f

What was the highest degree/education that you had earned by the time of the assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	4	3.2	
School certificate or lower	2	1.6	1.6
Other certificate or diploma	1	.8	.8
Some university education	4	3.2	3.3
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	48	38.1	39.3
Professional designation (e.g. CA)	13	10.3	10.7
Master's degree	30	23.8	24.6
Ph.D. degree or higher	24	19.0	19.7

Question 24g

What is your "mother tongue" or native language?

Language: _____

Question 24h1 (N=124)

Number of languages you speak:

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	2	1.6	
1	47	37.3	37.9
2	50	39.7	40.3
3	22	17.5	17.7
4	4	3.2	3.2
5 or more	1	.8	.81

Question 24h2

Number of languages you read

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	4	3.2	
1	46	36.5	37.7
2	49	38.9	40.2
3	18	14.3	14.8
4	6	4.8	4.9
5 or more	3	2.4	2.5

Question 24h3

Number of languages you write

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	4	3.2	
1	60	47.6	49.2
2	45	35.7	36.9
3	15	11.9	12.3
4	2	1.6	1.6
5 or more	4	3.2	3.3

Question 24i (N=86)

Please answer this question if you speak, read, or write more than one language.

Do all of the languages you speak, read, or write belong to the same group of languages? For example, Swedish, Norwegian, and Danish are grouped as continental Scandinavian languages.

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	40	31.7	
Yes	17	13.5	19.76
No	69	54.8	80.23

Question 24j (N=124)

Were you sufficiently well versed in the language of the country of your last foreign assignment to conduct day-to-day activities outside of the workplace in that language?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	2	1.6	
Yes	70	55.6	56.45
Partially	32	25.4	20.48
No	22	17.5	17.74

Question 24k1 (N=126)

Prior to the foreign assignment had you lived in a country (for six months or longer) other than the one in which you were born?

Reponse	Frequency	Valid Percent
Yes	66	52.4
No	60	47.6

Question 24k2

If "Yes", in how many countries EXCLUDING your birth country did you live in and for how long in total?

- ☐ 1 Country, Years total: _____
- ☐ 2 Countries, Years total: _____
- ☐ 3 Countries, Years total: _____
- ☐ 4 Countries, Years total: _____
- ☐ 5 or more Countries, Years total: _____

Question 24l (N=124)

Which of the following statements applied to you at the time you went on your last foreign assignment?

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	2	1.6	
I had not traveled outside of the country of my origin before my foreign assignment	0	0	0
I had traveled some, mainly in countries closest to the country of my origin	10	7.9	8.1
I had traveled to one foreign continent	15	11.9	12.1
I had traveled to two or more foreign continents	99	78.6	79.8

Question 24o

Please check the appropriate boxes to indicate the occupation of your parents (if retired please refer to the occupation carried out prior).

Father

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	1	.8	
Managerial	68	54.0	54.4
Non-Managerial	33	26.2	26.4
Self Employed	22	17.5	17.6
Not Employed	2	1.6	1.6

Mother

Response	Frequency	Valid Percent	Valid Percent Without Missings
Blank	1	.8	
Managerial	12	9.5	9.6
Non-Managerial	55	43.7	44.0
Self Employed	13	10.3	10.4
Not Employed	45	35.7	36

Appendix 12

Independent Samples Test and MANOVA – Prior Foreign Assignment

Prior Foreign Assignment and Affective Commitment

Table 64

Group Statistics

	Prior_Assignment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Affective Commitment	1.00 (Yes)	79	38.71	8.635	.972
	2.00 (No)	36	40.11	6.769	1.128

Table 65

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Affective Commitment	Equal variances assumed	3.400	.068	-.861	113	.391
	Equal variances not assumed			-.942	85.152	.349

Prior Foreign Assignment and Completion of the Assignment

Table 66

Group Statistics

	Prior_Assignment	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Was FA Completed in entirety	1.00 (Yes)	79	1.09	.286	.032
	2.00 (No)	36	1.31	.467	.078

Table 67
Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Was FA Completed in entirety	Equal variances assumed	35.275	.000	-3.063	113	.003
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.575	47.355	.013

Prior Foreign Assignment and Satisfaction

Table 68
Descriptive Statistics

	Prior Assignment	Mean	Std. Dev.	N
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	1.00 (Yes)	10.67	2.395	79
	2.00 (No)	9.97	2.803	36
	Total	10.45	2.538	115
Satisfaction with Assignment	1.00 (Yes)	54.15	6.624	79
	2.00 (No)	54.83	4.424	36
	Total	54.37	6.011	115
PC8	1.00 (Yes)	40.4810	6.90570	79
	2.00 (No)	39.8611	6.52535	36
	Total	40.2870	6.76649	115

Table 69

Tests of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Dependent Variable	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
Corrected Model	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	12.072(a)	1	12.072	1.888	.172	.016
	Satisfaction with Assignment	11.484(b)	1	11.484	.316	.575	.003
	PC8	9.503(c)	1	9.503	.206	.651	.002
Intercept	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	10538.576	1	10538.576	1648.441	.000	.936
	Satisfaction with Assignment	293742.684	1	293742.684	8081.688	.000	.986
	PC8	159631.416	1	159631.416	3462.237	.000	.968
Prior_Assign.	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	12.072	1	12.072	1.888	.172	.016
	Satisfaction with Assignment	11.484	1	11.484	.316	.575	.003
	PC8	9.503	1	9.503	.206	.651	.002
Error	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	722.415	113	6.393			
	Satisfaction with Assignment	4107.177	113	36.347			
	PC8	5210.027	113	46.106			
Total	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	13298.000	115				
	Satisfaction with Assignment	344010.000	115				
	PC8	191869.000	115				
Corrected Total	Satisfaction with Life Abroad	734.487	114				
	Satisfaction with Assignment	4118.661	114				
	PC8	5219.530	114				

a R Squared = ,016 (Adjusted R Squared = ,008)

b R Squared = ,003 (Adjusted R Squared = -,006)

c R Squared = ,002 (Adjusted R Squared = -,007)

Appendix 13

Assessment of Normality of Measures – Supporting Statistics and Q-Q Plots

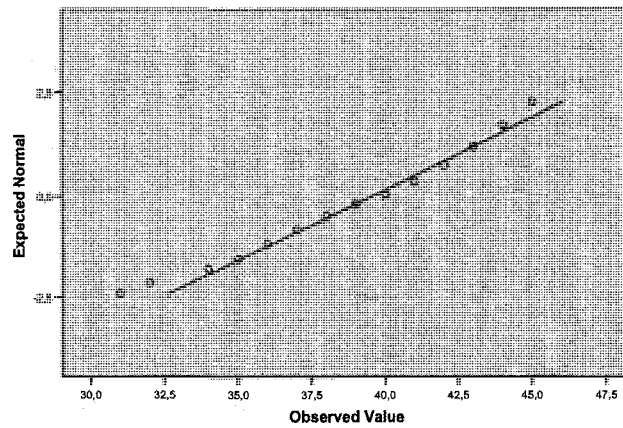
Table 70

Skewness and Kurtosis Values for Measures Utilized in the Research

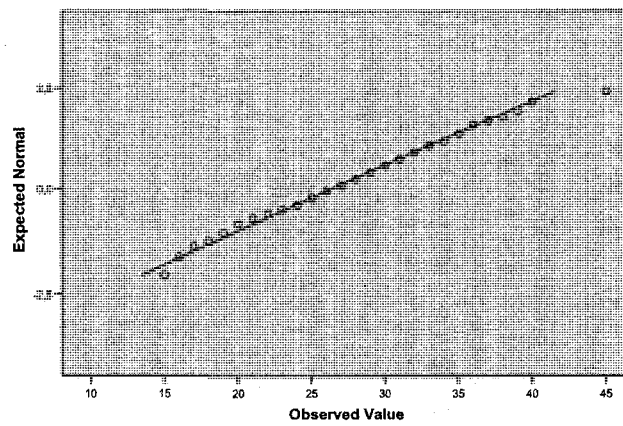
	Skewness	Std. Error of Skewness	Kurtosis	Std. Error of Kurtosis
Self Monitoring	-.377	.216	-.284	.428
Ethnocentricity	.167	.216	-.346	.428
Intolerance	-.569	.216	.554	.428
Novelty Seeking	-.644	.216	.602	.428
Pre-departure Training	-.121	.216	-.919	.428
Organization Support	-.313	.216	.301	.428
Next Role	-.454	.216	-.737	.428
Work Adjustment	-.626	.216	-.103	.428
Interaction Adjustment	-.842	.216	.589	.428
General Adjustment	-.494	.216	-.538	.428
Adjustment Overall	-.379	.216	-.485	.428
Satisfaction with Life Abroad	-.932	.216	.685	.428
Satisfaction with Assignment	-1.068	.216	1.306	.428
PC8	-.329	.216	-.453	.428
Affective Commitment	-.598	.216	.171	.428

Q-Q Plots for Measures Utilized in the Research

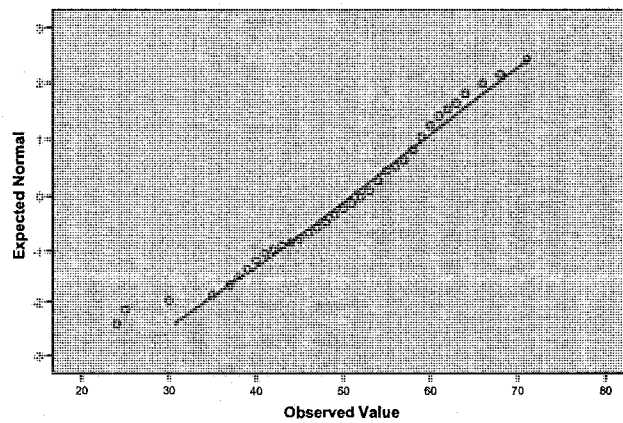
Normal Q-Q Plot of Self Monitoring



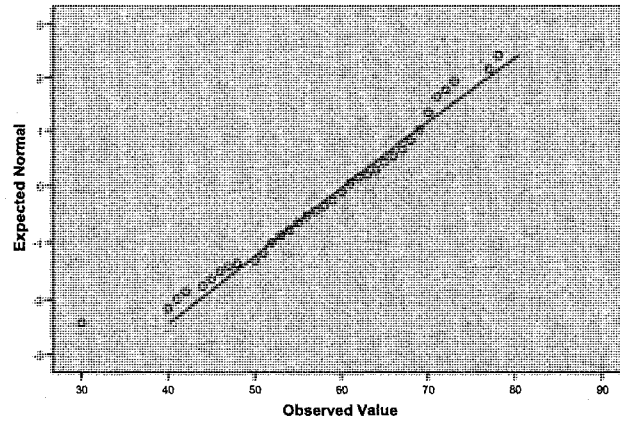
Normal Q-Q Plot of Ethnocentricity



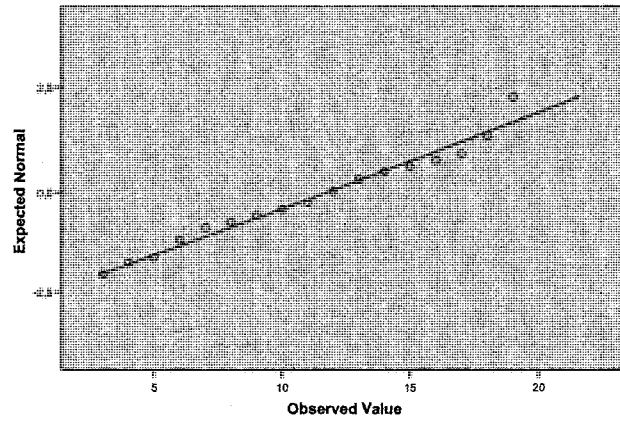
Normal Q-Q Plot of Intolerance



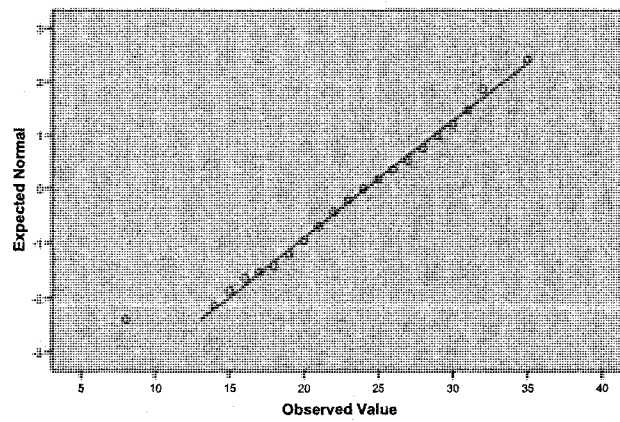
Normal Q-Q Plot of Novelty Seeking



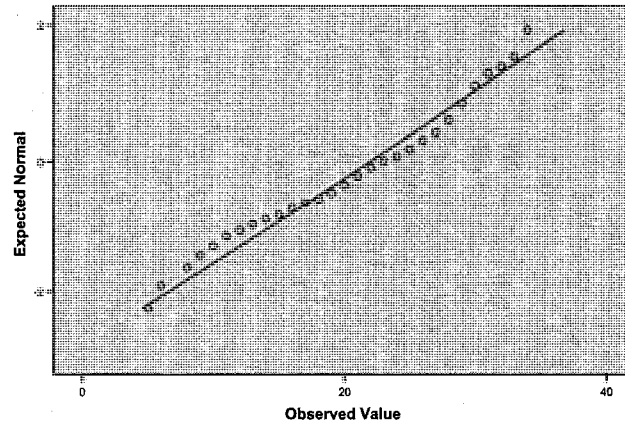
Normal Q-Q Plot of Pre-departure Training



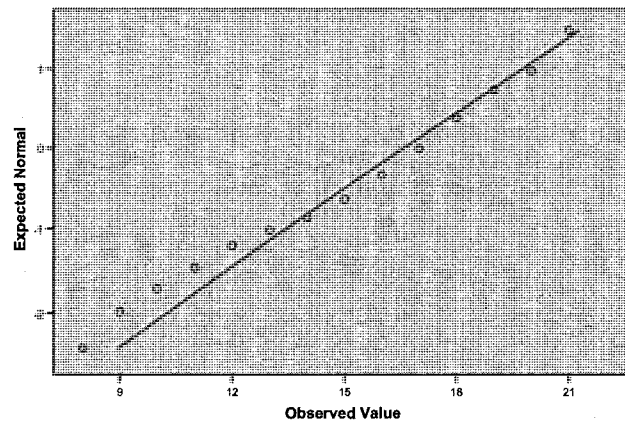
Normal Q-Q Plot of Organization Support



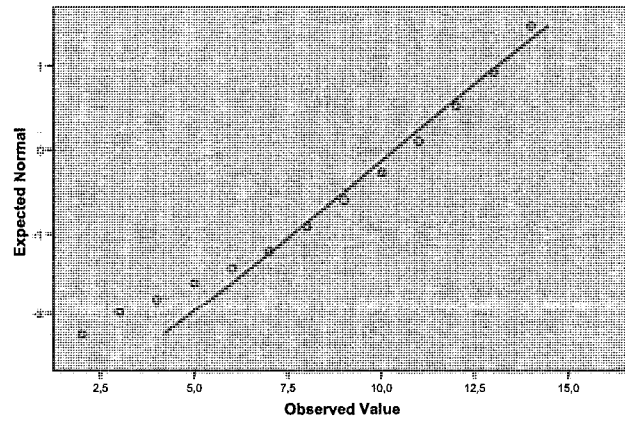
Normal Q-Q Plot of Next Role



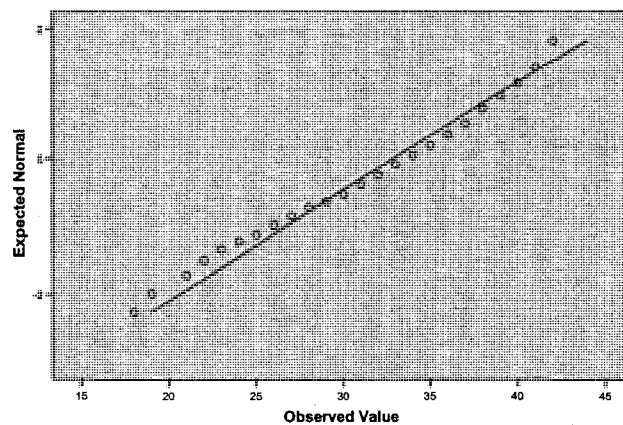
Normal Q-Q Plot of Work Adjustment



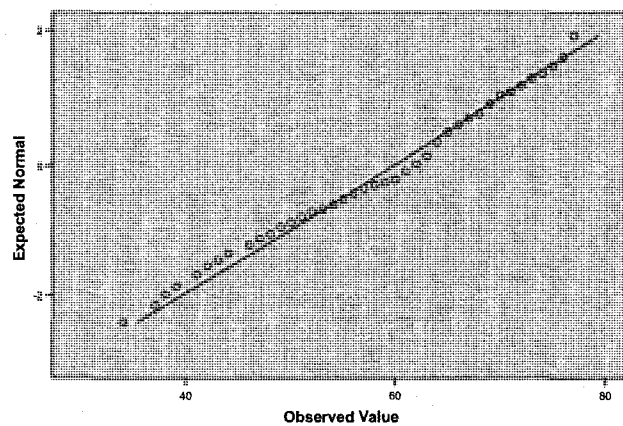
Normal Q-Q Plot of Interaction Adjustment



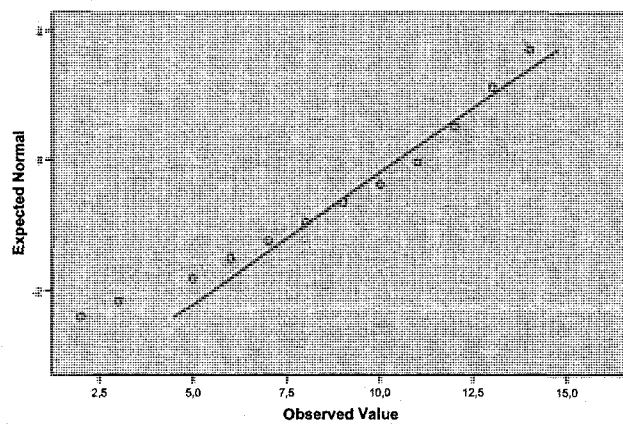
Normal Q-Q Plot of General Adjustment



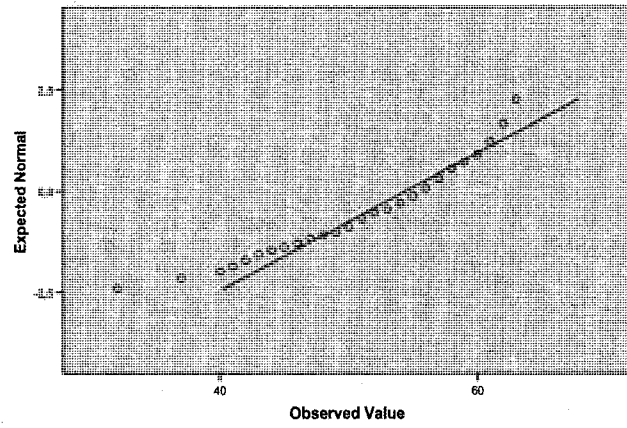
Normal Q-Q Plot of Adjustment_Overall



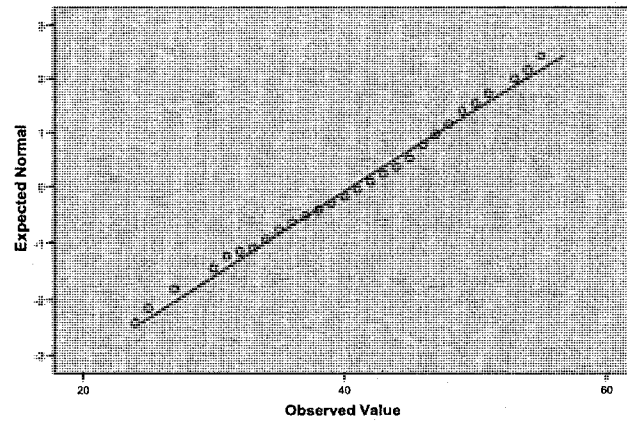
Normal Q-Q Plot of Satisfaction with Life Abroad



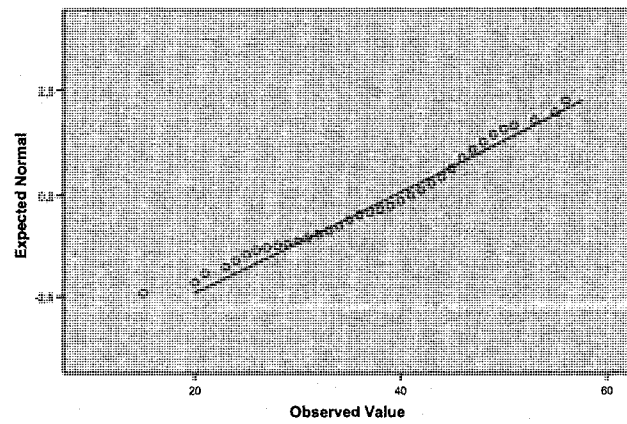
Normal Q-Q Plot of Satisfaction with Assignment



Normal Q-Q Plot of PC8



Normal Q-Q Plot of Affective Commitment



Appendix 14

Summary Results of Zero-Order and Partial Correlation Hypotheses Testing

Table 71

Results of zero-order and partial correlation testing

		Partial Correlation	Zero-Order Correlation
H1a	Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	.087 (.335)	.154 (.086)
H1b*	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	.104 (.249)	.226 (.011)
H1c*	Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to a manager's Affective Commitment	.146 (.105)	.217 (.014)
H2a	Pre-departure Training will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	-.030 (.593)	-.048 (.593)
H2b	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	-.060 (.505)	-.016 (.857)
H2c	Preparation for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to completing the assignment	.145 (.107)	.128 (.153)
H3a	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with Life Abroad	.341 (.000)	.384 (.000)
H3b*	Organization Support will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment	.137 (.128)	.230 (.010)
H4	Prep. for Next Role will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Sat. with the Personal Consequences of the Ass.	.598 (.000)	.598 (.000)
H5a	Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction Life Abroad	-.155 (-.086)	-.118 (.190)
H5b	Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction Life Abroad	.076 (.401)	-.036 (.689)
H5c	Novelty Seeking will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Assignment	-.060 (.509)	.068 (.450)

H5d	Tolerance of Ambiguity will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction Assignment	-.067 (.462)	-.106 (.238)
H6a	Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	-.311 (.000)	-.335 (.000)
H6b	Ethnocentricity will be directly and negatively correlated to Interaction Adjustment	.066 (.462)	-.147 (.100)
H7	Self-Monitoring will be directly and positively related to completing the assignment.	.057 (.527)	.057 (.527)
H8a	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	-.014 (.881)	-.041 (.651)
H8b	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	-.112 (.220)	-.090 (.318)
H8c	Multilingualism will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.086 (.349)	.040 (.654)
H8d	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	-.068 (.455)	-.136 (.128)
H8e	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	-.124 (.172)	-.142 (.112)
H8f	Foreign Travel will be directly and positively correlated to satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.018 (.846)	-.125 (.161)
H8g	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with Life Abroad	.104 (.255)	.115 (.199)
H8h*	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Assignment	-.180 (.048)	-.044 (.627)
H8i	Prior Living Abroad will be directly and positively correlated to Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences	.230 (.011)	.216 (.015)
H9	Having taken part in a prior assignment abroad will be directly and positively correlated to the manager's Satisfaction with the Personal Consequences of the Assignment.	-.080 (.371)	-.080 (.371)
H10a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will positively influence the completion of the assignment	-.113 (.210)	-.098 (.274)
H10b	Satisfaction with Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment	.025 (.779)	.023 (.801)

H10c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will positively influence the completion of the assignment	.088 (.333)	.085 (.343)
H11a	Satisfaction with Life Abroad will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment.	.059 (.518)	.097 (.278)
H11b	Satisfaction with Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	.037 (.685)	.121 (.178)
H11c	Satisfaction Personal Consequences of the Assignment will directly, positively, and significantly influence their degree of affective commitment	.200 (.026)	.228 (.010)

* Hypotheses for which the results of the zero-order versus the partial correlations differed

Appendix 15

A Comparison of Multiple Testing Corrections

Table 72

Bonferroni and FDR Corrections

	Hypotheses for which null was rejected (without multiple testing corrections)	p .05 No Correction	p .026 FDR Correction	P .007 Bonferroni Correction
H1b	Organization Support and Affective Commitment	.226 (.011)	.011 < .026	.011 > .007
H1c	Prep. for Next Role and Affective Commitment	.217 (.014)	.014 < .026	.014 > .007
H3a	Organization Support and Sat. with Life	.384 (.000)	.000 < .026	.000 < .007
H3b	Organization Support and Sat. with Assignment	.283 (.000)	.000 < .026	.000 < .007
H4	Prep. For Next Role and Sat. Personal Conseq.	.598 (.000)	.000 < .026	.000 < .007
H6a	Ethnocentricity and Sat. with Assignment	-.335 (.000)	.000 < .026	.000 < .007
H8i	Prior Living Abroad and Sat. Personal Conseq.	.216 (.013)	.013 < .026	.013 > .007
H11c	Sat. Personal Conseq. and Affective Commitment	.228 (.010)	.010 < .026	.010 > .007

Appendix 16

Interview script for the telephone interviews conducted with PharmaCorp managers who had completed an expatriate assignment

- 1) **How would you define “success” of a foreign assignment? In your mind which factors make a foreign assignment successful from a personal and a professional perspective?**
Probe: Based on you interactions with other expatriates (not necessarily from PharmaCorp) and feedback received from them, what other factors would seem to define success or failure of an assignment?
- 1) **What competencies are critical for an expatriate manager?**
- 2) **Can you provide me with some dos and don'ts for a successful stay abroad?**
Probe: What advice would you give to another manager who is going to do a similar project abroad?
- 3) **What is the single most positive outcome of your stay abroad?**
- 4) **What was the single most challenging item during your last stay abroad?**
Probe: Were you prepared for this? Did PharmaCorp prepare you?
- 5) **What in you opinion would result in greater loyalty and commitment on the part of expatriates toward PharmaCorp (on return)?**
- 6) **Was pre-departure training provided**
Probe: Could you please tell me a little about the training received? Did you go in to the training provided with a keen, positive attitude/expectation?
- 7) **Did the training offer you adequate information on all relevant matters?**
Probe: Were there circumstances during the foreign assignment not covered by training? Did the usefulness of the training change at different stages of the assignment (e.g. more useful toward start/middle/end of the foreign assignment?)
- 8) **What role do you think personality traits play in the foreign assignment experience?**
(Note to self: Tolerance of Ambiguity, Self-Monitoring, Novelty Seeking are of particular interest)
Probe: Does personality influence satisfaction, ability to adjust or other?
- 10) **Follow-up question: Our research found that certain personality traits explored were not a good predictor of the assignment outcomes. In your opinion why would this have happened?**

Appendix 17

List of Figures

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- Figure 5: Items forming part of the scale “Intolerance of Ambiguity”
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- Figure 11: Mediation vs. Direct Effect
- Figure 12: AMOS Direct Effect Model
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- Figure 16: AMOS Direct Effect Model with Results (m and s fixed at 0)
- Figure 17: AMOS Mediation Model with Results (as Figure 15)
- Figure 18: AMOS Direct Effect Model with Results (as Figure 16)

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