ESSAYS ON NEW AND TRADITIONAL FORMS OF EXPATRIATION: TEMPORALITY, SELF AND ADJUSTMENT

Heidi Wechtler

Bachelor's degree, *Magna cum laude*,

Master's degree, *Summa cum laude*,

Evry Val d'Essonne, France

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Supervised by

Associate Professor Peter McGraw

Faculty of Business, University of Technology Sydney

Honorary Professor, Macquarie University

Associate Professor Yue Wang

Macquarie University

Macquarie University

Faculty of Business and Economics

Department of Marketing and Management

Sydney, Australia

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For my son Mano,

the brightest light in the darkest nights.

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SUMMARY

Adjustment to a new cultural environment, the extent of psychological comfort to this new cultural and work-related environment, often named as one of the key challenges in this process, is by nature a time-related concept as it takes time and effort for expatriates to go through the experience of entering a new cultural environment.

Three main topics of the expatriation literature that have attracted little attention are explored, that is, emotions, aspirations and time, to understand expatriate adjustment. Also three main factors, gender, age, and conditions of expatriation are integrated to refine the analyses. Altogether, I attempt to re-examine several aspects of expatriate adjustment with an event and subjective time perspective. Therefore, the main research question addressed in this thesis is how time and under-analyzed personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation.

This thesis consists of six interrelated essays, combining quantitative, qualitative, and systematic approaches, that attempt to bring new insights into the experience of expatriation from different angles: first the *self* and subjective dimension with emotions and aspirations, and moderated by expatriates' demographics (gender and age) and different forms of expatriation (self-initiated and assigned); and second, the *temporal* dimension, in gradually integrating time to the *self* dimension.

Taken together the essays show that emotional intelligence is not as favorable for women as it is for men in the process of adjustment, while socio-emotional selectivity theory brings new insights into the role of age in the relationship between emotions and adjustment. Person-environment fit theory allows to better understand of how career identity relates to adjustment. Yet, the search for authenticity dominates the notion of career in the adjustment process in the particular case of young female self-initiated expatriates. Expatriation reflects a transitional experience in ways such that the expatriate moves his/her frame of reference from monocultural to intercultural. Age, gender and type of expatriation (lifespan perspective, career continuum and new generation of expatriates) appear as important conditions to delimit time assumptions and understanding of expatriate adjustment over time.

Keywords: expatriation; adjustment; time; self; lifespan; gender; U-curve hypothesis.

STATEMENT OF CANDIDATE

I certify that the work in the thesis entitled *Essays on New and Traditional Forms of Expatriation: Temporality, Self and Adjustment* has not been previously been submitted for a degree nor has it been submitted as part of requirement for a degree to any other university or institution other than Macquarie University.

I also certify that the thesis is an original piece of research and it had been written by me. Any help and assistance that I have received in my research work and the preparation of the thesis itself have been appropriately acknowledged.

In addition, I certify that all information sources and literature used are indicated in the thesis.

Heidi Wechtler, Student Number: MQ43020100

20 May 2016

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When I started this enterprise, several senior researchers in International Business warned me that the field of expatriation had already reached its saturation point and there was not much to be said about it. Well, three years of work have shown that the more I read, the more questions and inspiration I found.

Although I found more questions than answers, this PhD has been a wonderful journey where I have had the chance to improve my research skills and become part of the academic community in general, and the international management community in particular. It has been a fruitful experience in many ways: international conferences, nominations for best papers, best paper and best reviewer awards, invitations to review, revisions and even some publications.

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To my new friends in Australia, incredible women and mothers who often reminded me that life is more than a few written pages: Simone Dovgvillo-Augustyn, Sabina Nielsen (Sydney Business School, Australia), and Cheng Smart who have been there at the best and worst times of this adventure, and Kim Farrell who appeared randomly in my life to manage to make me laugh and cry at the moment I needed it the most (the final step of this PhD). Thank you, for everything.

My thoughts go of course to Alexei Koveshnikov (Aalto University, Finland), the greatest co-author and friend who has had the patience to work with me, support me emotionally and professionally on bad days and cheer with me on good ones. It would take too long to thank you enough but maybe one of your favorite sentences will do: "I am glad you're here" (*there and everywhere*). None of this would have happened without you and I will be eternally grateful for the absence of Igor Kalinic (Leeds University Business School) from the Academy of International Business meeting in Nagoya in 2011 and the circumstances that followed: sitting at your table (again). Thank you for accompanying me in my crazy projects with crazy deadlines or unbearable working conditions without complaining (too much); thank you for dragging me into your crazy projects, too, with your incredible patience and (Russian) enthusiasm; thank you for tolerating my passionate (and very French) temper; thank you for pulling me a bit higher and higher every year. Thank you for all the memories strewn around the world. "*Boss*," I hope you know you are one of the reasons why I traveled so much. I do not know if we will make the world a better place but I know that you are helping me make a better life. I owe you so much that I may just add "*yellow blue bus*"[1]. May this collaboration last until retirement do us part because *I will still need you when you're 64*.

[1] Yes, only those who ever tried to learn Russian will understand…

OVERVIEW, SCOPE, AND STRUCTURE OF THE THESIS

Far better an approximate answer to the right question,
which is often vague,
than an exact answer to the wrong question,
which can always be made precise.
John Tuckey (1962)[2]

Thesis composition

This thesis by publication, entitled "*Essays on new and traditional forms of expatriation: temporality, self and adjustment*", investigates how time and personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation. This thesis is composed of six essays preceded by a substantial orientation chapter including: a general introduction, a short literature review, research gaps investigated in the thesis, the methodology, the main general findings, the contributions, and the limitations of this work.

[2] The future of data analysis. Annals of Mathematical Statistics 33 (1), (1962: 13).

Table I.1 presents the details of the six essays comprising the body of the thesis. Three studies have been published in A[3] journals (*Journal of World Business*, *International Business Review*, and *Management International Review*) and a fourth in the *Academy of Management Proceedings*. Three essays are currently under revision or review (in two A and one B journals).

Thus, this thesis gathers essays at different stages of development: the first three are published, while the last three are at an earlier stage in the process, having been submitted to a journal for the first "trial". Yet all six meet Macquarie University's requirements to be defined as a thesis by publication, which "*may include relevant papers, including conference presentations, which have been published, accepted, submitted or prepared for publication for which at least half of the research has been undertaken during enrolment*"[4].

TABLE I.1

Essays included in the thesis

Essays	**References**
Essay 1	Koveshnikov, A., Wechtler, H, and Dejoux, C. (2014). Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Expatriates: The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Gender. *Journal of World Business*, 49(3): 362–371.
Essay 2	Wechtler, H, Koveshnikov, A., and Dejoux, C. (2015). Just like a Fine Wine? Age, Emotional Intelligence, and Cross-Cultural Adjustment. *International Business Review*, 24(3): 409-418.
Essay 3	Wechtler, H., Koveshnikov, A., and Dejoux, C. (2016) Career Anchors and Cross-Cultural Adjustment Among Expatriates in a Non-Profit Organization, Accepted for publication in *Management International Review*.
Essay 4	Wechtler, H. and Olivier Wurtz (2013). Multidimensionality and Subjectivity of Culture Shock: A Contingent Approach. Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings, 2013(1): 15325 (abstract), under review (A journal).
Essay 5	Wechtler, H. (2016-2017). Time and Expatriate Adjustment: A Qalitative Systematic Review, under review (third round, B journal).
Essay 6	Wechtler, H. (2015). Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Female Self-Initiated Expatriates: A Longitudinal Diary Analysis. *Academy of Management Annual Meeting Proceedings*, 2015(1): 13414, under review (A journal).

[3] Australian Business Deans Council (ABDC) ranking, http://www.abdc.edu.au/
[4] http://www.mq.edu.au/policy/docs/hdr_thesis/guideline_by_publication.html

Scope of the thesis

From both an International Human Resource Management (IHRM) perspective – the strategies associated with the context of internationalization (e.g., Lazarova et al., 2008) – and a career perspective, the thesis focuses on the topic of adjustment[5] to a new cultural environment in the context of assigned (AE) and self-initiated (SIE) expatriation based on a large sample of expatriates (853 from questionnaires, 1293 from meta-synthesis, 11 from blogs).

Using multiple sources of data (collection of articles, quantitative measures from questionnaires, and online diaries) and a complementary research strategy (literature review, surveys, and diary analysis), the research in this thesis primarily examines the role of emotions (emotional intelligence), aspirations (career anchors, motivations to relocate) and time on expatriate adjustment. These three main themes of research partly overlap in the six essays, tested in relation to different types of expatriation and discussed from a lifespan and gendered perspectives. Table I.2 presents the coverage of the main research themes in the essays.

TABLE I.2

Essays and themes covered

	Core subject	**Main themes of research**			**Variations based on demographics**		**Variations based on type of expatriation**	
	Adjustment	**Emotions**	**Aspirations**	**Time**	**Gender**	**Age**	**AEs**	**SIEs**
Essay 1	X	X			X		X	
Essay 2	X	X		X		X	X	
Essay 3	X		X				X	
Essay 4	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Essay 5	X			X	X	X	X	X
Essay 6	X		X	X	X	X		X

[5] See the following chapter for the definition of the main concepts mentioned here.

Both cross-sectional and longitudinal time frames are considered in the research and various data-analytic techniques are employed including hierarchical regressions with moderation effects, canonical regressions, diary analysis, or qualitative systematic review. Following Scandura and Williams (2000), the research methodology overview of the thesis is summarized in Table I.3.

TABLE I.3

Research methodology overview

Research method dimensions	
Substantive content domain	International Human Resource Management/Career
Level of analysis	Individual
Research strategy	Literature review, surveys, diary study
Time frame	Cross-sectional and longitudinal
Type of sample	Expatriates
Primary occupation of participants	Assigned expatriates, self-initiated expatriates, trailing spouses, international students
Source of data	Multiple
Sample size	853 questionnaires + 1293 systematic review collection + 11 blogs
Dependent variable	Adjustment to a new cultural environment
Independent variables	Emotional intelligence, Career anchors, Time
Moderators	Gender, age
Data-analytic approach	Hierarchical regressions, moderation effects, canonical regressions, structural equation modeling, correspondence and cluster analyses, diary analysis, qualitative systematic review.

Publication stage, contribution, and description of the essays

Table I.4 provides an overview of the publication process of the essays included in this thesis. Each essay has been presented at renowned international conferences: Academy of Management (AoM) or Academy of International Business (AIB). In addition to the four that have been published, the essays have had a globally positive and encouraging reception and four have been nominated for prestigious awards: 2012 Carolyn Dexter Award (AoM best International Paper, Essay 1); 2014 Haynes Prize (AIB Most Promising Scholars Award, Essay 5); 2015 Alan M. Rugman (AIB Most Promising Scholars Award, Essay 3); 2015 Aalto "That's Interesting" Award (AIB conference paper that most effectively pushes the boundaries of our existing knowledge in the field, Essay 6); 2015 William Newman Award (AoM Best annual meeting paper based on a thesis, Essay 6).

Two of the six essays are sole authored and four co-authored (three as first author, one as second author). The respective contributions of the researcher and co-authors are outlined in the following section. My contribution is consistently superior to 50% and I am the primary author of each essay (Table I.4).

Each essay is now briefly described in terms of data collection (for further details, see the following chapter), co-authorship and publication stage. This order of presentation reflects the logical rather than chronological order of research and writing.

Essay 1: Emotional intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and gender

Professor Cecile Dejoux (Cnam, Paris, France) accessed both qualitative (interviews, archives) and quantitative (survey) data at the Alliance Française and generously offered me the opportunity to work with her on several projects and to use the survey data as I wished. For this essay, I defined the research question and hypotheses and invited Alexei Koveshnikov (Aalto University, Helsinki, Finland) to contribute to the project and share his expertise in International Business. I conducted the statistical analyses and interpretation of results, Alexei Koveshnikov and I jointly wrote the introduction and discussion, and managed the review process. Because of his relative academic seniority and leading role in the publication process (choice of journal, corresponding author), we agreed Alexei Koveshnikov should be first author of this paper.

The authorship team is therefore: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: second author, primary contribution 55%); Alexei Koveshnikov (Aalto University, Helsinki, Finland: first author, contribution 35%); Cecile Dejoux (Cnam, Paris, France: third author; contribution 10%).

"Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Expatriates: The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Gender" was accepted for publication in *Journal of World Business* (Rank A, Impact Factor: 1.907, 5-Year Impact Factor: 3.039, 19 citations) in March 2013.

TABLE I.4

Publication stage and contribution

Essays	Titles	Authorships	Conferences	Nominations	Publications
Essay 1	Cross-Cultural Adjustment of Expatriates: The Role of Emotional Intelligence and Gender	Primary/Second author (55%)	Academy of Management 2012	Nominated for the Carolyn Dexter Award	*Journal of World Business* (A)
Essay 2	Just Like a Fine Wine? Age, Emotional Intelligence, and Cross-Cultural Adjustment	Primary/First author (55%)	Academy of International Business 2013	-	*International Business Review* (A)
Essay 3	Career Anchors and Cross-Cultural Adjustment Among Expatriates in a Non-Profit Organization	Primary/First author (55%)	Academy of International Business 2015	Nominated for the Alan M. Rugman Most Promising Scholars Award	*Management International Review* (A)
Essay 4	Time and Expatriate Adjustment: A Qualitative Systematic Review	Sole author (100%)	Academy of International Business 2014	-	Under review (third round, B journal)
Essay 5	Cross-Cultural Adjustment as a Process over Time: Temporality, Multidimensionality, and Contingency	Primary/First author (80%)	Academy of International Business 2013	Nominated for the Haynes Prize for the Most Promising Scholar	Under review (A journal)
Essay 6	Life is elsewhere: A longitudinal diary Essay of female self-initiated expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment	Sole author (100%)	Academy of Management 2015	Nominated for Aalto "That's Interesting" Award Nominated for the William Newman Award	*2015 Academy of Management Proceedings* Under review (A journal)

Essay 2: Emotional intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and age

The same authorship team worked on the second essay. After a brainstorming session with Alexei Koveshnikov on the new project, I defined the research question and hypotheses and conducted the statistical analyses and interpretation of results. Alexei Koveshnikov and I jointly wrote the introduction and discussion and managed the review process. I managed the publication process leading to publication in *International Business Review* and took the first author position on this paper.

The authorship team is therefore: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: first author, primary contribution 55%); Alexei Koveshnikov (Aalto University, Helsinki, Finland: second author; contribution 35%); Cecile Dejoux (Cnam, Paris, France: third author; contribution 10%).

"Just Like a Fine Wine? Age, Emotional Intelligence, and Cross-Cultural Adjustment" was accepted for publication in *International Business Review* (Rank A, Impact Factor: 1.489, 5-Year Impact Factor: 1.871, 6 citation) in October 2014.

Essay 3: Career anchors and cross-cultural adjustment

The same authorship team worked on the third essay. As I proposed a very developed idea and structure for this new paper, I was once again first author.

The authorship team is therefore: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: first author, primary contribution 55%); Alexei Koveshnikov (Aalto University, Helsinki, Finland: second author, contribution 35%); Cecile Dejoux (Cnam, Paris, France: third author, contribution 10%).

"*Career Anchors and Cross-Cultural Adjustment among Expatriates in a Non-Profit Organization*" was presented at the Academy of International Business in 2015 in Bangalore, India and nominated for the 2015 Alan M. Rugman Most Promising Scholar(s) Award (formerly known as the Haynes Prize). This paper has been accepted for publication in *Management International Review* (A) in September 2016.

Essay 4: Time and expatriate adjustment

I am the sole author of essay 4. For this paper, I defined the scope of the research and collected the secondary data (a systematic review of articles published in academic journals), which I coded, restructured and analyzed. I compiled the literature review, produced the systematic review, wrote and revised the paper.

Author: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: sole author, contribution 100%).

"Time and Expatriate Adjustment: A Qualitative Systematic Review" was presented at the Academy of International Business, Vancouver, Canada, June 24–26 2014. This paper is currently in the third review round in a B journal.

Essay 5: Cross-Cultural Adjustment as a Process over Time: Temporality, Multidimensionality, and Contingency

Olivier Wurtz (University of Vaasa) collected the quantitative (survey) data and offered me the opportunity to work with him on the subject of the U-curve of adjustment. Working together, we jointly defined the general shape of the paper. I compiled the literature review, defined the hypotheses, conducted the statistical analyses and interpreted the results. Olivier contributed to the first version of the introduction and added precisions to the measurements and attributes used in the paper. I wrote the discussion and the final version of the introduction, organised the conference and journal submission process and was first author of the paper.

The authorship team is therefore: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: first author, primary contribution 80%); Olivier Wurtz (Vaasa University, Vaasa, Finland: second author, contribution 20%).

"Cross-Cultural Adjustment as a Process over Time: Temporality, Multidimensionality, and Contingency" was nominated for the 2013 Haynes Prize for the Most Promising Scholar at the Academy of International Business, July 2013, Istanbul, Turkey. This paper is currently under review in an A journal.

Essay 6: Young Female Self-Initiated Expatriates' Adjustment over Time

As the sole author of this paper, I devised the original idea, defined the scope of the research and collected the secondary data (expatriates' online blogs). I coded, restructured and analyzed the data, compiled the literature review and wrote the paper entirely.

Author: Heidi Wechtler (Macquarie University, Sydney, Australia: sole author, contribution 100%).

"Life is Elsewhere: A Longitudinal Diary Essay of Female Self-Initiated Expatriates' Cross-Cultural Adjustment" was presented at the Academy of International Business, Bangalore, India and nominated for the 2015 Aalto University School of Business "That's Interesting!" Award, which recognizes the AIB conference paper that most effectively pushes the boundaries of our existing knowledge in the field. This paper was also nominated for the William Newman (paper based on a thesis) Award at the Academy of Management 2015, Vancouver, Canada. The paper was selected for publication in the Academy of Management Proceedings 2015 and is currently in the second review round in an A journal.

In the next chapter, I begin by presenting the main concepts and the context of the research then use a brief literature review to identify gaps before elaborating the main research questions addressed in these essays. The third section details the methodological choices (data collection and empirical strategies) adopted and the chapter ends with an analysis and discussion of the main findings of the essays presented in this thesis. The six essays then follow.

ESSAYS ON NEW AND TRADITIONAL FORMS OF EXPATRIATION: TEMPORALITY, SELF AND ADJUSTMENT

Time and distance have a way of
playing tricks with your best intentions
Anthony Kiedis

INTRODUCTION

The process of expatriation, the temporary relocation of workers in a new cultural environment (Collings *et al*., 2007), is by its very nature a temporally finite (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014), subjective (e.g., Pedersen, 1995) and motivated (e.g., Dickmann, 2012; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014) experience. Temporality has been an important yet difficult topic in organizational phenomena and management research (Ancona *et al.*, 2001a, 2001b; Lee and Liebenau, 1999; Mosakowki and Earley, 2000). Time is finite, subjective, mutually dependent on a perceptual past and future (Heidegger, 1927; Husserl, 1928). The awareness of temporal presence makes the being a "temporal being" so that this time-consciousness is the foundation for intentionality (Husserl, 1928).

Time is one of those concepts that everyone seems to understand until someone tries to define it. Lee and Liebenau (1999) stressed that "*while there is much 'time-related' research, there is little 'research on time*'" (p. 1035). This consensual statement (Lee and Liebenau, 1999; George and Jones, 2000; Mosakowki and Earley, 2000; Ancona *et al*., 2001) can partly be explained by the complexity of the idea of time researchers have to deal with (Ancona *et al*., 2001; Quintens and Matthyssens, 2010). With the exception of Hippler et al. (2015), the recent expatriation literature does not integrate explicitly research on time (see e.g., Ancona *et al*., 2001b; Mitchell and James, 2001; Mosakowski and Earley, 2000; Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010). Yet, adjustment to a new cultural environment is by nature a time-related concept as it takes time and effort for expatriates to go through the experience of entering a new cultural environment (e.g., Black *et al*., 1991; Takeuchi, 2010).

George and Jones (2000) argue that time plays an important role in research because the awareness of time may change the ontological description of a phenomenon and its relationship with other constructs. In this thesis, I adopt the perspective of Mosakowski and Early (2000) as a starting point to re-examine several aspects of expatriate adjustment. In particular, Mosakowski and Early (2000) proposed five dimensions of time to be examined in research: its nature, experience, flow, structure, and referent anchor. Applied to the process of adjustment, I argue that most studies assume implicitly that time is real in its nature and objective in its experience (Mosakowski and Early, 2000), so that it does not depend on events or space nor does it vary with individuals' perceptions and intentions (e.g. emotions and aspirations). Time, and by extension the process of adjustment to a new cultural environment, seem often to be theorized as being the same for everyone, everywhere, under any circumstances. Table II.1 presents the main assumptions and the theoretical positioning of the thesis.

TABLE II.1

Theoretical underpinnings of the thesis

Main assumptions	1) Expatriation is a temporally finite experience (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014)
	2) Adjustment is a "vital construct" to understand the expatriation experience (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005)
	3) Adjustment is a temporal construct by nature as it refers to at least two different periods of time (in home and host countries)
	4) Time depends on individual perceptions, beliefs, histories intentions and goals (Clark, 1985; Jaques, 1982, Lauer, 1981)
Main research question	How time and personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation?
What?	Adjustment (defined as the degree of comfort in a new cultural environment, Black and Stephens, 1989) and time (expatriation being seen as a finite experience)
How?	Adjustment evolves over a subjective time rather than an objective time. This change depends on the individual's perceptions, contingent on their histories, personalities, and intentions, such as emotions, aspirations, gender, age and condition of expatriation.
Why?	In the time-finite experience of assigned expatriation, emotional intelligence and career aspiration play a favorable role in the adjustment process. Adjustment also varies over time taking potentially different trajectories.
Who?	The role of emotional intelligence, the type of aspirations, and the trajectory of adjustment over time are contingent on gender, age and conditions of expatriation.

The lack of awareness of time in expatriation research is visible through the relative absence of interest in topics that have engaged a substantial amount of research in other disciplines, such as emotions and subjective careers. In particular, little attention has been paid to the role of emotional intelligence on expatriate adjustment (see Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Lii and Wong, 2008 for exceptions) and very little is known about career aspirations of expatriates (see Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010, Lazarova *et al.*, 2014 for exception). These gaps reveal a uniform view of expatriation missing theoretical diversity and promising directions for research such as the topics explored in this thesis.

From this basis, three main topics of the expatriation literature that have attracted little attention are explored, that is, emotions, aspirations and time, to understand expatriate adjustment. Also three main factors, gender, age, and conditions of expatriation are integrated to refine the analyses and add nuance and depth. The main research question addressed in this thesis, therefore, is *how time and under-analyzed personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation*. This thesis consists of six interrelated studies that attempt to bring new insights into the experience of expatriation from different angles: first the *self* and subjective dimension with on the one side emotions and aspirations and, on the other side, expatriates' demographics (gender and age) and different forms of expatriation (self-initiated and assigned); and second, the *temporal* dimension, in gradually integrating time to the *self* dimension.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Main definitions and relevance of the topic

As a field of research, expatriation – defined as a voluntary, temporary migration of a person abroad for a specific purpose with an ultimate return to his/her home country (Cohen, 1977) – is broad and fairly well documented (for reviews see e.g., Altman and Shortland, 2008; Bonache *et al*., 2010; Brewster and Scullion, 1997; Dabic *et al*., 2015; Harvey and Moeller, 2009). In its traditional form, expatriates are sent abroad by their organization (assigned expatriates – AEs) for assignments of a specific duration (usually one to four years, see Doherty *et al*., 2011), long enough to involve the relocation of spouses or family (Bonache, 2010). More recently, the population of expatriates has diversified with, for instance, short-term assignments, international business travelers, and virtual assignments (Bonache *et al*., 2010; Collings *et al*., 2007). Nevertheless, the most common type of expatriation remains the classic expatriate assignment (Doherty *et al*., 2011; also supported by the Global Relocation Trends Survey Report, Brookfield, 2013).

TABLE II.2

Definitions of expatriation types

Prominent groups (scope of the thesis)	
Traditional assigned expatriate (AE)	Those who undertake "a voluntary, temporary migration of a person abroad for a specific purpose with an ultimate return to his/her home country." (Cohen, 1977); "those employees who are supported by a company to undertake an international assignment" (Doherty *et al.*, 2011) for "usually three to five years and involving the relocation of the expatriate and their family" (Colling *et al.*, 2007), "but with the intention on the side of both the employer and the employee that the assignment will not last for more than a few years." (Bonache et al., 2010)
Self-initiated expatriate (SIE)	"Those who undertake international working without the sponsorship of an organization" (Doherty *et al*., 2011: 595). An expatriate is an SIE if four criteria are fulfilled simultaneously: "(a) self-initiated international relocation, (b) regular employment (intentions), (c) intentions of a temporary stay, and (d) skilled/professional qualifications" (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014: 1281). SIEs are local employees in host countries (Biemann and Andresen, 2010).
Alternative forms of assigned expatriation (out of scope)	
Short-term assignments	"An assignment longer than a business-trip but shorter than a year's duration. […], the assignee's family often remain in the home country, while salary, pension and social security benefits are also handled there." (Collings *et al*., 2007: 205), see also Bozkurt and Mohr (2011), Mitchell, *et al*. (2001), and Tahvaninen *et al.* (2005).
Frequent flyer assignments/ international business travelers/flexpatriates	"One for whom business travel is an essential component of their work" (Welch and Worm, 2006: 284), "which has the advantage of avoiding the relocation of the expatriate and their entire family to a foreign country" (Collings *et al*., 2007: 206); see also Mayerhofer *et al*. (2004; 2011), Oddou *et al*. (2000), and Welch *et al*. (2007).
International commuter assignments	"Where an assignee commutes from their home base to another country to a post in another country, generally on a weekly or bi-weekly basis" (PricewaterhouseCoopers, 2005; Collings *et al*., 2007: 206); see also Bandura (2002) and McKenna and Richardson (2007).
Rotational assignments	"Where staff commute from their home country to a workplace in another country for a sort period followed by a period of time off in the home country" (Welch and Worm, 2006; Collings *et al*., 2007: 206).
Virtual assignments	"Staff do not relocate to a host location but have a responsibility to manage international staff from the home base" (Dowling and Welch, 2004) "and generally lead to some sort of jointly achieved outcome involving a degree of intercultural interaction" (Collings *et al*., 2007: 207); see also Holtbrügge and Schillo (2008), Thomas et al. (2005), Roberts *et al*. (1998), and Welch et al. (2003).

Contemporary approaches also distinguish self-initiated expatriates (SIEs), that is individuals who take the initiative to relocate for a temporary period to work abroad (Crowley-Henry 2007; Cerdin and Selmer, 2014). To delimit the scope of the thesis clearly, the essays presented here cover exclusively these two main expatriate populations. A brief summary of the main expatriation types is shown in Table II.2.

Expatriation refers here to "*a specific minority of relatively privileged people*" (Berry and Bell, 2012: 10), the "*most privileged individuals in terms of their ethnicity, education, and professional positioning*" (Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry, 2013: 85). There is, indeed, a burgeoning discussion about the definition of expatriation and the borders of the field of research, notably related to broader and larger concepts of migrants (see, for instance, Berry and Bell, 2012, or Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry, 2013, for an overview). The scope of this thesis also excludes other forms of migration involving less freedom of choice (Cao, 2013) in order to preserve a relative homogeneity of the analyzed population which prior literature has already shown to be heterogeneous, especially among the population of SIEs (Doherty, 2013; Suutari and Brewster, 2000).

Having said that, putting together AEs and SIEs, this "minority" already represents a substantial and increasing volume of employees around the world. Although it is difficult to give a precise number, estimates converge at around 230 million people, or about 3% of the global population (Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry, 2013 and various public surveys).[6] Besides the traditional strategic arguments and financial implications for Western countries, expatriates have recently been involved in the news in terms of their potential role in the forthcoming American presidential elections (estimated to represent 12% of voters)[7] or the debate for the right to vote for long-time expatriates in Canada (representing millions of votes)[8].

From the organizational perspective, a large amount of literature has been dedicated to AEs (Green, 2009; Bozionelos, 2009) and how they are seen as a strategic tool to support international activity (e.g., Liu and Lee, 2008; Morley and Heraty, 2004; Wu and Ang, 2011). This is particularly relevant in highly multicultural and multinational contexts (e.g., Tsui *et al.*, 2007) and in the context of increasing international interdependence (e.g.,

[6] For an example, see http://expatchild.com/world-expat-population-numbers/
[7] http://www.relocatemagazine.com/news/us-expats-could-hold-key-to-presidential-vote-david-sapsted
[8] http://www.huffingtonpost.ca/news/expat-voting-canada/; http://www.theglobeandmail.com/opinion/why-is-ottawa-still-defending-disenfranchisement-of-expats/article29694364/

Carpenter and Fredrickson, 2001). Therefore, the management of expatriates has consequences in terms of organizational performance and HR practices, for example the retention of expatriates or international talent (e.g., Collings *et al*., 2007; Scullion and Collings, 2006). The management of assigned expatriates cannot be isolated from the cost that they represent for the organization; an expatriate in assignment would be three to five times more expensive than a local employee (Selmer, 2001) and cases of premature return (also known in the literature as "expatriate failure") have important financial and turnover implications (see for instance Harvey and Moeller, 2009, for a review). As a consequence, expatriates represent an important organizational investment (McNulty *et a*l., 2009; Shaffer *et al*., 1999) and the issues related to expatriate success have become relatively dominant in the field.

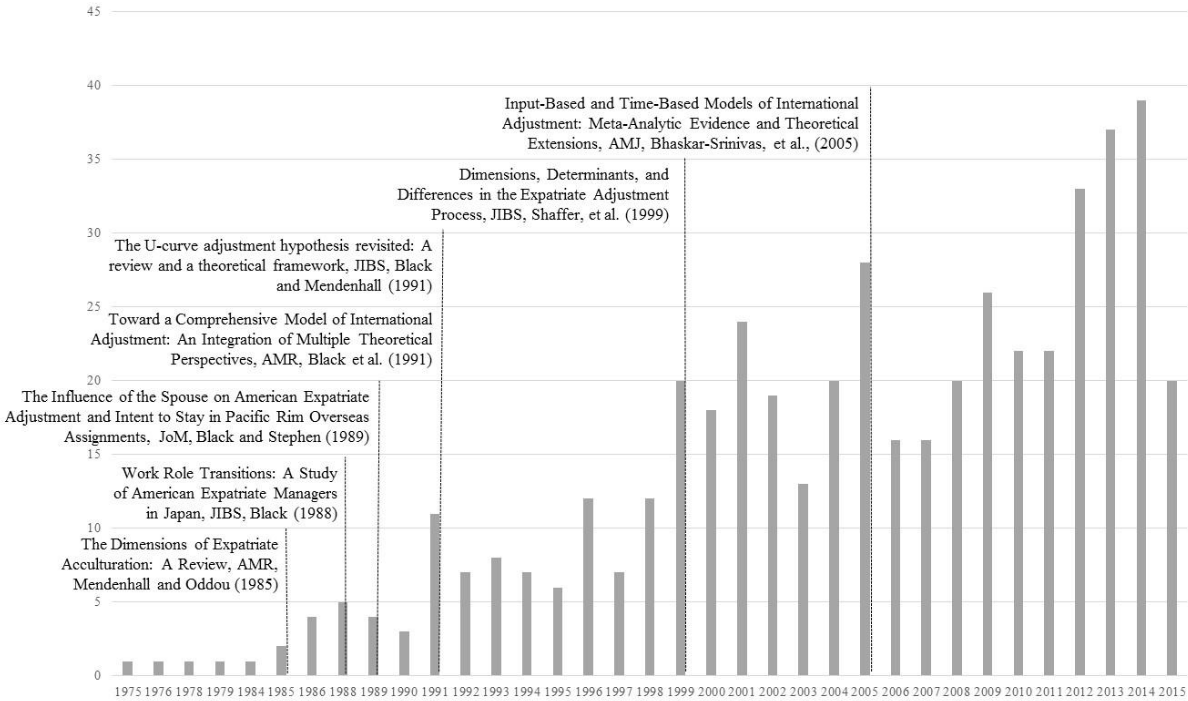
At the individual level (the level of analysis in this thesis), expatriation success has often been studied in terms of cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Lazarova and Thomas, 2012; Shaffer *et al*., 1999; Zimmermann *et al*., 2003), that is, an individual's degree of psychological comfort with various aspects of a host country (Black and Stephens, 1989). In fact, research on expatriate adjustment has largely dominated the literature on expatriation (Cerdin and Dubauloy, 2004; Dabic *et al*., 2015), to the detriment of other potential outcomes (Thomas and Lazarova, 2006: 247) and perhaps even at the cost of altering the understanding of the experience of expatriation itself (Thomas, 1998). It is assumed that adjustment and performance are closely associated and this has created an expatriate paradigm that is very little discussed (Andreason, 2003; Thomas and Lazarova, 2008: 247). This point is not the core of the research for this thesis, but it is discussed later in the limitations section of this chapter.

Several reviews have also specifically addressed expatriate adjustment (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et a*l., 2005; Black *et al*., 1991; Hechanova *et al*., 2003; Hippler, 2014; Lazarova and Thomas, 2012; Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985; Sims and Schraeder, 2004; Sobre-Denton and Hart, 2008; Strubler *et al*., 2011). Rather than repeating what has been reviewed with great expertise, in this section I aim to give just a brief overview and recent snapshot of the research on expatriate adjustment.

A search[9] on expatriate adjustment in the major databases (EBSCO and Sage) returned 486 articles published on the topic. Figure II.1 shows a visible acceleration of production from 1999 while the major pillars (Black and colleagues) were published in the period 1985–92. In the overall period, 50% of the total volume was written during the last 10 years, and while 13 journals[10] share about 60% of the total production of knowledge, two journals, *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* and *International Journal of Intercultural Relations*, alone carry 40% of the research on expatriate/sojourn adjustment.

FIGURE II.1

Academic publications on expatriate adjustment: volume and milestones



Legend: AMJ – Academy of Management Journal; AMR – Academy of Management Review; JIBS – Journal of International Business Studies.

[9] Keywords: adjust* adapt* expat* sojourn*, in March 2016.
[10] In descending order: International Journal of Human Resource Management, International Journal of Intercultural Relations, Career Development International, Journal of International Business Studies, Personnel Review, Journal of World Business, Cross Cultural Management, International Journal of Cross Cultural Management, Academy of Management Journal, Human Resource Management, International Business Review, International Studies of Management and Organization, Journal of Applied Psychology.

In order to give a historical overview of the publication on expatriate adjustment, Table II.3 presents a list of seminal articles based on journal quality[11] and number of citations.[12] This mainstream perspective is inevitably compromised in some ways – for instance, it may reflect mostly the American view (e.g., Linehan *et al*., 2003; Collings *et al*., 2007), be based mostly on quantitative approaches (e.g., Birkinshaw *et al*., 2011), or overlook titles – yet it represents the scientifically validated knowledge that has had the greatest impact on the field (Podsakoff *et al*., 2005).

Despite some recent criticisms (e.g., Haslberger *et al*., 2013; Hippler, 2000; Hippler, 2015; Hippler *et al*. 2014; Thomas and Lazarova, 2006) that it has received, it is difficult to ignore the influence of the work of Black and colleagues over the last two decades (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Hippler 2015).

In particular, Black *et al*., (1991) is seen as "*the most influential and often-cited theoretical treatment of expatriate experiences*" (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005: 257, see Table II.3). It is also notable how much the work of Black and colleagues has structured the view and boundaries of the field in introducing a key measurement (Black and Stephens, 1989) and important theoretical conceptualizations for both the static (Black *et al*., 1991, Black and Gregersen, 1991) and dynamic views of adjustment (Black and Mendenhall, 1991) and the different steps of the process, including repatriation (Black and Gregersen, 1991b).

In their model Black *et al.* (1991) propose several determinants (at the individual, job organizational and nonwork levels) to explain the degrees and modes of adjustment (see Hippler, 2015 for review) and a consequent literature has been dedicated to the degree of adjustment often measured with the 14-item scale of Black and Stephens (1989; see Appendix 1) that has become the norm of the field (Hippler, 2015). It refers to three different dimensions (or facets/domains) of perceived well-being: general (everyday life), interactional (relations with locals) and work adjustments (professional sphere).

[11] Academy of Management Journal (AMJ), Academy of Management Review (AMR), Journal of Management (JoM), Journal of International Business Studies (JIBS).
[12] Superior to 100 citations (source: Google Scholar) before 2012 or estimated as such for the most recent years.

TABLE II.3

Seminal articles on expatriate adjustment

Titles	Journals	Years	Citations	Authors
The Dimensions of Expatriate Acculturation: A Review	AMR	1985	1296	Mendenhall and Oddou (1985)
Work Role Transitions: A Study of American Expatriate Managers in Japan	JIBS	1988	1133	Black (1988)
The Influence of the Spouse on American Expatriate Adjustment and Intent to Stay in Pacific Rim Overseas Assignments	JoM	1989	1000	Black and Stephens (1989)
The Other Half of the Picture: Antecedents of Spouse Cross-Cultural Adjustment	JIBS	1991	420	Black and Gregersen (1991)
Toward a Comprehensive Model of International Adjustment: An Integration of Multiple Theoretical Perspectives	**AMR**	**1991**	**1655**	**Black, Mendenhall, and Oddou (1991)**
The U-curve adjustment hypothesis revisited: A review and a theoretical framework	JIBS	1991	531	Black and Mendenhall (1991)
When Yankee Comes Home: Factors Related to Expatriate and Spouse Repatriation Adjustment.	JIBS	1991	303	Black and Gregersen (1991b)
Toward a theoretical framework of repatriation adjustment.	JIBS	1992	382	Black, Gregersen, and Mendenhall (1992)
Expatriation, Repatriation, and Domestic Geographical Relocation: An Empirical Investigation of Adjustment to New Job Assignments	JIBS	1993	271	Feldman and Tompson (1993)
Dual-Career Expatriates: Expectations, Adjustment and Satisfaction with International Relocation	JIBS	1997	214	Harvey (1997)
Dimensions, Determinants, and Differences in the Expatriate Adjustment Process	JIBS	1999	589	Shaffer, Harrison, and Gilley (1999)
Expatriate Assignments Adjustment and Effectiveness: An Empirical Examination of the Big Picture	JIBS	2004	136	Shay and Baack (2004)

Legend: AMJ – Academy of Management; AMR – Academy of Management Review; JIBS – Journal of International Business Studies; JoM – Journal of Management. Number of citations from Google Scholar.

TABLE II.3 (continued)

Seminal articles on expatriate adjustment

Titles	Journals	Years	Citations	Authors
Fitting in: Surface- and Deep-level Cultural differences and expatriates' adjustment	AMJ	2004	177	Van Vianen, De Pater, Kristof-Brown, and Johnson (2004)
Input-Based and Time-Based Models of International Adjustment: Meta-Analytic Evidence and Theoretical Extensions	AMJ	2005	676	Bhaskar-Shrinivas, Harrison, Shaffer, and Luk (2005)
A Needs-Driven Approach to Expatriate Adjustment and Career Development: A Multiple Mentoring Perspective	JIBS	2005	171	Mezias and Scandura (2005)
An Integrative View of International Experience	AMJ	2005	299	Takeuchi, Tesluk, Yun, and Lepak (2005)
Networking Abroad: A Process Model of how Expatriates Form Support Ties to Facilitate Adjustment	AMR	2010	106	Farh, Bartol, Shapiro, and Shin (2010)
Elucidating the Positive Side of the Work-Family Interface on International Assignments: A Model of Expatriate Work and Family Performance	AMR	2010	132	Lazarova, Westman, and Shaffer (2010)
A Critical Review of Expatriate Adjustment Research Through a Multiple Stakeholder View: Progress, Emerging Trends, and Prospects	JoM	2010	146	Takeuchi (2010)
Choices, Challenges, and Career Consequences of Global Work Experiences: A Review and Future Agenda	JoM	2012	114	Shaffer, Kraimer, Chen, and Bolino (2012)
Newcomers Abroad: Expatriate Adaptation During Early Phases of International Assignments	AMJ	2014	25*	Firth, Chen, Kirkman, and Kim (2014)

Legend: AMJ – Academy of Management; AMR – Academy of Management Review; JIBS – Journal of International Business Studies; JoM – Journal of Management. Number of citations from Google Scholar. (*) estimated to be superior to 100 in the coming years.

Since then, numerous determinants have been studied to predict expatriate adjustment (e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010 for synthesis). Hechanova *et al* (2003) distinguished the influence of individual, work-related, environmental and family-related factors on adjustment. Lazarova *et al*. (2010, Figure II.2) integrated, in their work-family framework, demographic factors and a larger range of individual differences as antecedents of adjustment. Also, the review by Takeuchi (2010) brings a wider and interesting perspective in taking a multiple stakeholder and not predominantly "expatriate-centric" view. Yet, expatriation also involves a career aspect which has often been ignored (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009). A recent stream of research has associated expatriation with the notion of boundaryless careers (Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Sullivan and Arthur, 2006) and defined it as "*high degrees of both physical and psychological mobility*" (Dickmann, 2012: 783), or protean careers (Briscoe and Hall, 2006; Briscoe, *et al.* 2006) which are driven by individuals and their ability to adapt rather than the organization (e.g., Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009; Lazarova and Cerdin, 2007). Nevertheless, the links between careers and expatriate adjustment are rather thin in the literature.

FIGURE II.2

The antecedents of adjustment

(adapted from Lazarova et al., 2001)

The essays in this thesis are also strongly linked to Black and colleagues' work and associated measurements. However, they represent attempts to integrate a career dimension and discuss some of the implicit assumptions of Black and colleagues' initial model that have crystalized over time – probably more than the original authors ever intended – rather than add to criticism or attempt the replacement already engaged in by others (see, for instance, the work of Lazarova, Hippler, Brewster and Haslberger). In its context, Black *et al*.'s (1991: 291) model refers to assigned expatriates ("international assignments"), with a clear gender separation and demographic profile: 94% were male (Black and Gregersen, 1991b: 278); 98% of spouses were female (Black and Gregersen, 1991); all were American managers with an average age of 44 and 86% were married (Black and Gregersen, 1991: 467). Also the initial model, as organizations in practice (Morley and Flynn, 2003), tends to be strongly career-oriented and give little attention to soft skills.

As I will argue (concisely in this chapter and more elaborately in the six essays), this thesis, based on the Black's work, humbly pushes the boundaries of that framework by integrating a more subjective dimension into the process through emotions and aspirations, modulating factors such as age, gender, or forms of expatriation (assigned versus self-initiated) and connecting these separate elements into a contingent and temporal perspective. The limits of the work of Black and colleagues are discussed within the essays and in the limitations section of this chapter.

Remaining gaps: the role of emotions, aspirations, and temporal perspective

Clearly addressed or not, the most frequent conception of time in organizational literature (Clark, 1985; Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988; Starkey, 1989; George and Jones, 2000; Mosakowki and Earley, 2000; Mitchell and James, 2001) is independent of events (Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988; Hassard, 1989) and people (Clark 1990). It is not subject to any human interpretation (Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988). This *even time* (Clark 1985) is objective, measurable and linear (Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988; Hassard, 1996). Adopting only this view of time in research, even if dominant, is damaging for theory building (George and Jones, 2000).

This objective and linear conception comes into conflict with the *subjective time* or the *event-time* view, where time depends on culture, customs, beliefs and norms of individuals and groups (Clark 1985). Time is "*in the events, and events are defined by organizational members*" (Clark 1985: 36). The opposition between clock time and event-time is similar to the *chronos* ("*time measured by the chronometer not by purpose*", Jaques 1982: 14–15) and *kairos* ("*the human and living time of intentions and goals*", ibid.) dichotomy in the rhetorical literature (Orlikowski and Yates, 2002).

In this thesis, I attempt to redefine the assumptions related to the experience of time in the expatriate adjustment literature and adopt a subjective view – where "*time gains significance only through human interpretation*" (Mosakowski and Earley, 2000: 787). Perception of time is based on histories, feelings, and beliefs (Lauer, 1981), but also intentions and goals (Jaques, 1982). Therefore, in seeing expatriation as a time-finite event and adjustment as a process over time, the literature on emotions and aspirations can bring important insights to our understanding of the phenomenon of expatriate adjustment. In the next three subsections, I explore the main research gaps related to emotions and expatriate adjustment, aspirations and expatriate adjustment, and adjustment as a temporal process.

Expatriate adjustment and emotions

Numerous attributes have been shown to influence the process of adjustment (e.g., Lazarova et al., 2010). Some focus on the role of personal differences in expatriate adjustment such as the Big Five personality traits – neuroticism, extraversion, openness to experience, agreeableness, and conscientiousness – (e.g. Caligiuri, 2000a, 2000b; Dalton and Wilson, 2000; Huang *et al*., 2005; Shaffer *et al*.,. 2006); locus of control (Black, 1990; Lii and Wong, 2008); sociability and flexibility (Black and Stephens, 1989); cultural intelligence (Rose *et al*., 2010; Wu and Ang, 2011), and recently, dispositional affectivity (Selmer and Lauring, 2014) and emotional stability (Ren et al., 2015).

Apart from a few exceptions (e.g. Gabel *et al*., 2005; Lii and Wong, 2008), the role of emotional intelligence, defined as an enduring personal trait that underlines a person's ability to adaptively identify, understand, manage, and harness emotions of both self and others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Schutte *et al*., 1998) and to use emotion to facilitate cognitive processing (Mayer *et al*., 1999), has received little attention in the context of expatriate adjustment. This is despite the fact that prior, more general, research has shown that emotions play a significant role in individuals' intellectual functioning (Elfenbein, 2007) and that emotional intelligence leads to positive workplace outcomes, such as wellbeing or life satisfaction (e.g. Carmelli *et al*., 2009).

Salovey and Mayer (1990) describe emotional intelligence in terms of three categories of adaptive ability (Table II.4): appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others); regulation of emotion (in self and others); and utilization of emotions in solving problems (i.e. flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention, and motivation). In the context of expatriation, adjustment to a new cultural environment is seen as a challenging experience where the expatriate may experience a high level of stress and distress. Intuitively, being skillful in appraising and expressing emotions of self and other, regulating emotions of self and others, and utilizing emotions for problem solving are likely to be conducive to expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment in both non-work-related and work-related contexts. In this thesis, two essays develop the idea that, in the context of expatriation, emotional intelligence helps us to understand adjustment better. Yet, very little is known about this topic. Therefore, I attempt to fill this gap and respond to the following research question in Essays 1 and 2:

Research Question 1*:* How does emotional intelligence influence expatriate adjustment?

In addition to the above, very little research, if any, has examined the impact of emotional intelligence on expatriate adjustment in connection with two major demographic variables: gender and age. This is despite the fact that emotions are known to be gendered, with feminine associations (Elfenbein, 2007), and that lifespan theories have shown that the role of emotions tends to change with age.

First, evidence shows that women are more emotionally intelligent than men (e.g., Schutte *et al.*, 1998; Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2000), more adaptive to stressors (e.g., Deane *et al.*, 2001), and more inclined to express their emotions (e.g., Wood *et al.*, 1989). Also, expatriation and skilled labor are gendered processes and experiences (Yeoh and Khoo, 1998); research has shown that international careers may suit women better than men (Shortland, 2011) because of women's higher interpersonal skills (Harris, 1993), and that women are generally more successful than men in their assignments (e.g., Adler, 1987; Caligiuri and Tung, 1998), and better adjusted (Haslberger, 2010; Selmer and Leung, 2003). Altogether, gender can be expected to have a moderating role in the relationship between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment and therefore a response to the following research question is developed in Essay 1:

Research Question 1a: How does gender influence the relation between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?

TABLE II.4

The key aspects of emotional intelligence

Concept	Emotional intelligence implies emotion-related mental abilities (emotional) and, cognitive and problem solving abilities (intelligence) (Murphy, 2006: 327).
Definitions	"An array of capabilities, competencies and skills that influence one's ability to succeed in coping with environmental demands and pressures" (Bar-On, 1997:14); "The ability to accurately perceive and express emotion: the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thoughts; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotion in the self and others" (Mayer and Salovey, 1997: 10).
Dimensions	Three dimensions: (1) expression and appraisal of emotions, self and others; (2) regulation of emotions, in self and others; (3) utilization of emotions in solving problems (Schutte et al., 1998; Mayer 1990). See measurement items in Appendix 1.
Gaps	With a few exceptions (e.g. Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Lii and Wong, 2008), the role of emotional intelligence has received little attention in the context of expatriate adjustment, and to the best of my knowledge, no detailed study has been conducted on this relationship, integrating the moderating role of gender and age.

Second, the literature on lifespan development suggests that individuals pass through several stages in life and each of these stages brings different life and work-related priorities, attitudes, beliefs, and motivations (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al*., 1999; Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004; Kooij *et al*., 2011). More specifically, socioemotional selectivity theory (see key elements in Table II.5) examines how people's emotions, motivations and attitudes change over their lifespan (Carstensen, 1993, 1995; Carstensen *et al*., 1999). Notwithstanding these general findings, little attention has been devoted explicitly to the role of age in expatriate adjustment. Age has been primarily used as a control variable (e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Lazarova *et al*., 2010) and led to mixed results related to its influence on adjustment (Hechanova *et al*., 2003). The role of age in the relationship between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment is examined and the following research question addressed in Essay 2:

Research Question 1b: How does age influence the relation between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?

TABLE II.5

Brief overview of socioemotional selectivity theory

Main theory elements (Whetten, 1989)	
What?	Emotions (seen as "central to human functioning, guiding thought and action," Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 644); and age (the theory "focuses on perceived time left in life rather than past experience," Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 645).
How?	"The distinctly human ability to consciously and subconsciously monitor time plays a fundamental role in motivation and emotion, providing the structure within which goals are set, pursued, and evaluated. Because mortality places the ultimate constraint on time, chronological age is associated with changes in goals. […] The theory stresses that age does not entail the relentless pursuit of happiness but rather the satisfaction of emotionally meaningful goals, which entails far more than simply feeling good." (Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 645.)
Why?	1) "Older people experience negative emotions less frequently than younger adults and experience positive emotions just as frequently as younger adults. […] Age is associated with greater appreciation of life and greater investment in emotionally meaningful social relationships. The theory predicts that this emphasis on emotionally meaningful goals improves emotional experience in everyday life." (Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 645.) 2) "Older as compared with younger adults show differential stability of emotional experience such that positive states are maintained longer and negative states are terminated more quickly." (Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 645.) 3) "Emotional experience is more complex in older as compared with younger adults. Because the pursuit of emotionally meaningful goals often entails mixed emotions, we anticipate a more complex dimensional structure to the emotional experience of older adults." (Carstensen *et al*., 2000: 645.)
Key references	Carstensen (1993, 1995), Carstensen *et al*. (1997), Carstensen *et al*. (1999), and Cartensen *et al*. (2000).

The preceding section has aimed to illustrate briefly how emotions can influence expatriate adjustment, through gender or lifespan lenses. Assuming adjustment as a temporal process, the following section develops the idea that aspirations or goals (Jaques, 1982) also play a key role in expatriate adjustment.

Expatriate adjustment and aspirations

The literature on expatriation has dedicated a certain amount of research to motivations for moving abroad (for a review see Andresen *et al*., 2015; Dickmann, 2012; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014). Research has shown that these motives can be both personal and professional, yet the literature explicitly or implicitly explains the relocation by stressing organization-related goals (e.g., career impact, Doherty *et al*.,, 2011) for assigned expatriates (AEs) and personal goals (e.g., the desire to experience a new culture, Stahl *et al*., 2002) for self-initiated expatriates (SIEs) (Andresen *et al*., 2015b).

This separation of goals between AEs and SIEs is accentuated by Barry (1998), who proposed a threefold typology of SIEs' motivations to relocate: (1) goal-oriented motivations related to specific career objectives and aspirations; (2) escape-oriented motivations related to the need to leave a specific work or life-related situation; and (3) exploration-oriented motivations related to the desire to see and experience new things, new locations, and new cultures. This classification, specific to self-initiated expatriates, seems to reinforce the idea that assigned expatriates are more career-oriented than their self-initiated counterparts. Therefore, in two essays of this thesis (3 and 6), with different research designs, the following research question for both assigned and self-initiated expatriates is addressed:

Research Question 2: How do career aspirations influence expatriate adjustment?

There is a significant limitation in the literature about this question. Despite the growing recognition that subjective career characteristics are increasingly important in determining employees' behavior and attitudes in the workplace (e.g. Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996; Schein, 1996; Cappellen and Janssens, 2005), this area has been only marginally studied in the context of expatriation. Apart from few exceptions (e.g. Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010, Lazarova *et al.*, 2014), the role of assigned expatriates' internal career characteristics, such as career anchors in the process of expatriation, has attracted very little attention.

Yet, according to Schein (1990) individuals are likely to have a dominant career anchor that will guide their career choices. Schein presents this as *"that one element in a person's self-concept, which he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices"* (Schein, 1990: 18). After developing a stable career identity, which is assumed to take a few initial years of experience, this dominant anchor (or "real self") is not expected to change over time. Schein claims that "*the better people know themselves, the more they want to hold on to those insights*" (p. 32). Most people would attach themselves to one of the eight following anchors (Schein, 1978; 1987; 1990): *functional competence*, *managerial competence*, *autonomy, security*, *entrepreneurial, dedication to a cause, pure challenge,* and *lifestyle*. Feldman and Bolino (1996) distinguished the anchors based on the centrality of their components (talents, needs or values) and proposed the following classification: *talent-based* (functional competence, managerial competence and entrepreneurial creativity), *need-based* (autonomy, security and lifestyle), and *value-based* (dedication to a cause and pure challenge). Table II.6 presents a summary of key aspects of career aspirations.

TABLE II.6

The key aspects of career aspirations

Concept	A career anchor is defined by three components: (1) self-perceived talent and abilities, (2) self-perceived motives and needs, and (3) self-perceived concept attitudes and values (Schein, 1990).
Definitions	"Your career anchor is a combination of perceived areas of competence, motives, and values that you would not give up, it represents your real self" (Schein, 1993, p1). A career anchor is "that one element in a person's self-concept, which he or she will not give up, even in the face of difficult choices" (Schein, 1990, p. 18).
Dimensions	The nine dimensions of career anchors are (1) technical competence, "prefers advancement only in his/her technical or functional area of competence"; (2) managerial competence, "excited by the opportunity to analyse and solve problems under conditions of incomplete information and uncertainty"; (3) security and stability, "motivated by job security and long-term attachment to one organization; dislike travel and relocation"; (4) entrepreneurial creativity, "motivated by the need to build or create something that is entirely their own project"; (5) autonomy and independence, "motivated to seek work situations which are maximally free of organizational constraints"; (6) service and dedication to a cause, "want to align work activities with personal values about helping society"; (7) pure challenge, "define their careers in terms of daily combat or competition in which winning is everything"; (8) lifestyle, "motivated to balance career with lifestyle" (Schein, 1990); (9) internationalism, "excited by working in international task environment" (Suutari and Taka, 2004). See measurement items in Appendix 1.
Classifi-cation	Threefold classification (Feldman and Bolino, 1996): talent-based career anchors (functional competence, managerial competence and entrepreneurial creativity), need-based career anchors (autonomy, security and lifestyle), and value-based career anchors (dedication to a cause and pure challenge).
Gaps	A review of the extant literature revealed that no prior study has explored the links between career anchors and expatriate adjustment.

In the context of expatriation, Suutari and Taka (2004) extended Schein's eight original career anchors and included another item – *internationalism* (see Table II.6). This new anchor focuses on international mobility because of the opportunity it provides to work with people from different cultures in international environments as well as the associated task challenges. To date, only a few research articles have explicitly focused on the career anchors of organizational expatriates (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Lazarova *et al*., 2014) and only one article has conceptualized their impact on expatriates' international assignment success (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009). A review of the extant literature revealed that no prior study has explored the links between organizational expatriates' career anchors and adjustment to a new cultural environment. Consequently, Essay 3 attempts to fill this gap and answer the following research question:

Research Question 2a: How do career anchors influence assigned expatriates' adjustment?

Although some research has been conducted on self-initiated expatriates' motivations for moving abroad (e.g., Korn, 2009; Myers and Pringle, 2005; Tharenou and Caulfield, 2010), very little is known about the motivations of young female SIEs. So far, the scope of research has often been restricted, if not to assigned expatriates, then to the particular case of women as trailing spouses, who are presented as "followers" rather than "initiators" (see Andrersen *et al*., 2015). Yet, the "initiative" criterion reflects an active choice to leave (e.g., Harrison *et al*., 2004; Myers and Pringle, 2005). To date, much research on expatriation has been somewhat gender-specific, because the literature has focused on expatriates assigned by their company, who are primarily male (Adler, 1984; Altman and Shortland, 2008; Berry and Bell, 2012; Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998; Kollinger, 2005). More recently, there is growing focus on other forms of expatriation, including SIEs who comprise a more gender-balanced population (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010; Thorn, 2009). This new population presents opportunities to study a larger numbers of working women, relatively independently from men. However, very little empirical research, if any, has been conducted on the adjustment of female SIEs.

Also, research to date has tended to associate women with family, based on the assumption that the issues related to the lack of work-family balance are more disruptive for female expatriates than their male counterparts (Fischlmayr and Kollinger, 2010). Notwithstanding the large number of studies focused on work-life conflicts, the "life" side has typically been defined as spouse and children rather than personal fulfillment (Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005) and little is known about the motivations of non-mothers to choose a different career pathway (Wilhoit, 2014). The question of age is also connected to this issue. Although Schein's (1990) career anchor perspective and the "anchor" metaphor itself suggest a certain stability over time, other streams of research presume an age-related shift in work-related priorities and motives (e.g., Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004). Based on the existing literature (e.g., Ciulla, 2000), it seems reasonable to assume that work and career cannot be separated from the meaning given to these relocations. Therefore, Essay 6 in this thesis focuses on the motivations and adjustment of young female self-initiated expatriates and responds the following research question:

Research Question 2b: How do the motivations to move abroad influence young female self-initiated expatriates' adjustment?

In the context of expatriation when viewed as a time-limited experience, the two sections that follow focus on the self or the subjective dimension of expatriate adjustment, discussing the role of emotions and aspirations, moderated by gender and age. The time assumptions behind the process of adjustment and the boundary conditions of the current main temporal theories have rarely been examined in the literature. This section explores in more depth the temporal aspect of expatriate adjustment.

Expatriate adjustment and time

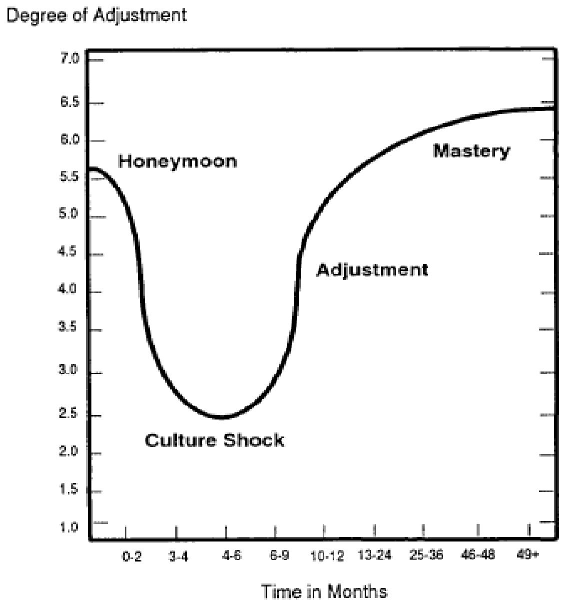
Most management theories are explicitly or implicitly longitudinal in nature (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010) and theories about expatriate adjustment are no exception. Although it is known that expatriate adjustment is a process that evolves over time (e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991), especially during the first months (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Firth *et al*., 2014), there is still very little known about the forms of change, or ways expatriates adjust with time (Hippler *et al*., 2015).

Aside from the almost total absence of longitudinal empirical research in this area (Hippler *et al*., 2015), not many theories have covered the dynamic aspect of adjustment. So far, the major conceptualization of adjustment forms of change, linear versus non-linear (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010), is the U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955). This refers to the trajectory of cross-cultural adjustment characterized by an initial honeymoon stage of excitement and fascination with the host country, followed by a crisis stage or culture shock, before a final recovery or adjustment phase (e.g. Adler, 1975; Lesser and Peter, 1957; Oberg, 1960; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Gullahorn and Gullarhorn, 1963; see Table II.7 and Figure II.3).

Despite its intuitive potential for practical application, critical thinking about this model seems to have fizzled out after several years of intense debate and (only occasional) testing. Past reviews of the process of adjustment over time have failed to confirm or deny convincingly the validity of the U-curve hypothesis, given the heterogeneity of the samples and designs of the studies reviewed (18 studies published between 1968 and 1984 – Black and Mendenhall, 1991) or the lack of longitudinal research taking into account adjustment in the first months after arrival (23 studies in a meta-analysis – Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005).

FIGURE II.3

The U-curve of cross-cultural adjustment



Source: Black and Mendenhall (1991)

Since Black and Mendenhall's (1991) last review, based on empirical research and dedicated exclusively to the process of adjustment over time, a relatively small amount of research has been conducted on the topic (12 articles published in academic journals; see Essay 5 for details). Therefore it appears clear that more research is needed in this direction. In order to fill this gap, addressed in Essays 4, 5 and 6, the following research question is proposed:

***Research Question 3**: How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time?*

Some of the seminal articles on adjustment written by Black and colleagues did take the issue of time into account. Black and Mendenhall (1991) used social learning lenses (Bandura, 1977) to explain the U-shaped trajectory of expatriate adjustment over time, which could be moderated by specific factors such as anticipatory adjustment, self-efficacy, or cultural similarity. Nevertheless, to the best of my knowledge, the theoretical directions proposed by Black and Mendenhall (1991) have not been tested empirically.

TABLE II.7

The key aspects of adjustment over time

Concept	Culture shock is defined as "the anxiety that results from losing all of our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse" (Oberg, 1960: 142); it is seen as the convergence of cultural encounter from the host country and painful mourning related to the home country that creates a threat to the newcomer's identity (Gharza-Guerrero, 1974)
Hypothesis	The U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Adler, 1975; Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960) depicts a honeymoon phase (fascination, euphoria for the host culture) followed by a crisis (confusion, hostility or depression stage), and subsequent adjustment (appropriate coping strategies) to the new culture.
Criticisms	The existing hypotheses do not adequately address crucial questions, such as "Is the order of stages invariant?" and "Must all stages be passed through or can some be skipped by some individuals?" (Church, 1982: 541). The rare empirical studies show a lack of awareness of the theoretical implications of their measurements and methodological choices (Ward *et al*., 2001); they also often use samples of international students (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005)

More recent research, building on the foundational studies, has brought important insights. From their meta-analysis, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) estimated a sideways S-shaped trajectory, with a honeymoon period of around 12 months, a dip around three years, and adjustment after about four years. However, no moderating effects nor, for instance, how personal differences or demographics may influence the results were discussed. As a result, the authors were not able to provide guidance on potential boundary conditions of the trajectory of expatriate adjustment. Finally, the recent empirical work of Firth *et al.* (2014) does show evidence of a time effect on work adjustment but focuses exclusively on newcomers and the short period of time (first four months) immediately following arrival in the host country. Therefore, these findings do not give any indications of the trajectory of adjustment from a more global perspective (i.e., for a year or three-year period for example).

It is also important to note that these major milestones in the literature on time and adjustment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Firth *et al.*, 2014) have only considered assigned expatriation and that no substantial empirical work exists on self-initiated expatriation, a more recent phenomenon. Moreover, because research on AEs tends to focus primarily on male expatriates (Berry and Bell, 2012; Shaffer *et al.*, 2006) – see for instance Firth *et al*., 2014, where 96% of the expatriates in the sample were male – we know very little about how adjustment evolves for female expatriates. As well as the gender-biased representation of expatriates, the perspective taken in a large proportion of the research also implies an age-specific group of expatriates with an average age of around 40 (e.g., Shaffer *et al.*, 2006) and has not looked much for changes or differences among expatriates of different age groups.

Nevertheless, a closer look at the interdisciplinary literature on time opens new avenues through which to reconsider the topic of time and adjustment. In line with the approach of Hippler *et al.* (2015), who recently applied Mitchell and James's (2001) guidelines for theory building with regard to time and expatriate adjustment, I develop new arguments in Essays 4 and 5 using the work of Mosakowski and Earley (2000), focusing on aspects that Hippler *et al*. (2015) did not examine in detail, such as the synchronization of the different dimensions of adjustment and the potential boundary conditions related to the process of adjustment over time.

Mosakowski and Earley (2000) offered a review of time assumptions in research and detailed several dimensions of time – nature, experience, orientation, flow and structure (Table II.8) – that, based on my knowledge of the field, I consider important and useful to better understand the trajectory of adjustment over time. First, the expatriation literature often implies that the nature of time is "even" (Clark, 1985), the same for everyone, independent of events, space and motion.

TABLE II.8

Mosakowski and Earley's (2000) time dimensions

Nature	The nature of time can be seen as real (independent of events, also called "even" time, Clark, 1985) or epiphenomenal (dependent on events, space and motion, also called "event" time, Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988)
Experience	The experience of time can be seen as objective (clock time), i.e., independent from individuals, or subjective, varying from one individual's perceptions to another depending on their histories, beliefs, and feelings (Lauer, 1981)
Orientation	Time can be either past-present or present-future oriented
Flow	The flow of time can be either novel (with few repetitions), cyclical (with regular repetitions), or punctuated (with irregular repetitions)
Structure	The structure of time can be either discrete (with measurable temporal units), continuous (flow that cannot be broken but identified through events), or epochal (depends on subjective experience)

Questioning these assumptions, and assuming that time could be, on the contrary, epiphenomenal, leads to questioning the experience of time, suggesting a more subjective view where the experience varies, for example, with age and life experiences. If time becomes subjective then the orientation (past-present versus present-future) may also change from one individual to another, especially with age. Also, the flow of time – novel or repetitive (first expatriation versus long international career) – and its structure – discrete (beginning-middle-end of an assignment) or continuous (serendipitous self-initiated experience) – bring new perspectives through which to reposition the research on adjustment and time.

Thus, taking a epiphenomenal and subjective view of time to comprehend the process of adjustment over time forces an in-depth examination of latent time assumptions and certain demographics, such as gender, age, or condition of expatriation (nature, experience, and orientation of time), and characteristics like the type of expatriation (structure of time) or experience of expatriation (flow of time), which may influence the experience of time and therefore the shape of the adjustment trajectory. I attempt to fill this gap using different research designs in Essays 4, 5 and 6 and respond to the following research questions:

Research Question 3a: What are the possible trajectories of the adjustment process over time?

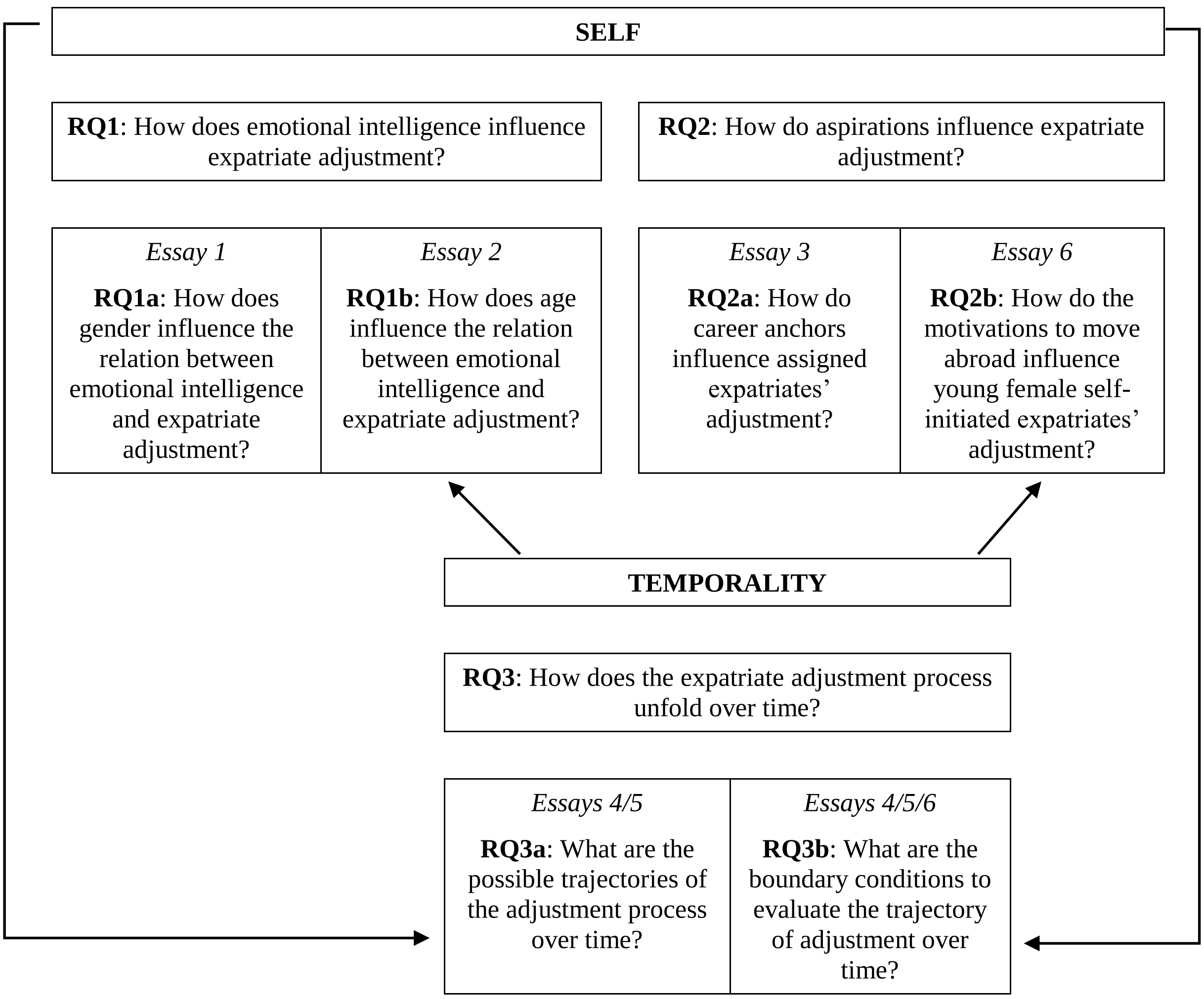
Research Question 3b: What are the boundary conditions to evaluate the trajectory of adjustment over time?

Outline of the thesis

Drawing together the arguments presented so far in this Chapter, the general structure of the thesis, the connection between the six essays and the different research questions can be summarized in Figure II.4. Four Essays (1, 2, 3 and 6) cover the "self" dimension, associating under this common label emotions and aspirations, and four essays (under overlaps: Essays 2, 4, 5 and 6) will cover the temporal dimensions (time or age). Altogether, this work aims to advance the understanding of the general question of research of this thesis: how do time and personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation?

FIGURE II.4

Schematic overview of the thesis



METHODS

Research design

In this section I present the main aspects of the methodologies (Aguinis *et al*., 2009) employed in the essays that make up this thesis. I focus exclusively on expatriates (sample type) with different primary occupations (assigned and self-initiated expatriates, trailing spouses, international students), allowing a wide spectrum of analysis. The six essays share the same primary concept of interest – adjustment to a new cultural environment.

The thesis adopts a methodologically pluralistic approach (Norgaard, 1989). Multiple methodological frameworks have been chosen to address the main research question: *how do time and personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation*? Indeed, this research combines several methods from different paradigms in order to focus on different realities and so enrich the understanding of the topic (Mingers, 2001). For each study, the methodology that best fitted the research question was chosen (Hesse-Biber and Johnson, 2013; Johnson and Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Methodological pluralism (Popa and Guillermin, 2015) here combines quantitative approaches (cluster analysis, canonical regressions, interactions analyses); qualitative approaches (diary analysis); research review (systematic review); multiple data sources (two surveys, blogs, and articles); and multiple time-frame perspectives (cross-sectional and longitudinal).

A methodological overview is displayed in Table II.9 showing sample size, data collection method, sample type, descriptive statistics in terms of gender, age, home, and host countries, main concepts, methodological approach, and research strategy.

Data collection

The research behind the essays in this thesis gathered rich content on expatriation, including assigned and self-initiated expatriates, younger and older, male and female, working for private and non-for-profit organizations, with time-specific and longitudinal data. This thesis involved four processes of data collection. First, two questionnaires were implemented by two co-authors for some of the essays included. Second, two data collections gathered published content from online diaries (blogs) or academic publications (articles). These three methods of data collection (survey data, articles, online diaries) are detailed below.

TABLE II.9

Methodological overview

Essays	N	Data collections	Samples	Gender	Age	Home countries	Host countries	Main concepts	Approaches	Research strategies
Essay 1	269	Online questionnaire Cross-sectional	Assigned expatriates in a non-profit organization	47% women	M = 41	France	Mixed	CCA (Black and Stephens, 1989); EI (Schutte et al., 1998); gender	Quantitative	Hierarchical regressions and interaction effects
Essay 2	254	Online questionnaire Cross-sectional	Assigned expatriates in a non-profit organization	30% women	M = 41	France	Mixed	CCA (Black and Stephens, 1989); EI (Schutte et al., 1998); age	Quantitative	Hierarchical regressions and interaction effects
Essay 3	189	Online questionnaire Cross-sectional	Assigned expatriates in a non-profit organization	29% women	M = 41	France	Mixed	CCA (Black and Stephens, 1989); EI (Schutte et al., 1998); career anchors (Schein, 1990; Cerdin, 2007)	Quantitative	Canonical and SEM analyses
Essay 4	1293	Published articles	Assigned expatriates, sojourners, trailing spouses, international students	NA	NA	Mixed	Mixed	Adjustment to a new cultural environment, time	Research review	Qualitative systematic review
Essay 5	584	Online questionnaire Cross-sectional	Assigned and self-initiated expatriates	21% women	M = 32	Mixed	Mixed	CCA (Black and Stephens, 1989); time	Quantitative	Correspondence and cluster analyses, non-linear regressions
Essay 6	559	Blogs Longitudinal	Self-initiated expatriates	100% women	30	Mixed	Mixed	Adjustment to a new cultural environment, time	Qualitative	Diary analysis

1) Survey data

Surveying techniques allow individuals to be questioned about their perceptions and attitudes (e.g., Rogelberg and Stanton, 2007). Surveys remain the most common method of data collection (Church and Waclawski, 2001; Simsek and Veiga, 2000; Stanton *et a*l., 2002), despite their recognized limitations, including; the lack of interactivity with respondents or lack of complete anonymity (e.g., Simsek and Veiga, 2000); less information richness than face-to-face communication (e.g., Daft and Lengel, 1984); or the effect of negative attitudes towards the survey (Baruch, 1999; Rogelberg *et al*., 2001). However, surveys reduce time and cost and offer effective access to stakeholders by avoiding the temporal and geographic constraints associated with other modes of data collection (Rogelberg and Stanton, 2007). In the context of this thesis, data for the quantitative analyses come from two questionnaires that were sent to 1626 expatriates in total, with an average rate of response of 56%. As a comparison, Werner *et al*. (2007) reported, from their analysis of articles published in the main management journals, a mean response rate of 52%. Data have been accessed in the 2011-2012 period.

The first questionnaire surveyed French assigned expatriates working for a non-profit organization and was implemented and coordinated by Cecile Dejoux (Cnam Paris, France) with the Alliance Française. The Alliance Française is a not-for-profit organization that promotes French culture, language and education in more than 130 countries around the world. In cooperation with the international human resource manager, an online questionnaire was sent to the 340 assigned expatriates employed by the organization. The largest usable sample consisted of 269 observations, leading to a response rate of 79%. Usable observations and partial aspects (cross-cultural adjustment, emotional intelligence, career anchors, demographics, and controls) of this questionnaire have been used to conduct the analyses of Essay 1 (n = 269), Essay 2 (n = 254), and Essay 3 (n = 189). It has to be noted that sample sizes of Essays 2 and 3 decrease in comparison to Essay 1 due to missing observations for essay-specific variables. While descriptive and reliability indices are not identical, they remain extremely close and no selection bias has been observed. Further details of the sample and data collections are given in the first three essays (e.g., translation issues). All the expatriates were French and assigned in different countries. Having a single nationality within the organization is an important asset as it allows researchers to control for some form of cultural distance (Church, 1982).

Expatriation research has primarily focused on private organizations (e.g., Berry and Bell, 2012; McNulty and Brewster, 2016). Although growing (e.g., Lindenberg, 1999), the not-for-profit sector has attracted little research (Fenwick, 2005), especially in the expatriation literature (Selmer and Fenner, 2009a, 2009b). Therefore, this data collection brings important insights on expatriates in the context of non-profit organizations. Yet depending to a large extent on expatriates (Dahlgren *et al*., 2009) to represent their values, this form of organization has a relatively high turnover rate (Fenwick, 2005). As such, the context of not-for-profit organizations appears particularly appropriate to examine the topic of expatriate adjustment in greater depth.

The second questionnaire provided a larger picture of expatriates working in for-profit organizations, allowing the comparison between assigned and self-initiated expatriates. It was implemented and coordinated by Olivier Wurtz (University of Vaasa, Finland) who accessed data from three large European multinationals representing about 1300 expatriates. In total, 637 questionnaires were completed leading to a response rate of 50%. A selection of observations and partial aspects of this questionnaire were used to conduct analyses for Essay 5. For instance, like Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), we limited our sample to assignments no longer than four years. The final sample consisted of 584 observations.

More diverse than the first sample, this second data collection enabled a different analytical approach. It was made up of assigned (84%) and self-initiated (16%) expatriates, female (21%) and male (79%), different ages (range = [21; 63]) and positions (e.g., upper management 26%). This second sample was particularly well suited to building a taxonomy of expatriates and drawing an averaged trajectory of adjustment for each expatriate type. This point is presented in further detail in Essay 5.

2) Literature review articles collection

As well as collecting survey data, I conducted a research review of the existing empirical research on adjustment and time. The idea that methods of analysis depend on research questions also applies to reviews (Gough *et al.*, 2009). Rather than a traditional or expert review, I chose a systematic approach to examine the topic of adjustment as a dynamic process over time. The nature of the data to be collected was defined according to the research question of the systematic review (Gough *et al*., 2012: 56). This same research question also helped to define the inclusion criteria, in other words established boundaries (topic, method, date, and source) for which studies to include in the review (e.g., Tranfield *et al*., 2003).

Using the major databases (e.g., EBSCO), I undertook a systematic search of published empirical articles on the process of adjustment. Looking for different sets of keywords in titles, abstracts, or full texts (see details in Essay 4), the research focused on adjustment, time, and expatriation.

The search was limited to the period between 1991 (Black and Mendenhall's last review on time and adjustment) and March, 2016. In total, 12 studies met the inclusion criteria, together collecting information from 1293 expatriates. Five studies focused on assigned expatriates, five on international students, and two on trailing spouses. No studies referring to adjustment and time were found for self-initiated expatriation.

3) Online diaries (blogs) collection

As well as classical surveys and systematic review data collection, this thesis also demonstrates some creative ways to collect rich content data at the individual level. I used public blogs written by expatriates to collect online diary data, which, to the best of my knowledge, has not previously been done in research on expatriation. Surprisingly, little is known about diaries as a way to collect data and this technique has attracted little attention (Day and Thatcher, 2005; Jones and Woolley, 2015; Patterson, 2005), even though free-form and unstructured diaries have been described as meaningful qualitative data (Elliott, 1997), and particularly useful for analyzing within-person changes over time (Bell, 1998; Bolger *et al.,* 2003)

Diaries have been mostly paper-pen based (e.g., Bolger *et al.,* 2003), although electronic diary data collection has been tested to facilitate some aspects of research (e.g., transcription) (Barrett and Barrett, 2001). However, these types of diaries are largely solicited (Corti, 1983) and have significant limitations. They imply a long-term relationship between the participant and the researcher (Alaszewski, 2006: 54), are relatively demanding for the diarist (La Porte *et al.,* 1985), and potentially disrupt the daily routine that the researcher is attempting to study (Bolger *et al.,* 2003). In the digital age, the opportunity to conduct further research on the use of internet technologies has emerged (Evans *et al.,* 2008; Hanna, 2012; Murry 2009). Nevertheless, despite their potential, online blogs are only marginally explored.

Three components define a diary (Alaszewski, 2006). First, a reliance on short-term memory, which limits retrospective bias (McLaren and Solomon, 2010); second, regularity of record-keeping; and third, the personal recording of events and the feelings they engender. As they are consistent with this definition, blogs, or online diaries, can be treated as an extension of diary research (Hookway, 2008). Blogs (weblogs) are an easy to use form of chronologically archived instant publishing, meant for regular updates (Schmidt, 2007). Like traditional diaries, and thanks to this automatic archive system, they allow researchers to examine a process over time (Hookway, 2008).

In Essay 6, the platform Tumblr.com was used to find blogs on the topic of expatriation and collect their content. Tumblr is a microblogging platform that in 2014 hosted over 250 million blogs and more than 121.2 billion posts,[13] making it currently the most popular platform on the Internet. The search was limited to self-initiated expatriates, excluding trailing spouses (see Andresen *et al*., 2015), written by women who moved abroad temporarily, without the sponsorship of a company, to look for employment (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014; Jokinen *et al*., 2008). The final sample consisted of 11 blogs. In diary studies, the unit of observation is the number of entries (Conway and Briner, 2002). I counted the number of entries found in each blog, producing an effective sample size of 559. The bloggers were young, single, female self-initiated expatriates living and working in a foreign country for more than six months. They were aged between 24 and 33 and had moved from developed home countries (e.g., the US, Singapore) to a variety of host countries (e.g., France, Egypt, Korea, Australia). More details about the data collection can be found in Essay 6.

Research strategy

In the field of International Business, multidisciplinary methodological perspectives are commonly used. Although quantitative methods now represent the norm, qualitative approaches are often more appropriate when examining emergent phenomena (Birkinshaw *et al*., 2011). This thesis settles on a mixed-methods design with a quantitative dominance (Johnson *et al*., 2007), complemented by qualitative and meta-synthetic approaches.

The six Essays are connected with a logic of development (use of the results in Essays 1, 2, and 3 in Essays 4, 5, and 6); initiation (discovering limitations in Essay 4 leading to

[13] Tumblr./About us

new research, i.e., Essay 5); and complementarity (clarification and illustration of the results of Essay 5 in Essay 6) (Green *et al*., 1989). The strategy of inquiry was mainly sequential, expanding on the findings of one method by using another (Creswell, 2009). The quantitative, qualitative, and meta-synthetic approaches adopted in the thesis are presented below.

Quantitative approach

This thesis gathers various sophisticated statistical analyses, starting with statistical regressions. Regression analyses can be regarded as "*the workhorse of statistical methods in quantitative social science*" (Andersen, 2008: 1). In this tradition, a series of regressions are presented in Essays 1, 2, 3, and 5. Three types of regressions are briefly presented below: regressions with interaction effects, canonical regressions, and non-linear regressions.

First, interactions effects. Models level of sophistication and search for moderating effects increase with the maturity of a field of research (Aguinis, 2002). Indeed, numerous questions in organizational research could be answered by "*it depends*" (Aguinis, 2002; O'Boyle *et al*., 2015). This common answer implies that a relationship between two variables can be altered by a third variable, called a moderator variable. Baron and Kenny (1986, p. 1174) define a moderator as a "*qualitative or quantitative variable that affects the direction and/or strength of the relation between an independent and dependent or criterion variable.*" In other words, explained by Aguinis *et al*. (2016), moderation is a change of magnitude of an antecedent (here emotional intelligence) on the outcome (here cross-cultural adjustment) depending on contingency factors (here, gender in Essay 1 and age in Essay 2). Interested readers may refer to Aiken and West (1991), Baron and Kenny (1986), or James and Brett (1984) for a detailed presentation. Moderators appear as the most frequently proposed hypotheses in management (about 40% of the publications in the Academy of Management Journal in 2013, O'Boyle *et al*., 2015). Contributing to this trend, two of the six essays in this thesis (Essays 1 and 2) rely on testing interaction effects.

Second, this thesis also uses less mainstream statistical techniques, for example, canonical regressions, which are particularly suited to analyzing the relationships between two sets of variables (Sherry and Henson, 2005), here the dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment and the dimensions of career anchors. Canonical correlation analysis determines if two sets of variables are interrelated, exposes the nature of the relationship, and measures the contribution of each variable to the canonical factors (Alpert and Peterson, 1972; Sherry and Henson, 2005). Despite the potential of canonical regressions to generate wide analytic possibilities, canonical correlation analyses are used relatively rarely in management, largely because the method provides no statistical significance testing (Fan, 1997; Thompson, 1984), thus raising concerns about the subjective interpretation of results (Mulaik *et al*., 1989). However, this limitation has been overcome by the use of structural equation modeling estimates through a multiple indicators/multiple causes model (see Fan, 1997, for a demonstration) to obtain statistical significance (Bagozzi *et al*., 1981; Fan, 1997; Guarino, 2004). I apply this approach in Essay 3.

Third, this thesis also uses "modern" regression methods (Andresen, 2008), such as non-linear regressions, which go beyond simple linear relationships (e.g., U-shaped relationship). Commonly, researchers estimate the linear and quadratic term of the independent variable to search for a U-shape trajectory (e.g., Haans *et al*., 2015). When looking for shapes other than U-curves, cubic and fourth-power terms are added to the equation (e.g, Rogosa *et al*., 1982; Rogosa and Willet, 1985). This method is used in Essay 5 to predict the change of adjustment over time for the three facets of cross-cultural adjustment.

Also relatively less common are exploratory methods such as classification, which has been described as "*one of the most central and generic of all our conceptual exercises*" (Bailey, 1994: 1). Classification, which is used in Essay 5, is defined as the process and result of ordering similar entities into groups. A review of the literature revealed that, with some exceptions (e.g., Andresen and Biemann, 2013; Baruch and Altman, 2002; Stock and Genisyürek, 2012), very few taxonomies (empirical/quantitative method, distinct from conceptual typologies, Sokal and Sneath, 1963) can be found in the literature on expatriation. Cluster analysis (e.g., Bailey, 1983; McQuitty, 1956) appears as one quantitative method of classification, synonymous with taxonomy. Classifications have numerous advantages. They allow the description of a complex reality, reducing the level of complexity, identifying similarities and differences, and enabling a comparison of types (Bailey, 1994). This technique is used and presented in greater detail in Essay 5 in order to build a taxonomy of expatriates for the particular purpose of exploring the trajectory of adjustment of each class. Adopting a multidimensional perspective, expatriates were clustered on the basis of their background attributes (Sokal and Sneath, 1963: 180). This data-driven procedure allowed me to deduce a fourfold inductive classification and subsequently to examine several patterns of adjustment from a dynamic perspective.

Qualitative approach

Although this thesis has a quantitative dominance, Essay 6 takes a qualitative approach, focusing exclusively on female self-initiated expatriates, and, I believe, makes an original contribution to the expatriation field in that I chose to analyze online diaries. Until now, diary methods have been relatively neglected in organization studies (e.g., Day and Thatcher, 2009). The methodology for this project draws on the interpretive traditions within qualitative research, with which I aim to understand actors' views and the meaning of their actions (Romani *et al*., 2011: 4).

Diary study captures ongoing life experiences in a timely and unstructured manner (Bolger *et al*., 2003; Reis and Wheeler, 1991). It also allows the exploration of emergent phenomena (female self-initiated expatriation) about which our knowledge is rather thin. For the study of adjustment to a new cultural environment, and the degree of psychological comfort experienced in the host country, online diaries are likely to contain emotional data because they are written a short time after the events they record and the content of the diary is not influenced by the researcher's solicitations (Spowart and Nairn, 2014).

Diary study enables a longitudinal research perspective without the risk of distortion caused either by imperfect or impaired memory or retrospective reinterpretation and alteration, which are likely to occur with other approaches (Verbrugge, 1980). Diary studies have been used to analyze a wide selection of dynamic relationships (Van Eerde *et al*., 2005). The content of the blogs were sorted chronologically, as a function of the departure date and then analyzed systematically and thematically. The main concepts were tracked as they emerged and led to the identification of four relevant themes: motives, downsides, identity, and meaning.

Research review

A systematic review is defined through three main actions: identifying, describing, and giving a critical appraisal of the relevant research related to a specific topic (Gough *et al*., 2012: 5). In this case, and because only a few empirical attempts can be found in the literature on adjustment and time, I have taken a qualitative (in-depth examination), aggregative, and configurative (organizing the findings) approach (Gough *et al*., 2012: 9). Transparent and replicable (Transfield *et al*., 2003), this technique, as an alternative to meta-analyses, like other research synthesis methods, cumulates and summarizes findings on the topic (Murlow, 1994), in a more exhaustive and less biased manner (Rousseau *et al.*, 2008). Systematic reviews also offer a summary of the research independent of its epistemological or methodological choices (Thorpe *et al.*, 2005).

Following Transfield *et al*.'s (2003) guidelines, I scrutinized the literature on expatriate adjustment to generate research questions and define the inclusion/exclusion criteria defined in Essay 4. The configurative approach chosen here is often associated with a conceptual analysis within the review, and iterative exploration of theories (inductive approach) (Gough *et al*., 2012: 52). The scope of this review is relatively narrow and focuses exclusively on the influence of time on adjustment. Following Whetten's (1989) guidelines for the discussion of theoretical contributions, I analyzed all the articles to identify "what" (concept and measure of adjustment), "how" (research design), "who" (sample size, specific population targeted, gender and age of participants), "where" (home and host countries), and "when" (date of publication), and the findings (shape of the trajectory). More details about the procedure can be found in Essay 4.

Ethical approval

Data analyzed in this thesis include secondary, public domain, and archival data sources that did not require formal ethical approval from Macquarie University. Survey data examined in the thesis that were gathered by academics at other institutions were subject to the relevant ethical procedures at those institutions.

MAIN FINDINGS

In this thesis, I aimed to explicate a deeper and more nuanced understanding how time and personal attributes influence the experience of expatriation. In this section, I summarize the main findings and conclusions of the essays that follow. An overview of these findings and their links with the research questions outlined here are summarized more comprehensively in Table II.10.

Summary of Essay 1: Emotional intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and gender[14]

The essay examines the role of emotional intelligence in the cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates on international assignments. Based on a sample of 269 French expatriates operating in 133 countries, it reveals a significant and positive relationship between the three dimensions of emotional intelligence and expatriates' general living, interactional, and work-related cross-cultural adjustment. Additionally, the analysis finds that cultural similarity facilitates only general living adjustment and not interactional or work adjustment. Finally, despite the absence of direct effects of gender on cross-cultural adjustment, it yields an interesting interaction effect between gender and the ability to appraise and express emotions: the influence of the latter on all three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment tends to be slightly stronger for male than female expatriates.

Summary of Essay 2: Emotional intelligence, cross-cultural adjustment, and age[15]

Using socioemotional selectivity theory, this essays sheds some light on the role of expatriates' age in the relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment of expatriates on assignment. We test our hypotheses using hierarchical regression models and a sample of 254 French expatriate managers. Our analysis reveals a number of interesting findings. First, the essay confirms the positive influence of emotional intelligence on expatriate adjustment, especially utilization of emotions for problem solving. Second, it shows that age is positively related to cross-cultural adjustment and is a more prominent factor than prior international experience. Third, we find that age is a facilitator of the regulation and utilization of emotions for general living adjustment and of the regulation of emotions for interactional adjustment. Fourth, our complementary analyses show that expatriates' prior expatriation experience affects the relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment differently and less prominently than age. Overall, our analysis is one of the first attempts to provide a more detailed theoretical understanding of the relationships between age, expatriation experience, emotional intelligence, and cross-cultural adjustment in the context of expatriation.

[14] Published abstract
[15] Published abstract

Summary of Essay 3: Career anchors and cross-cultural adjustment[16]

Based on a sample of 189 expatriate managers working for a non-profit organization, our analysis first reveals that the dominant anchors are internationalism, dedication to a cause, and lifestyle. Second, we draw on the person-environment fit theory to theorize and test previously unexplored linkages between expatriates' career anchors and cross-cultural adjustment. Our analysis shows that different career anchors facilitate different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment: autonomy, security, dedication to a cause, and pure challenge are conducive to general living adjustment; dedication to a cause, pure challenge, and internationalism to international adjustment; and functional competence, managerial competence, pure challenge, and internationalism to work adjustment. Overall, this essay is one of the first attempts to explore career anchors and their linkages to cross-cultural adjustment among expatriates in a non-for-profit organization.

Summary of Essay 4: Time and expatriate adjustment

This review attempts to bring new insights to the following questions: 1) What are the key findings in the literature on expatriate adjustment as a process over time? To examine adjustment as a process, what (2) research designs and (3) assumptions are made in this literature in terms of operationalization and dimensions of adjustment? And (4) what are the boundary conditions of this literature and the potential implications of these boundary conditions for adjustment trajectories? This study offers a systematic qualitative review of 12 empirical articles on the process of expatriate adjustment over time published in academic journals between 1991 and 2016. It shows that previous researchers have actually studied highly diverse elements: they use different research designs, focus on different measures of adjustment with implicit time assumptions, on students as often as corporate expatriates, and conclude on trajectories that have different shapes, stages, and durations. This review suggests theoretical developments related to the boundary conditions for studying the trajectory of adjustment over time, primarily in terms of expatriation conditions, age, experience, and gender. I conclude that the literature on time is marginally integrated with the literature on expatriation and that the time assumptions and synchronization issues for the multidimensional aspect of adjustment are largely ignored. Also few expatriate populations have been studied from a temporal perspective, such as, for instance, female

[16] Published abstract

assigned expatriates, self-initiated expatriates, or expatriates working for not-for-profit organizations.

Summary of Essay 5: Temporality, contingency, and dimensionality of expatriate adjustment over time

Essay 5 explores the temporality, multidimensionality, and contingency of cross-cultural adjustment among expatriates as a process over time. It starts by identifying and explicating a number of limitations that currently dog the existing literature on cross-cultural adjustment among expatriates, namely the very limited attention paid to the temporal, multidimensional, and contingent nature of the adjustment process. Then, based on the analysis of 584 expatriates in three multinational corporations, the study yields three findings. First, it identifies three different trajectories of adjustment among different groups of expatriates, thus empirically illustrating the temporal nature of cross-cultural adjustment and its development over time. Second, it illustrates that the identified trajectories are different for expatriates with different profiles in terms of age, expatriation experience, hierarchical position, and expatriation type, thus verifying the contingency of cross-cultural adjustment on expatriates' characteristics and attributes, which influences how expatriates perceive time. Third, it shows that different dimensions of expatriate adjustment develop differently over time, thus empirically establishing that different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment as a multidimensional phenomenon develop asynchronously. The essay concludes with a number of propositions aimed at advancing our theoretical understanding of expatriate adjustment as a process over time.

Summary of Essay 6: Young female self-initiated expatriates' adjustment over time

This essay examines the motives of female SIEs when deciding to work abroad and their subsequent adjustment trajectory. Using a longitudinal analysis of blogs (online diaries), I identify four themes associated with the expatriate adjustment process: motives, downsides, recovery, and meaning. I find that the U-curve of adjustment is an accurate representation of the adjustment trajectory of female SIEs. However, this essay reveals that major culture shock is preceded by an earlier existential shock that appears to be emotionally related and culturally disconnected. I show that female SIEs fit the profile of "escapers", as defined in the expatriation literature, in that the notion of career is completely absent from their blog posts, motives for departure, and throughout the process of adjustment; however, it is replaced by feminist and existentialist reflection.

TABLE II.10
Summary of the main findings and conclusions

Essays	Research questions	Findings	Conclusions
Essay 1	RQ 1: How does emotional intelligence influence expatriate adjustment? RQ 1a: How does gender influence the relation between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?	1) The three dimensions of emotional intelligence are positively related to the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment; 2) No direct effects of gender on cross-cultural adjustment were found; 3) The gender (female) moderation effect is negative and marginally significant for one dimension of emotional intelligence only.	Emotional intelligence plays a positive role in expatriate adjustment, especially utilization of emotions for problem solving. No strong differences have been found in the relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment when comparing male and female expatriates, except for the dimension "appraisal and expression of emotions", which appears to be less beneficial for women than men.
Essay 2	RQ 1: How does emotional intelligence influence expatriate adjustment? RQ 1b: How does age influence the relation between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?	1) The three dimensions of emotional intelligence are positively related to the three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment; 2) Age is positively related to cross-cultural adjustment and has a more prominent role than prior international experience; 3) Age moderates the relationship between emotional intelligence (regulation and utilization of emotions) and cross-cultural adjustment (general living and interactional adjustment).	The study confirms the positive influence of emotional intelligence on expatriate adjustment, especially utilization of emotions for problem solving. It appears that age facilitates cross-cultural adjustment and also strengthens the relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment for specific dimensions, notably regulation of emotions and general living/interactional adjustment, and utilization of emotions and general living adjustment.
Essay 3	RQ 2: How do aspirations influence expatriate adjustment? RQ 2a: How do career anchors influence assigned expatriates' adjustment?	1) The dominant career anchors in the sample were Internationalism and Dedication to a cause; 2) The need-based career anchors are partially conductive to general living adjustment; 3) The value-based career anchors are conductive to interactional adjustment; 4) The talent-based career anchors are conductive to work adjustment	The nature of the career anchors relates to different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. Notably, Dedication to a cause appears to be favorable to general living and interactional adjustments, and Internationalism and Lifestyle less prominent than expected.

TABLE II.10 (continued)
Summary of the main findings and conclusions

Essays	Research questions	Findings	Conclusions
Essay 4	RQ 3: How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time? RQ 3a: What are the possible trajectories of the adjustment process over time? RQ 3b: What are the boundary conditions to evaluate the trajectory of adjustment over time?	1) Very few studies have analyzed empirically the role of time on expatriate adjustment; 2) These studies use different research designs, measures, implicit time assumptions, types of sample and conclude on different shapes of adjustment over time; 3) Alternative trajectories to the U-curve are proposed based on boundary conditions such as age, experience, gender, and type of expatriation.	This review concludes that the literature on time is marginally integrated with the literature on expatriation and that the time assumptions and synchronization issues for the multidimensional aspect of adjustment are largely ignored. Also few expatriate populations of have been studied from a temporal perspective
Essay 5	RQ 3: How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time? RQ 3a: What are the possible trajectories of the adjustment process over time? RQ 3b: What are the boundary conditions to evaluate the trajectory of adjustment over time?	1) Four cluster of expatriates have been found: early career assigned expatriates, mid-career assigned expatriates, senior assigned expatriates, and a new generation of expatriates; 2) We observed three types of adjustment trajectories over time: (1) linear (or progressive), (2) logarithmic (an increase followed by a phase of stability), and (3) U-curve.	Two main propositions are developed: Proposition (1) Different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment follow different trajectories of development over time; Proposition (2) The trajectories of development over time for different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment are contingent on expatriates' characteristics, such as age, expatriation experience, hierarchical position, and expatriation type.
Essay 6	RQ 2: How do career aspirations influence expatriate adjustment? RQ 2b: How do the motivations to move abroad influence female self-initiated expatriates' adjustment? RQ 3: How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time?	1) Female self-initiated expatriates reflect the profile of the "escaper". A feminist interpretation of the act of moving abroad is observed; 2) Two different shocks are identified, an emotional shock disconnected from culture during the first weeks, and a culture shock around three months;3) The move abroad leads to a deep change reflecting the independence stage, where the expatriate questions her identity	The U-curve hypothesis is a fair representation of the trajectory of adjustment of female self-initiated expatriates over time. The different stages are: an emotional shock, a cultural shock, and adjustment toward independence. Female self-initiated expatriates reflect the profile of the "escaper" and the notion of career appears to be absent from the process of moving abroad. Instead, the act can be seen through a feminist and existentialist interpretation.

Summary of the key findings of the thesis

Essays 1 and 2 show the positive influence of emotional intelligence on cross-cultural adjustment (RQ 1) and demonstrate the importance of paying close attention to the role of emotional intelligence during emotionally intensive changes (like expatriation) in contemporary organizations. These two essays also show that lifespan and gendered perspectives help to reveal the role of emotions (RQ 1a and 1b) and that emotional intelligence, at least on certain dimensions, is more favorable to men than women, and to older than younger expatriates.

Essays 3 and 6 focus on expatriates' aspirations and motivation for relocating (RQ 2). Together, these essays challenge the career-oriented stereotypes of expatriates. While the dominant career anchors of assigned expatriates in our samples appear to be internationalism and dedication to a cause (Essay 3), the diaries written by young female SIEs never mention career-related motivation for their move abroad (Essay 6). For the case of assigned expatriation, the nature of the career anchors relates to different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment (RQ 2a) while for the case of young female SIEs, I find that besides culture shock, these "escapers" also experienced a strong emotionally and culturally disconnected shock affecting their process of adjustment and the meaning given to it (RQ 2b).

Essays 4 and 5 provide a thorough examination of the expatriation literature on the topic of time and expatriate adjustment (RQ 3). Essay 4 offers a review and reveals the very limited interest that the temporal aspect of adjustment has attracted in empirical research (only 12 studies published since 1991). The review of these findings shows the need to elaborate clear time assumptions related to the process of adjustment over time, and also to define applicable boundary conditions when using theories on the trajectory of adjustment (e.g., the U-curve hypothesis) (RQ 3a/b). Essay 5 is an empirical application of what is found in the review detailed in Essay 4 and shows how the trajectory of adjustment varies over time for different dimensions of adjustment and different expatriate profiles (RQ 3a/b). Essay 6 is a further examination of one of the profiles (young generation, more female, and more inclined to self-initiation, RQ 3a/b) found in Essay 5.

DISCUSSION

To recapitulate, the key research questions of this thesis were the following: How do emotional intelligence (RQ 1) and aspirations (RQ 2) influence expatriate adjustment? How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time (RQ 3)? And what are the roles of age and gender in the process of expatriate adjustment (RQ 1a/b, 2b, 3b). These have been addressed briefly in the preceding discussion and are elaborated in the essays that follow. The main contributions to knowledge arising from the works presented in this thesis are discussed below and summarized in Table II.10 and Figure II.5.

Contributions

"I had inadvertently brought myself with me to the island." Alain de Botton

Taken together, the six essays that make up this thesis aim to demonstrate the subjective aspect of expatriate adjustment. "*I had inadvertently brought myself with me to the island*" is a quote from Alain de Botton[17] (*The Art of Travel*, 2003: 19) and reflects quite accurately how the personal and subjective aspects of adjustment to a new cultural environment are relevant in the context of expatriation. Essays 1 and 2 shed some light on the emotional dimensions of the process.

Expatriation can be seen as an emotionally demanding exercise and so reflects a form of emotional labor as the efforts to adjust to a new cultural environment put significant pressure on expatriates' emotional abilities (e.g., Raz and Rafaeali, 2007). Emotional labor refers to a work context where individuals have to manage their emotions to meet the requirements of their position (Hochschild, 1983). Applied to expatriation, cultural challenges at work but also in the private sphere are likely to put emotional strain on the expatriate.

Introducing emotional intelligence (EI) suggests that the task-oriented view is insufficient to understand adjustment. It is not only the achievement that matters, but also, if not more so, the *way* of being and the *way* of achieving (Goleman *et al.*, 2010: 22). While emotional labor is defined as "*emotive behavior that is performed for a wage*" (Guy and Lee, 2015) such as, for instance, displaying appropriate emotions, emotional intelligence refers to the ability to

[17] Swiss-born, British-based philosopher and writer (b. 1969).

sense, control, and express our own emotions, and to sense and respond accurately to the emotions of others (Mayer *et al*., 2004, 2008).

While emotional labor and emotional intelligence are assumed to be strongly attached (Opengart, 2005), very little research has verified this assumption empirically (Guy and Lee, 2015). In that sense, Essays 1 and 2 confirm the expected positive role of EI on adjustment in the context of expatriation and solidify important theoretical insights on this topic, which had previously been rarely, and not systematically tested.

Expatriation has a number of salient and distinct attributes, to which people are attracted in the first place. These are its international dimensions, career prospects, professional realization, new cultural, and work experiences, lifestyle, compensation, opportunities to exert power, and other aspects that make it compelling for some. It seems plausible that having such a wide range of attractive job attributes is likely to motivate expatriates to navigate between them in pursuit of their current career and life interests in a specific moment in space and time.

Essays 3 and 6 have in common the notions of aspiration and authenticity that connect well with the concept of person-environment fit. In Essay 3, expatriates' career anchors, which refer to their "real self" in terms of career identity, are examined and connected to adjustment. In Essay 6, while the notion of career is absent from the diaries, the existentialist discourse and the search of the "real self" tend to replace it. In both cases, when connecting aspirations to adjustment, it appears that on the one side, the fit between the individual and the environment is an important driver of adjustment, and, on the other hand, that the freedom of being authentic is deeply rooted in the process of adjustment. Essays 1, 2, 3 and 6 showed that, because of the career-oriented implicit assumption associated with expatriation, the notion of self – here examined through emotions, meaning, authenticity and freedom – has been underestimated in the understanding of the adjustment process.

FIGURE II.5

Main contributions of the thesis

SELF

RQ. 1*: How does emotional intelligence influence expatriate adjustment?*

C. 1: Expatriation is an emotionally demanding exercise in which emotional intelligence plays a significant and favorable role in the process of adjustment.

RQ. 2*: How do aspirations influence expatriate adjustment?*

C. 2: Identity and career identity as reflections of the "real self" are deeply rooted to the process of expatriate adjustment

Essay 1	*Essay 2*	*Essay 3*	*Essay 6*
RQ. 1a*: How does gender influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?*	***RQ. 1b****: How does age influence the relationship between emotional intelligence and expatriate adjustment?*	***RQ. 2a****: How do career anchors influence assigned expatriates' adjustment?*	***RQ. 2b****: How do the motivations to move abroad influence young female self-initiated expatriates' adjustment?*
C. 1a: Emotional intelligence was found to be not as favorable for women as it was for men in the process of adjustment	**C. 1b**: Socio-emotional selectivity theory helps us to better understand the role of age in the relationship between emotions and adjustment	**C. 2a**: Person-environment fit theory helps us to better understand how career identity relates to adjustment	**C. 2b**: The search for authenticity and freedom ("real self") dominates the notion of career in the adjustment process

TEMPORALITY

RQ. 3*: How does the expatriate adjustment process unfold over time?*

C. 3: Expatriation reflects a transitional experience in ways such that the expatriate moves his/her frame of reference from monocultural to intercultural.

Essays 4 / 5	*Essays 4 / 5*
RQ. 3a*: What are the possible trajectories of the adjustment process over time?*	***RQ. 3b****: What are the boundary conditions to evaluate the trajectory of adjustment over time?*
C. 3a: Three types of adjustment trajectories over time are observed: (1) linear (or progressive), (2) logarithmic (an increase followed by a phase of stability), and (3) U-curve; and dimensions of adjustment may vary differently over time.	**C. 3b:** Age, gender and type of expatriation (lifespan perspective, career continuum and new generation of expatriates) appear as important conditions to delimit time assumptions and understanding of expatriate adjustment over time

"Smooth seas do not make skilful sailors." African proverb

This thesis also advances the topic of expatriate adjustment and time and its findings tend to converge toward Adler's perspective (1975) of the "transitional experience" of adjustment. Essay 5 in particular shows empirically that the trajectory of adjustment of different profiles of expatriates evolve in different ways over time. Indeed, I observed that life experience (linked to age and international experience) visibly influenced the trajectory of adjustment, so that patterns of adjustment appear to be more stable with experience.

Adler (1975) described a two-phase crisis. The first is the phenomenon of "disintegration" where the individual enters a period of confusion and increased feeling of isolation as his/her cultural understanding does not fit the new cultural environment. Then, the individual faces a phase of "reintegration" defined by feelings of rejection and hostility toward the host culture, and a large range of intense emotions. Eventually the individual reaches the final stage of the transition called "independence" (Adler, 1975) where first, s/he is fully able to accept both similarities and differences between the home and host countries, and, second, s/he has personally grown from the transitional experience so that s/he has changed "*from a monocultural to an intercultural frame of reference*" (p. 20). This can be connected to the literature on biculturalism and multicultural identities (e.g., Brannen and Thomas, 2010).

The findings in Essay 5 concur with Adler's (1975) perspective of culture shock, which is seen as a positive experience despite its emotionally intense, painful, and demanding characteristics. Culture shock can be seen as a process of both alienation and growth (p. 14) in which the individual redefines his/her identity. The analysis of the diaries of young female expatriates (Essay 6) reflects this process of growth and changing identity and describes the growing awareness of their "*own values, beliefs and attitudes*" (Adler, 1975: 20) and the rise of a new sense of self.

Putting this in a dynamic perspective, Essay 4 underscores the need to consider time assumptions (e.g., Mosakowski and Earley, 2000) in more depth when examining the trajectory of expatriate adjustment over time. Essays 4, 5 and 6 attempt to bring the perspective of the temporal being and the perspective of the intercultural being closer together by putting particular emphasis on the nature of time, depending on events (epiphenomenal [Mosakowski and Earley, 2000] or “event-time” [Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988]), and the experience of time depicted as subjective, contingent, and changing.

“We do not grow absolutely, chronologically. We grow sometimes […] unevenly.” Anais Nin

The expatriation literature converges on one point at least: the conceptualization of adjustment is complex and composed of several facets to form a compound of dimensions, described for instance by Haslberger *et al*. (2013) as emotions, cognitions, and behaviors, or domains such as general living, interactional, or work (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989). Others again have distinguished psychological and sociocultural adjustments (e.g., Ward *et al*., 1998). Without entering too far into this debate (for further discussion on this topic, please refer to the limitations), it is notable that this issue has been largely ignored while examining the dynamic aspects of adjustment.

With the exception of Pedersen (1995) and the recent Hippler *et al.* (2015), who point out the importance of time while examining expatriate adjustment and argue that the different domains and dimensions of adjustment may vary differently over time, to the best of my knowledge very few researchers have analyzed this topic in detail. The research of Hippler *et al.* (2015), while insightful, is conceptual and its conclusions are neither a research review nor tested empirically. This thesis (Essays 4, 5 and 6) makes important contributions to fill this relatively large gap.

The systematic review in Essay 4 reveals that the time assumptions related to adjustment and its dimensions have been largely ignored which may be one of the methodological reasons why it has been so difficult to capture and understand the trajectory of adjustment to a new cultural environment over time. This issue starts at the early stage of the research, for instance, for longitudinal designs when the points of time chosen to collect the data implicitly assume synchronization of all the dimensions of adjustment.

Essay 5 attempts to approximate the trajectory of adjustment over time for different profiles of expatriates (early career assigned expatriates, mid-career assigned expatriates, seniors assigned expatriates, and a new generation of expatriates). I observed that different dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment follow different trajectories of development over time so that 1) interactional adjustment is more likely to follow a U-curve or an increasing trajectory of adjustment over time; 2) general living adjustment is more likely to follow an increasing trajectory of adjustment over time; and 3) work-related adjustment is more likely to follow a linear trajectory of adjustment over time. A review of the extant literature revealed that no prior research has contributed to the understanding of expatriate adjustment over time in such detail.

In Essay 6, I followed the trajectory of adjustment through the analysis of the diaries of young female expatriates (roughly referring to the final profile of expatriates in Essay 5). Although it would difficult to define clearly the trajectory of the different domains, I observed that the most intense point of culture shock appears when the emotional dimension is weakened and the work routine is settled.

Altogether, my findings differ slightly from those of Hippler *et al*. (2015). While confirming the need to take into account the asynchronization of the different dimensions or domains of adjustment over time, I developed relatively specific insights about the evolution of adjustment over time for the common domains (general living, social interactions and work) in Essays 5 and 6. If the findings of Essay 6 recall the emotional dimension described by Haslberger *et al*. (2013), it should be noted that the emotional crisis identified in the diaries was disconnected from any cultural aspect and primarily related to the meaning given to the experience. Thus, I borrow a quote of Anais Nin,[18] widely cited among expatriates for her travel writing, to illustrate the multidimensionality of dynamic adjustment: "*We do not grow absolutely, chronologically. We grow sometimes in one dimension, and not in another; unevenly. We grow partially.*"

"A man is not old as long as he is seeking something." Jean Rostand

In this thesis, several Essays (2, 4, 5, 6) make key contributions related to age and expatriate adjustment. First of all, to the best of my knowledge, there is no theory related to the influence of age on expatriate adjustment. Essay 2 brings important insights to this question using lifespan development theories, suggesting that individuals pass through several stages in life and each of these stages is accompanied by different life and work-related priorities, attitudes, beliefs, and motivations (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen et al., 1999; Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004; Kooij *et al.*, 2011). Specifically, Carstensen and colleagues have shown that

[18] Multicultural essayist and figurehead of the bohemian lifestyle (1903–77.)

age-related changes in the perception of time are closely linked with changes in individuals' goals and motives (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 1999); for instance, older people perceive their future time as more limited than younger people. With age, motives are claimed to become less instrumental and more oriented toward maximizing our emotional satisfaction and staying true to our identity. Older people tend to give higher priority to pursuing emotionally meaningful aspects of life such as for example the desire to lead a meaningful and / or purposeful life or develop meaningful social relationships (Carstensen, 1993, 1995; Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). "*A man is not old as long as he seeking something.*"

This perspective is particularly interesting to better understand the moderating role of age in the relationship between emotional intelligence and cross-cultural adjustment. Therefore, the analysis goes beyond the traditional model, where age is integrated mostly as a control variable (e.g., Bhaskar *et al*., 2005; Lazarova *et al*., 2010), and shows that age is an asset, different but also more powerful than experience, in the process of expatriate adjustment. To the best of my knowledge, this is the first application of socioemotional selectivity theory in the context of expatriation.

Following this direction, it is reasonable to assume that life and work-related motives and priorities change with age. Essay 4 makes a contribution to better understanding the boundary conditions related to the temporal perspective of expatriate adjustment, notably considering age as a key factor of analysis. Its empirical applications in Essay 5 and the taxonomy of expatriates reveal several profiles following a lifespan continuum and confirm the important role of age. Essay 5 also relates age to type of expatriation, showing a specific profile of expatriates who are more often self-initiated, younger and/or women.

Essay 6 focuses exclusively on a group of young female self-initiated expatriates (in their 20s and 30s) and provides insightful contributions related to a less career-oriented and more existentialist perspective. This specificity is strongly connected to the life stage of these women (around 30 without children), a critical age in women's life, career, and motherhood expectations (Acker, 2006; Sabelis and Shilling, 2013). Altogether, these four Essays (2, 4, 5, and 6) show in a variety of ways that age has been underestimated and underanalyzed in the literature on expatriate adjustment.

"She, too, will be a poet." Arthur Rimbaud

Essays 1, 4, 5, and 6 extend knowledge on the role of gender in the process of expatriate adjustment. Arthur Rimbaud[19] is often cited in the analysis of the online diaries (Essay 6) and reflects elegantly the age-old problem of gender, which I apply here to the context of expatriation: "*When the infinite servitude of Woman is broken, when she lives for herself and by herself, she, too, will be a poet!*"

Research on expatriation has been historically gender-specific – since the literature has focused on expatriates assigned by their company, who were primarily male (e.g., Adler, 1984; Altman and Shortland, 2008; Berry and Bell, 2012). Yet, not only have women been ignored in the academic agenda, they have also been long objectified (for instance seen as a primary source of exchange for the expatriate, Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002) and mostly compared to men (see Haslberger, 2010 for an example), as the reference point.

In fact, women were introduced in the problematic of expatriation very early on, implicitly, as spouses (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989). In expatriate adjustment research, the "trailing spouse" has been seen as a "problem" (e.g., Eden *et al*. 2015) and the main reason for expatriate failure (e.g., Birdseye, 1995; Gupta *et al*., 2012). Research has shown some interest in these women in order to support their cultural adjustment and enable them, through this process, to let the expatriate succeed.

As I mentioned in the introduction, the work of Black and colleagues has been extremely influential – so influential that their work continues to shape the boundaries of the field to this day. For instance, it is not difficult to see this argument – how women can be "used," at least theoretically, for the purpose of man's success – even in the latest research (e.g., Gupta *et al*., 2012). In Essay 4, the systematic review of time and adjustment reveals that with regard to the trajectory of adjustment over time, only one study has been found that deals with female expatriates (Friedman *et al*., 2009) – and this is a particular case since it is an autoethnography. There are also very few studies on trailing spouses (Bikos *et al*., 2007; De Cieri *et al*., 1991).

[19] French surrealist poet and extensive traveller (1854–91).

In relative terms, only a thin share of the literature has been devoted to women (Hearn *et al.*, 2006). However, some do pay attention to the topic of gender in expatriation. This strand of research first tried to explain the minority of women on international assignments, or their absence from them (e.g., Adler, 1984) and then mostly compared, for instance, adjustment (e.g., Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Haslberger, 2010; Selmer and Leung, 2003) between men and women (as in Essay 1, on the moderating role of gender on the relationship between emotional intelligence and adjustment). Yet, from a feminist perspective, this approach tends to keep woman is the status of the "other" (e.g., de Beauvoir, 1949) and does not completely liberate the analysis from the gendered structure around which the field has been built.

In Essay 5, gender appears as an important factor in the construction of the taxonomy. Indeed, the final cluster of the analysis refers to self-initiated expatriation as concomitant to a more gender-balanced population of expatriates, concurring with prior research such as Suutari and Brewster (2000), Tharenou (2010), or Thorn (2009). Thus, because research on self-initiated expatriates is fairly new and because, to the best of my knowledge, no prior studies have been conducted on the trajectory of female expatriates over time, I have taken the opportunity in Essay 6 to study a population of working women, relatively independently from men.

Altogether, with the combined contributions of Essays 1, 4, 5 and 6, I advance the knowledge on gender and adjustment on several fronts. Emotional intelligence was found not as favorable for women as it is for men in the process of adjustment (Essay 1). I also demonstrate the large gap in the expatriation literature concerning gender, adjustment, and time (Essay 4). In contributing to the closure of this gap, my empirical findings have relevance to this domain, showing the particular trajectory of the new generation of expatriates (Essay 5) and following longitudinally the trajectory of young female self-initiated expatriates (Essay 6).

"One's destination is never a place, but rather a new way of looking at things" Henry Miller

Taken together, the six essays in this thesis aim to integrate the awareness of time in expatriate adjustment research. Not only does the trajectory of adjustment vary over time in different ways (Essays 4, 5, 6) but also the main assumption of time from *even* to *events* (Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988) changes quite importantly the description of the phenomenon (Mosakowski and Early, 2000). This new perspective helps to integrate other personal dimensions (*Self* – refer Figure II.5) that have been under-examined so far, such as the role of emotions and aspirations on the process of adjustment to a new cultural environment (Essays 1, 2, 3 and 6).

The thesis as a whole sheds new light on how individual's perceptions, through emotions and aspirations, but also gender, age and conditions of expatriation, make the perception of time and the perception of the finite experience of expatriation vary. This general contribution encourages a new reading of the past and current theoretical models (e.g., Black and colleagues) and also provides additional perspectives from which to consider the emergent discussion on SIEs and migrants where the key aspect of time seems to take a very topical turn. For instance, the recent literature combines two definitions of SIEs for which the conception of time is the only difference: the relocation is either "temporary" (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014) or of an "indeterminable duration" (Al Ariss and Crowley-Henry, 2013).

This difference may bring debates on the delimitation of the field of expatriation (for instance fuzzing the definitions of migrants and SIEs) but also on the understanding and appropriateness of application of the current models given the increasing complexity of the populations examined, with their own varying goals, intentions and histories. The experience of expatriation is a journey that deserves to be defined in a sophisticated way since, "*it is the journey that matters, in the end*" (Ernest Hemingway).

Limitations and future avenues for research

This thesis, although the fruit of extensive work and diligent adherence to professional standards of scholarship, is not exempt from limitations. Besides the individual limitations of each of the essays, the main limitations and future avenues for research are detailed here. First, a substantial part of this work is based on Black's conceptualization (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989). Yet the associated measure received numerous criticisms and this point merits discussion here. Second, the context and nature of the data used in the thesis may lead to methodological and generalization issues. Third, the emotional dimension in the expatriation process has been treated exclusively as a positive determinant of adjustment although recent research has questioned the expected symmetrical relationship between positive emotions and positive outcomes (e.g., Lindenbaum *et al*., 2012). Fourth, this thesis ignores the current direction of the expatriation literature toward psychological contract issues, such as the role of psychological contract for self-initiated expatriates and the relationship between psychological contracts and adjustment (e.g., O'Donohue *et al*., 2015). Finally, the work also positions adjustment at the heart of expatriation process and makes the assumption, explicitly or implicitly, that adjustment plays a key role in expatriate success. Yet the concepts of expatriate success and failure have been discussed in the literature, notably for their lack of clarity (e.g., Harzing and Christensen, 2004). In the penultimate section of this Chapter, I look more closely at these limitations and some promising avenues of future research connected to them.

Black's framework and measures

Black and colleagues' (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black *et al*., 1991) conceptualization of cross-cultural adjustment used in this thesis has been criticized on several grounds. One of its shortcomings is that it measures adjustment on a one-dimensional scale (maladjusted–adjusted), whereas adjustment is likely to span several dimensions and aspects, such as cognition, emotions, and behaviors (e.g. Haslberger *et al*., 2013; Hippler, 2000; Harrison *et al*., 2004; Shaffer *et al*., 2006). Also, focusing on an expatriate's personal adjustment does not account for his/her family's adjustment (e.g. Haslberger and Brewster, 2009). Finally, the conceptualization seems to suffer from some overlap between its dimensions (mainly between interactional and work adjustment, e.g. Hippler, 2000; Thomas and Lazarova, 2006).

Yet, despite its weaknesses (for a detailed overview of these see Thomas and Lazarova, 2006), Black and colleagues' conceptualization and measure have proven to be useful and widely accepted among expatriation researchers (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005). Its three-dimensional structure has been verified (e.g., Parker and McEvoy, 1993) as well as its structural equivalence across different cultural samples (see Shaffer *et al*., 1999). Also, distinct findings have been found for interactional and work adjustments, which seems to confirm that both these dimensions are valid when taken separately.

In addition, the choice of alternative cross-cultural adjustment measures and conceptualization unfortunately remains rather limited. The second most accepted alternative is Searle and Ward's (1990) measure, which distinguishes between two facets of adjustment: psychological (i.e. psychological and emotional wellbeing and satisfaction) and socio-cultural (i.e. the ability to “fit in” in an interactive and behavioral sense). Yet, as Thomas and Lazarova (2006) pointed out, this measure is not based on a comprehensive model of adjustment and suffers from several measurement inconsistencies and non-comparability. Thus, considering that both measures have strengths and weaknesses, this thesis is primarily based on Black’s measure, which is more widely used and more standardized to make my results comparable with previous research on expatriates’ cross-cultural adjustment.

I am also aware of the measure of adjustment recently proposed by Hippler *et al*. (2014). This is a very comprehensive, theory-driven measure that includes a wide range of expatriate adjustment facets. Yet, considering its relative novelty, up to now it has not been widely tested and applied in expatriation research. Consequently, I did not use this measure as it would have been difficult to compare my results with previous research. At the same time, it is likely that the measure will become more widely accepted and tested in the near future and will definitely need to be tested in research contexts similar to those presented in this thesis.

Context and nature of the data

In regards to the context, Essays 1, 2 and 3 are based on expatriates working for a single public French organization which doubtlessly limits the generalizability of the study’s findings. Although France may appear specific in many ways, it also diversifies the pool of data observed in the topic of expatriation, known for being relatively “US-centric” (e.g. Feldman and Thomas, 1992). Connected to the prominent role of Black and colleagues work and within this associated framework, the concept of cultural novelty is itself implicitly rooted in the American cultural context (Berry and Bell, 2012; Feldman and Thomas, 1992). Working on data from a French organization seems to be a widening rather than narrowing opportunity. Also, the fact employees of the same nationality and in the same organization were surveyed constitutes an obvious strength of these studies. It minimizes the impact of possible mixed effects, which may be difficult for researchers to spot due to non-comparable home-host experiences and the cultural backgrounds of expatriates (see Church, 1982 for review).

Additionally the mission of this organization is directly related to expatriation activities. Therefore, it is plausible to expect that the expatriates studied may be somehow better prepared to cope with cross-cultural adjustment. Future research needs to examine expatriates’ adjustment in other organizations and industries yet it is likely that this self-selection bias among the respondents may potentially underestimate the findings. Moreover, in a more general manner, the theoretical arguments developed and tested in these papers are likely to apply to other contexts and other types of expatriates, such as for example self-initiated expatriates.

Working with French data also implies translation issues. Although the essays relied on French translations of the main constructs in these studies, the risks associated with measures translations have been minimized by using existing and validated French measures found in the literature.

Regarding the nature of the data, the use of blogs (online diaries) in Essay 6 may also raise methodological issues. Blogs are often written for an implicit or specific audience (Hookway, 2008). Unlike a private diary, a blog is intended to be read by others, and the awareness of a potential audience might influence the way bloggers share their emotions and experiences (for instance, occasionally being more dramatic or selective). Moreover, blogs enable dialogue between blogger and reader. Thus, the blogger is probably more aware of the perceptions of others, and this awareness can affect the honesty of the content, for instance, for social desirability purposes.

Nevertheless, diary research avoids some problems presented by other data collection techniques (e.g., surveys or interviews) in gathering sensitive and personal content in a spontaneous manner (Corti, 1993; Elliott, 1997; Juhasz, 1980). Also prior research showed the online diaries can be treated as an extension of diary research (Hookway, 2008) since they comply to the definition of traditional diaries covering three elements (Alaszewski, 2006): It refers to the personal record of emotional events (1), with regular diary entries (2), using short-term memory and reduce the risk of retrospective bias (3, McLaren and Solomon, 2010).

Despite the aforementioned limitations, I believe that the originality and creativity of this approach shed some light on an under-analyzed issue (here the case of young female self-initiated expatriates). Furthermore, this technique of data collection and analysis has been recently advanced as “promising” (p. 1931) to study the dynamic process of adjustment (Hippler *et al.*, 2015) and Essay 6 contributes as a first foot step in this exploration.

Latent assumptions about the role of emotions

The idea of symmetrical association of emotions and their outcomes in an organizational setting (i.e. that positive emotions lead to positive outcomes and negative to negative outcomes) has taken a strong hold in contemporary management research (see Lindebaum *et al*., 2012). For instance, the widely studied concept of emotional intelligence (EI) has consistently been argued to lead to positive psychological outcomes in the workplace, such as better health, wellbeing, and life satisfaction (e.g. Carmelli *et al*., 2009; Mayer *et al*., 2008). However, recently several authors have questioned this assumption with some supporting evidence. Winkel *et al*. (2011) found empirically that besides traditionally assumed positive outcomes, emotional intelligence could also have unanticipated consequences, such as deviant behaviors at work.

Whereas some studies have documented that EI is generally conducive to successful expatriate assignments (e.g. Gabel *et al*., 2005; Lii and Wong, 2008), this view can be too simplistic and one-sided. In particular, by focusing excessively on adjustment and performance aspects of the expatriation process, studies in this stream have overlooked other important psychological aspects of expatriates' experience, such as job involvement, life satisfaction, and job satisfaction. These latter aspects of expatriates' assignment experience may fall prey to high levels of role strain and emotional dissonance, which may be felt more prominently and suffered by expatriates with higher EI (e.g., Chiva and Alegre, 2008; Lindebaum, 2012).

Psychological contracts and expatriation

Another limitation is the lack of consideration of expatriates' psychological contracts – defined as "*an employee's perception of the unwritten promises and obligations implicit in his or her relationship with the employing organization*" (Thompson and Bunderson, 2003: 571) – along with the changing nature of expatriation (Collings *et al*., 2007), including the growing number of self-initiated expatriates, female expatriates or expatriates working for not-for-profit organizations (O'Donohue *et al*., 2015). Leaving aside a few notable exceptions (Guzzo *et al*., 1994; Pate and Scullion, 2010; Yan *et al*., 2002), research on expatriates' psychological contracts is relatively thin and almost non-existent when it comes to self-initiated expatriates. In brief, it has been shown that mutual loyalty, when both the employer and the employee see the psychological contract as relational, is the most favorable for both employer and expatriate (Guzzo *et al*., 1994; Yan *et al*., 2002). In addition, Pate and Scullion (2010) show that expatriates tend to reduce their ties and dependence on their organization and seek to increase their employability.

In the case of self-initiated expatriation in particular, the literature has shown that assigned and self-initiated expatriates differ on several fronts: for instance, career self-management (Doherty, 2013); career capital (Jokinen *et al*., 2008); motivations to relocate (e.g., Inkson and Myers, 2003); or career orientation (Vlaiman and Brewster, 2013). The nature of expatriates' employment relationships are little understood in the literature (Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Doherty, 2013; Pate and Scullion, 2010), but most certainly need to be examined.

Expatriate success, failure and adjustment

Notwithstanding the, already noted, caveats about the concept, in this thesis, I make the assumption that adjustment is central to the process of expatriation. The well-accepted argument behind this is that expatriate adjustment is favorable to expatriate success (e.g., Chen *et al*., 2010; Farth *et al*., 2010) and reduces the risk of expatriate failure (e.g., Firth *et al.*, 2014; Kraimer *et al*., 2001). It is also commonly argued that "*failed international assignments are no small matter*" (Cole and Nesbeth, 2014) because they are expensive for organizations (e.g., Black and Gregersen, 1991; Tungli and Peiperl, 2009). Yet the concepts of expatriate success and failure that have been discussed in the literature are notable for their lack of clarity (e.g., Harzing and Christensen, 2004). Some authors have encouraged a broader conceptualization of expatriate failure (e.g., Scullion and Collings, 2006), and some have gone even further and proposed, literally, abandoning the concept of failure in relation to expatriation (e.g., Collings *et al*., 2007).

Lacking a clear conceptual definition of the success/failure dichotomy, expatriation scholars have found a way out of this conceptual conundrum. They have opted for conceptualizing success/failure as either defined by expatriates' cross-cultural adjustment (i.e. adjustment = success and maladjustment = failure) or determined by it (i.e. adjustment leads to success and maladjustment leads to failure). In this way, cross-cultural adjustment assumed its central position in the expatriation research. Moreover, the underlying assumptions concerning the relationships between “success,” “failure,” and adjustment have become increasingly taken for granted.

Conclusion

The six essays in this thesis aim to make a significant contribution to knowledge on expatriate adjustment. This thesis analyzes the *self* and *temporal* dimensions of adjustment for traditional and new forms of expatriation. To the best of my knowledge, it marks the first application of theories such as the socioemotional selectivity theory to the context of expatriation and it presents findings on topics that have been rarely tested empirically, such as the role of emotional intelligence and career anchors on adjustment, taxonomies of expatriates, or different trajectories of adjustment overt time. It presents an up-to-date literature review based on the empirical findings of the dynamic process of expatriate adjustment and uses atypical methods, such as canonical regressions, or creative methods applied for the first time to the field of expatriation, such as the analysis of blogs to give an in-depth understanding of the trajectory of adjustment of a specific population of expatriates. This thesis also enlarges the scope of knowledge on the phenomena of expatriate adjustment, integrating findings from the rarely studied not-for-profit sector. Finally, it brings the first empirical findings on the trajectory of adjustment over time for the particular case of self-initiated expatriates and notably an in-depth analysis of the young female self-initiated expatriates. I hope that the thesis as a whole challenges some latent assumptions about gender and age in expatriation and pushes further the invisible boundaries of the expatriation field.

The six essays follow.

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ESSAY 1 - CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT OF EXPATRIATES: THE ROLE OF EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE AND GENDER

INTRODUCTION

Expatriation, defined as a voluntary, temporary migration of a person abroad for a specific purpose with an ultimate return to his/her home country (cf. Cohen, 1977), is a central part of international business activities undertaken by multinational companies globally. One of the largest surveys of expatriates and globally mobile employees, conducted by Mercer, showed that, in 2008–9, 243 multinational companies worldwide employed over 94,000 expatriates (compared to around 50,000 expatriates in 2005–6).[20] In many ways the success of companies' international business activities today depends on expatriates, for example, how well they are able to function in the new environment to which they are transferred, cooperate with locals, apply their competences and knowledge, learn new things, and cope with uncertainty. Whether expatriates can succeed in these tasks depends to a large extent on their cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) to the host environment/country, that is, the extent to which an expatriate feels psychologically comfortable in relation to a variety of aspects of a new environment (e.g. Caligiuri, 1997; Tung, 1998; Mezias and Scandura, 2005).

Extant research has provided ample evidence suggesting that expatriate adjustment is a challenging and difficult process (e.g. Aycan, 1997; Tung, 1998; Caligiuri, 2000). Several seminal articles in the field have stressed the critical role of adjustment for successful expatriation and underlined the complex and multidimensional nature of the adjustment process, differentiating between general living, interactional, and work-related adjustment (e.g. Black *et al.*, 1991; Aycan, 1997; Hechanova et al., 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005). Research to date has been insightful in explicating the impact of different individual and contextual (i.e. work, organizational, or institutional) factors on CCA. The former included studies that examined the impacts of the Big Five personality traits (e.g. Caligiuri, 2000; Huang *et al.*, 2005); locus of control (Black, 1990; Lii and Wong, 2008); socio-ability and flexibility (Black and

[20] www.globalhrnews.com/story.asp?sid=1149 (accessed on 1.11.2011), "Companies increase number of expats," October 27, 2008.

Stephens, 1989); interpersonal and social skills (Hechanova et al., 2003); language skills (Kim and Slocum, 2008); and, recently, cultural intelligence (Rose *et al.*, 2010; Wu and Ang, 2011) on CCA. The latter stream of research focused on: cross-cultural training (e.g. Caligiuri et al., 2001; Okpara and Kabongo, 2011); psychological contract (Haslberger and Brewster, 2009); spousal/family support (Black and Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri et al., 1998); organizational support (Caligiuri et al., 1999); mentoring (Mezias and Scandura, 2005); role novelty and role ambiguity (Shaffer *et al.*, 1999); cultural distance/cultural similarity (Black and Gregersen, 1991; Shaffer et al., 1999); international experience (Selmer, 2001; 2002); as well as several other factors (see Hechanova *et al.*, 2003, for a more comprehensive meta-analysis of the literature).

However, with a few rare exceptions (e.g. Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Tan et al., 2005; and Lii and Wong, 2008) the role of emotions, and specifically of emotional intelligence (EI), for expatriates' CCA has received relatively little attention. EI is defined as an array of capabilities, competences, and skills that influence one's ability to cope with environmental demands (e.g. Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Schutte *et al.*, 1998). The lack of research on this topic is surprising for two main reasons. First, it is recognized that often the success of the expatriation process depends on choosing a culturally attuned and emotionally sensitive person who can respond appropriately to the host environment of another country and different interpersonal work situations (Alon and Higgins, 2005; Huang *et al.*, 2005). Second, in other streams of research the level of EI was found to be critical for success in emotionally intensive areas of human activity, such as leadership (e.g. Goleman *et al.*, 2002; Humphrey *et al.*, 2008), work, and education (e.g. Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004). Therefore, it could be expected that EI would be critical for expatriates, who get deeply involved in interactions with locals and need to cope with emotional stress and different acceptable forms and norms of emotional behavior. In this study we claim that there is a need to examine expatriates' EI levels to be able to better explain their CCA.

In order to further our understanding of the role of EI in expatriates' adjustment and add to the (so far) very limited empirical studies on the topic, we analyzed a sample of 269 overseas French expatriates in 133 countries working for Alliance Française, a government-recognized public interest foundation. This is an interesting sample of expatriates to test for adjustment because their primary tasks are to promote French culture and language globally and to establish a dialogue between cultures by collaborating closely with foreign partners in other countries. To succeed in these tasks one would expect these people to be very well adjusted to their host environments in order to invoke interest among locals and make them willing to collaborate with and learn from them. Moreover, the cultural homogeneity of the sample allows us alleviate potential differences across cultural groups in experiencing, registering and expressing emotions, noted in the literature examining the impact of national culture on individuals' emotional processes (e.g. Mesquita and Frijda, 1992; Elfenbein and Ambady, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007).

The analysis contributes to the literature on expatriates' CCA in three important ways. First, it indicates that EI has important explanatory power for expatriates' adjustment and success and, therefore, needs to be examined more thoroughly in the future. Second, the analysis sheds new light on the impact of cultural similarity, which has predominantly been presumed to facilitate all three dimensions of adjustment (e.g. Black *et al.*, 1991; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Finally, it adds to our understanding of the role of gender in moderating the relationship between EI and CCA.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND DEVELOPMENT OF HYPOTHESES

Research has shown convincingly that EI and emotions in general play a significant role in individuals' intellectual functioning (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Elfenbein, 2007). EI has been defined as an enduring personal trait, which underlines an individual's ability to adaptively identify, understand, manage, and harness the emotions of self and others (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Schutte *et al.*, 1998) and to use emotions to facilitate cognitive processing (Mayer, Caruso and Salovey, 1999). The term EI was originally coined by Salovey and Mayer (1990), who, based on their literature review, proposed dividing it conceptually into three categories of adaptive ability: appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others); regulation of emotion (in self and others); and utilization of emotions in solving problems (i.e. flexible planning, creative thinking, redirected attention, and motivation). Later, Schutte et al. (1998, p. 169), in an attempt to develop a "*brief, validated measures of emotional intelligence*" that would measure EI as a homogeneous construct, derived and validated a 33-item measure of EI. The resulted measure fitted well with the three conceptual categories originally suggested by

Salovey and Mayer (1990). Among the 33 items, 13 measured appraisal and expression, 10 measured regulation, and 10 measured utilization of emotions. We rely on this classification in deriving and testing our hypotheses.

More generally, extant research on EI found it to be positively related to wellbeing (Austin, Saklofske and Egan, 2005), optimism (Schutte et al., 1998), positive mood, and high self-esteem (Schutte et al., 2002), and negatively to depression (Schutte *et al.*, 1998). In interpersonal relations, EI was found to result in higher social skills, self-monitoring in social situations, and in more cooperative responses to others (Schutte *et al.*, 2001). EI has been widely tested and applied in organizational behavior research (e.g. Joseph and Newman, 2010; O'Boyle *et al.*, 2011) and was shown to be an important predictor of, for example, job performance and leadership (Ashkanasy and Daus, 2002; Humphrey *et al.*, 2008) as well as stress (Jordan et al., 2002).

Overall, higher-level EI seems to address exactly those areas that can be potentially difficult for an expatriate on assignment. Therefore, it is to be expected that EI can be important for expatriates' CCA, because it might help them to cope with uncertainty and the complexity of the surrounding environment. Although the extant literature on expatriates' CCA has hinted at the importance of EI in determining its effectiveness (e.g. Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Caligiuri *et al.*, 2001), so far very little research has examined the impacts of EI on CCA in detail. In a rare study examining the impact of EI on expatriates' adjustment, Gabel *et al.* (2005) found that EI directly influences adjustment but not assignment success. More specifically, their findings suggest that although EI is not a direct predictor of assignment success, some dimensions of EI play an important role in explaining CCA and, by extension, the success of internationally assigned managers. These inter- and intrapersonal abilities and adaptability are predictive indicators of general living, interactional and work adjustment. However, the study used a relatively small sample (two subsamples of 39 and 20 managers) and all expatriates were from different countries, making it difficult to control for the potential impacts of national culture on respondents' emotions.

Now we turn to deriving our hypotheses around the three categories of adaptive abilities of EI proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990): (1) appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others); (2) regulation of emotions (in self and others); and (3) utilization of emotions in solving problems.

Appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others) and CCA

The first adaptive ability in Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model refers to appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others). The authors claim that the processes underlying EI are initiated when affect-laden information first enters an individual's perceptual system. At this stage EI facilitates the accurate appraisal of feelings, which then influences how emotions are expressed. Thus, individuals' ability to appraise and express emotions facilitates quicker perception of their own emotions, and responses to them, and better expression of those emotions to others. This ability also helps their recognition of others' emotional reactions and their empathic responses to them, ensuring smooth interpersonal interactions. This is undoubtedly a crucial ability, and absolutely necessary for adequate social functioning, enabling the choice of socially adaptive behavior when interacting with others. In support of this argument, extant research has found that the ability to appraise and express emotions helps in conflict resolution and the general maintenance of effective relationships (Morris and Keltner, 2000).

It is likely that possessing this ability will help expatriates' CCA a great deal. The ability to appraise their own emotions, show empathy and accommodate the feelings and emotions of others may allow them to be perceived as warm and caring by co-workers. This characteristic will have a positive effect on an expatriate's interpersonal interactions in and outside of work. Supporting this argument, Gabel *et al.* (2005) found that expatriates' performance on international assignments is predicated on their capacity for empathy and social relations. Furthermore, having this capacity will make expatriates more assertive, sociable and outgoing with others. They will be more likely to spend time with locals and try to understand their culture and emotions (Black, 1990). This will increase their general appreciation and comprehension of their new broader, not just work-related, environment. Therefore, we expect that:

> ***Hypothesis 1:*** There is a positive relationship between individual expatriates' ability to appraise and express emotions (self and others) and their general living, interactional, and work adjustments.

Regulation of emotions (in self and others) and CCA

The second adaptive ability in Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model concerns regulation of emotions (in self and others). This, the authors claim, provides individuals with access to knowledge of their own and others' moods, allowing for the monitoring, evaluation and regulation of emotion. Being able to control one's own mood makes individuals more emotionally stable, while the ability to influence others' emotions allows individuals to control the impressions others form of them. Emotionally intelligent individuals may "*enhance their own and others' moods and even manage emotions so as to motivate others charismatically toward a worthwhile end*" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 198). EI may help individual expatriates to achieve their goals in the new environment, control negative emotional experiences and stresses caused by interactions with locals, and reinforce positive experiences instead. Existing research has shown that the ability to regulate one's emotions is important for expatriates, as it facilitates "*better mood adjustment, self-encouragement and social skills*," makes them "*more careful in speech and action*," and more involved in observing others' feelings (Lii and Wong, 2008, p. 310). Expatriates who can control their emotions are likely to be better at interacting with local organizational members and locals in wider societal context, as well as coping with new rules, regulations and policies of their new work environment. Therefore, we hypothesize that:

> ***Hypothesis 2***: There is a positive relationship between individual expatriates' ability to regulate emotions (in self and others) and their general living, interactional, and work adjustments.

Utilization of emotions in solving problems

The third adaptive ability in Salovey and Mayer's (1990) model deals with utilization of emotions in solving problems. The authors suggest that this ability has four main outcomes. First, it may help individuals in anticipating a wider variety of possible outcomes when considering the future thus helping them to foresee a larger number of possible future scenarios and thereby be better prepared to take advantage of future opportunities. Second, positive emotions may help people remember information and boost creative problem solving; people with positive moods "*are more likely to give especially unusual or creative first associates to* *neutral cues*" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 199). Third, emotions may help in directing attention to new problems rather than current problems, helping people "*to reprioritize the internal and external demands on their attention, and allocate attentional resources accordingly*" (Salovey and Mayer, 1990, p. 200). Finally, emotions can motivate persistence and facilitate the solution of complex intellectual tasks.

It seems that expatriates who are skillful in this ability are more likely to be successful than those who are not. Those who are flexible, imaginative and persistent are more likely to learn new things, and be creative and motivated in new settings. Even more important, they are more likely to avoid falling into the trap of excessively relying on stereotypes when making judgments about their new environment. This was shown to constitute a great danger for expatriates on international assignments, especially in locations that are culturally less familiar (Caligiuri *et al.*, 2001). Relying on stereotypes has been found to lead to false expectations about the new environment (e.g. Hamilton and Sherman, 1996), which in turn affects expatriates' adjustment. Emotionally intelligent expatriates are less likely to rely on stereotypes and are more likely to redirect their attention away from stereotypical judgments. Supporting this argument, Huang *et al.* (2005) found that openness to experience among expatriates is positively related to their general living and work adjustment. Therefore, we expect that:

> ***Hypothesis 3*****:** There is a positive relationship between individual expatriates' ability to use emotions in problem solving and their general living, interactional, and work adjustments.

The moderating role of gender

Several studies have found that women consistently score higher than men in terms of EI (e.g. Schutte *et al.*, 1998; Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2000; Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2001). The literature on gender differences in emotions also shows that women are better than men at perceiving nonverbal emotional cues (McClure, 2000) and respond with more appropriate affective responses to others' mental states (cf. Joseph and Newman, 2010). Women were also found to respond more adaptively than men to stressors, be more willing to seek help from others, and use emotion-focused strategies when appropriate (e.g. Deane *et al.*, 2001). Other studies showed that women express emotions more than men (Wood *et al.*, 1989), are more affectionate (Briton and Hall, 1995), and experience more intense joy and sadness (Fujita *et al.*, 1991). Hence, there is a burgeoning evidence suggesting that on average women are more emotionally intelligent than men.

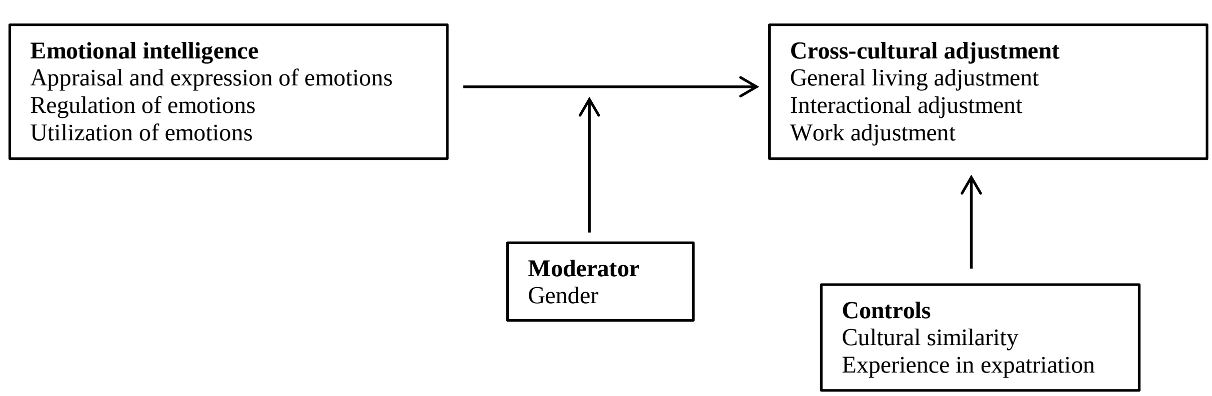
In the context of expatriation, this may be one of the reasons why female expatriates are consistently reported to be more successful on international assignments than male expatriates (see Adler, 1987; Taylor and Napier, 1996; Caligiuri and Tung, 1998). Further, when examining the adjustment process of male and female expatriates, Selmer and Leung (2003) found that female expatriates had higher interactional and work-related adjustment than their male colleagues. Similarly, Haslberger (2010) showed that female expatriates have significantly higher levels of adjustment than men due to their superior social skills, which help them to learn faster and be more confident about establishing and maintaining relationships in the host environment. Therefore, combining (a) the research on emotions, which shows that women tend to have higher levels of EI than men, with (b) the growing evidence that female expatriates have higher CCA than their male colleagues provides us with good grounds to expect that the relationship between EI and CCA will be stronger for female than for male expatriates. To examine whether gender has this impact, we propose the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4**:** Gender will moderate the relationship between EI and CCA, so that the relationship will be stronger for female than for male expatriates.

Figure 1.1 shows the overall theoretical model tested in this study.

FIGURE 1.1

Theoretical model



METHOD

Sample

The subjects in this study are expatriates working for the Alliance Française, a public interest foundation set up under private law and recognized by the French government. Its mission is to promote French culture and language by working in close collaboration with French and foreign partners in more than 130 countries. The data were collected through a survey administered in French. All 340 Alliance Française directors currently employed overseas were approached (i.e., our targeted sample was 100%) and 269 responses were received (yielding a response rate of 79%). All were French nationals expatriated for three-year assignments.The average age of the respondents was 41 (SD = 11.10) and the average experience in expatriation was 10 years (SD = 7.85). The sample was gender balanced: 53% of the respondents were men and 47% women. About 60% of the respondents were married or in a partnership and 51% had children. The respondents were based in six geographical locations: Europe (16%), North America (8%), Latin America and the Caribbean (36%), Africa and the Indian Ocean (16%), Asia (20%), and Oceania (4%).

Measures

Cross-cultural adjustment. Our dependent variable, cross-cultural adjustment, was measured from the point of view of the expatriate using 14 items from the three-dimensional inventory developed by Black and Stephens (1989). The tri-dimensionality of the construct has been tested and validated in the literature (e.g. Black *et al.*, 1991; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Kraimer, Wayne and Jaworski, 2001) and comprised: *general living adjustment* (seven items measuring adjustment to cost of living and entertainment, recreation facilities and opportunities); *interactional adjustment* (four items measuring adjustment to interactions with host nationals on a day-to-day basis); and *work adjustment* (three items measuring adjustment to performance standards and expectations). The scales ranged from 1 for “very unadjusted” to 6 for “perfectly adjusted.” The higher the total score, the better the expatriate’s adjustment. The items of the construct were translated by the authors, who are both native French speakers and fluent in English. Validity and reliability tests were conducted to validate the psychometric properties of the translated scale. The French version of CCA fulfilled the required fit criteria: $\chi^2(74) = 193.60$; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.914; CFI = 0.897; NFI = 0.884; RMSEA = 0.051. The reliability test for the three dimensions of CCA gave the following satisfactory results: general living ($\alpha = 0.86$), interactional ($\alpha = 0.91$) and work ($\alpha = 0.90$).

Emotional intelligence. We used the 33 items construct from Schutte *et al.* (1998) as our independent variable. The construct has been widely used in the literature to date (Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004), which indicates, at least to some extent, its wide acceptance and legitimacy among researchers as an adequate and established measure of EI. For our research purpose, we used a French translation of the construct developed by Haag and Laroche (2009). The construct is composed of three key dimensions conceptually proposed by Salovey and Mayer (1990) and empirically validated by Schutte et al. (1998)[21]: (1) appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others); (2) regulation of emotions (in self and others); and (3) utilization of emotions in problem solving.

In line with other studies (e.g. Ciarrochi *et al.,* 2002; Austin *et al.*, 2004), we decided to begin by conducting a series of confirmatory factor analyses to confirm this solution and to ensure the convergent-discriminant validity of the measures. We did that because Schutte *et al.* (1998) did not report internal reliabilities of the original scales for the three-dimensional solution, and other (e.g. four- or six-dimensional) solutions were proposed in the literature (e.g. Petrides and Furnham, 2000; Ciarrochi *et al.*, 2002; Gignac *et al.*, 2005). Table 1.1 shows that Model 4, which corresponds to a three-dimensional structure, exhibits a better fit and smaller AIC compared to Model 1 (unidimensional), Model 2 (six dimensions), or Model 3 (four dimensions). Thus, the analysis confirmed the three-dimensional structure suggested by Salovey and Mayer (1990): $\chi^2(350) = 642$; $p < 0.001$, GFI = 0.817; CFI = 0.835; NFI = 0.798; RMSEA = 0.047. The three-dimensional structure has been empirically validated in several other studies (e.g. Schutte et al., 2001; Austin et al., 2004; Besharat, 2007).

[21] Schutte *et al.* (1998) have assessed the complicity of the EI construct within the Big Five framework, relating their measure of EI to the Big Five personality dimensions. They found that higher EI scores were significantly associated only with greater openness to experience and not significantly related to other dimensions. Hence, their study suggested that EI is in fact a construct distinct from other personality constructs, including the Big Five personality traits.

TABLE 1.1

Confirmatory analyses testing factor structure of emotional intelligence measure

Model	Chi-Square	df	RMSEA	90% CI for RMSEA	CFI	GFI	NFI	AIC
Model 1: One dimension solution	764	288	0.054	[0.048; 0.060]	0.741	0.739	0.717	135.49
Model 2: Six-dimension solution[1]	659	342	0.053	[0.046; 0.061]	0.811	0.795	0.757	96.87
Model 3: Four-dimension solution[2]	673	336	0.512	[0.045; 0.057]	0.817	0.803	0.793	69.82
Model 4: Three-dimension solution[3]	642	350	0.047	[0.043; 0.059]	0.835	0.817	0.798	57.35

1. Appraisal of emotions (self), appraisal of emotions (others), expression of emotions, regulation of emotions (in self), regulation of emotions (in others), utilization of emotions in problem solving (Gignac et al., 2005).
2. Optimism/mood regulation, appraisal of emotions, utilization of emotions and social skills (Petrides and Furnham, 2000)
3. Appraisal and expression of emotions (self and in others), regulation of emotions (in self and others), utilization of emotions in problem solving (Salovey and Mayer, 1990).

We therefore used these factors as our EI dimensions. The scale reliability was tested by calculating Cronbach's alphas and showed satisfactory results: expression and appraisal of emotions (self and others) (13 items, such as e.g. "*I like to share my emotions with others*"), $\alpha = 0.81$; regulation of emotions (in self and others) (10 items, such as e.g. "*When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last*"), $\alpha = 0.82$; utilization of emotions in problem solving (10 items, such as e.g. "*When I am in a positive mood solving problems is easy for me*"), $\alpha = 0.68$.

Cultural similarity. We used culture similarity as one of the control variables based on the assumption that the more culturally distant expatriates' host environment to their home environment, the more important EI will be for their CCA. Culture similarity was measured using eight items adopted from Torbiorn (1982) and found in Black and Stephens (1989): everyday customs, general living conditions, healthcare facilities, transportation system, cost of living, climate, quality and type of food, and housing conditions. These items were measured on a five-point scale (1 for "very different" and 5 for "very similar"). The psychometric properties of the French translation of the construct were satisfactory: $\chi^2(74) = 193.60$; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.898; CFI = 0.885; NFI = 0.819; RMSEA = 0.055. The reliability was confirmed with $\alpha = 0.87$.

International experience. Another control variable we used in the study was international experience of expatriates. We decided to include this variable as a control, because there is evidence in the literature that international experience positively influences CCA (e.g. Selmer, 2001, 2002; Bhaskar-Shrinisvas et al., 2005; Mezias and Scandura, 2005). The variable was measured by the number of years the respondent had spent on expatriate assignments prior to the current one.

Gender. As a moderator, we operationalized gender as a dummy variable where “0” stood for “male” and “1” for “female.”

Assessment of common method bias

Because all the data were self-reported and collected through the same questionnaire, we evaluated whether the common method variance (CMV) could affect relationships between the constructs. We performed Harman’s one-factor test and a confirmatory factor analysis (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986; Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). The results suggested that CMV is not of great concern and is unlikely to confound the interpretation of results.

All the variables were entered into an exploratory factor analysis, using the unrotated principal components factor analysis. Three distinct factors with eigenvalue greater than 1 were displayed, accounting together for 68% of the total variance. The first factor did not account for the majority of the variance (23%). The variables were loaded onto one factor to examine the fit of the confirmatory factor analysis model and showed that the single-factor model did not fit the data well ($\chi^2(1175) = 1599$, $p < 0.001$, GFI = 0.622; CFI = 0.083; NFI = 0.052; RMSEA = 0.044).

In addition, we conducted confirmatory factor analyses (CFAs) on the measurement model to examine whether the seven key measured variables (three dimensions of CCA, three dimensions of EI and cultural similarity) were distinct from one another. The results of the CFAs suggested that our seven-factor measurement model fitted the data well ($\chi2$ (1155) = 812, $p < 0.001$, GFI = 0.892; CFI = 0.869; NFI = 0.870; RMSEA = 0.034) and was better than the alternative models we also tested (i.e. Harman’s single factor test, controlling for the effects of an unmeasured latent methods factor model, correlated uniqueness model) (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003).

Empirical strategy

The data from the 269 expatriate managers were analyzed using hierarchical regression models to estimate general living, interactional and work adjustment respectively. The method is appropriate to evaluate the distinct influence of a set of independent variables, controlling for the impact of a different set of independent variables. For each of these models, step 1 was the base model, which included only control variables. The influence of EI on CCA was tested with step 2, which included control variables and the three dimensions of EI. Step 3 then integrated the moderating variable. Next, possible moderating effects (Zedeck, 1971) were tested by adding an interaction term between gender and EI (step 4). The variable used as a component of the interaction term was centered (Aiken and West, 1991; Aguinis, 2004). Usual OLS assumptions of linearity and normality were screened. An examination for multicollinearity among independent variables was performed using variance inflation factors (VIFs). Normality, heteroscedasticity and homogeneity of residuals were also tested (Aguinis, 2004).

EMPIRICAL RESULTS

The summary statistics for all variables are provided in Table 1.2 The means, standard deviations and correlations for the variables indicate no multicollinearity. General living, interactional and work adjustment were above the mid-level point (4.91, 4.94 and 5.00 respectively). There was a positive and statistically significant correlation around 60% between all adjustment dimensions. Although slightly higher, these results are consistent with prior literature in the field (e.g. Selmer, 1999; 2006; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999).

As mentioned above, we tested our hypotheses using hierarchical ordinary least squares regression analysis with interactions. Following Aguinis' (2004) guidelines for models with categorical moderators, we checked the validity of the homogeneity of error variance assumption in our moderated multiple regressions. Type I homoscedasticity assumption was confirmed by non-significant White's tests ($p = 0.42$; $p = 0.26$; $p = 0.79$ respectively for the three dimensions of adjustment). Type II homoscedasticity assumption was also confirmed by calculating Bartlett's M ($p = 0.60$; $p = 0.21$; $p = 0.18$ respectively for the three dimensions of adjustment). Moreover, the results showed acceptable values of the VIF associated with the predictors, ranging from 1.10 to 2.00 (Hair *et al.*, 1998), suggesting no concern with respect to multicollinearity.

TABLE 1.2

Descriptive statistics and correlations

		Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1	General living adjustment	4.91	0.77	1							
2	Interactional adjustment	4.94	0.94	0.63	1						
3	Work adjustment	5.00	0.78	0.64	0.63	1					
4	Appraisal and expression of emotions	4.43	0.60	0.29	0.31	0.27	1				
5	Regulation of emotions	4.85	0.52	0.27	0.23	0.26	0.18	1			
6	Utilization of emotions	4.29	0.74	0.39	0.37	0.49	0.24	0.26	1		
7	Cultural similarity	2.86	0.98	0.35	0.12	0.24	0.03	0.15	0.17	1	
8	Expatriation experience	9.34	7.85	0.09	0.15	0.15	0.03	0.17	0.08	0.02	1

N = 269. All correlations superior to 0.08 are significant at the p < .05 level.

Table 1.3 displays the results of the regression models of general living, interactional and work adjustments respectively. In the first model (step 1), we entered the two control variables of cultural similarity and experience. The model explained 11% of the variance for general living adjustment, 2% for interactional adjustment, and 4% for work adjustment. In the second model (step 2), we added the EI dimensions. The three dimensions, i.e. ability to appraise and express emotions (self and others), ability to regulate emotions (in self and others), and ability to utilize emotions in solving problems, were significantly and positively related to CCA. Moreover, these dimensions explained an additional 18% of the variance in general living adjustment beyond the variance explained by the control variables ($\Delta R^2 = 0.185$; $\Delta F = 13.099$; $p < 0.001$), 23% for interactional adjustment ($\Delta R^2 = 0.229$; $\Delta F = 15.284$; $p < 0.001$), and 27% for work adjustment ($\Delta R^2 = 0.270$; $\Delta F = 19.589$; $p < 0.001$). These results support the positive relationship between EI and the three dimensions of CCA.

In model 3 (step 3), we did not observe any significant influence of the moderating variable (female) on any of the three dimensions of CCA. The inclusion of a direct gender effect did not improve the model (i.e. non-significant ΔR^2). To examine whether the main effect of EI includes a more complex pattern of amplified or attenuated impacts due to gender differences, we tested the fourth model (step 4), which included an interaction term *female* x *emotional intelligence*. A difference between the genders was observed for only one dimension of EI – appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others) – ensured by a marginally significant *T*test ($p = 0.087$). We found that women have a higher average score in terms of expression and appraisal of emotions (0.161 versus -0.072 for men and 0 for the sample average). Therefore, the moderating effect of gender on EI was tested only for the appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others) dimension. As shown in step 4 of Table 1.3, the results provide evidence for the interaction between gender and appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others). Adding the interaction term improved the model for general living adjustment by 1.4% from the initial model ($\Delta R^2 = 0.014$; $\Delta F = 2.987$; $p = 0.086$), by 1.7% for interactional adjustment ($\Delta R^2 = 0.017$; $\Delta F = 3.491$; $p = 0.064$), and by 1.3% for work adjustment ($\Delta R^2 = 0.013$; $\Delta F = 2.819$; $p = 0.098$).

Overall, we observed that appraisal and utilization of emotions have stronger relationships with the three dimensions of CCA than regulation of emotions. Furthermore, the inclusion of the interaction term increases the positive relationship between appraisal and expression of emotions and adjustment (beta from 0.09 to 0.17 for general living adjustment; from 0.17 to 0.29 for interactional adjustment; and from 0.09 to 0.16 for work adjustment). These results clearly support our Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3.

The interaction term crossing ‘female’ and ‘appraisal and expression of emotions (self and others)’ has a marginally significant and negative influence on CCA. To elaborate Hypothesis 4 and illustrate this last result, we plotted the interaction effect in Figure 1.2. The graph shows that the relationship between EI and CCA is stronger for male than female expatriates. Because no significant differences were found between male and female expatriates for the ability to regulate emotions and utilize emotions in problem solving, and because the moderating effect of gender on the ability to appraise and express emotions is negative for women, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

TABLE 1.3

Results of regression analyses

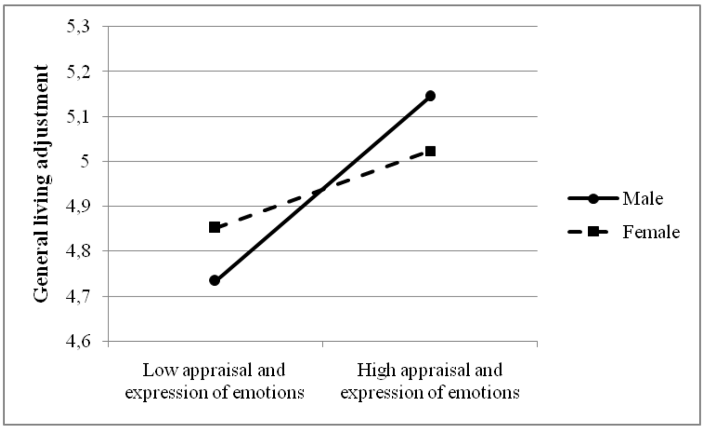
	General Living Adjustment				Interactional Adjustment				Work Adjustment			
N = 269	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 3**	**Step 4**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 3**	**Step 4**	**Step 1**	**Step 2**	**Step 3**	**Step 4**
Intercept	4.22*** (0.16)	4.36*** (0.16)	4.35*** (0.17)	4.33*** (0.17)	4.54*** (0.18)	4.79*** (0.20)	4.72*** (0.22)	4.69*** (0.22)	4.54*** (0.17)	4.76*** (0.16)	4.77*** (0.17)	4.75*** (0.17)
Control variables												
Cultural similarity	0.23*** (0.05)	0.18*** (0.05)	0.18*** (0.05)	0.18*** (0.05)	0.08 (0.07)	0.02 (0.07)	0.02 (0.06)	0.02*** (0.06)	0.13** (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)
Experience	0.009 (0.006)	0.011* (0.006)	0.01* (0.006)	0.01* (0.006)	0.017** (0.008)	0.02** (0.008)	0.02** (0.008)	0.02*** (0.008)	0.01** (0.006)	0.01** (0.006)	0.01** (0.006)	0.01** (0.006)
Independent variables												
Appraisal and expression of emotions		0.09* (0.06)	0.09** (0.06)	0.17** (0.07)		0.17** (0.07)	0.18** (0.07)	0.29*** (0.09)		0.09* (0.06)	0.08** (0.06)	0.16** (0.07)
Regulation of emotions		0.12** (0.06)	0.12** (0.06)	0.12** (0.06)		0.16** (0.07)	0.15** (0.07)	0.14** (0.07)		0.09* (0.06)	0.09* (0.06)	0.09* (0.06)
Utilization of emotions		0.20*** (0.05)	0.20*** (0.05)	0.19*** (0.05)		0.26*** (0.07)	0.26*** (0.07)	0.24*** (0.07)		0.30*** (0.05)	0.30*** (0.05)	0.29*** (0.05)
Moderator												
Gender			0.02 (0.10)	0.03 (0.10)			0.12 (0.13)	0.13 (0.13)			0.01 (0.10)	0.01 (0.10)
Interaction												
Gender x Appraisal and expression of emotions				-0.18* (0.10)				-0.25* (0.13)				-0.16* (0.11)
R^2	0.107	0.292	0.293	0.307	0.023	0.252	0.256	0.273	0.041	0.311	0.311	0.324
ΔR^2	-	0.185***	0.001	0.014*	-	0.229***	0.004	0.017*	-	0.270***	0.000	0.013*
ΔF	-	13.099	0.040	2.987	-	15.284	0.839	3.491	-	19.589	0.006	2.819
Sign. ΔF	-	p<0.001	0.843	0.086	-	p<0.001	0.316	0.064	-	p<0.001	0.941	0.098

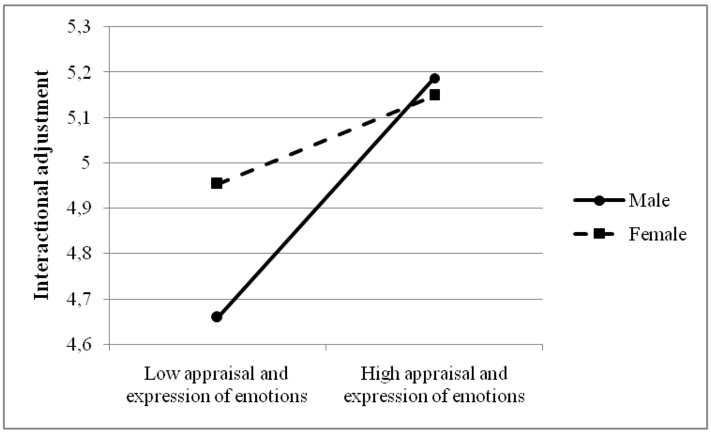
*N = 269. Standard deviation in brackets. *p ≤ .10 **p ≤ .05 *** p≤ .01*

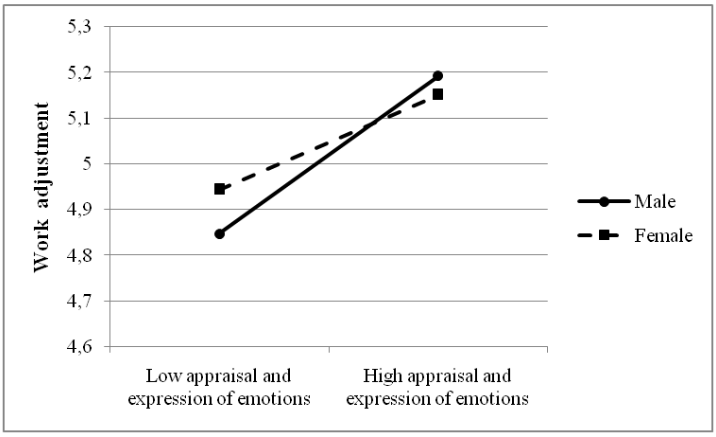
For Gender: '0' = 'male' and '1' = 'female'

FIGURE 1.2

Moderating effects of gender







Slopes for adjustment on appraisal and expression of emotions for male and female expatriates
Low appraisal and expression of emotions: 1 SD below mean
High appraisal and expression of emotions: 1 SD above mean

To sum up, in support of Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3, the direct relationships between the three adaptive abilities of EI and all three dimensions of expatriates' CCA were found to be significant and positive. Further, Hypothesis 4 was refuted, because our results show that the interaction between EI and gender is negative. As Figure 1.2 demonstrates, the pattern of the two-way interaction is the opposite of what we hypothesized.

DISCUSSION

Contributions

Because cognitive ability of human beings accounts only for approximately 25% of the variance in their job performance (i.e. Goldstein *et al.*, 2002), it is important to find other predictors that may tap into and help explain the remaining 75%. One such predictor is EI, which has recently attracted increasing attention among scholars (e.g. Van Rooy and Viswesvaran, 2004; O'Boyle *et al.*, 2011). However, until now the role of EI has been somewhat under-researched in relation to one of the most emotionally-intensive managerial tasks in many contemporary organizations – expatriate assignments. This analysis sheds some light on the role that EI plays in the CCA of expatriates on assignment.

The analysis examined a unique representative sample of 269 overseas French directors of the Alliance Française, a government-recognized public interest foundation, operating in 133 countries. The sample covered 79% of all overseas directors operating in the organization and so allowed for testing the role of EI in expatriates' CCA on a large group of expatriates from a unique home country. All had undergone standard pre-assignment cultural training before being sent off for standard three-year assignments. The cultural homogeneity of the sample minimized potential differences across cultural groups in experiencing, registering and expressing emotions, previously noted by scholars who examined the impact of national culture on individuals' emotional processes (e.g. Mesquita and Frijda, 1992; Elfenbein and Ambady, 2002; Elfenbein, 2007). Finally, the fact that the sample consisted of French expatriates was in line with recent calls for more research on expatriates from outside the USA (e.g. Kim and Slocum, 2008; Okpara and Kabongo, 2011).

As expected, we found emotions and EI in particular to be important for CCA. The variance in CCA cannot be explained by cultural similarity, experience and gender only. Moreover, depending on the type of adjustment considered, EI has much more profound corresponding impacts than the two control variables and gender taken together. Hence, in line with what we argued, the analysis confirmed our key hypotheses, showing that high levels of all three adaptive abilities of EI appear to be conducive to better general, interactional and work-related CCA. However, it also revealed that, although all are significant, different abilities of EI tend to be related to a different degree to the three dimensions of CCA. For instance, utilization of emotions seems to be positively and most strongly related to all three dimensions of CCA with the largest magnitude. Overall, we conclude that the ability to utilize emotions for problem solving is the most influential and universal EI ability in facilitating all three dimensions of expatriates' CCA. It means that flexibility, innovativeness, creativity, and motivation – all qualities associated with the ability to utilize emotions – appear to be conducive to better expatriate CCA. The other two dimensions were also found to be important but to a lesser extent. Nonetheless, the key point of our analysis is that emotions matter and that, as others have already argued (e.g. Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Tan *et al.*, 2005), EI needs to be included in the research on expatriates and their CCA as an important explanatory factor in determining expatriates' success.

We also found some interesting results concerning the influence of cultural similarity on expatriates' CCA. Some extant studies have argued that the closer the culture of the host environment is to the expatriate's home culture, the easier it is for an expatriate to adjust (e.g. Black and Gregersen, 1991; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). However, our analysis indicated that this is mainly true for general living adjustment and less so for interactional and work-related adjustments. It is easier to adjust to a culturally similar general living environment at the level of a host country. However, the latter two adjustment dimensions deal with much more varied and unpredictable environments, encompassing the different organizational, professional, regional, and departmental cultures that expatriates need to cope with when interacting and building relationships in their new workplaces. Furthermore, we found previous expatriation experience to be positive and significant in influencing expatriates' CCA. This result is expected, considering the extant literature (e.g. Selmer, 2001, 2002; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), and shows that EI, as one form of cognitive ability and intelligence, tends to develop with experience (Mayer et al., 1999). It also means that EI can and should be nurtured and learned through training and other assignments.

Although marginally significant, but yet another finding is a rather curious moderating gender effect yielded by our analysis. We found no direct effects of gender on CCA and mainly no differences in how EI is related to CCA between men and women, except for one interaction effect of "gender" and "appraisal and expression of emotions."

This effect indicates that, even though women tend to score higher on average in this particular adaptive ability, the relationships between the ability to appraise and express emotions (self and others) and all three dimensions of CCA appear to be stronger for men than for women. In other words, higher levels of the ability to appraise and express emotions are relatively more beneficial for male than for female expatriates' CCA. This is a somewhat counter-intuitive finding, considering that previous studies found women consistently scoring higher in terms of EI (Schutte *et al.*, 1998) and being more successful in international assignments than men (Adler, 1987; Taylor and Napier, 1996; Caligiuri and Tung, 1998).

One potential explanation for this finding, which remains to be verified in future research, follows from the work of Goleman (1996). He notes that being emotional, and expressing emotions about work and in work, is generally considered to be good for managers, as long as this emotionality is characterized by "appropriate" emotions. Both male and female managers are expected to employ emotional control in workplace situations where emotions are invoked. In this way, emotions are to be used as a functional tool in managerial work. However, it is one thing when a male manager is able to show that together with his inherently masculine management skills, he can also master "soft," "feminine" management skills in his work (e.g. Hatcher, 2003); and quite another when a female manager appears to be too "feminine" and excessively emotional in her work. This can slow down the process of adjustment of female expatriates.

Thus, the analysis adds to the existing research on the role of EI in expatriates' CCA (e.g. Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Lii and Wong, 2008) in several ways. Complementing Gabel *et al.*'s (2005) finding that EI is an important predictor of interactional and work-related, but not general, CCA, and in contrast to Lii and Wong's (2008) result that EI has no impact on expatriates' CCA, the current analysis, testing a relatively large sample, suggests that all three examined EI dimensions are important, in different ways, for the three CCA dimensions. Thus, it provides one of the first attempts to increase our understanding of how the different adaptive abilities that comprise EI influence differentially various aspects of expatriates' adjustment to host environments. Additionally, it shows that, relatively speaking, EI has a larger effect on expatriates' CCA than their experience and cultural similarity taken together. Moreover, the current analysis also points out interesting gender differences in the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA, thus contributing to the growing research of gender differences in CCA (e.g. Caligiuri *et al.*, 1999; Selmer and Leung, 2003; Haslberger, 2010). However, because this result appears as only marginally significant, we encourage researchers to perceive it as a tentative indication of the gender differences' existence among expatriates and invest in investigating these differences in more detail in future research.

Managerial relevance

Our analysis provides empirical evidence suggesting that it is important and beneficial for organizations to identify emotionally intelligent individuals to be sent on expatriate assignments. It shows that high levels of EI positively impact expatriates' CCA in a new environment that arguably spills over into positive effects on expatriates' performance. However, it is worth pointing out that the three dimensions of EI are not equally beneficial. The ability to utilize emotions seems to be the most valuable of the three and individuals who master this ability should be especially noted by organizations as potentially successful candidates for expatriation. Importantly, the possession of this ability is directly linked with flexibility, creativity, and perseverance. These are all qualities that organizations may well wish to take advantage of, not only in expatriate assignments but also more generally, assigning such individuals more demanding tasks and responsibilities within the organization. At the same time, our analysis also suggests that EI can be developed over time through experience and training. For organizations, this means that they need to be active not only in identifying individuals with high levels of EI but also in organizing training and foreign assignments for them. Finally, the analysis provides some support for the claim that women are on average more emotionally intelligent than men. Given the relationship of EI and CCA found in this study, it implies that organizations can benefit substantially by sending women on expatriate assignments.

Limitations

The study has some limitations that need to be taken seriously when considering our results. First, we used perceptual self-reported measures of adjustment, which may have biased our results due to the social desirability problem (e.g. Podsakoff and Organ, 1986), i.e. the potential inclination of respondents to present their adjustment situation more positively than it actually is. To alleviate this bias future studies need to obtain more objective and potentially less biased measures of expatriates' adjustment. This can be done by surveying, for example, expatriates' superiors or coworkers.

Second, the respondents in this study came from the same organization, which doubtlessly limits the generalizability of the study's findings. Future research needs to examine expatriates' adjustment in other organizations and industries. At the same time, the fact that we surveyed employees of the same nationality and in the same organization constitutes an obvious strength of our study. It minimizes the impact of possible mixed effects, which may be difficult for researchers to spot due to non-comparable home-host experiences and the cultural backgrounds of expatriates.

Third, our sample is composed of corporate expatriates working for the Alliance Française, the mission of which is directly related to expatriation activities. Therefore, it is plausible to expect that the expatriates of the Alliance Française might be - by their very nature and personality - better prepared to cope with cross-cultural adjustment. This self-selection bias among our respondents may potentially underestimate our findings. At the same time, the corresponding results can be expected to be more significant when tested in future research on samples with less self-selection bias.

Finally, we acknowledge that, given our research design and the self-perceptual nature of our measures, we need to remain cautious concerning potential causal directions between our variables. It means that reverse causality between our variables could be potentially considered with a different theoretical perspective. We cannot exclude the possibility that by experiencing higher or lower levels of CCA, expatriates can be motivated to inflate or deflate their perceptions of their EI abilities. Therefore, in this study we have been cautious in this respect describing the relationship between EI and CCA as being of an associative rather than causal nature.

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ESSAY 2 – JUST LIKE A FINE WINE? AGE, EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE, AND CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

INTRODUCTION

Up to now the role of age remains largely unexplored and under-theorized in expatriation literature: expatriates' age is commonly used as a control variable, however, it is rarely examined as a potential predictor of international assignment outcomes (cf. Olsen and Martins, 2009). At the same time, the literature on lifespan development psychology suggests that peoples' emotions, motivations and attitudes tend to develop and change throughout their lifespan (Carstensen, 1993; Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 1999). Bringing these two streams of literature together, in this paper we apply socioemotional selectivity theory to examine the role of expatriates' age in moderating the relationship between their emotional intelligence (EI) and cross-cultural adjustment (CCA).

CCA, defined as the degree of an expatriate's psychological comfort in new cultural and work-related contexts (e.g. Black and Stephens, 1989; Caligiuri, 1997), was shown to be a challenging (e.g. Aycan, 1997; Caligiuri, 2000) and emotionally demanding (Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Haslberger *et al.*, 2013) process. It is generally conceptualized as comprising three dimensions: general living, interactional, and work adjustments (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Black and Stephens, 1989; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). A wide range of different factors has been identified to influence expatriates' CCA (for reviews see Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003). Among these factors, the interest in the emotional aspect of expatriation, most often conceptualized as emotional intelligence (EI), has been gaining attention (e.g., Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Koveshnikov *et al.*, 2014).

EI is defined as an enduring personal trait which underlines the person's ability to adaptively identify, understand, manage, and harness emotions of both in self and others and use these emotions to facilitate cognitive processing (Salovey and Mayer, 1990; Schutte *et al.*, 1998; Mayer *et al.*, 1999). Generally, this research finds support for the importance of EI for expatriates' CCA.

Therefore, given that EI is important for expatriates' CCA and an expatriate's EI is likely to change over his / her lifespan, there may be an important link between these variables that unfortunately up to now remained largely unexplored in expatriation literature.

To address this gap, in this paper we draw on lifespan development psychology, and more specifically on socioemotional selectivity theory which examines how people's emotions, motivations and attitudes change over their lifespan (Carstensen, 1993; Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 1999), to suggest that age can be an important moderating factor in the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA. Additionally, we shed some light on whether age and expatriation experience can be treated interchangeably or the two are theoretically distinct constructs that have different effects on how expatriates use their EI for CCA. We adopt a quantitative design and test hypotheses derived from socioemotional selectivity theory on a sample of 254 expatriates.

The paper is organized as follows. Drawing on socioemotional selectivity theory, in next section we develop a number of hypotheses concerning the moderating role of age in the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA. Then, we test our hypotheses using hierarchical regression models and report our findings. The final section discusses the paper's findings, their implications, and the suggestions for future research.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Age, emotions and cross-cultural adjustment

The literature on expatriation has noted a number of personal characteristics that can potentially influence CCA (for overviews see Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). In this study we focus on the influence of age, which so far has been left with little attention. In fact, age is not included as a potential predictor of CCA in main theoretical frameworks, all of which are based on thorough analyses of existing literature (e.g. Black *et al.*'s (1991) adjustment model, Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al.'s (2005) meta-analytical model, or Lazarova, *et al.*'s (2010) expatriate work-family performance model.) Moreover, when it is included, the analyses yield mixed results (for summary see Hechanova *et al.*, 2003): age appears to have negative influence on general living and interactional adjustment but positive on work adjustment.

On the other hand, recently more practitioner-oriented sources[22] have started to question the widely-established assumption that younger professionals are likely to adjust

[22] Bar-Pereg, M. (2012), Young, single, new job, new country? (March 2012), http://www.expatica.com/nl/essentials_moving_to/relocation/young_-single_-new-job-in-new-country__12968.html, accessed 26.8.2014

better to new locations and cultures than their older colleagues. The reality seems to be that driven by their ambition and eagerness to travel, younger professionals often fail to engage themselves in true cultural adjustment and are often caught unprepared when cultural differences emerge and get in the way of doing business. Meanwhile, older professionals are seen as having a number of advantages over their younger colleagues namely they are more flexible, have more freedom to move, and possess steady temperament, calmness, and confidence of more mature individuals. Thus, these arguments suggest that, counterintuitively, age might have a positive association with CCA. However, academic literature on the topic has been rather rare. Therefore, there is a need to develop specific theoretical arguments concerning the role of age in expatriates' CCA (cf. Olsen and Martins, 2009).

It should be noted that whereas age remained relatively rarely examined in the literature, substantially more attention has been devoted to the role of expatriation experience in CCA (e.g., Aryee and Stone, 1996; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005; Kim and Slocum, 2008; Takeuchi and Chen, 2013). Moreover, whereas it seems to be plausible to argue that age and professional experience are closely related and thus can be treated as interchangeable, yet we think that there are reasons to expect age and prior expatriation experience to have differential effects on expatriates' CCA. Experience, on the one hand, is likely to be contingent on specific assignment – (e.g., the type, the duration and the complexity of task to accomplish) and / or context-related factors (e.g., national cultural similarity, the nature of local organizational practices and cultures). It is not likely to be directly transferrable between different contexts and assignments due to its specifics and idiosyncrasy. On the other hands, age as a personal demographic characteristic of an expatriate cannot be attributed to any external factors. With age expatriates are likely to develop more generic emotional and cognitive skills, which are less likely to be bound by any specific assignment- or context-related factors and thus can be applied to diverse contexts and situations.

In this study, we use socioemotional selectivity theory to develop theoretical links between age, EI and CCA. It is a life span theory of how time horizons shape human

[22] BBC: Freedom to move: Older professionals in new life abroad (January 2012), http://www.bbc.co.uk/news/business-16591514, accessed 26.8.2014
[22] Global Relocation Trends Survey (2011), Brookfield Global Relocation Services. http://www.brookfieldgrs.com/knowledge/grts_research/grts_media/2011_GRTS.pdf, accessed 26.8.2014

motivation and attitudes (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 2000; Löckenhoff and Carstensen, 2004; Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). It suggests that people's age, emotions and attitudes are closely intertwined and personal goals are always set in a temporal context. When people perceive time as expansive, which is typical for younger adults, they tend to concentrate on preparing for future by acquiring potentially to-become-useful information and expanding their horizons. In contrast, when people perceive their time as shrinking, i.e. when they get older, they start to place increasing value on emotionally meaningful goals and invest more cognitive and social resources in obtaining them. This shift promotes emotions regulation (i.e. control over emotions that an individual experiences and expresses).

The literature on EI tends to suggest that with age individuals are likely to become more emotionally intelligent because their emotional functioning tends to improve in middle and later adulthood (e.g., Carstensen et al., 2000; Mayer *et al.*, 1999, 2002; Van Rooy *et al.*, 2005). More specifically, Carstensen *et al.* (2000) suggest that age is associated with more differentiated emotional experience. Also, periods of highly positive emotional experience are more likely to endure and periods of highly negative emotional experience are likely to be less stable among older people. Taken together, these findings seem to support the idea that emotional abilities, such as EI, improve with age.

Hence, socioemotional selectivity theory appears to be relevant for theorizing the role of age as a moderator in the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA. We now turn to developing our hypotheses based on this theory.

Age, emotional intelligence and general living adjustment

Socioemotional selectivity theory suggests that as people get older they increasingly direct their attention to emotionally meaningful aspects of life, such as, for example, the desire to lead a meaningful life (Carstensen, 1993, 1995; Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). It means that when the future is perceived as limited, the present-oriented goals (i.e. 'here and now') that maximize emotional meaning of life become more relevant. To accomplish this, older adults tend to be better at regulating their emotions by avoiding negative but intensifying positive emotional states and being more flexible in adjusting their emotional reactions and experiences in response to different life situations (Löckenhoff and Carstensen, 2004).

Younger adults have a tendency to process negative information more thoroughly than positive information and weigh negative information more heavily in impression formation, memory and decision making (Baumeister, et al., 2001). In contrast, older adults tend to favor information that furthers their emotional satisfaction, so that their attention and memory are biased in favor of information that optimizes their ability to regulate emotions (Löckenhoff and Carstensen, 2004). Thus, depression, anxiety, emotional overreaction and stress are more prevalent in younger than in older adults (Carstensen *et al.*, 1999; 2000; Gross *et al.*, 1997). And, overall, older adults in general possess a greater sense of control over their emotions (e.g. Lawton *et al.*, 1992; Gross *et al.*, 1997), which leads to greater life satisfaction and less loneliness (Diener and Suh, 1997), as well as improved emotional experience in everyday life (Carstensen, 1993).

Furthermore, age is generally associated with greater maturity and flexibility in coping with new life events leading to more complex and adaptive emotional responses (Labouvie-Vief *et al.*, 1989; Diehl *et al.*, 1996). For instance, with age people become more experienced, accomplished, and mature because they acquire more skills and insights conducive to their emotional traits becoming more harmonious and stable (e.g. Mirowsky and Ross, 1992). Older adults are also generally more supportive, disciplined, able, and satisfied with life (Mroczek and Kolarz, 1998). They are more inclined to view problems and challenges as being a transient and manageable part of life. They are better prepared to manage different unpredictable and difficult life situations (Keltner, 1996; Carstensen *et al.*, 2000).

When applied to expatriates on international assignment, older expatriates can be expected to be better than their younger colleagues in utilizing emotions for adjusting to new cultural and living environments. Being more emotionally stable and less prone to stress and depression, older expatriates would be better in coping with and overcoming difficulties and challenges that they encounter in new life situations. Focusing on present-oriented goals, thus maximizing their emotional experiences ‘here and now’, older expatriates would be willing to invest more time and effort to optimize their general living adjustment to a new environment. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 1***: Age moderates the relationship between expatriates’ EI and CCA by positively influencing the relationship between appraisal, regulation, and utilization of emotions and general living adjustment.

Age, emotional intelligence and interactional adjustment

The socioemotional selectivity theory also postulates that another way, in which older adults direct their attention to emotionally meaningful aspects of life, is by concentrating on and investing more social and cognitive resources in developing socially meaningful relationships to feel socially interconnected (Carstensen, 1993, 1995; Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). When interacting, they tend to be quicker in returning to positive emotional states than younger adults once a negative mood state is experienced (Carstensen *et al.*, 2000). They also tend to engage in relatively more downward and less upward social comparison than their younger counterparts (Heckhausen and Krueger, 1993). It allows them to better regulate their emotions in interactions with others. When interacting, older adults appear to rely more on emotion-focused strategies: they employ less 'confrontative' coping and greater distancing and positive reappraisal than younger adults that ultimately leads to a greater sense of emotional control in interactions with others (Folkman *et al.*, 1987; Gross *et al.*, 1997). Also, Birditt and Fingerman (2005) found that older age groups utilize more effective conflict management strategies than younger ones in tense interactions with both unfamiliar and familiar interaction targets.

Furthermore, socioemotional selectivity theory argues that with age people develop a biased tendency to filter out negative situational information (Mather and Carstensen, 2005) and to remember positive information more intensely and longer (Levine and Bluck, 1997; Charles *et al.*, 2003). For instance, research on married couples showed that older adults tend to express less physiological reactivity (Levenson *et al.*, 1994), anger, belligerence, disgust, and more affection with one another (Carstensen, 1995). Thus, older adults appear to be more skillful in managing emotionally charged interactions (Carstensen *et al.*, 2003).

When applied to expatriates on international assignment, older expatriates can be expected to be more skillful in using emotions in their interactions in new environments. They can also feel better socially adjusted with a limited but meaningful network, whereas their younger counterparts might feel frustrated or isolated in the absence of a social network comparable to the one they have in their home country. Possessing a greater sense of emotional control and being willing to invest more social and cognitive resources to develop social relationships with the locals, older expatriates are expected to be better in understanding emotional states of the locals, regulating their own emotions when interacting with the locals, and utilizing their emotions for problem solving. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 2***: Age moderates the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA by positively influencing the relationship between appraisal, regulation, and utilization of emotions and interactional adjustment.

Age, emotional intelligence and work adjustment

Focusing on meaningful goals and striving to stay socially interconnected can be very useful and helpful for older adults not only in everyday life but also more specifically in work-related situations. Socioemotional selectivity theory predicts that with age adults become more focused on and motivated by short-term goals, i.e. current job satisfaction, which then translates into life satisfaction. At the same time, they become less focused on longer term goals, such as overall career satisfaction (Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). It means that older adults are more motivated to utilize their emotional and cognitive resources to savor and appreciate positive experiences and emotions of their current work, instead of projecting their hopes and ambitions into the future. Just like in everyday life situations, also in work situations the tendency of older adults to rely on emotion-focused problem-solving strategies (e.g. Watson and Blanchard-Fields, 1998) allows them to be less sensitive to and filter out negative information (Mather and Carstensen, 2005).

Furthermore, research has shown that work behavior changes with age (e.g. Kooij *et al.*, 2011, 2013). Older employees tend to possess a stronger orientation on maintenance and loss prevention in their work behavior than their younger colleagues (Heckhausen, 1997; Freund, 2006). It means that with age employees become increasingly concerned not with how to start performing better but how to avoid performing worse than before due to a loss of skills, abilities or competences (cf. Elliot and McGregor, 2001). Overall, research finds that due to the age-related changes in motivation older employees in their work behavior appear to be less competitive and concerned with growth opportunities and self-actualization but increasingly focused on extrinsic job characteristics, such as good pay and having friendly co-workers (Rhodes, 1983; Kooij *et al.*, 2011).

Finally, another stream of research, drawing on the socioemotional selectivity theory (Carstensen, 1993, 1995), suggests a less intense effect of psychological contract breach on attitudinal and behavioral outcomes among older employees than among younger ones (Ng and Feldman, 2009; Bal *et al.*, 2013). For instance, Ng and Feldman (2009) argue that with age, due to older employees' emotional maturation and increased altruism, the employees' psychological contract with their organization becomes more malleable, meaning that older employees become more tolerant towards contract deviations. And Bal *et al.* (2013) suggest that the less intense effect can be explained by older employees' increasing focus on positive aspects of their relationship with their organizations, their improved ability to regulate their emotions in case of negative events (e.g. contract breach) and return to positive moods thereafter.

Therefore, when applied to expatriates on international assignment, it is to be expected that older expatriates with their increasing focus on extrinsic job characteristics, higher tolerance towards potential psychological contract deviations, and higher motivation to invest cognitive and emotional resources to optimize their current job satisfaction, would be better able and motivated to use their EI to adjust to their new working environments more effectively. Therefore, we propose the following hypothesis:

> ***Hypothesis 3***: Age moderates the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA by positively influencing the relationship between appraisal, regulation and utilization of emotions and work adjustment.

METHOD

Sample

Data were collected by surveying expatriates working overseas for a French public interest foundation set up under private law. It is a not-for-profit organization that aims at promoting French culture and language abroad by working closely with foreign partners in other countries. Currently, it is present in 133 countries around the world. We chose to focus on surveying one organization and expatriates of one nationality because in this way, controlling for our respondents' organization and their country of origin, we could minimize the impacts of their non-comparable home-host experiences and cultural backgrounds on our results.

The data was collected through a survey, which was administered in French. The choice of language was dictated by our concerns that not all of our respondents are fluent and comfortable in using English. The survey was sent out by email by the head of the organization's International Human Resource Management department. All the expatriates at the moment employed by the organization (n=322) were contacted. 254 of them responded to our questionnaire (response rate of 79%).

Because the questionnaire was administrated in French, we undertook several measures to ensure the validity of the used constructs. First, we adopted French translations of the two key constructs in our study from existing literature where it has been previously translated and validated: the EI measure from Haag and Laroche (2009) and the CCA measure from Cerdin (1996; 1998). Then, translating the other measures, such as age and control variables, we took a great care in ensuring their proper and adequate translation. The adopted and translated measures were pretested on a number of French native speakers to ensure that there were no ambiguities and misunderstandings in how the measures were read and interpreted. Additionally, we have tested and validated the psychometric properties of the translated scales (see below).

The average age of the respondents was 41 years (SD = 11.11) and the average experience in expatriation was around nine years (SD = 7.85). In the sample 70% were men, about 54% were married or in partnership and 33% had children. The geographic distribution of the respondents was as follows: Europe (15%), North America (7%), Latin America and Caribbean (37%), Africa and Indian Ocean (16%), Asia (21%), and Oceania (4%).

Measures

Cross-cultural adjustment. We used Black and Stephens's scale (1989) to measure CCA. As noted before, we adopted the French transla6ion of the measure found in Cerdin (1996; 1998). The measure comprises 14 items measured on a Likert scale ranging from 1 for "very unadjusted" to 6 for "perfectly adjusted". It consists of three dimensions and the three-dimensional structure has previously been tested and validated in the literature (e.g. Black et al., 1991; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Kraimer *et al.*, 2001): general living adjustment (seven items, e.g. cost of living); interactional adjustment (four items, e.g. interacting with host nationals outside of work) and work adjustment (three items, e.g. performance standards and expectations). The validity and reliability of the measure were examined and confirmed. The French version of the construct fulfilled the required fit criteria: χ^2 (74) = 193.60; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.914; RMSEA = 0.049. Cronbach's alphas for all three dimensions were satisfactory: general living ($\alpha = 0.86$), interactional ($\alpha = 0.92$), and work ($\alpha = 0.81$).

Emotional intelligence. To measure EI we used the 33 items construct based on the work of Schutte *et al.* (1998) and developed by Mayer *et al.* (1990). As noted above, we used a French translation of the measure developed and validated in Haag and Laroche (2009). As such, the adopted construct has been widely used in prior literature (see Van Rooy and Viswesvaran [2004] for an overview) where it has often been conceptualized and operationalized as consisting of three dimensions (e.g., Mayer *et al.*, 1990; Schutte *et al.*, 2001; Austin *et al.*, 2004). A confirmatory factor analysis of our data supported the three-dimensional structure of the construct: ($\chi 2$ (350) = 642; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.821[23]; RMSEA = 0.048). The three dimensions are the following ones: (1) emotional expression and appraisal of emotions in self and others (13 items, such as e.g. "*I am aware of my emotions as I experience them*"); (2) emotional regulation of self and others (10 items, such as e.g. "*When I am in a positive mood solving problems is easy for me*"); and (3) utilization of emotions in problem solving (10 items, such as e.g. "*When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas*"). Cronbach's alphas indicated satisfactory inter-item reliability: expression and appraisal of emotions (self and others), $\alpha = 0.76$; regulation of emotions (in self and others), $\alpha = 0.79$; utilization of emotions in solving problems, $\alpha = 0.69$.

Age. Age is a continuous variable, which was measured chronologically (e.g., Cleveland and Shore, 1992) as a number of years. The youngest expatriate in our sample was 24 years old and the oldest 62 (range = 38). To illustrate the interaction effects in the interaction plots we used the median of age in the sample (40 years old). This cut-off also captures empirically meaningful life-cycle phases in a lifetime of an adult, such as the middle adulthood (24-40 years old), on the one hand, and the late adulthood / pre-retirement (41-65), on the other hand (see Bromley, 1966).

Control variables. To control for country and culture effect we included cultural similarity as a control variable. We adopted a subjective measure of cultural similarity as experienced by the expatriates themselves (Torbiorn, 1982). In our view, this measure has the advantage of integrating the perceived cultural similarity between the home and host countries, as it is perceived by the expatriates themselves, without making any "objective" inferences concerning what countries are supposed to be more or less culturally similar to France (the home country in our sample). It was measured with eight items (e.g. everyday

[23] Although the GFI statistic is somewhat lower than the traditional rule of thumb of ≥.90, we still consider it to be useable for our purposes as it is theoretically meaningful and the statistic obtained is the best compared to alternative specifications of this scale (i.e., one, two, four and six factor solutions).

customs, climate, or housing conditions) adopted from Torbiorn (1982) and found in Black and Stephens (1989). The items were measured on a six-point Likert scale (1 for "very different" and 6 for "very similar"). The psychometric properties of the construct were acceptable ($\chi 2$ (72) = 194.20; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.896; RMSEA = 0.051). Cronbach's alphas indicated satisfactory inter-item reliability: $\alpha = 0.90$. We also introduced gender as a control variable. It was operationalized as a dummy variable where "0" stood for "man" and "1" for "woman.

Assessment of common method bias

To control for common method variance (CMV) bias, we employed several *ex ante* and *ex post* measures, as recommended by Chang, et al. (2010). First, we tried to avoid CMV during the research design stage. To prevent the social desirability bias, it was explained to the respondents that there are no right or expected answers and their anonymity and confidentiality were assured. Further, the items were ordered randomly throughout the questionnaire (not all of the items are used in this study). We ensured that the items are unambiguously and concisely formulated by piloting the instrument on several academic colleagues of ours who were French natives.

TABLE 2.1

CFA marker technique results

Model	Chi-Square	Df	CFI
CFA	2546	2646	0.82
Baseline Model	2589	2666	0.80
Method-C Model	2586	2665	0.76
Method-U Model	2603	2596	0.77
Method-R Model	2615	2640	0.80
Chi-Square Model Comparison Tests	Δ Chi-Square	Δ df	Critical value, α = 0.05
Baseline Model vs Method-C Model	3.27	1	3.84
Method-C Model vs Method-U Model	17.65	69	>79
Method-U Model vs Method-R Model	12.59	44	>56

Baseline model: Correlations between the marker construct and the constructs are forced to zero. Method-C: From the baseline model, factor loadings from the marker construct to each construct item are added and constrained to be equal (noncongeneric perspective). Model-U: From the baseline model, factor loadings from the marker construct to each construct item are added and freely estimated (congeneric perspective). Model-R: From the baseline model, the independent–dependent construct correlation was constrained to its unstandardized value from the baseline model.

Second, we used several statistical techniques to determine *ex post* whether our data analysis is likely to suffer from CMV. For starters, we performed a Harman's single factor test (Podsakoff and Organ, 1986) by including all items of the three constructs (cross-cultural adjustment, emotional intelligence, cultural similarity) into an exploratory factor analysis. The analysis returned three factors with eigenvalues greater than one and the first factor accounted for less than 28 percent of the total variance. Thus, there was no evidence of unidimensionality in our data. Then, we followed Podsakoff *et al.*'s (2003) approach to control for an unmeasured latent factor and performed a confirmatory factor analysis where we let items load on both their theoretical constructs and on a latent CMV factor. All item loadings were still significant after the inclusion of the latent factor. Finally, we used the CFA marker technique (Williams, Hartman and Cavazotte, 2010). We estimated a series of models as described in Williams et al. (2010): a baseline model, method-C model, method-U model, and method-R model (see Table 2.2). A comparison of the change in fit between these models is assessed as a statistical test for detecting CMV. The results summarized in Table 2.1 do not provide any evidence of CMV bias influencing our analyses or interpretations.

Further, CMV is more likely to emerge in simplistic models (Chang *et al.*, 2010), whereas our theory-driven hypotheses led us to test interaction effects. The complex nature of our model can thus be expected to reduce CMV. Moreover, Siemsen *et al.* (2010) showed that CMV does not create artificial interaction effects. All in all, based on the described tests we can reasonably conclude that CMV neither influences our results nor biases the interpretation of our findings.

Empirical strategy

Regression models were developed to analyze the data. Determinants of general living, interactional and work adjustment were estimated separately. We ran models hierarchically by including respective sets of predicting variables in each sequential step as follows: control variables (step 1), EI and age (step 2), and interaction terms between age and EI (step 3). To avoid possible multicollinearity problems, the variables were mean-centered before creating the interaction terms (Aiken and West, 1991). VIF values ranged from 1 to 2 suggesting no multicollinearity issues. Correlations are presented in Table 2.2. The direct and interactional influences of age are displayed in Table 2.3 for general living, interactional and work adjustments respectively.

FINDINGS

Table 2.3 below presents our results. In Step 1 we included only control variables. The models yielded a non-significant effect of gender on CCA but significant relationships were found between cultural similarity and all three facets of CCA confirming the positive association between CCA and cultural similarity (cf. Black *et al.*, 1991). All models testing direct effects of EI on CCA in Step 2 yielded significant marginal R^2 (all at $p < 0.01$), meaning that the EI dimensions and age significantly improved the models and thus are important determinants of the three facets of CCA.

TABLE 2.2

Correlations and Cronbach's alphas

	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. General living adjustment	4.91	0.77	(0.86)							
2. Interactional adjustment	4.93	0.94	0.63	(0.92)						
3. Work adjustment	5.00	0.78	0.64	0.63	(0.81)					
4. Appraisal of emotions	4.34	0.60	0.28	0.31	0.27	(0.76)				
5. Regulation of emotions	4.85	0.52	0.27	0.23	0.26	0.18	(0.79)			
6. Utilization of emotions	4.29	0.74	0.39	0.37	0.49	0.24	0.25	(0.69)		
7. Age	40.79	11.11	0.11	0.18	0.22	0.00	0.08	0.09	-	
8. Cultural similarity	2.86	0.98	0.35	0.12	0.24	0.02	0.15	0.17	0.03	(0.90)

N = 254. Coefficients larger than 0.08 are significant at p < .05 level. Cronbach's alphas in brackets.

Together with age the three dimensions of EI have explained additional 16.4% of variance in general living adjustment (appraisal: $\beta = 0.12$, $p < 0.05$; regulation: $\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.1$; utilization: $\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$), additional 17.6% of variance in interactional adjustment (appraisal: $\beta = 0.19$, $p < 0.05$; regulation: $\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.1$; utilization: $\beta = 0.28$, $p < 0.01$), and additional 28.4% of variance in work adjustment (appraisal: $\beta = 0.09$, $p < 0.05$; regulation: $\beta = 0.08$, $p < 0.1$; utilization: $\beta = 0.31$, $p < 0.01$). It confirms prior results in the literature on EI and CCA (e.g. Gabel *et al.*, 2005; Koveshnikov *et al.*, 2014): the three dimensions of EI (appraisal and expression of emotions, regulation of emotions, utilization of emotions in problem solving) appear to have positive and significant associations with CCA.

TABLE 2.3

Determinants of cross-cultural adjustment: the influence of age

	General living adjustment			Interactional adjustment			Work adjustment		
	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3	Step 1	Step 2	Step 3
Constant	4.15***	4.36***	4.36***	4.42***	4.64***	4.64***	4.39***	4.53***	4.53***
	(0.16)	(0.16)	(0.16)	(0.22)	(0.20)	(0.25)	(0.17)	(0.15)	(0.20)
Control variables									
Female	0.08	0.01	0.01	0.19	0.12	0.11	0.07	0.02	0.01
	(0.12)	(0.10)	(0.10)	(0.14)	(0.12)	(0.13)	(0.17)	(0.10)	(0.10)
Cultural similarity	0.19**	0.21***	0.21***	0.12***	0.04	0.05	0.20***	0.12**	0.12**
	(0.07)	(0.05)	(0.05)	(0.07)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.06)	(0.05)	(0.05)
Independent variables									
Appraisal and expressions		0.12**	0.10**		0.19**	0.17***		0.09**	0.09**
		(0.05)	(0.06)		(0.06)	(0.07)		(0.05)	(0.05)
Regulation		0.09*	0.13**		0.09*	0.14**		0.08*	0.10*
		(0.05)	(0.06)		(0.06)	(0.07)		(0.05)	(0.06)
Utilization		0.19***	0.20***		0.28***	0.26***		0.31***	0.30***
		(0.05)	(0.05)		(0.06)	(0.07)		(0.05)	(0.05)
Age		0.06**	0.06**		0.14***	0.14***		0.12***	0.12**
		(0.03)	(0.05)		(0.04)	(0.04)		(0.03)	(0.05)
Interactions									
Appraisal x Age			-0.02			0.01			0.02
			(0.03)			(0.04)			(0.03)
Regulation x Age			0.05**			0.07**			0.02
			(0.03)			(0.04)			(0.03)
Utilization x Age			0.03*			-0.03			-0.02
			(0.03)			(0.04)			(0.03)
R-square	0.12	0.28	0.32	0.08	0.25	0.29	0.06	0.35	0.35
R-square change		0.16	0.03		0.18	0.03		0.28	0.00
F change		13.23	3.72		13.42	3.22		21.12	0.21
Sig. F change		<0.01	<0.01		<0.01	<0.01		<0.01	0.79

*N = 254. Standard deviation in brackets. *p ≤ .10 **p ≤ .05 *** p≤ .01*

With regard to the influence of age on CCA, somewhat contradicting the meta-analysis of Hechanova *et al.* (2003) but in line with Selmer (2001), our results in Step 2 also show that age has a significant and positive association with the three facets of adjustment: general living adjustment ($\beta = 0.06$, $p < 0.05$), interactional adjustment ($\beta = 0.14$; $p < 0.01$) and work adjustment ($\beta = 0.12$; $p < 0.01$). More importantly for the focus of our analysis, we found interesting results concerning the moderating role of age in the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA.

As seen from Table 2.3 and Figures 2.1 to 2.3, the interaction effects of *age x EI* (Step 3) partially supported Hypothesis 1. More specifically, the interaction terms of *age x regulation* ($\beta = 0.05$; $p < 0.05$) and of *age x utilization* ($\beta = 0.03$; $p < 0.1$) were positive and significant for general living adjustment. The interaction terms improved R^2 from 0.28 to 0.32 (F change = 3.72, $p < 0.01$), thus, age appears to be a facilitator of regulation and utilization of emotions for general living adjustment. No significant results were obtained for the role of age in moderating the relationship between appraisal and expression of emotions and general living adjustment.

In terms of interactional adjustment, only the interaction term *age x regulation* was positive and significant ($\beta = 0.07$; $p < 0.05$). The interaction terms improved R^2 from 0.25 to 0.29 (F change = 3.22, $p < 0.01$). Thus, although age had no moderating effect neither for appraisal and expression of emotions nor utilizations of emotions, it moderated the relationship between regulation of emotions and interactional adjustment. Therefore, only partial support was found for Hypothesis 2. In terms of work adjustment, neither significant moderating effects nor significant R^2 changes have been detected. Thus, Hypothesis 3 is not confirmed.

Finally, we also conducted a post hoc analysis to shed some light on whether age and expatriation experience are in fact different in their influences on how expatriates use their EI for CCA when on assignment. We examined moderation effects of expatriation experience on the relationship between EI and CCA. In contrast to the chronological nature of age, experience is a time-related measure (see Schaie *et al.*, 1988). We measured expatriation experience as the number of years a respondent worked as an expatriate. The median number of years of experience as an expatriate was 1.41. We rounded off the median to interpret the effects in managerial intuitive units (i.e., years) and adopted a cutoff point of 1 year to plot the interaction effects of expatriation experience on the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA.

Our results (see Table 2.4 and Figure 2.4) show that expatriation experience has a different and less prominent influence on CCA than age. It has a significant moderating effect only on the relationship between utilization of emotions and interactional adjustment ($\beta = -0.12$; $p < 0.01$). Interestingly, the effect appears to be negative. This outcome suggests that age and expatriation experience - even if closely related - are not necessarily interchangeable. Therefore, we conclude that the moderating effect of age seems to be more the consequence of expatriates naturally becoming emotionally mature and skillful with age rather than the outcome of prior expatriation experiences accumulated with age.

TABLE 2.4

Determinants of cross-cultural adjustment: The influence of experience (reduced results)

	General Living Adjustment Step 3	Interactional Adjustment Step 3	Work Adjustment Step 3
Moderator variable			
Expatriation experience	0.10**	0.20***	0.13***
	(0.05)	(0.06)	(0.05)
Interaction terms			
Appraisal x Expatriation experience	-0.01	0.02	0.02
	(0.06)	(0.07)	(0.06)
Regulation x Expatriation experience	0.01	0.06	-0.01
	(0.05)	(0.04)	(0.05)
Utilization x Expatriation experience	-0.04	-0.12***	-0.05
	(0.04)	(0.05)	(0.04)
R-square	0.30	0.28	0.29
R-square change	0.00	0.02	0.01
F change	0.30	3.11	0.56
Sig. F change	0.83	≤ 0.01	0.64

*N = 254. Standard deviation in brackets. *p ≤ .10 **p ≤ .05 *** p≤ .01*

DISCUSSION

Our analysis is one of the first attempts to provide a more detailed understanding of the relationships between age, expatriation experience, EI and CCA in the context of expatriation. We think that it is a timely topic to shed some light on considering the latest developments in international expatriation: whereas the number of expatriates and the average number of assignments per expatriate are increasing, the average age of expatriates seems to be decreasing[24]. Additionally, as it was mentioned above, recently several practitioner-oriented sources suggested that in fact older expatriates may be better able to fit in and adjust to the host country than their younger colleagues supposedly due to their better social skills and stronger feelings of well-being in relation to the adjustment process. Against this background, our results show that the moderating effect of age on the relationship between EI and CCA is not a simple but a complex and multidimensional one.

Both EI and CCA are complex constructs comprising a number of dimensions, which interact differentially with each other. However, in existing analyses these dimensions are often lumped together thus, in our view, preventing researchers from identifying important nuances of how the two constructs interact. Complementing prior literature, we find that age is a facilitator of regulation and utilization of emotions on general living adjustment and of regulation of emotions on interactional adjustment. Moreover, our complementary analyses show that expatriates' prior expatriation experience affects the relationship between EI and CCA differently than age.

Theoretical contributions

In our view, the analysis makes three key contributions. First, it reaffirms the positive and critical influence of EI on CCA among expatriates. Moreover, it goes further by developing theoretical arguments and providing an empirical examination for how the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA functions. Our analysis suggests that age acts as an important moderator facilitating the effect of EI's dimensions on different facets of expatriates' CCA. Thus, it deepens our theoretical understanding of the link between age and CCA, which so far has been under-explored in the literature (cf. Olsen and Martins, 2009). To the best of our knowledge, there is no theory related to the influence of age on expatriates' adjustment.

[24] Please see http://m.mercer.com/press-releases/1521435?detail=D (accessed on 31.3.2014)

FIGURE 2.1: Moderation effect of age on the relation between regulation of emotions and general living adjustment

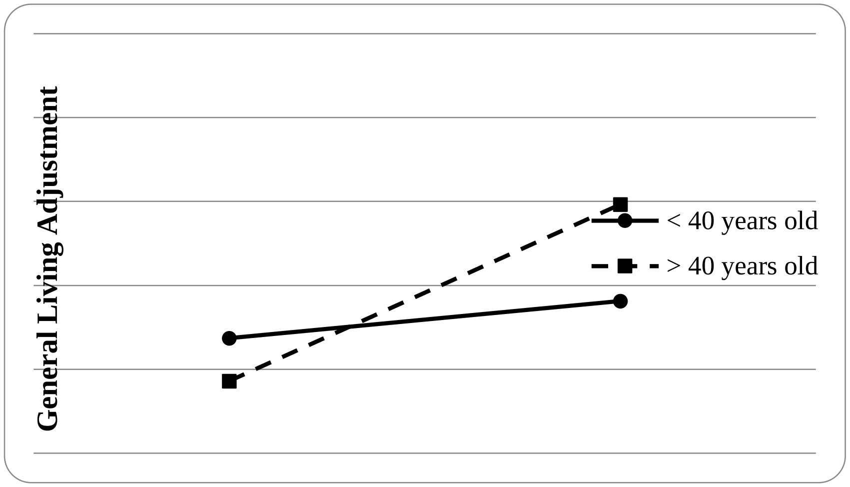


FIGURE 2.2: Moderation effect of age on the relation between utilization of emotions and general living adjustment

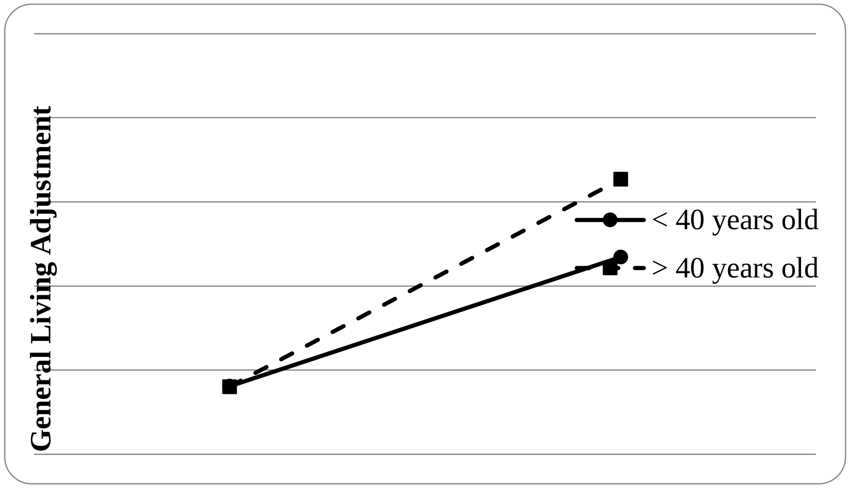


FIGURE 2.3: Moderation effect of age on the relation between regulation of emotions and interactional adjustment

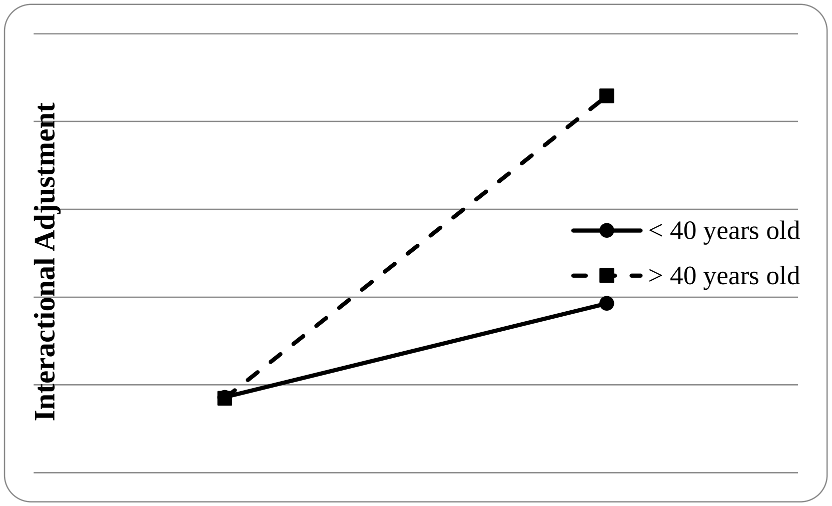
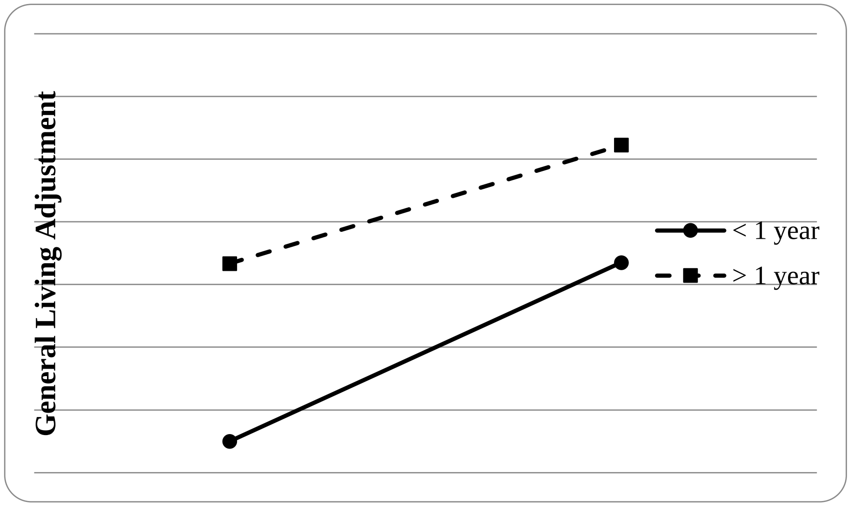


FIGURE 2.4: Moderation effect of experience on the relation between utilization of emotions and interactional adjustment



Up to now very little attention has been devoted to the role of age in expatriates' CCA, which is indicated by the fact that it is largely absent from existing reviews of the expatriation literature or included only as a mere control variable (e.g. Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010). If present, like in Hechanova *et al.*'s (2003) meta-analytical review, mixed results are yielded. In this light, our analysis theoretically justifies and empirically confirms the positive role of age in enabling expatriates to utilize their EI for better CCA.

Second, our analysis introduced and applied socioemotional selectivity theory to the phenomenon of expatriates' CCA. It allowed us to provide valuable theoretical insights for our understanding of the phenomenon. Generally, our results indicate that expatriates' age has positive associations with all three facets of CCA. Moreover, going beyond this general finding, we found that indeed, as socioemotional selectivity theory predicts (e.g. Carstensen *et al.*, 2003; Löckenhoff and Carstensen, 2004), age facilitates to the largest extent the relationship between regulation of emotions and CCA, especially its general living and interactional adjustment facets. It means that older expatriates are better able to regulate their emotions and emotions of others in the process of adjusting to their new host environments in terms of dealing with novel daily life situations and when interacting with local people. Among other EI dimensions, age also facilitates the relationship between utilization of emotions and general living adjustment. Other relationships do not appear to be significant. To verify our results, more research is needed to further and deepen our understanding of how age differentially influences different dimensions of expatriates' CCA. However, this study shows that socioemotional selectivity theory can be a relevant and helpful theoretical tool to address this phenomenon.

Finally, our analysis also confirms that age and expatriation experience cannot and should not be treated as interchangeable. Whereas the two are positively correlated and closely related, they are theoretically distinct constructs (cf. Ng and Feldman, 2009). As we argued above, age triggers certain physiological changes in an expatriate making him / her more emotionally mature and intelligent in a more generic sense. Whereas accumulated expatriation experience is likely to be bounded by the idiosyncrasies of prior expatriation assignments and the associated cultural and organizational contexts (see e.g. Avolio and Waldman, 1994; Forteza and Prieto, 1994). Indeed, we found that age and experience have different moderating effects on the relationship between EI and CCA. The latter was significant and negative for the relationship between utilization of emotions and interactional adjustment thus acting as a restraint. Several arguments can explain this finding. One possible reason why expatriation experience, contrary to age, does not seem to accumulate positive advantages for expatriates may stem from the fact that prior expatriation experiences are not necessarily comparable and compatible between each other. For instance, if an expatriate possesses some experience from a number of assignments in Middle East or Asia, it would not necessary make his / her adjustment easier when on assignment somewhere in Europe or Africa.

Furthermore, it can be argued that expatriates who have extensive prior experience may be less motivated to utilize their EI for CCA that can impart their willingness to adjust to their new environments. For experienced, but not necessarily senior, expatriates yet another overseas assignment may be taken on and justified by e.g. career survival concerns, financial greed or glamorous lifestyle. Once experienced and possibly not any more very motivated, expatriates may accept another assignment in their portfolio of international assignments for these kinds of reasons (e.g. Osland, 2001; Selmer, 2004). In such situations the expatriates are not very eager to mobilize their EI to learn about another culture and adapt to their new work and living environments (e.g. Teagarden and Gordon, 1995).

Moreover, experience can also have negative consequences for expatriates' CCA by causing cognitive overconfidence. Russo and Schoemaker (1992) distinguish between four cognitive causes of overconfidence that can also be applied to the case of experienced expatriates: availability (overconfidence in supposedly imagining all the ways that events can unfold); anchoring (overconfidence due to the tendency to anchor on one value or idea and not adjust away from it sufficiently); the confirmation bias (overconfidence from leaning toward one perspective and seeking support for it when making predictions or forecasts); and hindsight (overconfidence from assumption that the world is more predictable than it really is). Thus, experienced expatriates may turn out to be overconfident in their ability to handle novel situations. They can anticipate challenges but they are also likely to be overconfident that they will overcome these challenges because they have done so before. It can prevent them from being realistic thereby enhancing their chances to be maladjusted on their assignment. These are some of the possible reasons for why age and expatriation experience cannot be treated as interchangeable in the expatriation literature. However, future research is needed to understand better the differences between the effects of age and prior experience on expatriates' CCA.

Practical implications

This study has practical implications. Expatriation and the benefits that it offers are crucial for many contemporary organizations conducting international business. At the same time, it is a risky enterprise which can be very costly if an expatriate returns home prematurely. Takeuchi et al. (2005) estimate that the early return of a typical expatriate is estimated to cost from $250,000 to $1.25 million. Thus, the choice of potential expatriates is crucial for organizations. Age is a basic demographic characteristic, which is taken into account when selecting candidates for expatriation assignments. From an HRM perspective, our findings suggest that age is a positive personal characteristic complementary to the skills required to succeed on a specific assignment. Unlike the commonsensical idea that younger expatriates may be more flexible and adaptable, and may cope better with new and unfamiliar situations and circumstances, our analysis implies that age and maturity, that comes with it, can be beneficial for expatriates to adjust to new cultural environments.

Limitations and future research

Our analysis has several limitations that need to be taken into account when interpreting our results. First, all our measures are self-reported. To address this limitation, we conducted several robustness checks which indicated that the CMV bias is not likely to affect neither our results nor their interpretations. It should also be noted that we deliberately used the self-reported measures because we wanted to get at the expatriates' own subjective evaluations of their CCA and EI abilities. Using external, not self-perceived, measures instead, could have potentially biased our results due to the possibility that on assignment expatriates can behave as well adjusted in front of their colleagues and superiors without actually feeling so in reality. Furthermore, CCA is a multidimensional concept that measures several facets of an expatriate's life abroad. And the three facets are not necessarily synchronized (see Pedersen, 1995) or easily observable and assessable by the expatriate's colleagues or superiors. As such, only the expatriate him/herself is able to adequately measure his/her degree of CCA.

Second, our analysis is based on a cross-sectional data meaning that we compared different age groups at a single point in time. The first potential problem of such a design is that the age-group differences emerging from a cross-sectional data analysis can be attributed to the sample selection. However, in this study our sample is very representative and almost exhaustive, covering 79% of all expatriate managers in the case organization. The second potential problem in a cross-sectional design is known as cohort variation. Here, the differences between age groups may be attributed to the generational differences, whereas they may have nothing to do with age *per se*. To address this issue, in our models we ran additional models with generational cohorts as controls. The results remained consistent across the models specifications. Nonetheless, longitudinal research designs would be highly relevant for future research.

Third, this study is limited to professional expatriates working for the public French organization. The idiosyncratic nature of our sample may limit the generalizability of our results. Yet, our sample consists of expatriates roughly between 30 and 52 years old and appears to be a good representation for the population of expatriates in contemporary international business world. Moreover, it seems plausible to suggest that the theoretical arguments developed and tested in this paper based on socioemotional selectivity theory concerning the moderation effects of age on the relationship between expatriates' EI and CCA are likely to apply to other contexts and other types of expatriates, such as for example self-initiated expatriates.

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ESSAY 3 – CAREER ANCHORS AND CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AMONG EXPATRIATES IN A NON-PROFIT ORGANIZATION

INTRODUCTION

Burgeoning literature on organizational expatriates (henceforth expatriates), defined as employees who are temporary relocated by their organizations abroad for an assignment lasting up to a few years in a foreign country with the intention to return to their home country afterwards (Collings *et al.*, 2007), reflects the continuous reliance of organizations around the globe on expatriates in managing their international operations (Brookfield, 2014). This literature can be divided into two main streams: the first is primarily concerned with what motivates or constrains an individual's willingness to expatriate (e.g. Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Dickmann and Mills, 2010; Doherty *et al.*, 2011) and the second deals with different aspects and antecedents of an expatriate's cross-cultural adjustment (CCA) (e.g. Shaffer *et al.*, 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012). Acknowledging the invaluable contributions of this literature, there are several areas where it can be developed further.

First, the majority of the literature on motivations to expatriate examines various individual and environmental factors that determine expatriates' decisions to go or not to go abroad. Among these are corporate monetary and career incentives (e.g. Dickmann *et al.*, 2008), potential job, skills and career impacts (Doherty *et al.*, 2011), family-related factors, i.e. the children's educational needs and / or the willingness of a spouse to move abroad (e.g. Harvey, 1998), or the desire to experience a new geographic location and culture (e.g. Stahl *et al.*, 2002) and to live in an international and metropolitan environment (e.g. Dickmann and Mills, 2010).

Yet, with a few exceptions (e.g. Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010), the research has not considered the role of expatriate's internal career characteristics, such as career anchors, in these decisions. In our view, it is unfortunate considering the growing awareness in career research that internal or subjective career characteristics become increasingly important in determining employees' behavior and attitudes in the workplace (e.g. Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996; Schein, 1996; Cappellen and Janssens, 2005). And research convincingly shows that organizational expatriates are also becoming increasingly "boundaryless" in their careers, being increasingly driven by internal career characteristics rather than corporate incentives and career advancements (e.g. Inkson *et al.,* 1997; Stahl *et al.,* 2002; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010). Yet, whereas, for instance, Suutari and Taka (2004) and Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2010) have to some extent explored career anchors of corporate expatriates, more studies are needed considering the diversity of expatriates. For instance, to the best of our knowledge, no study has explored career anchors of expatriates in non-profit organizations.

Second, up to now only a few studies have attempted to bring the two streams of literature together (e.g. Froese, 2012; Selmer and Lauring, 2013). Importantly, these rare studies have examined exclusively self-initiated academic expatriates: Froese (2012) qualitatively explored the relations between their motivations to go abroad and CCA, whereas Selmer and Lauring (2013) examined the links between cognitive and affective reasons to expatriate and work adjustment only. In our view, research on other expatriate groups is needed considering the substantial differences between organizational and self-initiated expatriates (e.g., Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009) and expatriates in for-profit and non-profit organizations (Oberholster *et al.,* 2013). Moreover, it appears that no prior study has empirically examined the relationships between specifically organizational expatriates' career anchors and different dimensions of CCA. The only (known to us) attempt to do so is a conceptual contribution by Cerdin and Pargneux (2009), where the authors conceptually argue that a congruence between expatriates' anchors and international assignment characteristics would lead to better performance. Yet, how different career anchors in practice impact expatriates' CCA – as one of the key determinant of expatriates' success - remained unexplored up to now.

Thus, based on a sample of 189 French expatriates working for a non-profit organization in this study we aim at addressing the identified limitations in the literature in the following two ways. First, we examine the dominant career anchors possessed by organizational expatriates employed by a non-profit organization. Such expatriates have hitherto remained understudied in the literature (cf. Selmer and Fenner 2009a, 2009b; Nolan and Morley, 2014), which is unfortunate considering the constantly increasing importance and presence of non-profit organizations globally (Lindenberg, 1999) as well as their distinct organizational characteristics

(Fenwick, 2005). Second, in this paper we also examine linkages between organizational expatriates' career anchors and CCA. To the best of our knowledge, no prior study has explored these linkages up to now.

The paper is organized as follows. In the next section, we provide an overview of career anchors theory and examine the association with different dimensions of CCA and career anchors. Further, we examine these associations empirically using canonical correlation analyses complemented by structural equation models (SEM). Finally, we discuss our findings.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The theory of career anchors

The focus in career research has been shifting towards assigning more importance to internal or subjective characteristics of one's career (e.g. Arthur and Rousseau, 1996; Hall, 1996; Cappellen and Janssens, 2005). A person's career is increasingly seen as "*the evolving sequence of a person's work experiences over time*" (Arthur *et al.*, 1989: 48) that shape up a subjective sense of where one is going in one's working life. In this sense, a person's career is driven and guided by his/her internal values, attitudes and beliefs rather than organizational structures, policies and societal occupational role expectations (Cappellen and Janssens, 2010).

To capture a person's internal values, attitudes and beliefs in relation to his/her career, Schein (1978, 1990, 1996) proposed the concept of 'career anchor', that is, "*a combination of perceived areas of competence, motives, and values that [a person] would not give up, [because] it represents [his/her] real self*" (Schein, 1990: 1). The theory postulates that individuals have long-term preferences concerning their work and work environments and a fit between their career anchors and work environments results in positive outcomes, e.g. work effectiveness and job satisfaction (Schein, 1987, 1990, 1996).

Essentially, career anchors form an underlying self-concept, self-image and self-perception of an employee in relation to where he/she is going in one's career. Whereas external factors may influence how employees make decisions in a particular place and time about their careers, for instance, by relocating because of poor economic conditions in the home country, yet such decisions are likely to remain occasional and intermittent. Over time, the employees can be expected to gradually and through subsequent career decisions adjust their careers in line with their internal career orientations. Furthermore, once relocated the employee's behavior and actions in his/her new role and in the new organization is likely to be - at least to some extent - guided by his/her deeper internal career aspirations and motivations. Thus, career anchors are important and influential factors in determining employees' careers because the employees tend to adhere to their underlying internal career orientations in the organizational context.

Schein (1978) has initially identified five career anchors: *Functional competence*, *Managerial competence*, *Autonomy*, *Security*, and *Entrepreneurial Creativity*. Later (Schein, 1987, 1990), he added three more: *Dedication to a cause*, *Pure Challenge*, and *Lifestyle*. These can be briefly described as follows (see Schein [1990] for more):

Functional competence anchor characterizes people who are driven in their careers by a desire to apply their special skills and talents and become expert in a specific area. People anchored by *Managerial competence* find fulfilment in their careers by integrating efforts of others toward a common task and seeking responsibility to make major decisions in their organizations. The *Autonomy*-anchored people experience difficulties with organizational life which they find restrictive or intrusive (e.g., rules, working hours) and put great emphasis on self-reliance and independent judgment instead, seeking freedom to define their own tasks, schedules, and procedures. The *Security*-anchored people find comfort in their careers when they perceive future events as predictable and feel secure in terms of job employment or financial situation; they prefer stable work and are more sensitive to the context than to the nature of work itself. The *Entrepreneurial creativity*-anchored people find fulfilment in their careers by creating something through the use of their own skills and efforts; they are constantly looking for ideas to start their own enterprise; they need to create and tend to be bored easily otherwise. The *Dedication to a cause*-anchored people feel successful in their careers when they perceive that they contribute to the society and can use their talents in the service of others; they dream of doing something meaningful for humanity and society through their work. The *Lifestyle*-anchored people seek a job that integrates personal, family, and work needs altogether; they look for organizational flexibility. The *Pure Challenge*-anchored people need to prove they can conquer anything; they seek jobs with unsolvable problems or seemingly impossible odds to challenge them; they are motivated by competition and obstacles.

Later, Feldman and Bolino (1996) suggested distinguishing the anchors based on the centrality of their components (talents, needs or values) and proposed the following classification: *talent-based* (Functional competence, Managerial competence and Entrepreneurial creativity), *need-based* (Autonomy, Security and Lifestyle), and *value-based* (Dedication to a cause and Pure challenge).

Career anchors and expatriation

As noted previously, there is a number of studies focusing on motivations of expatriates to go abroad (e.g. Stahl and Cerdin, 2004; Dickmann *et al.*, 2008; Dickmann and Mills, 2010) and a few on the relationship between self-initiated academic expatriates' motivations to relocate and CCA (e.g. Froese, 2012; Selmer and Lauring, 2013). For instance, Froese (2012) qualitatively studied such expatriates in South Korea and proposed a model where an expatriate's regional interest in a host country / region, poor home labour market conditions, and a host-country spouse's support influence an expatriate's CCA. Selmer and Lauring (2013) examined the influence of cognitive and affective reasons to expatriate on work adjustment among academics in the Nordic countries. Focusing solely on the work dimension, they found refugee reasons such as life change / escape to have a negative influence on work adjustment. No other reason had any effect on academics' work adjustment. Albeit these important contributions, our understanding of the relationship between expatriate motivations to go abroad - despite of all the associated challenges (e.g. Aycan, 1997; Stahl *et al.*, 2002) – and different aspects of expatriate CCA to new living and work environments remains tentative and partial.

Moreover, in line with the increasing focus in the literature on internal career and its characteristics (e.g. Schein, 1996; Cappellen and Janssens, 2005), to better understand what drives expatriates' careers and with what effects, we need to delve deeper into expatriates' decisions to go abroad and examine how expatriates' internal career characteristics influence their international assignment success (cf. Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010). Up to now, only a few studies have specifically focused on career anchors of organizational expatriates (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010; Suutari and Taka, 2004; Lazarova *et al.*, 2014) and only one paper has conceptually theorized their impact on expatriates' international assignment success (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009).

The key findings of these studies are as follows. First, based on their analysis, Suutari and Taka (2004) proposed to extend the original Schein's theory of career anchors by including the ninth anchor – *Internationalism*. It characterizes people who are interested in international mobility because it offers a possibility to work with people from various cultures in international environments. Second, the research found several career anchors to dominate among the expatriates: in Suutari and Taka (2004) these were *Pure challenge*, *Managerial competence*, *Lifestyle*, *Dedication to a cause*, and *Internationalism*; whereas in Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2010) *Lifestyle*, *Internationalism*, *Pure Challenge*, *Autonomy*, and *Dedication to a cause*. It's important to note that both of these studies (1) focused on organizational expatriates working for for-profit organizations and did not discuss other types of expatriates (cf. Nolan and Morley, 2014); and (2) did not examine the linkages specifically between expatriates' career anchors and CCA.

Yet, the nature and the context of expatriation are likely to influence expatriates' internal values, attitudes, and internal career characteristics (Oberholster *et al.*, 2013; Nolan and Morley, 2014). Moreover, expatriates' career anchors, just like their motivations to relocate, are likely to be heterogeneous. For instance, in the specific case of non-profit organizations, expatriates can be motivated to relocate to a large extent by their desire to have a more direct impact when working for a specific cause in a particular context where they perceive they are needed (e.g., missionary workers or cultural ambassadors).

In what follows, we aim at accomplishing two things: (1) explore our sample in an exploratory fashion to identify what dominant anchors are present among expatriates working for a non-profit organization and (2) examine the associations between expatriates' career anchors and different dimensions of CCA.

Career anchors and cross-cultural adjustment

CCA is defined as the degree of perceived psychological comfort in a new cultural environment (Black *et al.*, 1991). It is commonly conceptualized as a multidimensional concept. Although a subject for debate (e.g., Haslberger *et al.*, 2013), in this study we adopt a conceptualization of CCA which has been widely applied, tested and validated in the expatriation literature (e.g. Shaffer et al., 1999; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). It differentiates between three dimensions: *general living* (i.e. adjustment to living or housing conditions, food), *interactional* (i.e., adjustment to socializing and interacting with locals on day-to-day basis), and *work* (i.e., adjustment to job responsibilities, performance standards) (Black and Stephens, 1989).

In line with prior expatriation research (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010; Nolan and Morley, 2014), we use Person-Environment (PE) fit theory to theorize how different career anchors are likely to affect expatriates' CCA. The theory focuses on congruence between a person and his/her environment (Chatman, 1989; Kristof-Brown *et al.*, 2005) and it has been recently applied to expatriates and their CCA as well (Nolan and Morley, 2014). In fact, congruence is also the key attribute of Schein's theory of career anchors suggesting that it is not a career anchor *per se* that would explain adjustment but the extent to which a specific career anchor contributes to the fit between an expatriate and his/her new environment.

The theory of PE fit dissects the overall person's fit into three main aspects (see Kristof-Brown *et al.,* 2005), such as person-job fit (i.e., the compatibility of an individual's skills and a job's demands and requirements), person-organization fit (i.e., the compatibility of an individual's and an organization's characteristics such as values, goals and norms), and person-group fit (i.e., the compatibility of an individual and his / her social group). However, the model - in its original form - does not consider a dimension of fit which is of particular relevance for the expatriation literature, that is, person-culture or cultural fit (e.g., Jun and Gentry, 2005; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2014). Hence, for our purposes we extend the model to include also the cultural fit dimension.

The different dimensions of PE fit have been linked to different dimensions of CCA (cf. Nolan and Morley, 2014). The 'fit' itself is defined as congruence between the desire and/or abilities of a person and the attributes of the environment (Edwards, 1991). That is, the question of fit is to a large extent the question of a person's motivation and ability to fit the environment. For instance, research has found cross-cultural motivation to play an important role in adjustment and effectiveness of expatriates on assignment (Chen *et al.*, 2010). Furthermore, motivation drives psychological processes that determine the direction, intensity, and persistence of action and the channeling of personal resources towards accomplishing particular goals (Kanfer, 1990). These motivational processes are intrinsic by nature, meaning that they are driven by one's internal values, attitudes, and beliefs (Deci *et al.*, 1989). Using this line of argumentation, we foresee that the nature of expatriates' dominant career anchors will determine the direction, intensity, and persistence of their intrinsically-motivated actions and behaviors during the assignment to ensure that the key attributes of their career-related self-concept, as defined by career anchors, are fulfilled. In other words, specific career anchors are likely to motivate expatriates to focus their efforts on achieving specific types of fit with the environment, which are then likely to facilitate different aspects of their CCA.

Need-based anchors and CCA

First, it is likely that cultural fit - the congruence between an expatriate's aspirations and orientations and his/her new cultural environment - will be central for an expatriate's general living adjustment. In other words, striking a good congruence between expatriates' career aspirations, as they are epitomized by career anchor(s), and the characteristics of the host cultural environment is likely to be favorable for their general living adjustment, i.e. their psychological adjustment to different aspects of their new everyday living, non-work environment, such as food, transport, climate, etc. (Black and Stephens, 1989).

We argue that the need-based career anchors (i.e. *Lifestyle*, *Autonomy* and *Security*) and *Internationalism* are likely to motivate expatriates to focus on adapting to their non-work related environment, thus being conducive to their general living adjustment. As suggested by Schein (1996), the need-based anchors of employees in the 21st century are characterized by strong self-reliance and self-management components. It means that the foundation of employees' security and autonomy shifts from being dependent and reliant on the organization towards being dependent and reliant on oneself to ensure one's continuous employability. Even more so among *Lifestyle*-anchored employees whose careers increasingly become parts of their larger "life systems" that extend beyond conventional organizational boundaries to include non-work-related aspects of their lives. As for expatriates, the need-based anchors are likely to motivate them to focus on non-work related aspects of cross-cultural adjustment to ensure that they are not too reliant and dependent on their organizations during their assignments. They are likely to feel that it is important for them to be well adjusted to their general living conditions to hedge against the dependency on their organizations as the only source of psychological comfort, wellbeing, and protection in their new environments.

Furthermore, the expatriates anchored by *Internationalism* can also be expected to pay special attention and be highly motivated to fit their new living environments beyond the organizational boundaries as it would correspond to their openness to international mobility and the desire to live in and experience new, foreign cultures (Lazarova *et al.*, 2014). Moreover, expatriates' international orientation and openness have been shown to facilitate expatriation success (e.g. Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998; Jun and Gentry, 2005).

Value-based anchors and CCA

Second, it can be argued that striking a good person-(social) group fit will be favorable for an expatriate's interactional adjustment. By "group" we mean the new social circle that an expatriate enters in his/her new context. Extant research provides support for this argument underscoring the importance of extensive and friendly social interaction for expatriates' CCA (e.g. Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998; Caligiuri, 2000; Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002). Social interaction is a precious source of information about culturally acceptable norms of behavior in both work and non-work related situations. Friendly social interactions with locals both at the workplace as well as outside of it are likely to support an expatriate when dealing with various challenges, stress and anxieties in his/her new living and work-related situations (e.g. Aycan, 1997; Caligiuri and Lazarova, 2002).

We foresee that possessing the value-based career anchors, such as *Pure challenge* and/or *Dedication to a cause*, and/or *Internationalism* is likely to motivate expatriates in achieving a good person-(social) group fit. Perceiving one's assignment as a challenge to overcome and/or a pursuit of a cause, or striving to live and work in an international environment is likely to stimulate expatriates to interact closely and collaborate with locals to better integrate into the local social "group". These expatriates can be expected to be more willing and intrinsically-motivated to actively interact and socialize with locals to establish cooperative and friendly relations and thus be able to effectively communicate their ideas and / or pursue their cause (e.g., Caligiuri, 2000). Seeing it as important, expatriates with the value-based anchors and/or *Internationalism* are likely to focus more on their sociability and thus are more likely to achieve a good fit with their social group. This will arguably be favorable for their interactional adjustment (cf. Mendenhall and Oddou, 1985).

Talent-based anchors and CCA

Finally, research has shown that person-organization fit and person-job fit positively influence an expatriate's work adjustment (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; Nolan and Morley, 2014). Generally, employees who share or internalize values of their organizations are better able to understand and accept their work roles, job demands and performance standards (e.g. Chatman, 1991). Whether an expatriate is willing and intrinsically-motivated to direct his/her behaviors towards achieving these fits, once again, is likely to depend on his/her underlying internal career orientations. For instance, we can expect that being anchored by the talent-based career anchors, such as *Managerial competence* and *Functional competence*, is likely to be favorable for an expatriate's motivation to adapt to and ultimately fit the new organizational and job attributes. Being anchored in one's careers by a desire to apply and prove one's technical and/or managerial competence can be expected to motivate expatriates to internalize well values and practices of their new organizational environments thus improving their work adjustment.

We foresee the same logic to be applicable to the expatriates anchored by *Internationalism* because - by definition - they are motivated to work in foreign organizations and work environments (Suutari and Taka, 2004). Lazarova *et al.* (2014) showed that *Internationalism*-anchored employees internalize well the skills and knowledge associated with successful global careers. These expatriates can also be expected to be willing to internalize well performance standards and job demands of their new workplaces. Overall, achieving the fits between the expatriates' orientations and their organizational and job environments is likely to assist the expatriate's work adjustment.

METHOD

Research context: Non-profit international organizations

In this paper we focus on examining expatriation in the context of a non-profit organization. A lack of research on HRM in non-profit international organizations in general (Fenwick, 2005) and in the case of expatriates in these organizations in particular (Selmer and Fenner, 2009a, 2009b) has been noted in the literature. Yet, by the end of the last century, the non-profit sector has been the most rapidly growing of any internationalizing organizational sectors during the last twenty years (see Lindenberg, 1999). As a result, it employs a lot of people globally and across national borders, including a large number of expatriates. Meanwhile, these are rather idiosyncratic organizational forms.

Drawing on Hudson and Bielefeld (1997), Fenwick (2005) identifies four defining characteristics of non-profit organizations: (1) they provide useful goods or services; (2) they do not distribute profits to persons in their individual capacities; (3) they are created, maintained, and terminated based on voluntary decision and initiative by members or a board; and (4) they exhibit value rationality, often based on a strong ideology, rather than economic rationality. In many cases, they are structured as a confederation of rather independent self-sustaining member units with a central office that is mostly responsible for coordination and standard setting activities across the member units. Because non-profit organizations' structures are rather complex entities to manage, monitor and evaluate (for the absence of performance measures), oftentimes local member units are locally owned and self-controlled in their motivation to meet organizational goals (Oster, 1996).

Further, non-profit organizations' employees in many cases lack professionalism and the knowledge about corporate-style management. The need to balance the imposition of management approaches from for-profit corporations while maintaining the ideological framework of the organization represents one of the key management challenges for these organizations (Fenwick, 2005), especially considering that many non-profit organizations are either internationalizing rapidly or have already done so and now operate globally. In these circumstances, HRM becomes especially important for non-profit organizations in order to recruit, develop and retain those employees who are motivated and able to adapt to the ever-changing global environment. HRM is also crucial because non-profit organizations' employees are more likely to be attracted and motivated by intrinsic than extrinsic factors, such as their beliefs in the organization's mission or an opportunity to actualize their individual values (Oberholster *et al.*, 2013).

Throughout their history, non-profit organizations have relied heavily on expatriates to disseminate their ideologies and values (Dahlgren *et al.*, 2009). Yet, as Fenwick (2005) showed, the turnover rate among expatriates in these organizations is high, not least because of the difficulties in adjustment related to the quality and quantity of pre-departure preparations, the inadequate level of compensation, and the low ability of non-profit organizations to invest resources in providing high-quality continuous organizational support.

Hence, it appears that the context of expatriates in non-profit organizations is well suited to explore how expatriates' internal career orientations relate to their CCA.

Case organization and sample

The sample consisted of French expatriates employed by Alliance Française. It is an independent, not-for-profit international organization established in 1883 in Paris, the mission of which is to promote French culture, language and education abroad. The organization operates in 136 countries on all five continents. Annually, its language courses are attended by more than 500,000 people and more than 6 million people participate in its cultural activities. The organization relies on expatriates in running its operations around the world[25]. The data was collected through a web-based survey, which was administered in French, the native language of the participants. The survey was sent to all the assigned expatriates currently employed by the organization (n = 340). 269 valid responses were received (a response rate of 79%). All the analyses below were computed with SAS V9.3.

In line with career anchor theory which postulates that individuals need some life experience to discover their career anchor(s) (see Schein, 1996), we applied restrictions to our sample: we selected only those expatriates who were at least 25 years of age and had prior expatriation experience. Therefore, our final sample was reduced to 189 expatriates. The average age of the respondents was 41 years (std = 11.0), the average experience in expatriation was around 9 years (std = 7.9), and the average assignment's duration was around 3 years (std = 1.7). The sample consisted of 135 men (71%) and 54 women (29%), 55% were married or had a partner, 51% had children, 36% had two children or more.

Measures

Career anchors. To measure career anchors, we used the 40-item scale from Schein (1990) and the five items scale from Cerdin (2007) to measure *Internationalism*. A French translation of the original scales was adopted from Cerdin (2007). The items were measured

[25] Source: Alliance Française's official webpage (www.alliancefr.org/en/who-are-we), accessed on 20.1.2016

from ‘1’ (‘completely disagree’) to ‘6’ (‘completely agree’). The anchors’ Cronbach alphas and composite reliability rhos were satisfactory: *Functional competence* (five items, $\alpha = 0.75$, $\rho = 0.79$), *Managerial competence* (five items, $\alpha = 0.78$, $\rho = 0.81$), *Autonomy* (five items, $\alpha = 0.78$, $\rho = 0.82$), *Security* (five items, $\alpha = 0.75$, $\rho = 0.78$), *Entrepreneurial creativity* (five items, $\alpha = 0.79$, $\rho = 0.82$), *Dedication to a cause* (five items, $\alpha = 0.78$, $\rho = 0.81$), *Pure Challenge* (five items, $\alpha = 0.81$, $\rho = 0.83$), *Lifestyle* (five items, $\alpha = 0.71$, $\rho = 0.73$), and *Internationalism* (five items, $\alpha = 0.79$, $\rho = 0.84$). To test the validity of our measures, we adopted Bagozzi and Heatherton’s (1994) partial disaggregation approach. It accounts for the number of observations and the number of measurement items, and reduces the level of random error and improves the stability of the estimates (Bagozzi and Heatherington 1994; Baumgartner and Homberg 1996). Following this approach, we created composite variables for each dimension. The measure of career anchors with nine dimensions ($\chi^2(108) = 384$; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.98; CFI = 0.97; RMSEA = 0.06) as well as the Feldman and Bolino (1996)’s three dimensional model ($\chi^2(133) = 380$; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.96; CFI = 0.93; RMSEA = 0.07) were found to be reliable. There was no significant difference in fit between the models: ($\Delta\chi^2_{\text{Model9/3}}$ (25) = 4), thus indicating their equivalence.

To determine dominant career anchors, we followed the guidelines in Schein (2006). First, the respondents were asked to evaluate all 45 items in the instrument on the scale from ‘1’ (‘completely disagree’) to ‘6’ (‘completely agree’). Second, because the previous step does not clearly determine what anchor is dominant for each of the respondents, the respondents were then asked to pick the most important item from the original list of the 45 items, the one which, in their view, describes their career aspirations in the best possible way. Five additional “points” were added to the score of the selected item. Then, the respondents were asked to pick the second most important item, the third, the fourth and, ultimately, the fifth. The selected items received additional four, three, two and one “points” respectively. Finally, the scores of all the items obtained during the first two steps were summed up to form the final scores of the items in the instrument. Schein (2006) suggests such a procedure to ensure that the dominant anchors clearly stand out from the rest once the items are combined and averaged. The dominant career anchor is the career anchor among the nine anchors which has the highest score.

Cross-cultural adjustment. We examined expatriates' CCA using a construct developed by Black and colleagues (Black and Stephens, 1989; Black *et al.*, 1991). It consists of three dimensions: general living adjustment (seven items, e.g. "*Health care facilities*", $\alpha = 0.87$, $\rho = 0.88$), interactional adjustment (four items, e.g. "*Interacting with host nationals on a day-to day basis*", $\alpha = 0.91$, $\rho = 0.92$) and work adjustment (three items, e.g. "*Performance standards and expectations*", $\alpha = 0.90$, $\rho = 0.90$). The respondents were asked to rate how well they were adjusting on the scale from '1' ('very unadjusted') to '6' ('perfectly adjusted'). We adopted a French version of the three-dimensional measure from Cerdin (1998) which was found to be reliable: ($\chi^2(74) = 174.57$; $p < 0.001$; GFI = 0.889; CFI = 0.871; RMSEA = 0.048).

Controls. Based on previous literature, we included several controls that were shown to affect expatriates' CCA (e.g., Shaffer and Harrison, 1998): age (chronological), gender (dummy variable where "1" stood for woman), prior experience in expatriation (dummy variable where "1" stood for prior experience in expatriation) and cultural similarity (eight items; Torbiorn, 1982, $\alpha = 0.87$, $\rho = 0.90$).

Assessment of common method bias

To test for common method variance (CMV) bias, we undertook several *ex ante* and *ex post* measures (Podsakoff *et al.*, 2003). First, to avoid social desirability bias, we told our respondents that there are no pre-existing expectations and right or wrong answers when it comes to their responses. Further, we also assured them of their anonymity and confidentiality. Finally, we designed the survey so that the items were ordered randomly throughout the instrument to make it difficult for the respondents to make mental connections between the constructs.

Second, we employed several statistical techniques. We performed Harman's single factor test where we included all items of the two constructs (CCA and career anchors) into an exploratory factor analysis. Three factors with eigenvalues greater than one were returned. The first factor accounted for less than 18% of the total variance suggesting no evidence of unidimensionality in our data. Then, following the unmeasured latent method construct (ULMC) approach (Williams *et al.*, 1989), we performed three confirmatory factor analyses. The first one was our theoretical model (Model 1). Then, an additional latent construct was added and the measurement factor loadings, first, were free to vary (Model 2a) and, second, were constrained to be equal (Model 2b). The method factor did not improved the model fits ($GFI_{Model2a}$ = 0.96 and $GFI_{Model2b}$ = 0.91 vs. GFI_{Model1} = 0.98), the ULMC models showed a nonsignificant change in fit ($\chi^2_{Model1}(462) = 1455$; $\chi^2_{Model2a}(426) = 1406$, $\Delta\chi^2_{Model1/2a}(36) = 49$; $\chi^2_{Model2b}(457) = 1445$, $\Delta\chi^2_{Model1/2b}(5) = 10$). Thus, we conclude that CMV bias is not a major concern in our analysis.

Empirical strategy

In addition to descriptive statistics, we used canonical correlation analysis to examine multiple relationships between the three dimensions of CCA and the nine dimensions of career anchors. This type of analysis is particularly suitable for our purposes to analyze the relationships between two sets of variables (Sherry and Henson, 2005). Canonical correlation analysis is a special case of a structural equation modelling (Fan, 1997) which is recommended to be used in analyses with two sets of multiple dependent variables (in our case CCA) and multiple independent variables (in our case career anchors) (Henson, 2000). The analysis establishes two sets of coefficients - one for criterion variables and one for predictor variables - so that potential canonical factors from the two sets of variables would be defined by the more highly correlated possible canonical variates. In this way, it establishes orthogonal factors pairs between the two respective sets of variables, thus assessing the relationship between the two groups of variables (Sherry and Henson, 2005). Canonical correlation analysis determines if two sets of variables are independent, reveals the nature of the relationship, and measures the contribution of each variable to the canonical factors (Alpert and Peterson, 1972; Sherry and Henson, 2005).

Despite of its benefits, canonical correlation analyses are relatively rarely used in management, mostly because the method provides no statistical significance testing (Fan, 1997; Thompson, 1984), thus raising concerns about the interpretation of the results being subjective (Mulaik *et al.*, 1989). Yet, it has been demonstrated that canonical correlation analysis can be translated into and represented using SEM estimates (Bagozzi *et al.*, 1981), which then can provide statistical significance information (Fan, 1997; Guarino, 2004). More precisely, canonical correlation analyses can be seen as a Multiple Indicators/Multiple Causes (MIMIC) model (see Fan [1997] for a demonstration), where the latent variables have both causal and effect indicators (e.g., MacCallum and Browne, 1993). Applying this approach to our analysis, the multiple indicators correspond to the dimensions of CCA, while the multiple causes are the nine career anchors.

FINDINGS

First, we examined what anchors were dominant among the expatriates in our sample. Similar to Suutari and Taka (2004) and Cerdin and Le Pargneux (2009), *Internationalism* was identified as the most dominant anchor (54% of our sample; n = 102). It was followed by *Dedication to a cause* (18%; n = 34) and *Lifestyle* (15%; n = 28). *Dedication to a cause* characterizes individuals who make their career decisions based on their will to "*improve the world in some fashion*" (Schein, 1996: 24). The fact that this anchor was one of the three dominant anchors is not surprising considering that our sample is composed of expatriates working abroad to promote and disseminate French culture, language, and education. Further, *Lifestyle* anchor represents individuals seeking a career that corresponds to their lifestyle (Schein, 1996): it is not only about balancing one's own professional and personal lives but also about managing one's spouse's career. Not surprising that this anchor came out as dominant since 55% of the expatriates in our sample had families. Altogether the three dominant anchors covered 87% of the expatriates in the sample.

There were some interesting differences in characteristics of the expatriates with the three dominant anchors (see Table 3.1). The *Internationalism*-anchored expatriates were slightly younger (39 vs. 41) and less experienced in expatriation (8.5. vs. 10) than their colleagues. The *Dedication to a cause* - anchored ones were slightly older (44 vs. 41), had more experience in their function (5.5. vs. 4), a longer tenure (9 vs. 7), and more often were expatriated without spouse/partner and/or children (42% vs. 27%). The *Lifestyle*-anchored expatriates more often had a partner/spouse and/or children (41% vs. 20%) and large families (22% vs. 9%).

We examined the associations between the nine anchors and the three dimensions of CCA through canonical correlation analyses complemented by SEM estimation, as recommended by Fan (1997). We employed canonical correlation analyses (a) to account for the multidimensional nature of CCA and (b) establish the associations (i.e. canonical function coefficients) between the three dimensions of adjustment and specific career anchors. We then used SEM estimation to conduct statistical significance testing for these coefficients to decrease the subjectivity of our results' interpretations (ibid.).

TABLE 3.1

Dominant career anchors, age and family circumstances

	Dominant Internationalism (n = 102)	Dominant Dedication to a cause (n = 34)	Dominant Lifestyle (n = 28)
Age M = 41	*39* *(t = -2.11; p < 0.05)*	**44** **(t = 1.87; p < 0.05)**	ns
Experience in function M = 4	Ns	**5.5** **(t = 1.93; p < 0.05)**	ns
Experience in expatriation M = 10	*8.5* *(t = -1.64; p < 0.05)*	ns	ns
Experience in organization M = 7	Ns	**9** **(t = 1.64; p < 0.05)**	ns
Expatriation with partner and children Fq = 20%	Ns	ns	**41%** **(F = 3.85; p < 0.01)**
Expatriation without partner or children Fq = 27%	Ns	**42%** **(F = 2.73; p < 0.01)**	ns
Three children or more Fq = 9%	Ns	ns	**22%** **(F = 3.23; p < 0.01)**

N = 189. M, total sample mean. Fq, total sample frequency. F, Chi² test. t, Student test.
Overrepresented characteristics are displayed in bold, underrepresented characteristics in italics.

The tests of dimensionality indicated that the three canonical functions were statistically significant at the .05 level. The analysis yielded three functions with squared canonical correlations (R_s^2) of 0.85, 0.86 and 0.77 for each successive function. The full model across all functions was statistically significant. Multivariate test statistics, including Wilks's Lambda, confirmed that the three dimensions of CCA were related to the nine career anchors (W = 0.72; p < 0.001). .

TABLE 3.2

Canonical solution for career anchors predicting cross-cultural adjustment

			Function 1			*Function 2*			*Function 3*		
	Mean	*SD*	*C*	*t*	*p*	*C*	*t*	*p*	*C*	*t*	*p*
Cross-cultural adjustment											
General living adjustment	4.92	0.77	0.17	8.20	<0.01	**1.21**	2.10	<0.05	-0.23	0.98	ns
Interactional adjustment	4.90	0.92	**1.33**	9.12	<0.01	0.22	1.30	ns	0.31	2.43	<0.05
Work adjustment	5.10	0.84	0.23	7.31	<0.01	0.16	1.12	ns	**1.00**	4.51	<0.01
Career anchors											
Talent-based anchors											
Functional competence	3.87	0.71	0.01	0.16	ns	-0.18	-2.74	ns	**0.16**	1.72	<0.1
Managerial competence	3.38	0.77	0.13	1.58	ns	0.06	0.92	ns	**0.18**	2.10	<0.05
Entrepreneurial creativity	3.47	0.92	0.00	-0.41	ns	-0.05	-0.89	ns	-0.03	-0.67	ns
Need-based anchors											
Autonomy	4.07	0.85	-0.05	-0.01	ns	**0.18**	2.22	<0.05	0.02	0.47	ns
Security	3.35	0.77	-0.03	-0.35	ns	**0.17**	2.08	<0.05	0.06	1.14	ns
Life style	4.51	0.69	0.06	0.73	ns	0.00	0.09	ns	0.04	0.75	ns
Value-based anchors											
Dedication to a cause	4.55	0.78	**0.21**	2.44	<0.05	**0.22**	3.68	<0.01	0.08	1.49	ns
Pure Challenge	4.09	0.81	**0.14**	1.60	<0.1	**0.11**	2.11	<0.05	**0.09**	1.77	<0.1
Internationalism anchor											
Internationalism	4.57	0.82	**0.15**	1.61	<0.1	0.09	1.49	ns	**0.09**	1.73	<0.1

N = 189. C = estimates from SEM; t = t-value; p = statistical significance; ns = non-significant.

Because Wilks's Lambda represents the variance unexplained by the model, *1 – Lambda* yields the full model effect size (Sherry and Hanson, 2005). Thus, for the set of three canonical functions, the model effect size was 0.28, which means that the full model explained altogether 28% of the variance shared between the variable sets. Table 3.2 presents the estimates from SEM (*C*), their t-values (*t*) and significance levels (*p*-values) for the three canonical functions across both sets of variables (i.e., three dimensions of CCA and nine career anchors)

The first canonical function was positively and significantly associated with interactional adjustment ($C = 1.33$, $p < 0.01$), *Dedication to a cause* ($C = 0.21$, $p < 0.05$), *Pure Challenge* ($C = 0.14$, $p < 0.1$), and *Internationalism* ($C = 0.15$, $p < 0.1$); the second canonical function was associated with general living adjustment ($C = 1.21$, $p < 0.05$), *Autonomy* ($C = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$), *Security* ($C = 0.17$, $p < 0.05$), *Dedication to a cause* ($C = 0.22$, $p < 0.01$), and *Pure Challenge* ($C = 0.11$, $p < 0.05$); and the third canonical function was associated with work adjustment ($C = 1.00$, $p < 0.01$), *Functional competence* ($C = 0.16$, $p < 0.1$), *Managerial competence* ($C = 0.18$, $p < 0.05$), *Pure Challenge* ($C = 0.09$, $p < 0.1$), and *Internationalism* ($C = 0.09$, $p < 0.1$).

The multidimensional analyses showed that two out of three need-based career anchors, namely *Autonomy* and *Security*, but not *Lifestyle*, were positively and significantly associated with expatriates' general living adjustment. Contrary to our expectations, we found no significant association between *Internationalism* and general living adjustment.

Therefore, we suggest the following propositions:

> ***Proposition 1***: The need-based career anchors, such as *Lifestyle*, *Autonomy* and/or *Security*, and/or *Internationalism* are likely to be positively associated with expatriates' general living adjustment.

> ***Proposition 2***: The value-based career anchors, such as *Pure challenge* and/or *Dedication to a cause*, and/or *Internationalism* are likely to be positively associated with expatriates' interactional adjustment.

Proposition 3: The talent-based career anchors, such as *Managerial competence* and *Functional competence*, and/or *Internationalism* are likely to be positively associated with expatriates' work adjustment.

Thus, these results confirmed the necessity to integrate the multidimensionality of CCA into the career anchor perspective (cf. Haslberger and Brewster, 2009). The analysis showed that the associations between career anchors and CCA dimensions are multifaceted: different combinations of anchors are possible for facilitating the adjustment process of expatriates. Only *Pure Challenge* anchor had influences, although only of marginal significance, across all dimensions of the CCA process.

DISCUSSION

Theoretical contributions

In this paper we aimed at contributing to the expatriation literature in two ways. First, by exploring the nature of career anchors possessed by expatriates working for a non-profit organization, we addressed the lack of studies on other types of expatriates than expatriates in the for-profit sector (e.g. Selmer and Fenner 2009a, 2009b; Nolan and Morley, 2014). Second, by examining the linkages between expatriates' career anchors, as a reflection of these expatriates' internal career orientations, and their CCA, the study offers one of the first attempts to increase our understanding about these relationships (e.g. Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010). More generally, in line with the growing realization that expatriates around the world become increasingly self-reliant and "boundaryless" in their career orientations (e.g. Stahl *et al.*, 2002; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010), our analysis shows that also among corporate expatriates internal career characteristics, in terms of what they value the most and want to achieve in their careers (e.g. Schein, 1996; Cappellen and Janssens, 2005), become increasingly more important in determining their work- and non-work-related attitudes than traditional corporate incentives and career advancements (e.g. Inkson *et al.*, 1997; Stahl *et al.*, 2002; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010). Thus these characteristics need to be understood and paid attention to. Taking a step in this direction, our analysis yielded the following results.

First, we found *Internationalism*, *Dedication to a cause* and *Lifestyle* to be the most dominant career anchors among the expatriates in our non-profit organization. These results are somewhat expected considering the nature of our expatriates – they are internationally-oriented people who are relocated abroad to carry a mission of promoting French language and culture. In addition, 55% of our expatriates had their families relocating with them, the fact that can explain the dominance of *Lifestyle* in our sample. These results are generally in line with previous research on organizational expatriates in for-profit organizations (see Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010), thus indicating that the difference in internal career orientations between expatriates in for-profit and non-profit international organizations is not large. The only notable difference was the absence of *Managerial competence* among the dominant anchors of expatriates in our sample (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010). It appears that it is not only the ideological nature of international non-profit organizations or a mission that they carry out that attracts potential employees. Also, the international nature of these organizations, offering employees possibilities to work and live in international environments, matters.

Second, our analysis started to shed light on how different career anchors influence the three dimensions of expatriates' CCA. Interestingly, among the dominant anchors only *Dedication to a cause* had a significant positive association with both general living and interactional adjustment. The influences of *Internationalism* on international and work adjustment were only marginally significant, whereas *Lifestyle* has not facilitated any of the adjustment dimensions. Yet, other anchors appeared to be (and in some cases even more) favorable for different dimensions of CCA: *Autonomy*, *Security* and *Pure Challenge* for general living adjustment; and *Managerial competence* with *Functional competence* for work adjustment.

Prior literature has suggested, although only conceptually (see Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009), that *Managerial competence*, *Autonomy*, *Pure Challenge* and *Internationalism* are likely to be conducive to expatriates' assignment success. In this sense, our study reaffirms these propositions but in a more nuanced fashion, showing which aspects of CCA these anchors facilitate. Further, we find other anchors, which were previously proposed to be detrimental to expatriates' success (see Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009), to be actually beneficial for adjustment. These are *Dedication to a cause*, *Security*, and *Functional competence*.

The positive correlation of *Dedication to a cause* and interactional adjustment is in line with our expectations. Moreover, it helps expatriates also in general living adjustment: it can be that being dedicated to a cause an expatriate is likely to focus on ensuring that all aspects of his/her new environment are in shape and do not distract him/her from the pursued cause. Also, being well adjusted to the new social group can also facilitate an expatriate's adjustment to his/her wider cultural environment. When it comes to *Functional competence* and its positive relation to work adjustment, it can be that when an expatriate possesses high level of technical or functional competence (in our case it is language or cultural knowledge and skills), it is seen as a sign of professionalism that triggers respect from local employees thus helping the expatriate to adjust to his/her new working environment. On the other hand, it can be that just being a good professional makes it easier for an expatriate to adjust to his/her new workplace. Finally, those expatriates who are anchored by *Security* appear to be more motivated than others to ensure that they adjust well to their new living context and in this way feel secure. This is in line with our theorizations based on Schein (1996) that in contemporary world the foundation of employees' security and autonomy shifts from being dependent and reliant on an organization towards being dependent and reliant on oneself and one's environment.

As already mentioned, it is interesting that *Lifestyle* anchor which was shown or argued also elsewhere to be dominant among different groups of expatriates (Suutari and Taka, 2004; Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2009, 2010), was not found to facilitate expatriates' CCA. It can be that the nature of this anchor which is concerned with achieving an acceptable work-life balance (Cerdin and Le Pargneux, 2010) prevents expatriates from focusing their efforts on adjusting sufficiently to their new living and work environments, thus making them a sort of stuck in between the two. On the other hand, we found *Pure Challenge* to be the only anchor to influence all dimensions of expatriates' CCA. It seems that being driven in one's career by the desire to overcome challenges and obstacles is a perfect career orientation for those who embark on international assignments being prepared to face and deal with whatever challenge is to come their way.

Overall, considering the lack of research on the nature of career anchors among expatriates in non-profit organizations and our limited knowledge about the relationships between expatriates' anchors and CCA, in this study we used the PE fit theory to theorize how expatriates with particular types of anchors are likely to focus during their assignments on achieving particular types of fit, thus facilitating their CCA. By doing so, we provided a more nuanced and theoretically-grounded understanding concerning the anchors' contributions to different aspects of expatriates' CCA.

Managerial relevance

The study offers some practical implications. First, information about career anchors can be valuable for companies, including also non-profit organizations, when choosing and evaluating potential expatriates, because it may help anticipate what motivations and priorities these people have in their careers. The information can then be used to plan and develop different mobility support measures to facilitate these expatriates' adjustment precisely in those areas where it will likely be needed the most in each individual case. Based on our results, expatriates with *talent-based* dominant anchors are more likely to need assistance in general living and interactional adjustment, whereas those anchored by *need-based* anchors in interactional and work adjustment.

Second, our results also point toward the danger of HR specialists homogenizing and not paying sufficient attention to the diversity in goals, motivations and aspirations existing among expatriates. It is also true for non-profit organizations where it is an oversimplification to assume that all expatriates are driven in their careers by ideological beliefs and the desire to disseminate those. Our analysis shows that also among these expatriates *Internationalism* is the key career anchor motivating them to engage in international careers.

Finally, expatriates with different dominant career anchors can be used by companies for different expatriation purposes: those anchored by *talent-based* anchors will be ideal for assignments involving a transfer of some sort of technology or knowledge, whereas those anchored by *value-based* anchors can be more suitable for more challenging assignments involving potential restructurings, corporate culture dissemination, ideological missions, corporate changes and, possibly, conflicts and confrontations.

Limitations

Like any study ours is not without limitations. First, we used self-reported measures. Although we undertook several preventive measures and conducted several statistical tests to verify that common method variance bias was not a major concern for our analyses and interpretations, we acknowledge the source of our data as a limitation. Second, we relied on French translations of the main constructs in our study. We tried to minimize the risks associated with measures' translations by using existing and validated French measures that we found in the literature. Third, due to the nature of our sample our results are limited to corporate expatriates in non-profit organizations. Although it is an interesting and a relatively rarely studied context (implying one of the contributions of our study), we acknowledge that our results may have been different in other expatriation and organizational contexts. It's up to future research to shed light on these potential differences. Finally, because in our analyses we relied on canonical correlations analyses, throughout the paper we tried to be cautious in our causality claims.

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ESSAY 4 – TIME AND EXPATRIATE ADJUSTMENT: A QUALITATIVE SYSTEMATIC REVIEW

INTRODUCTION

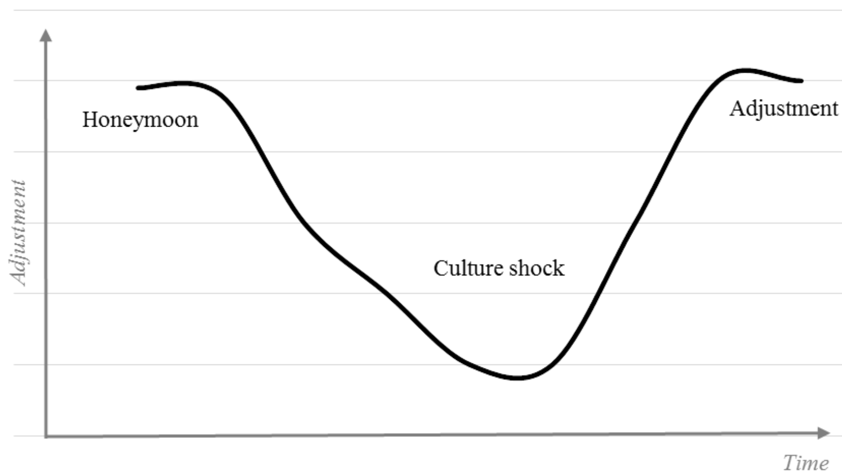
Expatriate adjustment, defined as the degree of perceived psychological comfort when moving to a new cultural environment (e.g., Black, 1990; Black and Gregersen, 1991), has been recognized as one of the key challenges that international expatriates need to deal with to ultimately succeed and optimize their expatriation experiences (e.g., Firth *et al.*, 2014; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010). Yet, because of its longitudinal and dynamic nature, adjustment as such is a complex phenomenon which is difficult to study and to conceptualize taking time into account. Still, a few attempts have been made, the most known of which is the U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955). It depicts the trajectory of adjustment as a sequence of stages progressing from an initial honeymoon stage of excitement and fascination with the host country, then to a crisis stage or culture shock, before a final recovery or adjustment stage (e.g., Adler, 1975; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Gullahorn and Gullarhorn, 1963; Lesser and Peter, 1957; Oberg, 1960; see Figure 4.1).

Despite of the theory's intuitive appeal, it remains to be validated and its explanatory power needs to be delineated and explicated. Existing attempts to do so have created a debate in the literature concerning the theory's applicability and precision (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Kealey, 1989). Yet, if several trajectories of adjustment have been identified (Kealey, 1989) or the U-curve confirmed as the average course of adjustment over time (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005), the boundary conditions of the U-curve hypothesis remain unexplained theoretically.

Furthermore, Black and Mendenhall (1991) reviewed 18 studies published between 1968 and 1984 and proposed a theoretical framework to complement the findings of Lysgaard (1955), who first put forward the idea of non-linearity in the adjustment process. However, Black and Mendenhall (1991) could not truly corroborate or refute the U-curve hypothesis, given the heterogeneity of their sample and the designs used. Instead, they proposed "*a new beginning*" (p. 232) and brought in social learning theory to explain the U-shaped trajectory of expatriate adjustment over time. They also theorized that the U-curve hypothesis can be moderated by a number of factors, such as anticipatory adjustment, self-efficacy, and culture similarity. Yet, as we will show below, these developments have not been truly used and tested in recent empirical studies. Importantly, their developments focused exclusively on assigned expatriates ("*when firms send employees overseas*", p. 225).

FIGURE 4.1

Graphical interpretation of the U-curve hypothesis of adjustment over time



In addition, several other reviews have focused on expatriation and expatriate adjustment more broadly. For instance, Dabic *et al.* (2015) offered an overview of the expatriation research over the last four decades, where adjustment appears to be a frequently examined issue. Yet, this overview, which is based on 438 articles, did not deal with the specific topic of adjustment and time, at all. Moreover, Hippler *et al.* (2015) recently offered a conceptual piece where they apply the recommendations of Mitchell and James (2001) related to time and theory building to the domain of expatriate adjustment. Despite being helpful in increasing our understanding of the phenomenon of adjustment as a time-sensitive process, their research did not touch upon a number of important issues, such as the synchronization of different adjustment dimensions, possible different trajectories of adjustment over time, and/or potential boundary conditions to better understand these differences.

Addressing the aforementioned shortcomings, this study complements this research by offering a systematic qualitative review of the literature on the process of expatriate adjustment published since the last review of Black and Mendenhall (1991). In doing so, it aims to shed light on the following questions: 1) What are the key findings in the literature on expatriate adjustment as a process over time?; To examine adjustment as a process, what (2) research designs and (3) assumptions are made in this literature in terms of operationalization and dimensions of adjustment; and (4) What are the boundary conditions of this literature and what are potential implications of these boundary conditions for adjustment trajectories?

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Definitions of adjustment

Adjustment is "the vital construct" of expatriate experience (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005: 257). It usually refers to a tri-dimensional concept integrating cultural, interactional and work aspects (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989; Shaffer *et al*., 1999), although other conceptualizations of adjustment (e.g., Searle and Ward, 1990; Ward *et al*., 1998) tend to differentiate psychological (well-being) and sociocultural (behavioral competence) adjustments (see Hippler, 2015; Hippler *et al*., 2014 for a review). Others have defined adjustment as a multidimensional concept based on the person-environment fit (e.g., Haslberger *et al*., 2013), incorporating three dimensions: cognitive, affective and behavioral. Yet, when attempts to understand the change of adjustment over time were made in the literature (Hippler *et al*., 2015), the conceptualization of Haslberger *et al*. (2013) of adjustment as a dynamic process over time has been largely ignored (p. 334).

Adjustment as a dynamic process

Adjustment is dynamic in nature because it takes time and effort for expatriates to go through the experience of entering a new cultural environment (Black, 1988; Black *et al*., 1991; Takeuchi, 2010). So, trying to explain the process of adjustment cannot be done at "a single point in time" (Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010: 94) and therefore implies longitudinal approaches and theories. Time plays an important role in theory building (George and Jones, 2000) because it "*directly impacts the what, how, and why elements of a theory*" (p. 638), and this aspect has been largely neglected in the literature.

The question of how to measure adjustment as a dynamic process is not new (Hippler *et al*., 2015; for complementary reviews see, e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Hippler, 2015; Selmer, 1999). Several scholars (e.g., Lesser and Peter, 1957; Oberg, 1960; Torbiorn, 1982) have studied the stages of adjustment conceptually, following a U-curve over time. Gullahorn and Gullahorn (1963) made an important contribution by extending the U-curve hypothesis to include the readjustment process of returning home (W-curve), while Adler (1975) described culture shock as a developmental process. Additionally, discontent with the U-curve hypothesis has also been strongly voiced over the decades. For instance, Church (1982) made a critical review of main empirical works in this area and developed a series of criticisms and recommendations (e.g., distinguishing students from expatriates or conducting more research with longitudinal designs), while others mainly discussed the limitations of the U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Furnham and Bochner, 1986) but provided few alternatives (e.g., Kealey, 1989; Black and Mendenhall, 1991). For instance, Kealey (1989) conducted a longitudinal study, tracking 277 Canadian expatriates working in different countries over six time periods, and found different patterns of satisfaction over time: 55% remained stable, while 35% experienced linear increase of satisfaction compared to the level of pre-departure, and a mere 10% followed a U-curve. Yet, the study did not provide any details concerning the characteristics of the expatriates in each of the adjustment group, their differences, and how the identified trajectories of adjustment can be explained theoretically.

In the late 1980s, the work of Black and colleagues brought a new incentive to the field, proposing a measure (Black, 1988) and a conceptual framework of cross-cultural adjustment, from both a static (Black *et al*., 1991) and dynamic perspective (Black and Mendenhall, 1991).

More recently, in the 2000s, Ward *et al.* (2001) discussed why, despite the strong criticism it had received, the U-curve hypothesis was still so prominent in the literature. They argued that the absence of any conceptual alternatives, the intuitive notion of a honeymoon period followed by a culture shock during the first months of expatriation, and the popular propagation of unsubstantiated ideas by pre-departure training, allowed room for the U-curve hypothesis to remain widely accepted to this day.

Among contemporary research, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) suggested a sideways, S-shaped trajectory, with a honeymoon period of around 12 months, based on a meta-analysis of 23 studies (three longitudinal and 20 cross-sectional that reported the mean level of adjustment). Using meta-analytic, polynomial regressions of adjustment which is explained by assignment duration, they confirmed the U-curve hypothesis as it is explained by applying social learning theory to adjustment over time (Black and Mendenhall, 1991). However, probably due to the limited number of empirical studies in this domain, they did not test any moderating effects to discuss how the trajectory is likely to depend on, for instance, personal differences or demographics. As a result, the authors were not able to provide guidance on potential boundary conditions of the U-curve hypothesis. They admitted that this conclusion should be "tempered" (p. 271) as only one study included in the analysis reported measures of adjustment in a short period of time after arrival (i.e., four months, Shaffer *et al.*, 2003). Moreover, the unexpected result related to the length of the honeymoon (which is only partially explained by social learning theory) also requires further attention.

In contrast, Firth *et al.* (2014) focused only on the first four months of assignment. They applied a new motivational framework to test a negative and linear trend of adjustment over time. Their findings suggest that initial adjustment is negatively related to work adjustment change. Yet, their research stops at this initial point of the trajectory and does not shed light on the shape of the adjustment trajectory in a longer perspective (i.e., for a three-year term). Similarly to Black and Mendenhall (1991) and Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), Firth *et al.* (2014) also focused only on assigned expatriates.

Therefore, it appears that time and expatriate adjustment still deserves more attention. In the end, after more than 60 years of research, not much is known about how expatriate adjustment develops and changes over time. Hence, after exposing the key findings in the literature on expatriate adjustment as a process over time, the next aim of this review is to explore key findings of recent studies in this area in light of their research designs, measurement choices, and assumptions about time. The final aim is to identify potential boundary conditions, under which the U-curve hypothesis may apply, and suggest theoretical arguments for alternative adjustment trajectories.

METHOD

Several methods of research synthesis are available to summarize and comprehend the findings on a specific topic (Murlow, 1994). While narrative reviews have been criticized for their lack of rigor and meta-analyses have been claimed to be less appropriate for management research due to their aggregative nature (Tranfield *et al.*, 2003), systematic reviews have been argued to be exhaustive and unbiased (Rousseau *et al.*, 2008). Such reviews offer a transparent summary of the research independently of its epistemological or methodological choices (Thorpe *et al.*, 2005).

Following the guidelines for conducting systematic reviews (see Tranfield *et al.*, 2003 for details), this study's starting point was an assumption that prior literature did not provide a broad and comprehensive analysis on the topic of the trajectory of adjustment and a systematic review on adjustment as a process over time is needed. The literature was scrutinized to generate research questions and define inclusion/exclusion criteria. This review focused exclusively on the influence of time on adjustment.

A systematic search of published articles on the process of adjustment was conducted through the major databases (EBSCO, Sage, Jstor, Google scholar)[26]. Different sets of keywords were searched for either in title, abstract, or full text, in order to identify conjointly 1) adjustment ('adjustment', 'adaptation'), 2) time ('time', 'process', 'curve', 'longitudinal', 'trajectory'), and 3) expatriation ('expatriation', 'expatriate', 'sojourner'). The search covered the period from 1991 till January 2016. In addition, we also searched manually through reference lists of the articles identified.

[26] It has to be noted that other disciplines (such as anthropology or medecine) have covered this topic (for an example see Anderzén and Arnetz [1999] using blood samples to measure stressors). Yet, we believe that these studies are not comparable enough to be mixed with psychology/management studies (see Hippler [2015] for analysis).

Analysis was restricted to empirical research published in academic journals on the basis that they represent scientifically validated knowledge and have the highest impact on the field (Podsakoff *et al*. 2005), although other studies might be found in books or dissertations. In total, 12 studies met the inclusion criteria, referring to adjustment as a process over time in the field of expatriation and published in academic journals between 1991 and 2015 (the latest in 2014). All articles were analyzed in more detail in order to identify the "what" (concept and measure of adjustment), the "how" (research design), the "who" (sample size, specific population targeted, gender and age of participants), the "where" (home and host countries), the "when" (date of publication), and the findings (shape of the trajectory). The analyzed articles are summarized in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2.

FINDINGS

Key findings of the literature of expatriate adjustment over time since 1991

The U-curve hypothesis has often been used to describe the process of adjustment over time, although it is more a description of a process rather than a theory explaining what might lead from one stage to another (Black and Mendenhall, 1991). Lysgaard (1955: 51) described adjustment as a dynamic process following a U-curve: "*Adjustment is felt to be easy and successful to begin with; then follows a 'crisis' in which one feels less well adjusted, somewhat lonely and unhappy; finally one begins to feel better adjusted again, becoming more integrated into the foreign community*". Among the 12 studies, several find that adjustment follows the trajectory of a U-curve over time.

First, Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993) used a retrospective diary technique to provide support for the U-curve hypothesis with a "honeymoon-dip-recovery" trajectory observed primarily in the work domain. Second, Ward *et al*. (1998) tested the U-curve hypothesis with repeated measures of psychological and sociocultural adjustment over time. Although the authors concluded that they found no significant results, the plots displayed a visible dip at four months for psychological adjustment and at six months for sociocultural adjustment. Third, Selmer (1999) examined both sociocultural and psychological adjustment using a cross-sectional design. Results are interpreted as showing a U-curve for sociocultural adjustment only.

TABLE 4.1

Summary of empirical research on adjustment and time: what and how

Studies	Method	Thresholds	Psychological adjustment	Sociocultural adjustment	Adaptation	Findings
De Cieri *et al.* (1991)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 5 phases AP	1–2 W BD 1–2 W AA 6 M AA 1–2 W BR 1–2 W AR	Affect and happiness in a given location (Kelley and Bean, 1988)			Negative linear trend
Nash (1991)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 4 phases AP	BD 1 M AA 3 M AA 6–8 M AA	Well-being (Anxiety scale, Taylor, 1953)			No change over time
Zheng and Berry (1991)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 3 phases AP	BD 2 M AA 4 M AA			Subjective adaptation (Cawte, 1968)	Inverted U-curve
Ward and Searle (1991)	Questionnaire Cross-sectional 5 phases PH	0–6 M AA 7–12 M AA 13–18 MAA 19–24 M AA 24+ M AA	Mood states (McNair et al., 1971)	Sociocultural adjustment		No change over time
Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993)	Retrospective diary technique	None	Feelings over time			U-curve for work domain
Hsiao-Ying (1995)	Questionnaire Cross-sectional 6 phases PH	0–6 M AA 2–12 M AA 3–24 M AA 25–36 M AA 37–60 M AA 61+ M AA	Attitudes toward Japan, nativism, host culture as a model, alienation			Negative linear trend

TABLE 4.1 (continued)
Summary of empirical research on adjustment and time: what and how

Studies	Method	Thresholds	Psychological adjustment	Sociocultural adjustment	Adaptation	Findings
Janssens (1995)	Questionnaire Cross-sectional Regression with time as IV	Exploratory		Interactional adjustment (Hawes and Kealey, 1981; Torbiorn, 1982)		Positive linear trend
Ward *et al.* (1998)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 4 phases AP	13 H AA 3 M AA 5 M AA 1 M AR	Self-rating Depression Scale (Zung, 1965)		Social difficulty (Furnham and Bochner, 1982)	Visible U-curve on plots but no significant results
Selmer (1999)	Questionnaire Cross-sectional Moving average	Exploratory	General health (Goldberg, 1972)	Cross-cultural adjustment (Black, 1988)		U-curve for sociocultural adjustment
Bikos *et al.* (2007)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 5 phases AP	1 W AA 3 M AA 6 M AA 9 M AA 12 M AA			Life roles (Amatea et al., 1986), alcohol use (Conrod et al., 1997; Stewart, and Pihl, 1997; Stewart, et al., 1995), marital satisfaction (Schumm et al., 1983), mental health (Stewart and Ware, 1998; Veit and Ware, 1983)	No change over time
Friedman *et al.* (2009)	Autoethnography	Retrospective	Adjustment		Adaptation	Approximation of a W-curve
Firth *et al.* (2014)	Questionnaire Longitudinal 4 phases AP	1 M AA 2 M AA 3 M AA 4 M AA		Work adjustment (Black, 1988)		Initial adjustment related negatively to work adjustment change

Method: AP = A priori, PH = Post hoc.
Thresholds: H = Hours; W = Weeks; M = Months; BD = Before departure; AA = After arrival; BR = Before return; AR = After return

TABLE 4.2
Summary of empirical research on adjustment and time: when-where-who

Studies	N	Sample	Gender	Age	Home / Host country	Home country	Host country
De Cieri *et al.* (1991)	58	Spouses of corporate expatriate managers	Female	R = 30–59	Mixed/Mixed	Australia, USA, UK and Western Europe, and Asia	Australia, USA, UK and Western Europe, and Asia
Nash (1991)	33 S + 25 C	Students	Mixed	M = 20	Single/Single	US	France
Zheng and Berry (1991)	159 (68)	Students and visiting scholars	Mixed	M = 30	Single/Single	China	Canada
Ward and Searle (1991)	155	Students	Mixed	M = 26	Mixed/Single	42 countries	New Zealand
Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993)	91	Corporate expatriates	Male (but one)	M = 40	Single/Single	Japan	UK
Hsiao-Ying (1995)	321	Students and professionals	-	R = 17–60	Mixed/Single	44 countries	Japan
Janssens (1995)	162	Corporate expatriate managers	Male (96%)	-	Mixed/Single	European, Brazilian, Australian and Asian	Belgium
Ward *et al.* (1998)	35	Students	Mixed	M = 19	Single/Single	Japan	New Zealand
Selmer (1999)	154	Corporate expatriate managers	Male (87%)	M = 42	Mixed/Single	Western countries	China
Bikos *et al.* (2007)	29	Trailing spouses	Female	R = 30-50	Single/Single	US	Turkey
Friedman *et al*. (2009)	1	Consultant	Female	46	Single/Single	Canada	Hong-Kong
Firth *et al*. (2014)	70	Corporate expatriates	Male (96%)	42	Mixed/Mixed	25 countries	US, Canada, UK, and Australia

Age: M = Mean; R = Range. Method: AP = A priori, PH = Post hoc.

However, several other studies do not support this pattern and describe other possible trajectories.

Some authors found no pattern at all, implying that adjustment might be relatively invariant over time. For instance, Ward and Searle (1991) measured psychological and sociocultural adjustment and defined five ad-hoc time periods. The comparison of the scores did not show any significant differences over time for either psychological or sociocultural adjustment. Then, Nash (1991) tested the course of students' well-being and found no substantial differences over four different periods of time. Bikos *et al*. (2007) measured four aspects of adaptation, including marital satisfaction and mental health, at five periods of time and showed that none of the chosen dimensions of adaptation significantly varied over time.

Yet, other authors found a negative linear trend of adjustment over time. De Cieri *et al*. (1991) measured the psychological impact of relocation at five points in time throughout the period and found a declining line. Hsiao-Ying (1995) evaluated attitudes such as nativism or alienation using a cross-sectional design and defined six distinct periods allowing aggregated scores to be compared over time. His results paint a pessimistic picture of adjustment, as attitudes towards the host country (e.g., "I enjoy very much socializing with my Japanese acquaintances") and the host country as a model (e.g., "If I had children in Japan, I would not mind if they went to a Japanese school") worsened during the early years. A presumed end of the honeymoon period was observed but no significant recovery could be demonstrated. Finally, Firth *et al*. (2014) demonstrated that initial adjustment was negatively related to adjustment change over the first four months. However, four months is probably too short a period to conclude on the shape of the trajectory. The decreasing level of adjustment might flatten or even increase after a certain time, so this finding is not very informative about the course of adjustment over time.

A third group of researchers found an increasing, positive trend. For example, Zheng and Berry (1991) investigated psychological adaptation using a longitudinal design measured at three periods of time and found an inverted U-curve with a peak around the fourth month. Janssens (1995) also tested interactional adjustment using a cross-sectional design. The results suggested a continuous increase of interactional adjustment over time.

Finally, Friedman *et al*. (2009) examined adjustment from an auto-ethnographic perspective and showed a culture shock around three months and a second (minor) one around nine months. Their evaluation approximates the adjustment process through a W-curve. To summarize, the results of the empirical research on adjustment as a process do not converge on the shape and direction of adjustment over time as the shape has been found to be invariant, positive and negative, but also linear or fluctuating.

Research designs to capture the process of adjustment over time

The U-curve hypothesis has been criticized for its lack of methodological rigor and discredited cross-sectional design on the grounds that adjustment process need to be studied over time, which would require a longitudinal approach (e.g. Church, 1982; Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Ward *et al*., 2001). Yet, not all longitudinal designs are able to capture the process of adjustment over time adequately.

Longitudinal means repeated measurements and data collection at specific points in time (Willett, 1989). However, the number and spacing of repeated measurements is a key issue in longitudinal research (Mitchell and James, 2001). Measuring adjustment too early or too late might skew observation of the adjustment trajectory (for an illustration, see Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010) and the literature does not help to define specific points of time with precision. There are varying descriptions of different stages of adjustment in the literature (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955; Lesser and Peter, 1957; Oberg, 1960; Adler, 1975; Torbiorn, 1982; Smalley, 1963; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Furnham and Bochner, 1982). For instance, Oberg (1960) described the honeymoon phase as a "pleasant" and "superficial" experience abroad, characterized by a "fascination for the new" that should last "*a few days or weeks to six months depending on circumstances*" (p.143). Lesser and Peter (1957) accounted for the second stage (crisis) by saying that the stay might come to an end without the individual overcoming the difficulties it represents. This raises the pessimistic idea that the final stage of adjustment might never arrive, which makes the prediction of specific adjustment stages' lengths unrealistic.

Among the 12 articles reviewed, seven use a longitudinal design with various stages of repeated measurements (Bikos *et al.*, 2007; De Cieri *et al*., 1991; Firth *et al.*, 2014; Nash, 1991; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward *et al*., 1998; Zheng and Berry, 1991). While recent research on time recommends paying close attention to the number and spacing of measurements (e.g., Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010), the duration or rate of change (e.g., George and Jones, 2000), these have been defined without theoretical justification in the reviewed literature. In addition, the number of stages varies between studies, with two to six measurements over a relatively large span of time, from one week after arrival to 61 months and more of expatriation.

In fact, no one has any idea about how many stages there are in the adjustment process, nor how long these stages could last, either in general, or for specific categories of expatriates. For these reasons, not all longitudinal designs may be able to truly describe the trajectory of adjustment over time. The literature recognizes that understanding the role of time in adjustment is still in its early stage and that before explaining the form of change, it is important to evaluate what that form of change looks like (Hippler *et al.*, 2015, Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010). Some of the reviewed studies (Janssens, 1995; Selmer, 1999) adopted cross-sectional approaches to describe and compare levels of adjustments at different periods of time. With a large set of data, this allows at least an exploratory investigation of "averaged" adjustments over time without making strong assumptions about transitional thresholds.

Repeated measurements are not the only option for conducting longitudinal studies. Although uncommon in international management literature (Chapman *et al.*, 2004), ethnography – the understanding of cultural practices and social interactions (Agar, 1980) – and auto-ethnography, – when the researcher studies the social group s/he belongs to (Hayano, 1979) – offer other opportunities to examine a phenomenon over time (see Friedman *et al*., 2009, for an example). Diary studies, the "classic articulation of dailiness" (Juhasz, 1980: 224), are almost equally underexplored, but they represent alternatives that could successfully overcome the limitations described above (Corti, 1993; Elliott, 1997). For instance, diary research is believed to be the most promising method to follow the trajectory of adjustment over time (Hippler *et al*., 2015). Diaries can be researcher-driven and solicited (Elliott, 1997) or retrospective, that is, by definition posterior reconstructions of lived experience. They have their own limitations, in that they can be rationalized or smoothed; individuals also have a tendency to recall positive emotions more readily than negative ones (Carstensen *et al*., 1999). Opportunities related to online research methods are also underexplored (Hewson, 2003; Mann and Stewart, 2000). New technologies open a wide range of possibilities, for example, the study of blogs (seen by Hookway, 2008, as an extension of diary research) and other unsolicited material on a day-to-day basis through social media (e.g., Facebook, Twitter).

Adjustment over time: measures, dimensions, and synchronization

The process of adjustment that follows a potential U-curve implies a drop, identified as culture shock, and defined as "*the anxiety that results from losing all of our familiar signs and symbols of social intercourse*" (Oberg, 1960: 142). Although it is rarely mentioned or explained in research on dynamic adjustment, there has been no shortage of explanations in the literature for the causes of culture shock (for a review see Befus, 1988). They include a lack of cultural awareness (anthropological view, e.g., Oberg, 1960); mourning for the lost culture accompanied by the threat to identity posed by the new culture (psychoanalytic view, e.g., Garza-Guerrero, 1974); the accumulation of negative feedback (social learning theory/behaviorist view, e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991); alienation and frustration (phenomenological view, e.g., Adler, 1975); and the loss of self-esteem leading to a vicious cycle of negativity (e.g., Dimarco, 1974). However, the current state of empirical research in this area presents very limited and even then only vague theoretical grounds for the causes of culture shock.

Second, grounded in the same body of literature, the reviewed articles use the concepts of adjustment and adaptation conjointly and interchangeably (e.g., Firth *et al*., 2014). Theoretically distinct, adjustment should refer to relatively minor changes resulting in matched demands (Patterson, 1988, 2002), while adaptation relates to more profound changes, such as acquiring new resources and capabilities, reducing demands or reinterpreting experiences (Patterson, 1988). Accepting these definitions, adaptation should appear after the experience of culture shock, when adjustment attempt fails. Referring to literature on stress, Haslberger *et al*. (2013) put this in a dynamic perspective and explained that the "adjustment-crisis-adaptation process" is in fact "never-ending", since demands continue to challenge expatriates throughout their process of relocation. This distinction between adjustment and adaptation, although pretty much ignored in the literature on dynamic adjustment, raises questions about what is really measured and how to measure the phenomenon adequately over time (Lazarova and Thomas, 2012).

Out of 12 empirical studies, none uses the same measure except Selmer (1999) and Firth *et al*. (2014) (work adjustment). Three main concepts emerge from the review: psychological adjustment, sociocultural adjustment, and adaptation. For each of these a variety of measurements is used (Table 4.1). For instance, De Cieri *et al*. (1991) measured psychological adjustment through the combination of affect, happiness, or coping while others used other proxies such as anxiety (Nash, 1991), mood (Ward and Searle, 1991), or depression (Ward *et al*., 1998). Sociocultural adjustment covers both work and non-work domains (e.g., Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993; Ward and Searle, 1991). It has been measured for instance using Black's (Black, 1988; Black and Stephens, 1989) scale (Firth et *al.*, 2014; Selmer, 1999) or different attitudes such as alienation (Hsiao-Ying, 1995). Adaptation has been measured through multiple aspects such as life roles or marital satisfaction (Bikos *et al.*, 2007). This is not necessarily an issue, however, and despite prior warnings in the literature (e.g., Lazarova and Thomas, 2012); it underlines that adjustment continues to be an umbrella term to describe a complex notion.

As has already been indicated, adjustment is a multidimensional concept (e.g., Black and Stephens, 1989; Haslberger *et al*., 2013). Several studies distinguish between psychological and sociocultural adjustment (Selmer, 1999; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward *et al*., 1998), different attitudes (Bikos *et al.*, 2007; Hsiao-Ying, 1995), or different dimensions of sociocultural adjustment (Selmer, 1999). However, it remains unclear how, or more importantly why, different types or dimensions of adjustment should evolve through the same rationale. Pedersen (1995) suggested the multidimensional aspect of adjustment has to be considered, as there is no theoretical justification for assuming that dimensions are synchronized. For instance, should an expatriate assigned to a parallel position in an "exotic location", where the honeymoon-crisis pattern appears to be instinctive (general living adjustment), simultaneously experience the same pattern in his or her work adjustment? This reinforces the issue that the researcher faces while collecting data with repeated measurements to obtain a longitudinal perspective of the phenomenon since not all points of time may be equally relevant for each dimension.

Hence, adjustment is difficult to examine as a process over time since it remains unclear how many distinct stages it entails and how long these stages last for each dimension of adjustment. The ways in which the recent empirical literature treated the process of adjustment also reveals implicit assumptions about time in expatriation research. Mosakowski and Early (2000) proposed five dimensions of time to be examined in research: the nature, the experience, the flow, the structure, and the referent anchor of time. Applied to the process of adjustment, we found that all studies assumed implicitly that time was real (nature) and objective (experience), so that it does not depend on events or space nor does it vary with individuals' perceptions. Time is theorized as being the same for everyone, everywhere, under any circumstances. As for the other dimensions of time, there is in fact no assumptions about the flow of time (e.g., novel versus cyclical), the structure of time (e.g., discrete, continuous or epochal), or the referent anchor (e.g., past-present or present-future oriented). These limitations related to the assumptions about time create the need to discuss boundary conditions of the existing research and their implications for the adjustment process.

DISCUSSION

Boundary conditions and alternative trajectories

The U-curve hypothesis has often been criticized for being too vague and malleable to be useful (e.g., Church, 1982). However, the real problem may be that research on adjustment and time tends to seek a unique and generalized theory that would explain everything, for any expatriate, under any circumstances. However, it is noteworthy that the 12 empirical studies reviewed here examine very different populations: students (Nash, 1991; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward *et al*., 1998); corporate expatriates (Firth *et al*., 2014; Friedman *et al*. 2009; Janssens, 1995; Nicholson and Imaizumi, 1993; Selmer, 1999); trailing spouses (Bikos *et al*., 2007; De Cieri *et al*., 1991); and a mix of students, professionals, or academics (Hsiao-Ying, 1995; Zheng and Berry, 1991). Thus, aside from the fact that these studies also use a variety of measurements and research designs (as discussed above), comparing these findings is impossible, as it implies a "one size fits all" process in which any expatriate relocated to a new environment followed exactly the same pattern. On the basis of the review, we distinguish several boundary conditions and associated trajectories of adjustment related to experience, gender and the different populations of expatriates. We expose below three processes of adjustment over time for assigned expatriates distinguishing experience and gender, but also the specific casetrailing spouses[27].

The process of assigned expatriate adjustment and experience

Expatriation literature implicitly incorporates a stereotypical figure of an expatriate, who tends to be a male manager (Berry and Bell, 2012) for who international assignments is a means of career development (e.g., Bolino, 2007; Stahl *et al.*, 2002). As a consequence, expatriates are presumed to be career-oriented and international mobility more than a single and discrete experience abroad. Therefore, to appraise the trajectory of adjustment over time,

[27] The review focuses on expatriates. The population of students is left aside being specific in terms of age, gender composition, motivations, and duration of the experience abroad.

experience in expatriation becomes a crucial element, making it important to distinguish the first ever experience in a new cultural environment from the rest of the international career. Firth *et al*. (2014) employed the theory of newcomer entry (e.g., Boswell *et al*., 2009) to explain how and why adjustment might decrease after arrival in the host country and argued that the decrease could be expected to be more pronounced for one's first assignment, i.e. when an expatriate experiences relocation overseas for the first time and begins to make sense of his/her assignment (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005). This recalls the experiential learning perspective of Adler (1975), according to which the development of transitional experience results in the final adjustment, or independence stage, where the individual is "*fully able to accept and draw nourishment from cultural differences and similarities,*" (p. 18) and "*is capable of putting meaning into situations*" (p. 18), marking a deep change that is incorporated in personal identity. The adjusted individual will then be equipped to embrace further transitions along other dimensions.

Moreover, the literature on lifespan development suggests that individuals go through several stages in life and each of these stages brings its own life and work-related priorities, attitudes, beliefs, and motivations (e.g., Carstensen *et al.*, 1999; Kanfer and Ackerman, 2004; Kooij *et al*., 2011). For example, older people tend to give higher priority to pursuing emotionally meaningful aspects of life and to developing meaningful social relationships (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen and Mikels, 2005). It could be speculated that older expatriates might be less likely to experience a severe culture shock, leading to a more stable course of adjustment over time. Therefore, it can be argued that the U-curve hypothesis is more applicable when trying to understand expatriates' initial expatriation experiences whereas its explanatory power is likely to diminish in the case of subsequent relocations. We propose the following propositions:

> ***Proposition 1a***. The trajectory of assigned expatriates' adjustment over time will follow a U-curve in the case of a first experience in a new cultural environment.

> ***Proposition 1b***. The trajectory of assigned expatriates' adjustment will tend to flatten with age and experience.

The process of assigned expatriate adjustment and gender

Another factor that is likely to affect the process of adjustment is gender. It is notable that only student samples are relatively gender balanced. In contrast, research on corporate expatriates tends to focus on primarily male corporate expatriates: e.g. Selmer (1999) - 87% of the sample are men; Firth *et al*. (2014) - 96%; Janssens (1995) - 96%; and Nicholson and Imaizumi - (1993) 97%. This bias is not unique to the reviewed articles but is present in a substantial part of the literature on assigned expatriation (e.g., Berry and Bell, 2012; Shaffer *et al.*, 2006). Hence, because research has shown that men and women use different coping strategies to overcome life changes (e.g. Adler, 1997; Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Tung, 1998), we suspect that adjustment over time is likely to differ for male and female assigned expatriates.

Although an increasing amount of research on female expatriates has been done in recent years (Salamin and Hanappi, 2014), Friedman *et al*. (2009) is the only article in our review to report the experience of a female corporate expatriate over time. This indicates that female expatriates have remained outsiders not only in practice (Berry and Bell, 2012) but also in theory, where conceptualizations of expatriates continue to be strongly embedded in the notion of expatriate as a man (Altman and Shortland, 2008).

Due to the differences between men and women in expatriation (e.g., Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998; Caligiuri *et al*., 1999), we assume that the course of their adjustment over time may differ as well. Gender studies in general argue that organizations are gendered in the sense that structures and practices continuously create and sustain gender separations (e.g., Acker, 1990). This gendered aspect of the workplace has numerous implications such as the image of the ideal worker being strongly associated with manhood (e.g., Wilhoit, 2013) and/or prominent career models associated with masculinity (e.g., Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005). Women's careers tend not to reflect these mainstream career models, described as a linear progression without interruption and within the same organization or industry (e.g., Crossan *et al.*, 2005), as they do not necessarily conform to the expected (masculine) behaviors needed for advancement (Acker, 1990). Therefore, women tend to be less career-oriented in the traditional way and are more likely to choose lives and jobs that are more fulfilling (Wilhoit, 2013).

The fact that women are more likely to be deviant from the "work is primary" career model (Shapiro *et al.*, 2008) may have implications for their adjustment to a new cultural environment. First, if work is not primary then the personal dimension becomes more important. The personal dimension covers the individual well-being but also the well-being of relatives (e.g., spouse and children). In this perspective, moving abroad tends to put more pressures on women's shoulders than their male counterparts. All together, these arguments suggest that the trajectory of female assigned expatriates will be fluctuating over time (for example see Friedman *et al.*, 2009). Second, if the same arguments from Alder (1975) and the transitional experience can be applied to women, the higher likelihood of non-linear careers for women make them less likely to become professional expatriates, thus embarking on consecutive expatriation experiences abroad. Thus, the acquisition of experience and the influence of age may not be as prominent for women as for men. This brings to mind the concept of kaleidoscope career in the case of female expatriates (Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005), a career which is multidimensional and cyclical with complex interactions between its three facets: authenticity, balance, and challenge. Therefore, we propose the following:

> ***Proposition 2a***: The trajectory of female assigned manager expatriates' adjustment over time will follow a U/W-curve.

> ***Proposition 2b***: The trajectory of female assigned manager expatriates' adjustment over time will tend to flatten with age and experience but in a slower pace than their male counterparts.

The process of adjustment of trailing spouses

Trailing spouses have been shown to play a crucial role in the process of adjustment of expatriates (e.g., Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002; Andreason 2008; Cole, 2011). Expatriates' spouses have been defined as of form of self-initiation (relocation without organizational support), yet a very particular case in terms of motivations and behaviors (Andresen *et al.*, 2015). A few exceptions aside (e.g., Selmer and Lauring, 2003; Salamin *et al.*, 2014) and in line with the gendered bias in the expatriation literature, trailing spouses seem to be represented mostly by women. Contrary to assigned expatriates who perceive international experiences as a way to climb up career ladders (Bolino, 2007; Stahl *et al.*, 2002), or to self-initiated expatriates who may relocate for their own career or personal motives (e.g., Inkson and Myers, 2003), spouses relocate mostly to support their partners' careers (Tharenou 2008). Literature has shown that trailing spouses often struggle to find employment (Berry and Bell, 2012) where their skills and knowledge may be under-appreciated because of the lack of fit between their profile and the country they did not choose to work in (Andresen *et al.*, 2015).

A trailing spouse has often been objectified, mainly described as a tool to an expatriate adjustment, seen either as a primary source of exchange for an expatriate (Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002), or "an issue" as a spouse's lack of adjustment can be an important reason for an expatriate's failure (e.g., Birdseye, 1995; Gupta *et al.*, 2012). Yet, trailing spouses' adjustment appear to be different but also more difficult than their partners' adjustment (Adler and Gundersen, 2007). Very little research has been dedicated to spouses (Shaffer and Harrison, 2001) and even less to their personal motivations. Nevertheless, we can assume that they are less directly involved in the move than their partners and may lack meaning in the overall experience. Moreover, the move is most likely to represent an interruption or at least disruption in spouses' careers, leading to their loss of power and identity (Brown, 2008) and inevitable choice of a "deviant career model" (e.g., Buzzanell and Goldzwig, 1991).

Some scholars have recognized that spouses have the most difficult role in the process of expatriation as they have to leave behind the most meaningful aspects of their lives (Adler and Gundersen, 2007). And because relocating to a new country is, by definition, supposed to be only for a finite period of time, trailing spouses may not be inclined to invest in rebuilding their careers, social networks, and friendships. As a consequence the adjustment trajectory of trailing spouses is likely to be invariant (for an example in the reviewed sample see Bikos *et al.*, 2007) or decreasing (for an example in the reviewed sample see De Cieri *et al.*, 1991) over time. Based on these arguments, we believe trailing spouses are likely to face a "sink or swim" situation (McNulty, 2012) and their adjustment trajectory is likely to be invariant or negative over time. Therefore we propose the following:

> ***Proposition 3***: The trajectory of trailing spouses' adjustment over time will be declining if not invariant.

Future research on time and expatriate adjustment

This paper has taken several steps towards understanding adjustment as a dynamic process. Twelve empirical research studies have been reviewed and will hopefully motivate further research on the trajectory of adjustment over time in the context of expatriation. Our review demonstrates that the current knowledge on time and expatriate adjustment contains important limitations. Far from being exhaustive, several major limitations of this research are discussed below.

First of all, for the past 30 years, researchers have mainly focused on validity of the U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Church, 1982; Nash, 1991), yet the specific circumstances under which the U-curve hypothesis may occur have attracted little attention. With the exception of Janssens (1995) and Firth *et al*. (2014), who used a motivational framework to explain adjustment over time, other findings (the absence of a U-curve, unvarying or reversed U-curve, decreasing or increasing adjustment, a W-curve) have not been thoroughly explained theoretically. Moreover, research on time has made great progress over the last 15 years (e.g., Ancona *et al*., 2001; Mitchell and James, 2001; Mosakowski and Earley, 2000; Ployhart and Vandenberg, 2010) and further research in this direction can be insightful for the future literature on expatriation.

Second, little attention has been paid to the trajectory of different dimensions of adjustment over time and how they may evolve differently. Historically, the U-curve hypothesis developed by Lysgaard (1955) was grounded in a very specific context: Norwegian students traveling to the USA in the 1950s, between 20 to 40 years before the most measurements mentioned in this review were developed. Although the U-curve hypothesis still appears topical to capture the trajectory of psychological adjustment in a culturally distant environment for non-experienced expatriates, to what extent is the hypothesis, which was developed based on a study of students, relevant to explain, for instance, the degree of work adjustment of assigned expatriates over time? More generally, it could be expected that in modern contexts, psychological adjustment and general living adjustment are more likely to fluctuate than work and interactional adjustments. Indeed, societies have evolved and the contemporary conditions of expatriation have little in common with the conditions of expatriation half a century ago. It is now easier to stay in touch with relatives and friends on a day-to-day basis, thus giving more room and time, but also less pressure and isolation, for expatriates to socially adjust.

Thus, there is a need to address research questions relating to (un)synchronization of adjustment dimensions. For this, further research could start with questioning the definitions of expatriate success and failure (e.g., Harzing, 1995; Harzing and Christensen, 2004), and explore to which extent an expatriate can be "happily misadjusted" (for instance with conjointly a high state of psychological wellbeing and a low degree of work adjustment) or "unhappily adjusted" (*vice versa*). These questions expose the complexity of adjustment as a process over time and suggest a few potential avenues for future research.

Third, the field of research would benefit from greater theoretical variety and more precise rationales to explore, describe and test the trajectory of expatriate adjustment in a variety of circumstances (i.e., corporate vs. self-initiated expatriation, expatriation with partner and/or family, expatriation within specific cultures, first-time vs. experienced expatriates) and for a range of expatriate profiles (e.g., gender or age). Initial research efforts have focused mainly on assigned expatriation. We noticed the complete absence of research on the process of adjustment of self-initiated expatriates, those who move abroad without organizational sponsorship (Doherty, 2013). Yet, the literature shows many distinctions between corporate and self-initiated expatriation, in terms of demographics, employer, and tasks (e.g., Suutari and Brewster, 2000); career capital acquirement (Jokinen *et al*., 2008); motivation (e.g., Inkson and Myers, 2003); level of adjustment (e.g., Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009); job satisfaction (e.g., Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013); and other work outcomes (e.g., Selmer and Lauring, 2012).

Within these distinctions, research also shows further differences between female and male self-initiated expatriates, their decisions to move (e.g., Richardson, 2006), and type of environment (e.g., Myers and Pringle, 2005). Muir *et al*. (2014) proposed a typology of career patterns of female self-initiated expatriates. Also, it has been established that the population of self-initiated expatriates is more gender balanced (e.g., Tharenou, 2009) and that women are more likely to be self-initiated expatriates than their male counterparts (Andresen *et al*., 2015). Female self-initiated expatriates represent then a substantial proportion of the population of expatriates and we will definitely need more research on the process of female self-initiated expatriate adjustment in the future. Thus, the gap related to the process of adjustment of self-initiated expatriates, male and female, remains almost intact and deserves attention as it raises many questions. For instance, knowing that their motives to depart are often more personal (e.g., Inkson *et al*., 1997) and their job tasks less directly comparable with the work they did in the home country (e.g., Suutari and Brewster 2000), are self-initiated expatriates more likely to experience culture shock?

Fourth, two studies in our review followed the spouses of expatriates (De Cieri, *et al*., 1991; Bikos *et al*., 2007) but in this case, the problem of gender is reversed, as both studies refer to women. Yet, recent research has shown gender differences in the role of expatriate spouses (Davoine *et al*., 2013). This implicit classification in the research (corporate expatriates are male, expatriate spouses are female) tends to build or perpetuate latent gender-biased theories (Berry and Bell, 2012). It also implies a lack of awareness of the visibility and invisibility of gender constructions (Lewis and Simpson, 2010) and a failure to question the stability and self-evident characterization of gender within organizations (Kelan, 2009). This disguises at least two heterogeneous motives to depart – social interactions and work opportunities, organizational support and facilities – behind the same presumed trajectory of adjustment over time.

Fifth, the literature in expatriation in general tend to focus primarily on managerial positions (Berry and Bell, 2012; Biemann and Andresen, 2010) and private/for-profit organizations (Berry and Bell, 2012; McNulty and Brewster, 2016). Research on adjustment and time would benefit from examining other types of employees and organizations.

Sixth, there is still room for theory building, as many other aspects could be taken into account, including the influence of cultural dimensions and cultural fit on expatriate adjustment over time. The studies examined in this review present a variety of cultural combinations (Table 4.2): expatriates or students from a single country relocated to a single country (e.g., Japanese in New Zealand in Ward *et al*., 1998); mixed home countries in a single host country (e.g., Western expatriates in China in Selmer, 1999); or mixed home countries in mixed host countries (e.g., Janssens, 1995). Yet, mixed nationalities and locations tend to ignore cultural distances, the asymmetrical hypothesis (i.e., that direction matters more than distance) and the confounding factors they imply (see Hemmasi and Downes, 2013, for a review of these issues). Moreover, other specific cases, such as expatriation under extreme conditions (to economically and/or politically unstable locations, high-risk countries or countries in war zones, e.g., Bader, 2015; Bader *et al*., 2015) may require specific examination through different lenses to explain the trajectory of adjustment over time.

This study is not without limitations. Being aware that other boundary conditions could be identified and argued for, we deliberately focused on those conditions which we could observe from the reviewed sample and which have already been mentioned in extant literature, such as, for instance, gender (Eden *et al.*, 2015) and the distinction between trailing spouses and self-initiated expatriates (Andresen *et al*., 2015). It is likely that other important boundary conditions that influence the trajectory of adjustment over time exist, e.g. purpose of assignment or motivations to depart but also family compositions (with or without partners, with or without children). Yet, these were not available from the sample, which we reviewed. They remain to be examined in future research.

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ESSAY 5 – CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT AS A PROCESS OVER TIME: TEMPORALITY, MULTIDIMENSIONALITY, AND CONTINGENCY

INTRODUCTION

Already for some time, cross-cultural adjustment (CCA), defined as the degree of psychological comfort with various aspect of a host country (e.g., Black and Gregersen, 1991), has been recognized to play a central role among expatriates on international assignment largely determining their success or failure (e.g., Cole and Nesbeth, 2014; Farh *et al.*, 2010; Firth *et al.*, 2014; Lazarova *et al.*, 2010; Takeuchi, 2010). Consequently, it has attracted a lot of academic attention (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Dabic *et al.*, 2015). However, examining CCA has proven to be far from straight forward since, by definition, it is a complex process which develops over time (Hippler *et al.*, 2015). It implies that there are three potential challenges that need to be accounted for when examining expatriates' CCA over time.

First, to study CCA as it happens and unfolds as a process requires taking time and time dynamics into consideration (Hippler *et al.*, 2015). Yet, it is often difficult to implement in academic research (e.g., Church, 1982; Hippler *et al.*, 2015). As a result, the plethora of studies on expatriates' CCA is mostly cross-sectional measuring expatriates' CCA (Firth *et al.*, 2014; Harrison *et al.*, 2004) and its different aspects at specific and isolated points in time. Consequently, our understanding of CCA as a process and its time dynamics remains limited.

Second, the CCA process is a complex and multifaceted one as it concerns a wide range of different aspects and domains (e.g., Haslberger *et al.*, 2013; Hippler *et al.*, 2015). All existing conceptualizations of CCA distinguish between more than one dimensions of CCA (Black *et al.*, 1991; Haslberger *et al.*, 2013; Hippler *et al.*, 2014). For instance, the most widely discussed conceptualization of Black *et al.* (1991), which is used in this study, differentiates between three CCA dimensions: general living, interactional, and work. Consequently, it is not given that as CCA unfolds over time all the three dimensions of CCA are developing synchronously and in similar ways (Pedersen, 1995). Assuming synchronous development runs the risk of constituting a significant oversimplification, thus limiting our ability to appraise the phenomenon.

Finally, it is also well established in the literature that expatriates do not form a homogenous group and differ in terms of their personal, professional, and family-related attributes (e.g., Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). Different groups of expatriates are likely to experience CCA differently, that is, their CCA is likely to develop differently over time, in terms of time that it takes, phases through which it is likely to develop, and the steepness and the direction of the adjustment curve. Therefore, it is crucial to recognize the contingency of the CCA's development over time on expatriates' attributes and characteristics.

Due to these challenges, CCA as a process over time has been extensively discussed theoretically (Hippler *et al.*, 2015) but rarely examined empirically and accounting for its *temporality*, *multidimensionality*, and/or *contingency*. The most known research in this area is on the U-curve hypothesis of adjustment (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955). The hypothesis states that the trajectory of CCA can be depicted as a sequence of stages progressing from the honeymoon stage of excitement and fascination with a host country, then to the crisis stage or culture shock, before the final recovery or adjustment stage (e.g., Adler, 1975; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Gullahorn and Gullarhorn, 1963; Lesser and Peter, 1957; Oberg, 1960). Yet, the hypothesis remains controversial and debated as several attempts to confirm it yielded inconclusive results (Bikos *et al.*, 2007; Mohr and Klein, 2004).

Otherwise, studies of CCA as a process over time are rare (e.g., Bikos *et al.*, 2007). The most noticeable ones are by Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), Firth *et al.* (2014) and, more recently, Hippler *et al.* (2015). In the first one, the authors found support for the U-curve hypothesis by meta-analysing 23 existing studies, only three of which employed longitudinal research designs. Timewise, the identified U-curve of adjustment consisted of the honeymoon period of around 12 months, the cultural disorientation period ending after around three years, and finally, the adjustment period stabilizing at around four years since relocation. Unfortunately, Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) did not test for any moderating effects thus not exploring the trajectory's *contingency* on personal and/or professional attributes and characteristics, nor did they differentiate in their analysis between different dimensions of CCA thus staying away from discussing the *multidimensionality* and the related synchronization issues.

In the second contribution, Firth *et al.* (2014) focused on expatriates' adaptation during the first four months abroad and suggested a generally negative trend for work adjustment during that period of time, starting from high initial levels boosted by expatriates' initial cross-cultural motivation but then decreasing over time. Although providing interesting findings, the study does not shed light on the shape of the adjustment trajectory in a longer perspective beyond the four months period, nor discusses other dimensions of CCA than the work-related one. In addition, both Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005) and Firth *et al.* (2014) study exclusively assigned expatriates thus leaving CCA of other expatriates' groups, e.g. self-initiated expatriates, unexplored.

The most recent contribution by Hippler *et al.* (2015) conceptually draws out attention to the importance of temporal dynamics in the investigation of CCA. The authors argue that because the starting levels of adjustment are likely to vary among different expatriates and because adjustment processes of different expatriates are conditioned by different antecedents, the adjustment trajectories, as well as the trajectories of the CCA's cognitive, affective and behavioral dimensions are likely to develop differently over time. They also point out that expatriates are likely to adjust differently in different domains. Thus, Hippler *et al.* (2015) conceptually underscore for CCA researchers the importance of taking into account and investigating the presumed *temporality*, *multidimensionality*, and *contingency* of CCA as a process over time.

In the present paper, we aim at contributing to the existing literature by making a step towards addressing the identified limitations. More specifically, our objectives are threefold. First, using cluster analysis we explore what possible trajectories of adjustment can tentatively be identified among different groups of expatriates in our sample. In this way, we aim at empirically capturing and illustrating the *temporal* nature of CCA and its development over time. Second, we investigate whether the identified trajectories of adjustment are different for expatriates with different profiles. By doing so, we aim at verifying whether CCA and its development over time are not standard and invariable but indeed *contingent* on expatriates' characteristics and attributes which influence how the expatriates perceive time. Third, we examine how multiple dimensions of expatriates' CCA develop over time and in comparison with each other. In this way, we intend to establish whether different dimensions of CCA as a *multidimensional* phenomenon develop synchronously or asynchronously over time. Based on our analysis, we conclude with a number of propositions aimed at advancing our theoretical understanding of CCA as a process over time.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Temporality of the cross-cultural adjustment process

The *temporal* nature of the process of adjustment to a new cultural environment has over the years been of great interest to scholars. Several attempts have been undertaken to describe it conceptually (e.g. Adler, 1975; Black & Mendenhall, 1991; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Lesser and Peter, 1957; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960). The adjustment over time was suggested to undergo several phases, the cumulative trajectory of which resembles a U-curve (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955; Torbiorn, 1982). The contention became known in the literature as the U-curve hypothesis of adjustment (e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991).

According to the hypothesis, the first stage in the adjustment process is honeymoon. During this stage, the newcomer is fascinated by the exoticism of being in a new country (Oberg, 1960). It is characterized by euphoria caused by the novelty of the experience (Adler, 1975); the newcomer mainly sees similarities between his/her home and host countries whereas ignoring differences and/or perceiving them as curious oddities. Over time, the exciting novelty is gradually replaced by the day-to-day reality of living in a new culture (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963) and ultimately cultural shock is experienced. It is characterized by the sojourner's identity confusion and can make him/her prone to hostility, stereotyping, and rejection of the host culture (Adler, 1975; Oberg, 1960). However, as gradually the sojourner begins to make sense, accept, and find ways to cope with differences and challenges of the new culture, s/he starts to feel more comfortable in their new environment adapting to the differences (Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Oberg, 1960). The adjustment phase is marked by a better understanding and/or acceptance of the new culture as the sojourner relaxes his/her psychological barriers to adaptation (Adler, 1975). Finally, the sojourner internalizes and accepts how things are done in the host culture (Oberg, 1960) and start to appreciate the cultural differences and similarities (Adler, 1975).

Despite of its intuitive appeal, the U-curve hypothesis has been extensively debated and criticized. For instance, Church (1982) pointed out the lack of understanding related to the order of the model stages or their generalizability across cultures. Others (Furnham and Bochner, 1986, 2001; Ward *et al.*, 2001) criticized the model for being largely a-theoretical, normative, and over-interpreted from post-hoc explanations and speculations. Still, numerous others underscored the overgeneralization of the model at the verge of oversimplicity (Becker, 1968; Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Church, 1982). Also, it was noted that most research supporting the model has been based on student, and not expatriate, samples (see Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). Even a suggestion to abandon the model altogether due to the significance of its limitations was made (Ward *et al.*, 2001).

Furthermore, empirical evidence for the U-curve hypothesis has been inconclusive, to say the least. Only a few studies found partial support for the hypothesis: Selmer (1999) for sociocultural adjustment and Nicholson and Imaizumi (1993) for work adjustment. But other studies either found no support (Bikos *et al*., 2007; De Cieri *et al.*, 1991; Hsiao-Ying, 1995; Janssens, 1995; Nash, 1991; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward, *et al.*, 1998; Zheng and Berry, 1991), or arrived at different patterns, such as linear and positive (e.g. Nash, 1991), linear and negative (De Cieri *et al.*, 1991; Hsiao-Ying, 1995), and inverted U-curve (Zheng and Berry, 1991). Therefore, the explanatory power of the U-curve hypothesis remains questionable and the process through which CCA develops over time little understood.

Multidimensionality of the cross-cultural adjustment process

The process of adjustment to a new cultural environment is commonly described as a *multidimensional* concept comprising three dimensions: general living (e.g. perceived comfort in relation to food, transportation, entertainment), interactional (e.g. perceived comfort in relation to one's social contact / interactions with host country nationals), and work (e.g. perceived comfort in relation to one's new job environment) (Black and Stephens, 1989). Although also other conceptualizations of adjustment have been suggested in the literature (see Haslberger *et al.*, 2013; Hippler *et al.*, 2014) and the tri-dimensional conceptualization has been debated (e.g., Lazarova and Thomas, 2012), the Black and Stephens' measure (1989) remains the most validated and widely tested one in the literature (for reviews see Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Mendenhall *et al.*, 2002).

The *multidimensionality* of CCA as a process indicates that it is a complex process which covers a wide range of issues and aspects related to the expatriate's life and experience abroad. It also raises a question whether the different CCA dimensions follow the same trajectory of development over time. For instance, building on Pedersen (1995), it is possible that an expatriate may fare well on one dimension of CCA, while simultaneously experience difficulties on another dimension. As such, there is no theoretical rationale suggesting that the degree of comfort related to general living, interactional, and work-related aspects is likely to cohere and/or be synchronized. Indeed, it is noteworthy that the U-curve hypothesis (Lysgaard, 1955) has been formulated prior to the Black et al.'s (1991) multidimensional conceptualization of CCA and thus originally does not account for different CCA dimensions. In fact, one of the Black and Stephens' justifications for acknowledging and theorizing the *multidimensionality* of CCA has been to reconcile some of the inconclusive findings in the literature in support of the U-curve hypothesis.

For instance, it was pointed out that the honeymoon stage of adjustment in the U-curve model is likely to be perceived very differently among sojourners in relation to different aspects of their adjustment (e.g. Janssens, 1995; Nash, 1991; Ward and Searle, 1991; Zheng and Berry, 1991). Whereas it is plausible that the honeymoon stage, depicted as a period of fascination and excitement with the new culture, will be associated with improvements in sojourners' general living adjustment (due to the exoticism of the new location) and/or interactional adjustment (due to the excitement of meeting new people), it is more difficult to see how it is likely to affect their work adjustment (e.g., a convenient job for a self-initiated expatriate or a very similar task-related job for a corporate expatriate). Moreover, it was demonstrated that the three adjustment dimensions, despite of having some common elements, are explained by largely distinct antecedents (for meta-analyses see Hechanova *et al.*, [2003] and Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, [2005]). Therefore, it can be concluded that the synchronization of different CCA dimensions development over time remains little understood in the literature, yet it certainly needs to be examined.

Contingency of the cross-cultural adjustment process

Extant research has also shown that different groups of expatriates tend to adjust differently, thus implying a contingency of CCA on expatriates' personal, professional, and family as well as expatriation-related attributes and characteristics (e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas et al., 2005; Hechanova *et al.*, 2003; Shaffer *et al.*, 1999). We contend that the contingency can be explained by explicating the underlying time perceptions possessed by expatriates of different profiles. Unfortunately, the expatriation literature has hitherto largely ignored the role of time and time perceptions behind the process of CCA (cf. Hippler *et al.*, 2015). Nevertheless, the contention that CCA is a *temporal* process implies that time is central to this process. In what follows, building on Mosakowski and Early (2000), who distinguish between five dimensions of time: (a) the nature, (b) the experience, (c) the flow, (d) the structure, and (e) the referent anchor, we develop several arguments concerning how time is likely to be perceived differently by expatriates with different profiles thus determining their adjustment.

In management research, more generally, time is often assumed as given, real, objective, and taken-for-granted, as if it does not depend on events or space nor vary with individuals' perceptions and/or expectations (Lee and Liebenau, 1999; Mosakowski and Early, 2000). Likewise, in expatriation research time is treated as if it is the same for everyone, everywhere, and under any circumstances. However, we think that it is an oversimplified conception of time and, concurring with Hippler *et al.* (2015), we argue for the need to pay a closer attention to the notion of time and the role that it plays in the CCA process of expatriates.

Contrary to conceptualizing time as 'real' and objective, we suggest that because CCA is a process, which is lived through and experienced by different expatriates in different ways, the *nature of time* is likely to be perceived differently by different expatriates depending on particular events that they experience and a particular space where these events take place ('event-time', Bluedorn and Denhardt, 1988). Thus, these *experiences* are bound to be subjective and related to expatriates' feelings, histories and beliefs (e.g., Lauer, 1981). For instance, extant research has shown that subjective expatriation experiences vary greatly among expatriates depending on gender (e.g., Haslberger, 2010; Selmer and Leung, 2003), position (e.g., Stahl and Caligiuri, 2005), and family context (e.g., Caligiuri *et al.*, 1998; Harvey, 1995; McNulty, 2012; Rosenbusch and Cseh, 2012; Takeuchi *et al.*, 2002).

Further, the *time flow* is also likely to be experienced differently by expatriates. We suspect that for expatriates on their first assignment the time flow will be perceived as novel (with little repetitions), whereas for more experienced ones time will be more cyclical or punctuated (with repetitions). This is supported by the literature which shows that prior experience is likely to matter for CCA (e.g. Black *et al.*, 1991; Parker and McEvoy, 1993).

In terms of the *time structure*, time can be perceived either as discrete (with measurable temporal units) or continuous (identified with events). Applied to expatriates, we foresee that for organizationally-assigned expatriates, who usually know the length of their assignment/relocation beforehand, the time structure is likely to be more discrete with clearly defined time periods (i.e., beginning, mid-term, or end of the assignment followed by repatriation period), whilst self-initiated expatriates' perceptions can be better represented by a continuous time structure, reflecting the serendipitous aspect of their voluntary relocations (Inkson and Myers, 2003). Thus, in line with prior literature (e.g., Andresen *et al.*, 2015; Biemann and Andresen, 2010; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009), it appears important to distinguish between organizationally-assigned and self-initiated expatriates to explain their CCA.

The last dimension of time is the *time orientation* which can be past-present or present-future. We suggest that expatriates' age is likely to play a critical role in determining expatriates' time orientation. For instance, Carstensen and colleagues (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 1999) have documented age-related changes in the perception of time. It was shown that older people perceive their future time as more limited than younger people and that aging is closely interlinked with changes in individuals' goals and motives. Based on this research, it is plausible to expect younger expatriates to be more strongly oriented towards the future, perceive time as progressing in the forward direction, and have a longer-term time orientation than their more senior colleagues, who are likely to experience time as being anchored more in the present than in the future. Although the expatriation literature has so far paid little attention to the influence of age on the process of CCA (for an exception see Wechtler *et al.*, 2015), we suggest that age is an influential determinant of expatriates' time orientations which are likely to be important for expatriates' CCA.

Therefore, based on the above discussion, we expect different groups of expatriates with different personal, professional, and expatriation-related profiles to adjust differently over time because they are likely to perceive and experience time and its five dimensions differently. To analyze this *contingency* of CCA as a process over time empirically, below we will focus on the expatriates' personal and professional attributes and characteristics which - as the above review indicates - are bound to influence how expatriates perceive time. These are age, gender, hierarchical position, prior expatriation experience, type of expatriation, and family-situation.

Now, we turn to our empirical analysis, in which we will illustrate and explore the *temporality*, *multidimensionality*, and *contingency* aspects of CCA as a process over time. Considering the infancy of research on this topic (Hippler *et al.*, 2015), our study is deliberately of inductive and explorative rather than deductive nature. Our main goal is to shed light on different aspects of CCA as a process over time and then, drawing on our results, formulate a number of theoretical propositions for future research to examine and verify.

METHODOLOGY

Sample

To collect data, we surveyed internationally-relocated individuals currently employed by three large European multinational companies. Following Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), who in their analysis focused on expatriates' CCA during the initial four years after the relocation, we have also deliberately limited our sample to individuals who have relocated to their current job location no longer than four years ago. In this way, we have identified and contacted altogether 1,286 expatriates. 637 of them filled out the online questionnaire (response rate = 50%). After removing responses with missing values, the final sample consisted of 584 observations. The sample was composed of 21% of women; the average age was 31.91 years; 80% relocated with family; 76% had previous international experience; and 16% were self-initiated expatriates. Position-wise, the respondents occupied staff (27%), middle management (39%), upper management (26%), or other (8%) positions. The average time spent living and working in the present country was 15.3 months (range = [0;45]) and 14.9 months (range = [0;45]) respectively. The respondents were from 43 countries in Western and Eastern Europe, the Middle East, Africa, Latin America, North America, and Asia and currently located mainly in Europe (38%), Asia (32%) and North America (18%). 37% were in their first year of expatriation (0-12 months), 29% in their second year (13-24 months), 20% in their third year (25-36 months), and 14% in the fourth year (37-48 months).

Measures

Personal attributes. Gender was measured as a dummy variable, where "0" stood for "man" and "1" for "woman". Age was measured chronologically as the number of years.

Professional attributes. We measured hierarchical position with the following options: middle management, upper management, staff, or other.

Expatriation attributes. The current expatriation was characterized as either self-initiated, meaning that expatriates have relocated independently and autonomously to the new host country (Doherty, 2013), or organizationally-assigned, meaning that expatriates have relocated to a foreign subsidiary within the same corporate network. To measure expatriates' *family situation*, we used a dummy variable of "1" if the expatriate relocated with his/her partner or family and "0" if without. We measured professional experience in expatriation using the number of years during which the respondent has been on working abroad as an expatriate prior to the current experience.

Cross-cultural adjustment. We measured cross-cultural adjustment using the 14-item scale from Black and Stephens (1989). It consists of three dimensions: general living adjustment (seven items), interactional adjustment (four items), and work adjustment (three items). The scale ranged from 1 for "very unadjusted" to 7 for "very adjusted". Cronbach's alphas for general living, interactional, and work adjustment were acceptable: respectively 0.84, 0.88 and 0.90. A confirmatory factor analysis showed that the tridimensional structure of CCA (i.e., general living, interactional and work adjustment) fitted our data well: ($\chi 2(74) = 381$; $p < 0.01$; GFI = 0.984; NFI = 0.974; RMSEA = 0.07).

Time variables. Because we focus on CCA as a temporal process, we took into account two measures of time as independent variables. Our assumption is that expatriates do not necessarily start working immediately upon their arrival to a new country and there may be a slight delay between their arrival and employment. Yet, during that time they are already exposed to their new cultural environment. Therefore, to take this period of time into account, in our analysis we distinguished between the length of time living in the present country as a proxy for general living adjustment and the length of time working in the present country as a proxy for interactional and work adjustments.

Control variables. Because the CCA process over time is likely to depend on cultural difference between the home and host countries, we used Hofstede's cultural indexes as control variables in our multivariate analyses. We assigned Hofstede's scores based on expatriates' nationality (e.g. if an expatriate is Finnish then we assumed that his/her home country is Finland) and their current job location (e.g. if an expatriate is currently working in France then we assumed his/her host country is France). The differences between home and host country scores were calculated for four dimensions: Power Distance, Individualism, Masculinity, and Uncertainty Avoidance (for definitions, see Hofstede, 1997). Table 5.1 below provides descriptive statistics and correlations for our variables.

TABLE 5.1

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. General living adjustment	5.16	1.03	(0.84)							
2. Interactions adjustment	5.61	1.07	0.32	(0.88)						
3. Work adjustment	4.69	1.33	0.46	0.36	(0.90)					
4. Time living in the country	15.28	9.39	0.17	0.15	0.13	1				
5. Time working in the country	14.92	9.31	0.14	0.19	0.18	0.88	1			
6. Power distance difference	-2.49	22.22	0.03	0.03	0.05	0.05	0.07	1		
7. Individualism difference	15.20	35.85	-0.06	-0.05	-0.09	-0.07	-0.08	-0.39	1	
8. Masculinity difference	-1.35	17.82	0.03	0.05	0.01	0.00	0.00	-0.38	0.10	1
9. Uncertainty avoidance diff.	14.89	32.42	-0.04	-0.04	0.02	-0.07	-0.07	0.27	0.22	-0.38

N = 584. Internal consistency reliability (alpha) estimates are on the diagonal.
Coefficients larger than 0.05 are significant at the p< 0.10 level; coefficients larger than 0.07 are significant at the p<0.05 level.

Empirical strategy

In order to identify in our sample different expatriates' profiles based on their similarities in terms of personal and professional attributes (Sokal and Sneath, 1968), we, first, adopted an inductive approach and developed a taxonomy of expatriates. Taxonomies are based on empirical data and allow for categorizing phenomena into mutually exclusive and exhaustive sets that jointly form a comprehensive classification system (Doty and Glick, 1994). The key advantage of taxonomies, especially for our purpose to classify a vastly heterogeneous sample of expatriates, is that the patterns and classifications that it uncovers may cross boundaries of existing theory-based classifications (see also Andersen and Biemann, 2013). To do that, we started by conducting a multiple correspondence analysis on the clustering variables (i.e. gender, age, experience in expatriation, hierarchical position, family status, and type of expatriation - the variables which we identified above based on the existing literature as being important in determining expatriates' CCA over time) in order to avoid multicollinearity problems (Ketchen and Shook, 1996) and overpass the mixed nature of the set variables (continuous and nominal). The obtained eleven factors were then used in Ward's (1963) hierarchical cluster analysis. This procedure yielded a fourfold classification solution which we characterized in terms of the personal and professional attributes through a series of bivariate analyses.

Second, using an approach similar to the one in Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.* (2005), we regressed expatriates' CCA against time in order to predict the change of CCA over time. A backward, nonlinear regression, an established technique applied in the literature (e.g., Markovizky and Samid, 2008; Rogosa *et al.*, 1982; Rogosa and Willet, 1985), was used to estimate the trajectories over time. More specifically, CCA was estimated using linear (time), quadratic ($time^2$), cubic ($time^3$), and fourth-power ($time^4$) predictors. The selection of backward variables to retain in the non-linear regression models was used with a 20% threshold for significance levels. The models were estimated for each cluster separately. Accounting for the multidimensionality of the adjustment process, the three dimensions of CCA were used as dependent measures for the estimation.

ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

Cluster analysis: Four expatriate clusters

Using cluster analysis, we identified four different clusters. Table 5.2 provides their descriptive characteristics which are not meant to be absolute but give a comprehensive picture of expatriates based on their personal attributes. The clusters are described using bivariate Chi-squared tests.

TABLE 5.2

Description of clusters

	Cluster1 **Early Career**	**Cluster2** **Middle Career**	**Cluster 3** **Senior expatriates**	**Cluster 4** **New Generation**
N **%**	169 28.89%	179 30.77%	82 14.13%	154 26.22%
Sex	Male 88% ($F = 3.15$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Male 92% ($F = 5.32$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Male 94% ($F = 4.03$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Female 52% ($F = 11.07$; $p \leq 0.01$)
Age	31-40 years old 89% ($F = 19.10$; $p \leq 0.01$)	41-50 years old 80% ($F = 21.44$; $p \leq 0.01$)	51-65 years old 100% ($F = 22.07$; $p \leq 0.01$)	20-30 years old 89% ($F = 21.40$; $p \leq 0.01$)
Hierarchical position	Middle Management 61% ($F = 19.10$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Upper Management 54% ($F = 10.45$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Upper Management 46% ($F = 4.27$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Staff, Other 67% ($F = 5.86$; $p \leq 0.01$) ($F = 6.95$; $p \leq 0.01$)
Prior experience	No 38% ($F = 5.19$; $p \leq 0.01$)	ns	ns	Yes 83% ($F = 2.12$; $p \leq 0.01$)
Expatriation type	Assigned 95% ($F = 5.47$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Assigned 97% ($F = 7.11$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Assigned 98% ($F = 4.47$; $p \leq 0.01$)	Self-initiated 54% ($F = 14.26$; $p \leq 0.01$)
Family presence	ns	Yes 96% ($F = 10.45$; $p \leq 0.01$)	ns	No 48% ($F = 9.66$; $p \leq 0.01$)

Cluster 1: Early career corporate expatriates. Cluster 1 consisted of 169 observations (29% of the sample). These expatriates were more commonly male (88% vs. 79% in the overall sample; $F = 3.15$; $p \leq 0.01$), 31-40 years old (89% vs. 33%; $F = 19.10$; $p \leq 0.01$), organizationally-assigned (95% vs. 84%; $F = 5.47$; $p \leq 0.01$), and more likely to occupy middle management positions (61% vs. 39%; $F = 19.10$; $p \leq 0.01$). Compared to the total sample, they had less prior experience abroad (38% without prior experience vs. 24%; $F = 5.19$; $p \leq 0.01$).

Cluster 2: Middle career corporate expatriates. Cluster 2 comprised 179 observations (31% of the sample). These expatriates were significantly more often male (92% vs. 79%; $F = 5.32$; $p \leq 0.01$), 41-50 years old (80% vs. 26%; $F = 21.44$; $p \leq 0.01$), organizationally-assigned (97% vs. 84%; $F = 7.11$; $p \leq 0.01$), and more likely to occupy upper management positions (54% vs. 26%; $F = 10.45$; $p \leq 0.01$). Almost always they were accompanied by their families (96% vs. 80%; $F = 10.45$; $p \leq 0.01$).

Cluster 3: Senior corporate expatriates. Cluster 3 was the smallest one consisting of 82 observations (14% of the sample). These expatriates were more commonly male (94% vs. 79%; $F = 4.03$; $p \leq 0.01$), organizationally-assigned (98% vs. 84%; $F = 4.47$; $p \leq 0.01$), and more likely to occupy upper management positions (46% vs. 26%; $F = 4.27$; $p \leq 0.01$). Notably, all of them were 51-65 years old (100% vs. 14%; $F = 22.07$; $p \leq 0.01$).

Cluster 4: New generation of expatriates. Cluster 4 included 154 observations (26% of the sample). This cluster was very different from the other three in three respects. First of all, it consisted of expatriates who were much more often female (52% vs. 21%; $F = 11.07$; $p \leq 0.01$), much younger than the average age (20-30 years old: 89% vs. 27%; $F = 21.40$; $p \leq 0.01$), and more often self-initiated (54% vs. 16%; $F = 14.26$; $p \leq 0.01$). They usually occupied lower management positions (staff or other: cumulatively 67% vs. 33%) but often had more prior experience abroad (83% vs. 76%; $F = 2.12$; $p \leq 0.01$).

The first three clusters could be seen as a continuum where expatriates' *age* is the main differentiator between the clusters. Taken together, the clusters encompass the entire life-cycle of an organizationally-assigned expatriate. In contrast, Cluster 4 contains a different population which can be described as a new generation of expatriates because they are younger, more often female, and more self-initiated and internationally-oriented than their colleagues in other clusters (see Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Thorn, 2009).

Regression analysis: Three trajectories of cross-cultural adjustment over time

To predict the change of adjustment over time and account for the multidimensionality of the adjustment process, the three dimensions of CCA were used as dependent measures for the estimation. A backward, nonlinear regression was used to estimate the trajectories over time. The models were estimated for each cluster separately. The obtained results are presented in Table 5.3. Figure 5.1 depicts the plots of the estimated values for each dimension of CCA over time with the associated upper and lower bounds of confidence intervals.

Examining the shapes of the estimated trajectories, we observed three types of trajectories: (1) linear (or progressive), (2) logarithmic (an increase followed by a phase of stability), and (3) U-curve. It appears that *Middle career* and *Senior* expatriates are generally characterized by more linear adjustment than *Early career* and *New generation* expatriates. The only notable exception is interactional adjustment of *Senior* expatriates, which is more logarithmic starting with a lower level of adjustment and then increasing faster than in other clusters. *Early career* and *New generation* expatriates exhibit logarithmic trajectories for general living adjustment and U-curve trajectories for interactional adjustment.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we set out to explore the three features of CCA as a process over time, that is, its *temporality*, *multidimensionality*, and *contingency*, in order to increase our current understanding of this phenomenon. As our starting point, we identified and explicated a number of limitations that appear to haunt the existing literature on CCA, namely that it does not account to a sufficient degree for its *temporal*, *multidimensional*, and *contingent* nature. We then conducted our own data collection and analysis and our results can be summarized in the following points.

First, CCA is a process that develops over time. Yet, the more important and the actual question is how it develops? Our results over the four initial years of expatriates' adjustment indicate that the widely popularized and intuitively appealing U-curve hypothesis is by far not the only and/or universal trajectory possible. Other trajectories, such as linear and logarithmic, have been detected in our analysis and, more importantly, the U-curve seems to be the most rarely-occurring alternative.

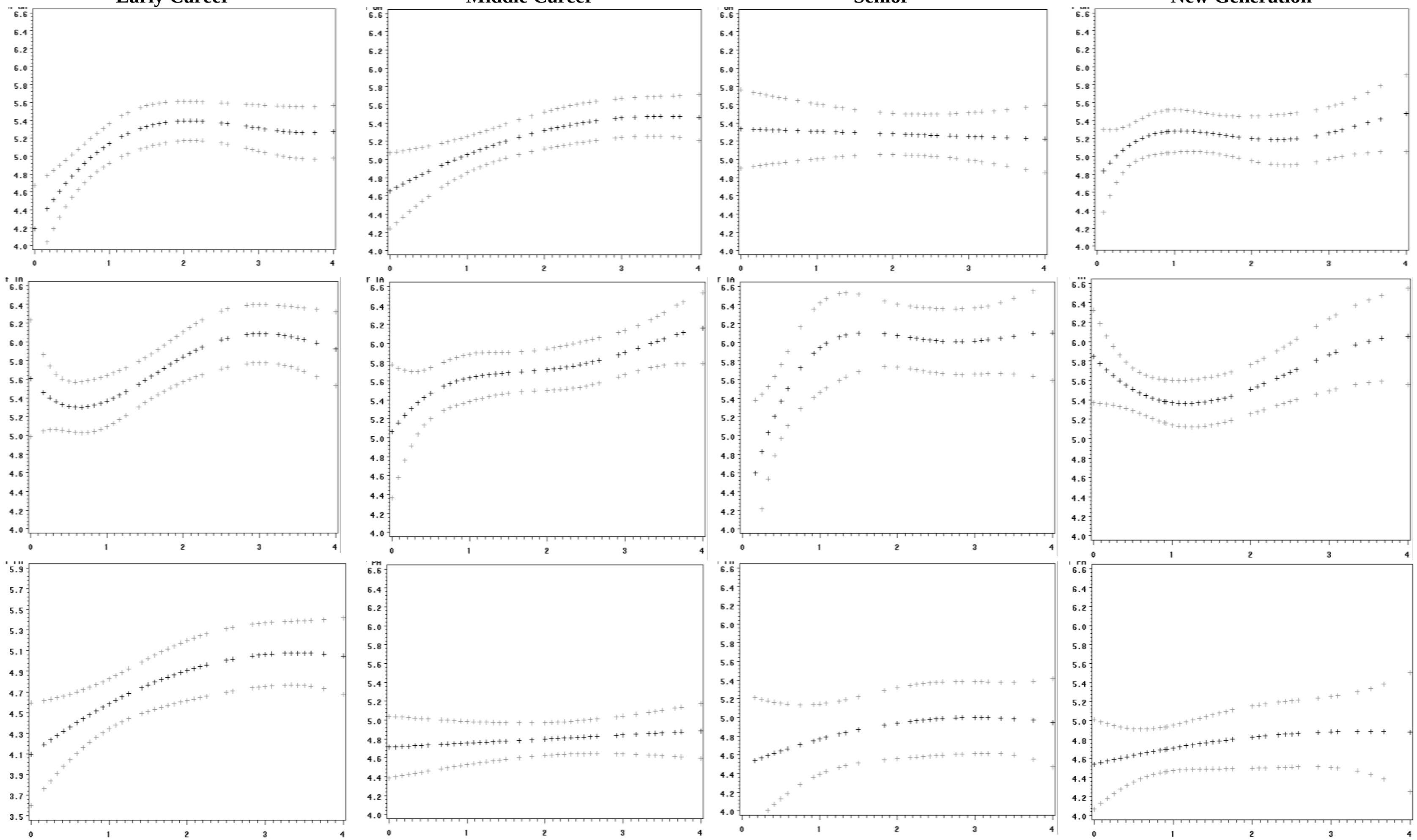
TABLE 5.3
Nonlinear regressions of cross-cultural adjustment

		Early Career		Middle Career		Senior		New Generation	
Model	**Parameter**	**Estimate**	**Standard Error**	**Estimate**	**Standard Error**	**Estimate**	**Standard Error**	**Estimate**	**Standard Error**
General living adjustment (1)	Intercept	4.507	0.449	4.178	0.405	3.680	0.882	5.353	0.482
	Time	2.039†	2.027	2.224†	1.810	7.833†	3.858	-1.846†	2.222
	$Time^2$	-2.478†	2.715	-2.096†	2.469	-9.548†	4.896	3.413†	3.035
	$Time^3$	1.357†	1.326	0.931	1.247	4.216	2.312	-1.908†	1.525
	$Time^4$	-0.246	0.212	-0.144	0.205	-0.618	0.361	0.324†	0.249
	Power distance	-0.001	0.006	0.004	0.006	0.003	0.010	-0.001	0.006
	Individualism	-0.001	0.004	-0.003	0.004	0.004	0.006	-0.002	0.004
	Masculinity	-0.007	0.006	0.008	0.005	-0.006	0.011	0.004	0.006
	Uncertainty avoidance	-0.006	0.004	0.004	0.003	-0.005	0.006	0.000	0.004
Interactional adjustment (2)	Intercept	5.189	0.502	5.645	0.404	1.511	1.197	5.591	0.486
	Time	1.415†	2.160	-1.539†	1.843	15.131†	4.902	1.490†	2.400
	$Time^2$	-1.965†	2.782	1.987†	2.572	-16.639†	5.890	-3.133†	3.441
	$Time^3$	1.146†	1.332	-0.855†	1.321	7.160†	2.673	1.758†	1.787
	$Time^4$	-0.213†	0.211	0.127†	0.220	-1.047†	0.406	-0.288	0.298
	Power distance	0.001	0.006	0.010	0.006	0.006	0.009	-0.007	0.007
	Individualism	-0.002	0.003	0.002	0.004	0.004	0.005	-0.005	0.005
	Masculinity	0.000	0.006	0.014	0.006	0.005	0.010	0.000	0.007
	Uncertainty avoidance	-0.001	0.003	0.004	0.003	-0.002	0.005	-0.001	0.005
Work adjustment (2)	Intercept	5.447	0.619	3.976	0.524	2.509	1.623	4.557	0.615
	Time	-3.530†	2.664	1.207†	2.388	10.292†	6.645	-1.159†	3.039
	$Time^2$	4.281†	3.430	-1.519	3.332	-12.124†	7.984	2.861†	4.358
	$Time^3$	-1.816	1.642	0.878	1.712	5.407	3.624	-1.722	2.263
	$Time^4$	0.252	0.260	-0.154	0.285	-0.813	0.550	0.294	0.378
	Power distance	-0.014	0.007	0.006	0.008	0.016	0.013	-0.003	0.009
	Individualism	-0.009	0.004	-0.005	0.005	0.004	0.007	0.001	0.006
	Masculinity	-0.001	0.007	0.010	0.007	-0.009	0.013	0.002	0.009
	Uncertainty avoidance	0.002	0.004	0.012	0.004	-0.013	0.007	-0.001	0.006

N = 584; (†) Selection method: Backward, 20% threshold of significance level for staying in the nonlinear regression models.
(1) Time living in the country; (2) Time working in the country.

FIGURE 5.1
Trajectories of adjustment

	Early Career	**Middle Career**	**Senior**	**New Generation**
General Adjustment Time living in the country				
Interactional Adjustment Time working in the country				
Work Adjustment Time working in the country				



+++ Predicted values of CCA; +++ Upper/Lower bound of 95% CI.

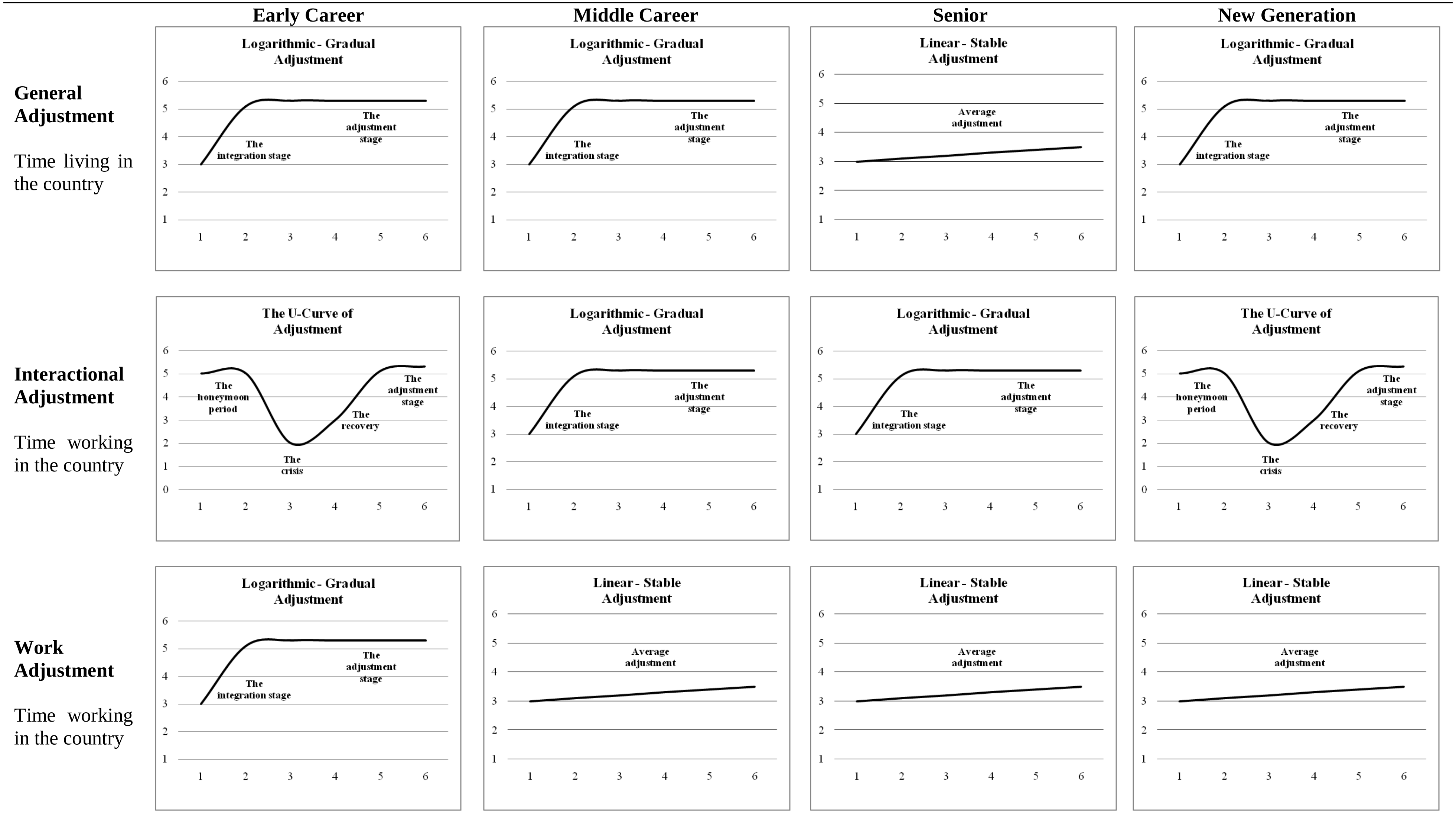
Second, our results also verify that the CCA process is a multidimensional one comprising several dimensions which tend to develop over time asynchronously. It supports our expectation and recent claims in the literature (Hippler et al., 2015) that different dimensions of CCA, even though closely related, are likely to develop differentially over time and be experienced differently by expatriates.

Third, our analysis suggests that the CCA process is a contingent one for its trajectory varies for different expatriates. We argued that the contingency can be explained by different perceptions and experiences of time that expatriates with different attributes and characteristics are likely to possess and/or develop during their relocations abroad. The implied contingency also sheds light on why we identified more than one alternative trajectory of CCA over time and underscores the need to take expatriates' perceptions and experiences of time into account.

Theoretical approximations of the obtained trajectories are illustrated in Figure 5.2. Please note that the depicted trajectories need to be seen only as 'indicative representations' (for a similar point see Hippler *et al.*, 2015).

We now turn to discussing our results in more detail. We found the U-curve of adjustment to be applicable only to interactional adjustment of younger, less experienced, self-initiated or organizationally-assigned expatriates occupying lower hierarchical positions (Clusters 1 and 4). Thus, only in these cases and not others the U-curve hypothesis (Adler, 1975; Garza-Guerrero, 1974; Gullahorn and Gullahorn, 1963; Lysgaard, 1955) was supported in our analysis. A possible explanation of why the honeymoon and the cultural shock stages could affect particularly the interactional adjustment of younger expatriates is their lower selectivity when it comes to socialization and interaction. As people get older they tend to become more selective and careful in their socialization seeking meaningful rather than numerous relationships (Carstensen, 1995). It can be that younger expatriates (in their 20s and 30s) are more inclined to socialize broadly striving to recreate an extensive network similar to the one they had in their home country. However, in this way, they are more prone to experience cultural misunderstanding and/or confrontation in relation to their interactional adjustment.

FIGURE 5.2
Theoretical approximations of adjustment trajectories



In other cases, we observed alternative trajectories. One of them was a logarithmic trajectory which represented general living adjustment of *Early career, Middle career* and *New Generation* expatriates (Clusters 1, 2 and 4), interactional adjustment of *Middle career* and *Senior* expatriates (Clusters 2 and 3), and work adjustment of *Early career* expatriates (Cluster 1). The logarithmic trajectory implies neither honeymoon nor cultural shock stages but depicts a gradual integration of an expatriate into the host country, especially visible during the first year of expatriation. Intuitively, it is understandable why this trajectory was the most common in our analysis as it depicts the adjustment process as consisting of two distinct phases: (*i*) a steeper, exponential curve representing an expatriate's accelerated learning about the basic and novel characteristics of his/her new environment and then (*ii*) a more gradual, linear adjustment / calibration of one's own attitudes and behavior to improve one's psychological comfort in the new environment. Importantly, it forcefully questions the key assumption of the U-curve hypothesis that cultural shock follows honeymoon. The logarithmic trajectory suggests that during the honeymoon stage expatriates learn sufficiently enough about their new environment to traverse the cultural shock stage and preserve the already achieved levels of adjustment gradually adjusting and calibrating them over time.

Another alternative trajectory identified in our analysis was a linear one which represents a stable, gradual and average adjustment. It characterized general living adjustment of *Senior* expatriates (Cluster 3) and work adjustment of expatriates in all clusters, more generally, with the exception of *Early career* (Clusters 2, 3 and 4). Again, defying the U-curve of adjustment, the linear trajectory potentially hints at the important role of experience in facilitating CCA and determining its nature (cf. Takeuchi *et al.*, 2005; Takeuchi and Chen, 2013). Our result, indicating that especially work adjustment tends to be linear, is expected considering that - among the three dimensions - the work adjustment is likely to be associated with the least radical adjustments in expatriates' attitudes and behavior. In support, Firth *et al.* (2014) have argued that work adjustment is a "sensemaking" process which tends to change gradually over time as a function of experiences accumulated during the assignment. Additionally, it is plausible that preserving their undisputed cultural idiosyncrasies, different units of an international organization within which organizationally-assigned expatriates are relocated to different locations around the world are still likely to at least some extent resemble each other in terms of their corporate cultures, processes, practices, structures, etc. Thus, adapting to a new work environment is likely to require gradual, incremental adjustments as compared to adjusting to a novel daily living and social context. It also means that, as our results indicate, work adjustment is not likely to pass through the honeymoon stage either as the novelty of each subsequent adjustment is likely to be limited.

Therefore, these results are interesting for two reasons. First, they highlight the importance of taking into account the multidimensionality of the CCA process and might explain why prior studies could have missed the sought U-curve trajectory. Diverging adjustments on different CCA dimensions might have simply cancelled each other out. Second, as the original U-curve hypothesis was formulated by Lysgaard (1955) who examined students, the dimension of work adjustment was not very prominent for that population of respondents. In this sense, our result – or the absence of the U-curve – does not directly invalidate the U-curve hypothesis but only suggests that specific theories need to be developed for each dimension of cross-cultural adjustment separately.

Based on our analysis and the above discussion, we put forward the following propositions:

> ***Proposition 1***: Different dimensions of CCA follow different trajectories of development over time.
>
> ***Proposition 1a***: Interactional adjustment is more likely to follow a U-curve or a logarithmic trajectory of development over time.
>
> ***Proposition 1b***: General living adjustment is more likely to follow a logarithmic trajectory of development over time.
>
> ***Proposition 1c***: Work-related adjustment is more likely to follow a linear trajectory of development over time.

In relation to the *contingency* argument, our results, in general, tend to suggest more stable and linear patterns of adjustment for *Middle career* and *Senior* expatriates in comparison to their younger and less experienced colleagues at lower hierarchical positions. Thus, our analysis emphasizes the important role of age, experience and position in influencing expatriates' CCA over time. To provide possible explanations for these findings, we offer several arguments.

First, the literature on lifespan development psychology posits that individuals' emotions, motivations and attitudes tend to develop and change throughout their lifespan (Carstensen, 1995; Carstensen *et al.*, 1999). It demonstrates that with age individuals become better at controlling and adjusting their emotional reactions and experiences in response to different challenging life situations (Löckenhoff and Carstensen, 2004). This helps them to avoid depression, anxiety, emotional overreaction and stress more effectively than younger people (Carstensen *et al.*, 1999; 2000). Age is also associated with greater flexibility in coping with new life events leading to older people's more complex and adaptive emotional responses (Diehl *et al.*, 1996) and more harmonious and stable emotional traits (e.g. Mirowsky and Ross, 1992). Altogether, this makes older people better prepared to manage different unpredictable and difficult life situations (Carstensen *et al.*, 2000). Applied to expatriates, this literature implies that older expatriates are likely to experience CCA as a more linear and gradual process.

Second, to explicate how previous experience affects the CCA process, we turn to Adler (1975), who claims that experiencing a cultural shock once is likely to make an expatriate more culturally-independent more generally, that is, "*capable of undergoing further transitions in life along new dimensions and of finding new ways to explore the diversity of human being*" and "*fully able to accept and draw nourishment from cultural differences and similarities*" (p. 18). Adler (1975) thus perceives cultural shock as a positive experience, as an experience of intercultural learning and growth needed to develop one's self and cultural awareness. Such experience is also likely to facilitate more gradual and linear CCA during subsequent assignment/relocations.

Finally, it was pointed out that expatriates' role clarity and role discretion are conducive to expatriates' CCA facilitating work adjustment but also minimizing non-work-related difficulties (Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005; Black and Gregersen, 1991). As such, uncertainty associated with unclear assignment objectives, tasks, goals and role requirements were argued to represent some of the strongest stressors for expatriates on assignment (see Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al.*, 2005). At the same time, Shaffer *et al.* (1999) suggested that because expatriates at top-level hierarchical positions are likely to engage in more conceptual and strategic decision making activities and receive more extensive organizational support from their home organizations, their role clarity and role discretion are likely to be higher than that of expatriates at lower level positions. Hierarchically higher-level expatriates are also likely to possess more extensive network within their organizations in terms of its size and density as well as higher status within this network. These features were shown to facilitate organizational knowledge, task mastery, and role clarity (Morrison, 2002). Hence, it can be argued that higher-level expatriates are more likely than their lower-level colleagues to experience the CCA process as being more linear and gradual.

Based on these insights, it is not surprising that in our sample younger and less experienced expatriates at lower hierarchical positions exhibit more non-linear trajectories of adjustment, such as the U-curve and logarithmic trajectories, whereas their older and more experienced counterparts at higher hierarchical positions adjust, in general, more gradually. With their more extensive experiential learning, the latter are more capable to go through adjustment challenges more effectively and gradually. Ultimately, this affords them to experience less psychological discomfort during their CCA.

Based on our analysis and the above discussion, we put forward also the following propositions:

> ***Proposition 2***: The trajectories of development over time for different dimensions of CCA are contingent on expatriates' characteristics, such as age, expatriation experience, hierarchical position, and expatriation type.
>
> ***Proposition 2a***: The adjustment process of younger and less experienced (both organizationally-assigned and self-initiated) expatriates at lower hierarchical positions is likely to follow a U-curve or a logarithmic, but not a linear, trajectory of development over time.
>
> ***Proposition 2b***: The adjustment process of more senior and experienced organizationally-assigned expatriates occupying higher hierarchical positions is likely to follow a linear or a logarithmic, but not a U-curve, trajectory of development over time.

CONCLUSION

In this study, we have empirically explored and tentatively verified the *temporal*, *multidimensionality* and *contingent* nature of the CCA process over time. We have identified three possible trajectories of adjustment, namely the classic U-curve, a logarithmic curve, and a linear one. Moreover, the analysis has explicated the characteristics, such as age, previous experience, hierarchical position and expatriation type as important in determining how the CCA process develops over time. Finally, we showed that different dimensions of CCA develop asynchronously over time. Based on our analysis, we put forth a number of theoretical propositions that point towards potential avenues for future research to deepen our understanding of the CCA process and its development over time.

The *temporal, multidimensional* and *contingent* nature of CCA, which we illustrated and investigated with our analysis, has important implications for international HRM practitioners. It underscores the need to embrace the temporal and contingent nature of the adjustment as it is experienced by different types of expatriates. Knowing how expatriates are likely to experience the process, organizations can then act to influence and facilitate these experiences in order to avoid undesirable consequences for both the expatriates and the organizations themselves. Understanding how different expatriates' characteristics influence their CCA over time is crucial for organizations to develop and offer effective personalized pre-departure and post-arrival support programs.

Our research is not without limitations. Like many others before us, we used a cross-sectional analysis despite of the recommendations detailed in the literature (Church, 1982; Ward, 2001). However, our main objective was to describe and compare the adjustment process of different expatriates across the initial four years of their relocation abroad. Considering the objective, the cross-sectional design was suitable and informative. The fact that we were able to identify interpretable trends in our data despite of the data aggregation indicates the need to examine the process of adjustment over time among more specific and well-defined groups of expatriates. Also it has to be noted that our cluster analysis led to one unique cluster mostly composed of SIEs. Yet, the literature has shown that the population of SIEs was diverse (Doherty, 2011; Suutari and Brewster, 2000). This could perhaps reveal a bias inherent in our data potentially due the data collection and potential non-response bias. An alternative explanation could be that because the population of SIEs is indeed heterogeneous, the procedure failed to identify sufficiently distinct profiles of SIEs within this population. More research dedicated to the process of adjustment of SIEs in particular is needed.

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ESSAY 6 – "LIFE IS ELSEWHERE": A LONGITUDINAL DIARY STUDY OF FEMALE SELF-INITIATED EXPATRIATES' CROSS-CULTURAL ADJUSTMENT

INTRODUCTION

Research on expatriation has been relatively gender-specific, since, historically, the literature has focused on expatriates assigned by their company, who are primarily male (Adler, 1984; Altman and Shortland, 2008; Berry and Bell, 2012; Caligiuri and Cascio, 1998; Kollinger, 2005). However, there is burgeoning interest in other forms of expatriation, including self-initiated expatriates (SIEs). SIEs, individuals who move abroad for work without the sponsorship of a specific organization (Doherty, 2011), are more numerous than corporate expatriates (e.g., Jokinen *et al*., 2008; Nolan and Morley, 2014), form a more gender-balanced population (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Tharenou, 2010; Thorn, 2009) and so offer new opportunities to study a large population of working women, relatively independently from men, detached from a masculinized managerial discourse (Ahl and Marlow, 2012; Bendl, 2008).

Expatriation success has often been studied in terms of cross-cultural adjustment (e.g., Shaffer *et al*., 1999; Zimmermann *et al*., 2003), that is, the degree of psychological comfort with various aspects of a host country (Black, 1988). A large amount of research has been conducted on expatriates' adjustment (see e.g., Bhaskar-Shrinivas *et al*., 2005; Lazarova *et al*., 2010 for a review), yet two very visible gaps remain.

First, relatively little is known about adjustment in the particular case of SIEs (Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013), and even less in the case of female SIEs. Research has shown that SIEs experience different levels of adjustment (e.g., Begley *et al*., 2008; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009), possibly explained by their varying motives (e.g., Doherty *et al*., 2011). However, no empirical studies have been conducted on the adjustment of female SIEs, even though scholars have suggested that SIEs include more women than other categories of expatriate (Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Thorn, 2009) and that female expatriates are more likely to be successful on international assignments (e.g., Caligiuri and Tung, 1999; Taylor and Napier, 1996) and tend to have higher adjustment levels than their male counterparts (e.g., Haslberger, 2010; Selmer and Leung, 2003).

Second, expatriate adjustment is a process that evolves over time (Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Firth *et al*., 2014; Hippler *et al*., 2015). Although research in adjustment has been fairly prolific over the last few decades, the temporal dynamic of adjustment is still poorly understood (Hippler *et al*., 2015). Relatively little empirical attention has been paid to the process of adjustment over time and what scant empirical evidence there is remains largely anecdotal. From the few studies available (e.g., Selmer, 1999; Ward and Searle, 1991; Ward *et al*., 1998), those focused on women cover either expatriates' spouses (Bikos *et al*., 2007; De Cieri *et al*., 1991) or on the case of a female assigned expatriate (Friedman *et al*., 2009); none deals specifically with female expatriates who initiated their moves abroad.

This study addresses both these two major gaps in current research into self-initiated expatriation and, using a gendered lens, attempts to shed some light on the motives and process of adjustment of female SIEs over time. Taking a creative design, we explore in depth a number of blogs written by female SIEs in which they share their observations and feelings related to their move to a new culture. This everyday material allows us to make a rich analysis of their motives and the process of adjustment over time experienced by this specific and growing expatriate population. From one of these blogs, we borrow a Rimbaudian conceit to interpret the findings[28].

Our key findings show that the U-curve of adjustment (e.g. Adler, 1975; Lysgaard, 1955; Oberg, 1960), with a strong experience of culture shock at around three months, seems to represent the trajectory of female SIEs over time. An initial period of shock is also revealed, yet this appears to be more emotionally based and culturally disconnected. Reflecting the "escapers" profile found in the expatriation literature (Inkson *et al*., 1996), our findings show that the notion of career is completely absent from these women's blog posts, their motives for departure, and throughout the temporal process of adjustment; however, it is replaced by feminist and existentialist reflection.

[28] Arthur Rimbaud was a 19th-century French poet whose life and work have come to symbolize a nomadic lifestyle and search for freedom.

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Specificities of SIEs

SIEs are defined as skilled individuals who self-initiate their temporary relocation in another country, for a period of time, in order to find regular employment (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014). However, this initiative is not always career-related. Scholars have shown that the careers of SIEs are different from those of corporate expatriates (e.g., Biemann and Andresen, 2010); SIEs are not as career-oriented as their assigned counterparts (Inkson *et al*., 1997), and place a higher value on cultural experience, the opportunity to learn, and personal development (Inkson *et al*., 1997). SIEs are more likely to look for opportunities for exploration or escape from their current condition (Inkson *et al*., 1996; Inkson and Myers, 2003) than to think in terms of career rewards linked to the experience abroad. Barry (1998) further proposed a typology of motivations to self-initiate a move abroad and suggested three profiles: 'goal-seeker' (driven by specific career objectives); 'explorer' (driven by the desire to see the world); and 'escaper' (driven by the need to escape a personal or professional situation).

Expatriation initiation seems to have implications on the main outcomes of the experience, as differences in levels of adjustment between assigned expatriates (AEs) and SIEs have been found in the literature (e.g., Begley *et al*., 2008; Froese and Peltokorpi, 2013; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009; von Borell de Araujo *et al*., 2014). For instance, Peltokorpi and Froese (2009) found that SIEs working in Japan were all-round better adjusted than their assigned counterparts, perhaps because they were more heavily implicated in the decision to move, invested more in the process, and had a better understanding of the host country. Recent literature tends to show that SIEs have on average a higher level of interactive adjustment than AEs (Biemann and Andresen 2010; Froese and Peltokorpi 2011, 2013; Peltokorpi and Froese, 2009) but little attention has been paid to gender implications.

SIEs and gender

The SIE population is largely heterogeneous (Doherty, 2011; Suutari and Brewster, 2000) and a better understanding of these variations is necessary to capture fully the different career paths or adjustment processes of SIEs. Thorn (2009) has suggested that motivations to move abroad could vary significantly with gender and some recent research has attempted to understand the influence of gender on expatriate experiences (e.g., Berry and Bell, 2012; Selmer and Lauring, 2011; Tharenou, 2010).

Following calls for a better understanding of the gendered interpretation of international mobility (Doherty, 2011), more attention is being devoted to female SIEs but there is still much to uncover (Andresen *et al*. 2015). Historically, men have made up the majority of AEs (Adler, 1986) and as a result the conceptualization of expatriates has always been predominately male (Altman and Shortland, 2008; Berry and Bell, 2012). While female expatriates somehow remain outsiders (Berry and Bell, 2012), the population of SIEs appears to be more gender-balanced (Tharenou, 2010). Andresen *et al*. (2015) explain that women are more likely to self-initiate expatriation than men, and are more likely to be SIEs than AEs. Because there are more SIEs than AEs (Doherty *et al*., 2011; Lin *et al*., 2012; Nolan and Morley, 2014) and because SIEs appear to be less male-dominated (e.g., Inkson *et al*., 1997; Suutari and Brewster, 2000; Thorn, 2009), studying this population provides an interesting opportunity to understand the motives and process of adjustment over time of female SIEs, relatively independently of their male counterparts.

The literature has already shown substantial differences between male and female SIEs with possible implications for their adjustment process. For instance, female SIEs seem to choose less risky environments with more job opportunities (Myers and Pringle, 2005). Despite being highly educated, SIEs differ from AEs in that the roles and positions they occupy in the host country are less directly comparable and challenging than those they had in their home countries (Doherty, 2011; Suutari and Brewster 2000). The also literature suggests that personal relationships and family considerations are more likely to influence women's decisions to move than men's (Myers and Pringle, 2005; Richardson, 2006). Tharenou (2008) added that women were more likely to relocate to support their partner's career than their own career.

Considering time, although some studies (Bikos *et al*., 2007; De Cieri *et al*., 1991) focus on the trajectory of female adjustment, discretely from male adjustment, they also take the particular case of expatriates' spouses. However, we believe, as Andresen *et al*. (2015) suggested, that trailing spouses are a distinct group of SIEs; in this study we focus exclusively on female SIEs who themselves took the initiative to move. To the best of our knowledge, only one article reports a detailed study of the trajectory of adjustment over time of an expatriate woman (Friedman *et al*., 2009) through an autoethnography of the first author, who was an AEs. None of the publications cited here specifically treats the case of SIEs.

METHODS

Research setting

Given the absence of empirical work that explores the motives and adjustment trajectory of female SIEs, we followed the call of Hipper et al. (2015) and conducted a qualitative diary study. Diaries are a rich source of daily life data (Corti, 1993; Juhasz, 1980; Toms and Duff, 2002) that allow the researcher to apprehend an 'ever-changing present' (Elliott, 1997: 3) in a future not too distant from the experience itself (Toms and Duff, 2002). This method therefore allows a longitudinal perspective without the risk of distortion caused by impaired memory or retrospective reconstruction, which are likely to occur with other techniques (Verbrugge, 1980), such as interviews, life histories, or retrospective accounts. In the field of work psychology, diary methods have been used to examine a variety of dynamic relationships (Van Eerde *et al.*, 2005). Yet, this technique has attracted little attention (e.g., Day and Thatcher, 2009; Jones and Woolley, 2015).

A diary is defined by three elements (Alaszewski, 2006): It refers to the personal record of emotional events (1), with regular diary entries (2), using short-term memory and reduce the risk of retrospective bias (3, McLaren and Solomon, 2010). Following this definition, blogs, or online diaries, can be treated as an extension of diary research (Hookway, 2008). Blogs are a form of low-tech, instant text/image publishing with chronological archives that allow easy and regular updates and comments from readers (Schmidt, 2007). Blogs present naturalistic data in textual form and offer the advantage of access to spontaneous and unsolicited personal diaries (Hookway, 2008). Moreover, archived blogs provide an excellent opportunity to analyze processes over time, potentially on a day-to-day basis (Hookway, 2008). Blogs can be viewed from Goffman's perspective (1959), where the content underlines the drama of daily situations or interactions. The chronological structure and personal and intimate content recall addictive elements of soap opera (Serfarty, 2004).

Data collection and selection

We used the platform Tumblr.com to find blogs and collect their content. Tumblr is a microblogging platform that in 2014 hosted over 250 million blogs and more than 121.2

billion posts,[29] making it currently the most popular platform on the Internet. We looked for all blogs using the word expat* (e.g., 'expatlife,' 'expatriates,' 'expat,' etc.) as a hashtag (#), in the name of their blog, or in the text of a post. We examined the relevance of the blogs we found, knowing that the keyword 'expatlife' is often misused by young travelers, for example, those taking time out between school and university, or during university holidays, to travel abroad (e.g., gap year).

We restricted our initial selection on the basis of definitional criteria. The blogs had to be written by (1) women who (2) had taken the initiative to move abroad to work, independent of an employer (Jokinen *et al.*, 2008), and who (3) were seeking regular, temporary employment in another country[30] (Cerdin and Selmer, 2014). We subsequently selected only those blogs that had sufficient usable content. We restricted our sample to blogs with some further text to analyze, disregarding many passive blogs, that is those displaying mostly or exclusively pictures and with no description or keywords. We also restricted our selection to blogs of sufficient longevity (at least six months in the host country), excluding many blogs whose content ended early on (after one or two months) and recent expatriates' blogs (less than six months in the host country), which did not allow us to capture the temporal dimension of adjustment. We excluded the trailing spouses in the selection process, as they were judged to be a too-specific population (Andresen *et al.*, 2015).

Our final sample contained 11 blogs. The bloggers were young single female SIEs living and working in a foreign country for more than six months. They were aged between 24 and 33 and had moved from developed home countries (e.g., the US, Singapore) to a variety of host countries (e.g., France, Egypt, Korea, Australia). All had been working before leaving their home country. All except one had found a job in the host country before departure, although many had taken jobs unrelated to their previous position in their home country (e.g., moving from the music industry into teaching). The nature of the move reflected the serendipity described by Inkson and Myers (2003) as the experiences of the women in our sample had more to do with chance than planning.

Data analysis

The analysis aimed to understand the meaning of events given by these female SIEs and is thus grounded in the interpretive tradition (Romani, et al., 2011, p. 4). To do so, we

[29] Tumblr./About us

[30] Excluding migrants and travelers.

analyzed the data in two consecutive stages. First, we noted carefully the dates of every post and determined the blogger's departure date from the profile information or the content of the blog itself. Some bloggers started their diary a few weeks before moving to the host country, providing more information about the context of departure and the blogger's real-time state of mind. From the departure date, we calculated the duration of the expatriation in order to identify potential patterns of adjustment over time. To evaluate potential trajectories, we sorted the data to build a database in chronological order, as a function of the departure date. After sorting the data, we analyzed the total content systematically and thematically.

We subsequently summarized all posts in document form and tracked key concepts as they emerged. Thus, our coding grid classified the posts and distinguished personal texts written by the blogger, quotes from influential figures, personal images or videos taken by the bloggers, and humorous images from other users. Pictures or images without any comments were omitted from the analysis as we judged the risk of over-interpretation too high. We identified four relevant issues that we explore in depth in the following section: motives, downsides, identity, and meaning.

FINDINGS

The content of blogs, like diaries, reflects bloggers' whereabouts and thoughts or feelings about what happens during the day. As such, they can deal with anything and everything (integration, work, romance, friends, differences between home and host countries, food, etc.), enabling us to consider several dimensions of adjustment. Our analysis of the blogs revealed the four themes that make up the story and meaning of their journey for our sample of female SIEs.

Motives: "True life is elsewhere"[31]

The diaries revealed hints about the reasons why these women moved abroad on their own initiative. They all had something in common, either dissatisfaction, or a lack of well-being or happiness in their former life. The posts are infused with the need for change, for a fresh start, and this change had be so deep that it could only come from moving: '*I needed to get out. I needed to take a step back from my insane spending habit, and re-evaluate exactly what's important to me and what's not.'* (L4).

[31] "*La vraie vie est ailleurs,*" Arthur Rimbaud, *Une Saison en Enfer* (1874).

Dissatisfaction involved both work and personal relationships. In most cases, the move followed a divorce or the end of a long-term relationship. Although these were not the main motivations for leaving, they seem to trigger the first step in the process of moving abroad: *'And also, strange to think that a year ago at this exact time, I was in the beginning stages of truly realizing that I was underappreciated at work and my relationship with my boyfriend of two years was unraveling right before my eyes. I knew that there was going to be a big change in my life—and that I needed one—but I had no idea what I was going to do*.' (L3)

Traveling as a response to such unhappiness is very different from travel for its own sake; it reflects the profile of an 'escaper' (Barry, 1998). Moreover, the notion of career is totally absent from the diaries we analyzed. At no point is the move abroad mentioned as a strategic step on a career path; neither is job content—all but one woman had a job lined up before leaving—presented as a potential source of improvement compared to the women's former occupations. In fact, the act of traveling itself has no cultural dimension. Although all the moves analyzed involved cultural distances, from one continent to another, the country, its culture, or any specific feature of it was never given as a reason for expatriation. Indeed, traveling seems to have a more romantic meaning (*'Life is elsewhere'!* [L2]), in that our bloggers see it as a way to save themselves from depression, work-addiction, or emptiness. In fact, they could have been going anywhere, as long as it was somewhere else: *'We travel not to escape life but for life not to escape us.'* (L1); *'I was saving my life.'* (L10).

Downsides: "I shed more tears than God could ever have required"[32]

Our analysis shows that there are serial crises that affect our bloggers. An initial crisis is very visible in the posts and, like the original motivation to depart, it is relatively disconnected from the cultural aspect of expatriation. This crisis occurs very quickly, during the first days following arrival or the first days at work, and relates to the meaning of the experience as a whole, evoking feelings of doubt, confusion, fear (even terror), sacrifice, discomfort, and loss: *'I am sitting on a bench, watching people walking. I'm thinking about all the things that I left behind. For this. Was it really worth it?'* (L10); *'What the hell was that all about? I just left everything for THAT?*' (L3). We call this type of crisis *emotional*

[32] "*Je versai plus de larmes que Dieu n'en a pu jamais demander*," Arthur Rimbaud, *Les Deserts de l'Amour* (1886). This poem is about the distress associated with loss.

shock. It is a particularly interesting stage that may be specific to young female SIEs. We will return to it later in this paper.

Among numerous difficulties affecting our expatriate bloggers, the language barrier is an almost immediate frustration, especially the lack of nuance that the women are used to employing in their mother tongue. This barrier can reduce individuals to very primitive modes of communication; exchanges appear as a form of violence and they are negatively affected by their incapacity to understand and be understood: *'Some language barriers have been frustrating. I was asking one of my co-teachers how I needed to structure my lessons and what my expectations were going to be and she kept not understanding what I was trying to say. […] I knew it wasn't a big enough deal to start crying about it, but I remember trying to do everything I could to not shed tears.'* (L3).

After more or less a month, the descriptions of differences stop being factual and become more personal and emotionally charged. One interesting aspect is that these differences have been described earlier, in a sort of observation phase, during the first days or weeks, but now become annoying due to repetition or accumulation. After a few weeks, notions like frustration, survival, '*feeling vile*' or '*doing harm*' infuse the posts. They demonstrate the beginning of culture shock, expressed as feelings of hostility or alienation (Oberg, 1960).

But the deep of culture shock seems to hit the expatriates at around three or four months struck by the convergence of unhappiness on several dimensions at the same time. After the first few weeks, the expatriate's departure seems less extraordinary and the lives of family and friends get back to normal in the home country. As a consequence, distant social support starts to weaken. Meanwhile, routine at work and in the home starts to be established and can become difficult or frustrating. The accumulated weight of differences or misunderstandings seems to deplete the expatriate's limited resources until she reaches a critical state of deep melancholy, unhappiness, or anger. The blogs describe stressful experiences, mourning periods, homesickness, and feelings of loss for things left behind in the home country: family and friends (e.g., after seeing pictures of significant events in their friends' lives that they were not part of); music (e.g., listening to songs in their mother tongue); food; or customs. These reactions add up to a culture shock crisis (Garza-Guerrero, 1974); the new cultural environment, added to the feeling of loss of the home culture, may challenge the expatriate's identity: *'And suddenly, the veil falls. All the differences heat me,* *push me, shake me. Everything makes me feel so upset'* (L7); *'I cried in front of my students today (not tears of joy). […] I couldn't say a word. I was so frustrated. I felt tears welling up in my eyes and then all of a sudden—my face started flooding. […] I could feel my blood pulsating the same way it did when I worked at home. It was the worst feeling in the world'* (L3).

Identity: "I is another"[33]

Adler (1975) defined the process of adjustment as a transitional experience. At the end of the process, the individual reaches a stage of 'independence,' or 'unfolding of the self.' Not a culmination, this stage is more a continuum of the progressive growth that begins when facing a new cultural environment. Through expatriation, the individual experiences new dimensions of existence. This process of personal growth seems to find an echo in the bloggers' self-reflection. They begin to question their identity and how it is constructed relatively early in the process of expatriation, possibly before departure. Identity is about how we build ourselves in relation to others, in a specific environment: *'After my degree, I worked and got enough money to be comfortable, to be a decent hipster. I created my routine in which I integrated my friends, my secret restaurants, my independent clothing stores, my late nights in huge bookstores. Do I only know who I am without this?'* (L4).

But it is also about time—the time for herself that the expatriate is more likely to find after arrival in the host country, when her interactive ties and professional duties are not (yet) as strong as those in her home country. Free from her former environment and the systems associated with it, the expatriate has to live with herself. Because of the specific case of self-initiation, where the expatriate has no organizational support but does have the impulse to move, the individual is more likely to look for meaning in the international experience and so reflect on her past and changing self. Through the diaries, the bloggers express the idea of 'moving on,' 'growing,' 'changing,' or 'finding myself,' but this personal growth is presented as the consequence of the act of moving abroad, of 'leaving': *'Leaving is a necessity. Being alone may be the only way to find yourself, truly, completely'* (L8); *'There comes a day when you realize turning the page is the best feeling in the world, because you realize there is so much more to the book than the page you were stuck on'* (L3).

[33] "*Je est un autre,*" Arthur Rimbaud, letter to Paul Demeny, May 15, 1871. The disruptive grammar of this formulation expresses the sense of feeling different from what we thought we were.

Adler (1975: 20) maintains that the experience seems to 'give rise to a heightened sense of self.' Pedersen (1995) also argues that, despite its difficulties, international experience initiates an introspective journey and helps individual growth. Through this process, expatriates seem to change more than just their environment. A deeper change, which will potentially lead to a very different trajectory from the one initially planned, slowly takes place: *'I don't know where I'm going but I'm on my way—Carl Sandburg.'* (L1); *'I thought I was good at making decisions, making plans. I never doubted about anything. Today I am so free, I am almost paralyzed.'* (L11).

Meaning: "Of my tattered shoes, a foot pressed to my heart"[34]

Linked to personal growth and a sense of self, but quite independent from the cultural aspect, sense-making of the self-initiated expatriation experience emerged as a prominent theme in our in-depth analysis of the diaries. The main idea emerging from bloggers' posts during the adjustment process is the wish to give meaning to their ongoing adventure, to explain and justify their decision (mostly to themselves) to choose another path: *'It's better to look back on life and say, "I can't believe I did that," than to look back and say, "I wish I did that"—Ash Sweeney'* (L1). This suggests a latent feminist interpretation of the act of moving abroad as an alternative to settling down or maintaining a mainstream, less adventurous existence. All the women bloggers we studied are around 30 years old, which is a critical age for women's life and career expectations (Acker, 2006; Sabelis and Schilling, 2013). There is a general social expectation, observed internationally, that women of that age should be making motherhood their short- or mid-term priority. A self-initiated move to a new cultural environment, with a new job, starting from scratch, postpones this anticipated future. While opting out of having children is socially acceptable (Gorman and Fritzsche, 2002), it seems less acceptable to leave a "good" job in response to a need to find meaning (Kossek *et al*., 2010). The blogs also show the time pressures on women's lives and career pathways and reflect expectations about the role and position of women: *'I am at that mark now, and time is of the essence. I'm not ashamed of my age—I'm so proud of it. I don't feel like I'm a 'failure' because I'm not married or anything. I have never defined my happiness or self-worth by a man, and I never plan to. My clock isn't ticking either—so run and tell THAT homeboy!'* (L3).

[34] "*De mes souliers blessés, un pied près de mon coeur!*" Arthur Rimbaud, *Ma Bohème* (1889). This poem is about the link between traveling and true identity.

This social and time pressure appears to be quite violent and depressive and comes from locals as well as friends or family in the home country. The response of the bloggers is a form of emotional riot, claiming the right to make different life choices (e.g., '*You are confined only by the walls you build yourself—Andrew Murphy'* [L5]), and the right to try to take control of their life rather than counting on chance (e.g., '*Don't settle!*'; '*If you're not on the right path, get off it— Chris Brogan'* [L8]). The bloggers reveal some hostility toward this social pressure and use passionate quotes to defend themselves: *'You live like this, sheltered, in a delicate world, and you believe you are living. Then you read a book… or you take a trip… and you discover that you are not living, that you are hibernating. […] Monotony, boredom, death. Millions live like this (or die like this) without knowing it. They work in offices. They drive a car. They picnic with their families. They raise children. And then some shock treatment takes place, a person, a book, a song, and it awakens them and saves them from death. Some never awaken.—Anais Nin.'* (L1). This type of sense-making is a new element that is not developed in the literature on self-initiated expatriation. A feminist perspective raises new questions about female SIEs, which we discuss next.

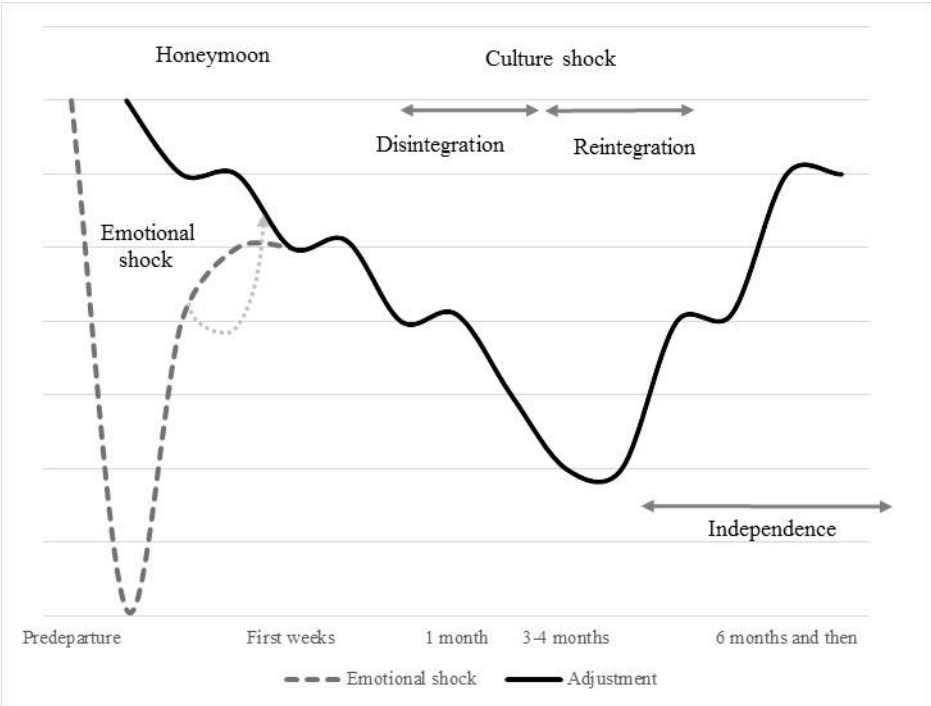
DISCUSSION

In the expatriation literature, adjustment, as a process over time, has usually been represented as a U-curve (e.g., Black and Mendenhall, 1991; Lysgaard, 1955) depicting a honeymoon phase followed by a crisis, and subsequent adjustment to the new culture. Our key findings show that despite numerous critiques (e.g. Church, 1982; Furnham and Bochner, 1986; Ward *et al*., 2001), the U-curve hypothesis (e.g., Lysgaard, 1955) is indeed a fair representation of the trajectory of female SIEs. Moreover, since the literature has been rather vague when it comes to evaluating the duration of the different stages of adjustment over time, our analysis brings some insights to the particular case of female SIEs.

We found that a period of enhanced well-being, interpreted as a honeymoon period (e.g., Oberg, 1960) occurs during the first weeks in the host country, with the first hints of emotional shock at around one month, followed by a clear drop in well-being at around three to four months, which can be interpreted as a more profound culture shock (Figure 6.1). This is similar to Adler's (1975) transitional experience, in which the sojourner goes through two different phases: 'disintegration' (frustration as the individual's existing cultural understanding becomes irrelevant) and 'reintegration' (strong rejection of the host culture). In our sample, a period of recovery and adjustment emerges after about six months in the host country. We did not directly observe Adler's (1975) final stage, 'independence,' where the expatriate is fully able to accept the cultural differences between home and host countries. It is likely that this stage takes longer than the duration of our observation, that is, more than a year.

FIGURE 6.1

Representation of the process of adjustment over time



These thresholds are approximate and we do not intend them to be predictive. In fact, it seems that culture shock really begins when the expatriate starts regular work and establishes a stable weekly routine. The honeymoon period is relatively artificial in the very beginning as she discovers the country and the neighborhood, solves logistical issues (e.g., accommodation, furniture, transport), and begins a process of integration at work (e.g., introduction/training weeks with other expatriates and some locals). Before work begins, routine is not fully established; once this happens, repetition tends to increase her perception of the true weight of differences.

Although its composition and measurement (e.g., Stahl and Caligiuri 2005; Haslberger *et al*., 2013) are widely debated, adjustment to a new cultural environment has been established as a multidimensional concept (e.g., Black *et al*., 1991) and traditionally defined by three facets: general adjustment (e.g., food), interactive adjustment (e.g., relations with locals), and work adjustment (e.g., job responsibilities).

However, it would be quite difficult to express our findings in terms of these three dimensions of cross-cultural adjustment. General adjustment, often associated with psychological adjustment (Peltokorpi and Froese, 2012), does not really capture the emotional or existential shock we observed, and which is not necessarily culture-related. In fact, because the main purpose of writing a diary is to record personal experiences and observations, this emotional dimension is more documented in our sample than the three common dimensions Black and Stephens (1989) describe. There are, for instance, very few references to social interaction. Those that are mentioned are vague or generalized (e.g., 'colleagues,' 'local friends,' 'other expatriates,' 'students') and relate mainly to factual information used to make sense of a more self-centered reflection. Also, the few references to jobs or work tasks give no details of the level of adjustment or satisfaction related to them.

Pedersen (1995) and more recently Hippler *et al.* (2015) argued plausibly that the different dimensions of adjustment do not follow synchronized trajectories. In our study, we found that the real crisis appears as a result of accumulated frustration, discomfort, misunderstanding, loneliness, and basic cultural differences, coupled with existential preoccupations. The context in which the crisis occurs is not necessarily related to the causes of the crisis and does not necessarily express problems of adjustment in that context. For example, crying at work in front of students reveals something deeper than lack of fit at work. Therefore, it seems that the personal dimension is sufficient to weaken the whole process of adjustment, at all the levels identified by Black and Stephens (1989).

Prior research (e.g., Barry, 1998) argued that there are three types of expatriate, identified according to their motives ('goal-seeker,' 'explorer,' and 'escaper'). We believe that these are descriptions of dominant motivations rather than categories of individual. In our study, we were surprised to find that the concept of career was completely absent from the diaries. The initiative to move was prompted by the need to escape an everyday life that was becoming overwhelming, even unbearable. Destination was not a key element of the journey. As one blog reveals in a telling quote, destination is more a romantic aspiration than a career objective, and represents the search for life, happiness, and the self: '*Life is elsewhere—Rimbaud.*'

Bloggers never refer to the potential usefulness of their international experience, or to a plan to seize professional opportunities once they return, not least because very few mention any intention to come back home. However, they do not necessarily intend to settle in the host country, either. Rather, it seems that once they leave the home country and break with their routines and comforts, they find few reasons to return. They transcend the dual perspective of staying at home versus going somewhere else. Their self-initiated expatriation gives them a form a personal, social, and professional freedom that opens to them an infinite range of futures and possibilities: ‘*I’m really starting to think that I have no idea what I want in life. I’ve always had a plan, I’ve always been on a set path, but for the first time in my life, I have none of those*’ (L3).

If not careerist, these young women’s motives for voluntary expatriation can be interpreted from a feminist and existentialist perspective. Feminism and existentialism are umbrella terms that cover numerous schools of thought and debates that we do not intend to discuss here. However, the fundamental ideas of Sartre’s existentialism (1956) can help us understand and theorize the differences in terms of adjustment of young female SIEs over time. To do this, we focus on two concepts of special interest in Sartre’s philosophy: freedom and ‘bad faith’ or ‘self-deception’ (Kaufmann, 1956). First, individuals are fundamentally free to make choices and this freedom is the ‘foundation of all values’ (Sartre, 1946: 307). Second, individuals should not live in ‘bad faith,’ denying their freedom and the responsibilities associated with it. Rather, their behavior should be authentic and true whatever the circumstances, social pressures, and expectations of others.

Living in ‘bad faith,’ in the Sartrean sense, is evoked by one blogger’s account of being called to ‘awaken’ (quoted above). All the young women in our sample decided to begin something new and defy the pressures put on them by their family, partners, friends, co-workers, and society in general (Cooper, 1999: 177). They reached a point of dissatisfaction that forced them to rethink the futures they had started to build. All of them lived in a comfortable place to which they were attached. All of them had a stable job, appropriate to their level of education and former aspirations. It was noticeable that their decision to move was not an immature crisis, as some of those around them interpreted it (e.g., the refusal to call their decision to move ‘Peter Pan syndrome’—a denial of growing up). It was more a claim that they were under no obligation to settle down, find a steady job, have children, and do it ‘now.’ Any job, not necessarily related to their professional history, in any other cultural environment, away from most familiar landmarks, even at the risk of postponing unfulfilled social and professional expectations, would still represent more freedom and authenticity than their current situation. The expatriate bloggers simply demanded the right to be free to choose a different path, free to be more authentic.

There is something fundamentally feminist in this approach. Choosing freedom rather than responding to others' expectations is a brave act, considering the pressures related to gender roles. Simone de Beauvoir (1949) argued that women have been defined and differentiated as the 'Other' (the 'second sex') with reference to men, and that this differentiation starts with the body and childbearing. For de Beauvoir (1949), 'one is not born, but rather becomes, a woman.' Women play a role that has been defined by society, whatever country they come from, and do not easily have the freedom to be authentic. Simone de Beauvoir encouraged women 'to decline to be the Other' (1949), to exist 'for ourselves,' and transcend themselves to take control of their own future by means of creative projects (Donovan, 1985: 130). In our sample, the creative project was to choose the path of self-initiated expatriation and possibly disrupt or delay career expectations and motherhood.

Because the decision to move to another country becomes a personal and existential project, the difficulties of adjustment, even when anticipated, put a large amount of emotional pressure on the expatriate. This may explain why our analyses revealed an emotional shock during the first week of expatriation. Also, existentialism might be an explanation for why this population of expatriates in particular is more sensitive to culture shock. In fact, because their expatriation has no career motives, and because the new location is more an 'elsewhere," in the Rimbaudian sense, than a deliberate choice, these young women are not necessarily prepared for the cultural differences between their home and host countries. The culture shock may be a result of their relatively romantic motives, where expectations and aspirations are high and more likely to be unmet (Ilies and Judge, 2005; Lawrence *et al*., 2002).

Furthermore, ego depletion could also help explain why culture shock may be more likely or stronger for this category of expatriates (Baumeister *et al*., 1998). Ego depletion is the notion that self-control depends on a finite pool of mental resources (Hagger *et al*., 2010). Low mental energy implies poor self-control. As we explained earlier, existential motivation may put emotional pressure on the voluntary expatriate and require the orchestration of a large number of emotional resources, thus depleting the ego pool and the individual's self-regulation (e.g., perseverance in tough conditions). SIEs may find themselves having to deal with new situations and surroundings while in possession of a depleted sense of self-control, increasing their susceptibility to culture shock. This phenomenon can be coupled with the additional pressure of gender roles, for instance in masculine host countries (Hofstede, 2010). While you do not need to be a woman to be an existentialist, nor an SIE to experience gender role pressures, we believe that the cumulative effect of these multiple components increases the likelihood of culture shock.

To conclude, this study hopes to continue the conversation opened on the exit of women without children from successful positions and mainstream professional trajectories, and on the traditional separation between work and life (Wilhoit, 2014). Despite the large body of literature on work-life conflicts, the ‘life’ side has often been defined as spouse and children rather than personal fulfillment (Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005) and very little is known about the motivations of non-mothers to choose a different career pathway (Wilhoit, 2014). Prior research on gender and career patterns has often examined the differences between men and women (LaPointe, 2013). However, we have focused on the motives and adjustment of female SIEs independently from the male-dominated norm of traditional expatriation. As the existing literature (e.g., Ciulla, 2000) has concluded, work and career cannot be separated from meaning, and through these relocations, these female SIEs found a wider horizon of options, potentially more fulfilling than a predetermined career trajectory (Wilhoit, 2014). This brings to mind the concept of the kaleidoscope career (Mainiero and Sullivan, 2005), an image of the multidimensional and cyclical aspect of women’s life and career, with the complex interactions of three facets: authenticity, balance, and challenge.

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APPENDIX 1. ABBREVIATIONS

General

ABDC	Australian Business Deans Council
AEs	Assigned Expatriates
AIB	Academy of International Business
AoM	Academy of Management
AMJ	Academy of Management Journal
AMR	Academy of Management Review
CCA	Cross-Cultural Adjustment
EI	Emotional Intelligence
HR	Human Resources
HRM	Human Resources Management
IHRM	International Human Resources Management
JIBS	Journal of International Business Studies
JoM	Journal of Management
SIEs	Self-Initiated Expatriates

Statistics

AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
CMV	Common Method Variance
CFI	Comparative Fit Index
GFI	Goodness of Fit Index
MIMIC	Multiple Indicators/Multiple Causes
NFI	Normed Fit Index
RMSEA	Root Mean Square Error of Approximation
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
ULMC	Unmeasured Latent Method Construct
VIF	Variance Inflation Factors

APPENDIX 2. SCALE ITEMS

Cross-cultural adjustment

1. Living conditions in general; 2. Housing conditions; 3. Food; 4. Shopping; 5. Cost of living; 6. Entertainment/recreation facilities and opportunities; 7. Health care facilities; 8. Socializing with host nationals; 9. Interacting with host nationals on a day-to day basis; 10. Interacting with host nationals outside of work; 11. Speaking with host nationals; 12. Specific job responsibilities and expectations; 13. Performance standards and expectations; 14. Supervisory responsibilities.

Emotional intelligence

1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others; 2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them; 3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try; 4. Other people find it easy to confide in me; 5*. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people; 6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important; 7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities; 8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living; 9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them; 10. I expect good things to happen; 11. I like to share my emotions with others; 12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last; 13. I arrange events others enjoy; 14. I seek out activities that make me happy; 15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others; 16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others; 17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me; 18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the emotions people are experiencing; 19. I know why my emotions change; 20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with new ideas; 21. I have control over my emotions; 22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them; 23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to tasks I take on; 24. I compliment others when they have done something well; 25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send; 26. When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I have experienced this event myself; 27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up with new ideas; 28*. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because I believe I will fail; 29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them; 30. I help other

people feel better when they are down; 31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of obstacles; 32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone of their voice; 33*. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way they do. (*) reversed.

Career Anchors

1. I want to be so good at what I do that others will always seek my expert advice. 2. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to integrate the efforts of others toward a common task. 3. I dream of having a career that will allow me the freedom to do a job in my own way and on my own schedule. 4. I am always on the lookout for ideas that would permit me to start my own enterprise. 5. Security and stability are more important to me than freedom and autonomy. 6. I would rather leave my organization than be put into a job that would compromise my ability to pursue personal and family concern. 7. I will feel successful in my career only if I have the feeling of having made a real contribution to the welfare of society. 8. I dream of a career in which I will always have to challenge of solving ever-more difficult problems. 9. I will feel successful in my career only if I can develop my skills to an ever-increasing level of competence. 10. I dream of being in charge of a whole organization. 11. I am most fulfilled in my work when I am completely free to define my own tasks, schedules, and procedures. 12. I would not stay in an organization that would give me assignments that would jeopardize my job security. 13. Building a business of my own is more important to me than being a high level manager in someone else's organization. 14. I have felt most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to use my talents in the service of others. 15. I will feel successful in my career only if I have met and overcome increasingly difficult challenges. 16. I dream of a career that would permit me to integrate my personal, family, and work needs. 17. Becoming a senior functional or technical manager in my area of expertise is more attractive to me than becoming a general manager. 18. I will feel successful in my career only if I achieve complete autonomy and freedom to define my work. 19. I usually seek jobs in organizations that will give me a sense of stability and security. 20. I feel most fulfilled when I have been able to build something that is primarily the result of my own skills and efforts. 21. I will feel successful only if I become a high level general manager in some organizations. 22. Using my talents to make the world a better place to live is what drives my career decisions. 23. I have been most fulfilled in my career when I have been able to solve seemingly unsolvable problems or won out over seemingly impossible odds. 24. I feel successful in life only if I have been able to balance my personal, family, and career requirements. 25. I dream of a career that will allow me to feel a sense of stability and

security. 26. I would rather leave my organization than to accept a rotational assignment that would take me out of my area of expertise. 27. Balancing the demands of my personal and professional life is more important to me than a high-level managerial position. 28. I dream of being in a career that makes a real contribution to humanity and society. 29. I will feel successful in my career only if I have created an enterprise of my own based on my own ideas and skills. 30. Becoming a general manager is more attractive to me than becoming a senior functional manager in my area of expertise. 31. The chance to do a job in my own way, free of rules and constraints, is very important to me. 32. I prefer work opportunities that strongly challenge my problem-solving and competitive skills. 33. I dream of starting up and building my own business. 34. I would rather leave my organization than accept a position that would undermine my ability to be of service to others. 35. I am most fulfilled in my work when I have been able to use my special skills and talents. 36. I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would take me away from the path to general management. 37. I am most fulfilled in my work life when I feel that I have complete financial and employment security. 38. I would rather leave my organization than accept a job that would reduce my autonomy and freedom. 39. I have always sought out work opportunities that minimize interference with my personal and family concerns. 40. Working on problems that are difficult to solve is more important to me than achieving a high-level managerial position. 41. I dream of an international career in which I can travel and work with people from various cultures. 42. Working abroad is very attractive to me. 43. I will feel successful in my career only if I manage to work in an international environment. 44. I would rather leave my organization than accept an assignment which would exclude the possibility of international mobility. 45. I dream of having a career that will allow me to have international responsibilities.